

INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION FROM LEADERSHIP  
PERSPECTIVE: A CASE OF UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI

PhD Dissertation

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By

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### Study declaration

I declare that this dissertation is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for any degree. The content is the result of the approved research programme. I certify that material which is not my own has been recognised accordingly.

Noel Drake Kufaine

## Dedication

This journey of dissertation is dedicated to my daughter Rachael, and my son Mayamiko.

## Acknowledgements

I am indebted to many people who contributed in different ways to the success of this dissertation. Therefore, I feel obliged to convey my sincere gratitude to all who provided necessary support and encouragement to complete my studies.

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## Abstract

Internationalisation has turned into a mainstream activity in higher education, and has stimulated individual higher-education institutions and leadership into maintaining equilibrium between responding to higher education national needs and responding to international demands. Nevertheless, the common trend is that internationalisation is implemented differently in different context. Hence, it is argued that local context offers a description of internationalisation of higher education. The purpose of the study is to understand leadership perspectives of internationalisation of higher education as a phenomenon in a particular locale. The study used an interpretive paradigm which comprised concept analysis and a qualitative case study approach, with a purposefully selected single case of the University of Malawi as the unit of analysis. The study generated data through literature review, document analysis, and qualitative semi-structured face-to-face interviews administered to 7 leaders. The theory of planned behaviour provided a framework on which to analyse the internationalisation context, while the higher education leadership framework provided a lens for the leadership perspective. The meaning from the study was established by using a thematic analysis approach which encouraged the recognition of emerging and dominating themes as a focus for interpretation of the study. The study highlighted in detail the internationalisation context and the leadership perspective. The study revealed the diversity in definitions and strategies, showing not only the flexibility of the concept, but also the degree of disagreement between authors. The study revealed that internationalisation as a strategy is the sum of international activities which are executed in order to run higher education. The University of Malawi leadership recognises internationalisation as an apt source of capacity building and revenue. Hence further analysis revealed that, when budgetary commitment is low, there is greater emphasis on economic rationale for internationalisation as a source of support for financial-distress situations. The study revealed that there is no prescribed framework for implementing internationalisation, there being many factors and other social forces that promote internationalisation activities. Therefore, leadership of higher education requires knowledge and understanding, commitment, and clear purpose for higher education in order to inform the enactment of the internationalisation activities.

**Key Words:** Higher education, internationalisation, leadership, Malawi, University of Malawi.

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## Acronyms

AAC	Association of African Universities
ACU	Association of Commonwealth Universities
COM	College of Medicine
DHRMD	Department of Human Resources and Management Development
GDP	Growth Development per capita
KCN	Kamuzu College of Nursing
LUANAR	Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MGDS	Malawi Growth and Development Strategy
MGSF	Malawi Government Scholarship Fund
MOEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MTWC	Ministry of Tourism Wildlife and Culture
MZUNI	Mzuzu University
NCHE	National Council for Higher Education
NESP	National Education Sector Plan
NSO	National Statistics Office
PBC	Perceived Behaviour Control
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PIF	Policy and Investment Framework
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SANORD	Southern African-Nordic Centre
SARUA	Southern African Regional Universities Association
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reactive Action
UNIMA	University of Malawi
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas
WB	World Bank
WHO	World Health Organisation

# **INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION FROM LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE: A CASE OF UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI**

## **CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Introduction**

Chapter One of this dissertation is an introduction. The discussion centres on raising and justifying the research problems and describing the unit of analysis. The chapter is divided into eight sections which open with an introduction, thereafter the problem statement, followed by the context of the study. Next, the purpose of the study is given, together with the research questions and significance of the study, the study structure, and finally, a summary of the chapter.

Internationalisation has turned into a mainstream activity in higher education and has impacted higher education (Sehoole, 2008), stimulating individual higher-education institutions and leadership into maintaining equilibrium between responding to higher education national needs and meeting international demands. Internationalisation of higher education is defined as the variety of policies and programmes that universities and governments implement in response to globalisation (Altbach, 2012; Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009), implemented differently in different contexts. As broadly presented by Zeleza (2012), internationalisation views differ widely on the forces that drive internationalisation, the activities that constitute it, the competencies it promotes, the values it creates, the processes that sustain it, the respective roles of key constituencies within and outside the universities, and its effects on the core functions of the higher-education enterprise. Furthermore, Knight (2015) appended that the intention of internationalisation is not to become known, but to use the integration of international, intercultural, or global dimensions into the goals, functions, and delivery of education, as a means of improving or achieving academic objectives of the institution. Consequently, as pointed out by Guri-Rosenblit (2015), the internationalisation of higher education requires a significant shift in the operation of higher-education systems, including individual higher-education institutions. Hence, policy makers at the national level of higher education, as well as leaders of universities and other higher-education institutions, have to handle contrasting trends, defining their missions and operational strategies accordingly (Guri-Rosenblit, 2015; Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012).

However, the common thread is that internationalisation is interpreted and used in a broad manner, and is not limited to one particular set of international activities, nor is it motivated by a single rationale (de Wit, 2002; Jowi, 2009; Knight, 2008; Zeleza, 2012). Therefore, as noted by Knight (2008), when mapping internationalisation, leaders must first consider the realities of the environment in which higher education is operating. Hence, the local integration of the international dimension into higher education activities will describe the reality and nature of internationalisation. Besides, higher education is operating in various environments, and generalising is difficult because of tremendous diversity in functions, quality, financial support, inter alia. Furthermore, according to Enders (2004), higher education, as an organisation, has values, culture, and traditions, therefore, institutions draw attention to what happens when the many dimensions of internationalisation meet the multidimensionality of the institutions of higher education. It is on this premise that this study explores the understanding, conceptualization, and implications of internationalisation of higher education from the leadership perspective, in the context of the University of Malawi. However, the “leadership” aspect in this study is not ‘the process of providing direction to an organisation’ but rather ‘the group of people tasked with running the institution’.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Internationalisation of higher education is a globally accepted and important phenomenon because it has enhanced the successful addressing of higher-education objectives (de Wit, 2002). However, Deardorff and Van Gaalen (2012) argue that the success of internationalisation should be measured against its contribution to the achievement of mission and core goals of an institution. Even though universities are international in nature (Altbach & Teichler, 2001) so that no university can shun internationalisation of higher education (Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012), this could give a false impression apropos of commitment to internationalisation and understanding of the status and nature of internationalisation activities. Hence, Hudzik and Stohl (2009) argue that internationalisation activities should occur with reference to the overall missions and goals of institutions. According to Cross, Mhlanga, and Ojo (2011), there is an increasing consensus in many countries on the need for universities to internationalise; however, there is very little agreement about what internationalisation means, and which strategies are most effective for its implementation in differing contexts. Therefore, although the notion of internationalisation is popular, the current fundamental problem for leaders, researchers, and practitioners, is how to

deal with the variety of terms and definitions related to internationalisation in higher education (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2008).

There are various definitions, activities, and strategies which are continually being updated and adopted differently among and within institutions (Cross, Mhlanga & Ojo, 2011; de Wit, 2011; Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012). Zeleza (2012) noted that scholars do not agree on the meaning of internationalisation because of the diversity and complexity of its rationales, activities, stakeholders, and providers, at national, sector, and institutional levels. Furthermore, Warwick (2014) added that there is a problem of lack of shared understanding of the true meaning of internationalisation, and also a challenge in implementing internationalisation in complex professional organisations; as well as a lack of managerial skills, knowledge, and experience of international business. The problem relating to lack of shared understanding shows that, despite emerging as a mainstream phenomenon in higher education, internationalisation is still misunderstood or not sufficiently defined and described among and by practitioners. As pointed out by Knight (2008), the term means different things to different people, and is thus used in a variety of ways. As stated by de Wit (2002), as internationalisation gains more recognition, there is a trend of using it in the best way to suit the purpose. Authors are defining internationalisation based on individual perspectives; there are as many definitions of internationalisation as there are authors on the topic. Therefore, the differences in definitions and understanding of internationalisation are not just scholarly carping, but reflect disagreement on the meaning of internationalisation. Hence, de Wit (2011) emphasised the need for a clear definition and conceptual understanding of internationalisation, because of its relevance. However, despite some efforts to define and describe internationalisation of higher education by various authors (Altbach, 2002; 2006; Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009; de Wit, 2002; Deardoff & Van Gaalen, 2012; Jiang, 2008; Knight, 2004, 2015; Soderqvist, 2002; Yang, 2002), most definitions are only rooted in a skilfully worded presentation, hence, internationalisation remains a concept that is misunderstood. This misunderstanding reflects a situation in which internationalisation is interpreted and used in various ways and in different contexts (Knight, 2008; Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012; Zeleza, 2012); this presents a challenge in terms of developing a common understanding and conceptual understanding that can provide clarity on meaning, affording some principles to guide policy and practice.

Therefore, leaders in higher education must be prepared to track and understand the broadest global trends in higher education, as well as the internationalisation of higher education; at the

same time, attending effectively to the unique needs and aspirations of their particular institutions, local communities, and regional or national contexts (Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012). Nevertheless, the emerging pattern of internationalisation depicts change in the way in which internationalisation is perceived and implemented; and divergent knowledge about internationalisation is creating a somewhat nebulous perception. However, Chan and Dimmock (2008) argued that the crux of university internationalisation is that no one model fits all; and Curtis (2013) pointed out that there is no ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach to implementing an internationalisation strategy, nor should there be. This shows the complexity surrounding internationalisation that may demand or require some competency, knowledge, attitude, skills, and understanding of international education and international dimension of higher education. Hence, Teichler (2004) questioned whether the current modes of steering, governance, and managing still serve the universities in the best way, particularly at a time when internationalisation has become very important. Despite various benefits from internationalisation activities, higher education is faced with the challenge of meeting international expectations. Therefore, internationalisation does not only provide opportunities, but also creates responsibilities (Gacel-Ávila, 2005). However, according to Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009), Bolden, Petrov and Gosling (2008), and Fullan and Scott (2009), leadership is globally regarded as a fundamental driver, and at the heart of reform across all parts of the education sector, as well as a key pillar of the modernisation of public services. The way in which higher education leadership sees those reform expectations may have an influence on the outcome. Fullan and Scott (2009) accentuate that, if leadership does not see the relevance, desirability, and feasibility of the reform, if they are not clear on what they are supposed to do differently, there will be no reform, but ‘window dressing’ plans without implementation. Therefore, in order successfully to implement internationalisation, it is necessary for leadership to have a better understanding of internationalisation of higher education and the characteristics of the institutions.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

There is evidence that universities are internationalising. This is both because there are benefits to internationalising, and because no institution can shun this interaction (Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012). However, there are divergent views about the way in which internationalisation is implemented. The purpose of the study is to understand leadership perspectives of internationalisation of higher education as a phenomenon in a particular locale, taking the University of Malawi as a case study. It is of interest to the researcher to understand

broadly the extent of the practise of internationalisation within higher education. Equally important is to identify, document, and analyse the activities, extent of implementation, the purpose, performance, and the institutional support. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to understand internationalisation of higher education at the University of Malawi from the leadership perspective.

The three specific objectives are:

- To document the understanding of internationalisation of higher education by leaders at the University of Malawi;
- To establish the approaches, methods, and styles used by leaders at the University of Malawi in responding to internationalisation of higher education; and
- To ascertain reasons for leaders at the University of Malawi to respond in that particular way to internationalisation of higher education.

#### **1.4 Research questions**

The critical questions for the study are:

- What do leaders at the University of Malawi understand by internationalisation of higher education?
- How do leaders at the University of Malawi respond to the implementation of internationalisation?
- Why do leaders at the University of Malawi respond in that particular way to internationalisation?

#### **1.5 Research Significance**

Paucity of research on internationalisation of higher education institutions in Malawi has been evident during the course of reviewing the literature. This study is instituted on the premise of its expected contribution, in line with academic knowledge and research, to the topic of internationalisation of higher education. This will not only broaden the existing literature and analytical tools, but also suggest further research for extending the boundaries of understanding. Based on the popularity and importance of the phenomenon, although the study is a single-case study in a huge university community, observations and conclusions are expected to be useful for higher education research, policymakers and practitioners, in being based not only on its empirical and theoretical reflections and findings, but also on findings from prior studies. This study is one of the pioneer efforts in understanding the

internationalisation of higher education in Malawi. It has, therefore, the potential to contribute useful insights into the University of Malawi management, in detailing ways in which internationalisation could be perceived, defined, and deployed to augment the objectives of higher education. The revealed attributes of internationalisation could be used to construct definitions for internationalisation of higher education. This study will shed more light on the factors which influence a particular model of internationalisation as in the case of the University of Malawi. The study will also enlighten the perspective or positioning of leadership on the success of internationalisation. Hence university leadership will understand internationalisation and the strategies and policies which promote this implementation in the context of the University of Malawi.

### **1.6 Context of the Study**

Malawi is a land-locked country in southern Africa, with a population of about 16 million, (NSO, 2012). It is one of the poorest countries in the world, with about sixty per cent of the population living below the poverty line of US\$2 a day (World Bank, 2010). Furthermore, Malawi faces several social problems, including limited access to education, health services, and infrastructure, among other items, and life expectancy is around 55 years (NSO, 2012). The education system in Malawi has experienced changes which were triggered by the introduction of free primary education in 1994, as a result of which primary school enrolments rose more than double. The increase of the primary school enrolment created pressure on the secondary sub-sector, which eventually has also experienced rapid expansion. Consequently, the higher-education sector has witnessed a notable increase in enrolment and an increase in the number of both public and private universities.

The education sector in Malawi has a clear vision and mission, which are outlined in the National Education Sector Plan document. In order to realise the education system visions and mission, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology has strategic priorities defined as key thematic areas of intervention. These thematic areas are:

- Expanding equitable access to education to enable all to benefit;
- Improving quality and relevance of education to reduce drop-out and repetition, and to promote effective learning; and
- Improving governance and management of the system to enable more effective and efficient delivery of services. (MOEST, 2007).

These thematic areas are consistent with the global trends of widening access and enhancing the quality of education. The education system in Malawi also recognises the importance of leadership and appropriate governance, hence the inclusion of governance and management as key thematic areas of priority. There might be recorded changes witnessed and experienced; however, not much has changed in relation to the purpose of education. Education in Malawi still emphasises academic achievement and preparation of citizenry (Chimombo, 2003; Shawa, 2014; World Bank, 2010). The education sector in Malawi comprises Basic Education; Secondary Education; Teacher Education Development for Basic and Secondary Education; Technical Education; Vocational Training; and Higher Education (MOEST, 2007). The government has strongly committed itself to the growth of the education sector by increasing the number of primary schools, secondary schools, including tertiary education, and especially science and technology sectors.

The Malawi Vision 2020 recognises the critical role of higher education as a catalyst for development; aiming to improve the quality and the system itself, as a whole. In the same vein, the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy II highlights the importance of higher education for rapid development in all sectors of the economy. It commits the government to ensuring better access and equity, relevance, and quality, good governance, and efficient management. In addition, the country's National Education Sector Plan (2008-2017) emphasises the critical role of education in developing the human capital that contributes to the country's socio-economic development, stressing the need for quality and relevance, equitable access, governance, and management of the system.

Malawi has four public universities, namely, the University of Malawi, Mzuzu University, Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources, and Malawi University of Science and Technology. With the liberalisation of the market and higher-education sector in Malawi, private universities and colleges have mushroomed. This increase of educational institutions has seen the creation of the National Council of Higher Education, established in 2011 to work as a regulatory and accreditation body of higher-education institutions in Malawi. There is a fresh commitment by government to establish a higher-education levy, which will be a tool for higher education research funding (Nhlane, 2016). There is also a science and technology priority which is enhanced by the expansion of the National Commission on Science and Technology serving as a focus and funding source for innovative research, development and innovation. Higher education is regarded as an important component of the entire education

system because of its role in creating new knowledge and skills through teaching and research (MOEST, 2007; World Bank, 2010). However, reports show that Malawi has among the lowest enrolment of people in tertiary education. Malawi’s tertiary gross enrolment rate is 0.4 per cent, among the lowest in Africa (Mambo, Meky, Tanaka, & Salmi, 2016). Although the government of Malawi spends a relatively high proportion of its education budget on higher education (28 per cent in 2010), resource allocations are insufficient to sustain efforts to further expand enrolment and improve the quality of education delivered.

There are a number of goals and objectives set for higher education in Malawi. These were set up through comprehensive participatory consultations of primary stakeholders, including the Ministries of Education, Science and Technology, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, and university representatives (Mambo, Meky, Tanaka, & Salmi, 2016; MOEST, 2007; World Bank, 2010). The consultations include the input from surveys and study reports on higher education in Malawi and elsewhere.

The main HE goals and objectives are to:

- Improve governance and management of higher education;
- Expand capacity and widen equitable access to higher education for all qualified candidates; and
- Enhance quality in teaching and learning to produce competent graduates (MOEST, 2007).

These goals and objectives are aligned with national development priorities and the education sector key thematic areas. Improving higher-education governance and management is aligned with the national need to strengthen governance, financial-management systems, and wealth-creation initiatives at higher-education institutions. Expanding capacity and access to higher education is also aligned with the national need for well-trained human capital able to provide the critical mass that will facilitate the transformation from poverty to prosperity, specifically in the areas of science and technology. Enhancing quality in teaching and learning to produce competent graduates complements the need for strategically providing human resources that are adaptable and able to add value to the priorities of the Malawi economy, outlined in Malawi’s development growth strategy document (MOEST, 2007).

Table 1.1 Higher-Education Sector Visions and Missions

	Institutions	Year	Vision	Mission
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	Ministry of Education Science and Technology	1964	To be a catalyst for socio-economic development, industrial growth and an instrument for empowering the poor, the weak, and voiceless. Education enhances group solidarity, national consciousness, and tolerance of diversity. In essence, the sector wishes to ensure better access and equity, relevance, and quality, and good governance and management in all institutions from basic education to higher education.	To provide quality and relevant education to the Malawian nation. Such education should enable people to acquire relevant knowledge, skills, expertise, and competencies, to perform effectively as citizens, workforce, and as leaders of Malawi, thereby reducing poverty amongst the people of Malawi.
	University of Malawi	1965	To be a centre of excellence in higher education for sustainable development of Malawi and the region	To advance knowledge and to promote wisdom and understanding by engaging in teaching, research, consultancy, public and community engagement, and in making provisions for the dissemination, promotion and preservation of learning responsive to the needs of Malawi and the rest of the world

	Mzuzu University	1997	A premier provider of tertiary education, adaptive research, and outreach in Malawi and the world	To provide high-quality education, training, research and complementary services to meet the technological, social, and economic needs of individuals and communities in Malawi, and the world
	Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources	2011	To be a world-class university	To advance knowledge and produce relevant graduates with entrepreneurial skills for agricultural growth, food security, wealth creation, and sustainable natural-resources management, through teaching, training, outreach consultancy, and sound management
	Malawi University of Science and Technology	2012	A world-class centre of science and technology, research, and entrepreneurship	To provide a conducive environment for quality education, training, research, entrepreneurship, and outreach, thereby facilitating economic growth in Malawi and beyond

	National Council for Higher Education	2011	Accessible, sustainable, and quality higher education for all qualified Malawians	To promote and coordinate relevant, accessible, equitable, sustainable, quality higher education in Malawi, through accreditation, quality assurance, policy support and planning, and representation of Malawi's higher-education interests nationally and internationally
	National Commission for Science and Technology	2010	A leading institution in the advancement of science, technology, and innovation, for sustainable growth and development in Malawi	To promote, support, coordinate, and regulate the development and application of Science, Technology and Innovation, so as to create wealth, in order to improve the quality of life

Source: NESP, [www.unima.mw](http://www.unima.mw), [www.mzuni.ac.mw](http://www.mzuni.ac.mw), [www.must.ac.mw](http://www.must.ac.mw), [www.luanar.ac.mw](http://www.luanar.ac.mw), [www.nche.ac.mw](http://www.nche.ac.mw), [www.ncst.ac.mw](http://www.ncst.ac.mw)

Table 1:1 shows that the Ministry of Education Science and Technology has developed its overarching vision, mission, and strategic direction for higher education. Eventually, individual institutions elaborate strategic plans, vision and mission based on the key government policy documents, such as the National Education Sector Plan (2009–2017) (MOEST, 2007). Hence, the Ministry of Education Science and Technology and related public-education agencies have overarching mission statements which have the same overall expected outcome. An analysis

of the mission statements shows that all the institutions are service-providing agencies which provide quality knowledge, skills, and competencies for national needs and international demands. Therefore, the higher-education sector has an international agenda. The way in which the international agenda is accomplished in Malawi is the nub of this study.

### 1.6.1 Universities in Malawi

Higher education in Malawi has grown from one public university in 1965 to four public and more than 16 private universities in 2016. This is a tremendous increase, however, the private higher-education industry shows a high growth rate compared with public universities.

Table 1.2 Higher-Education Institutions in Malawi

	Public Universities	Date	Students		Private universities	Date
1	University of Malawi	1965	13777	1	African Bible College	1998
2	Mzuzu University	1997	3590	2	University of Livingstonia	2003
3	Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources	2011	3435	3	Catholic University of Malawi	2004
4	Malawi University of Science and Technology	2012	431	4	Malawi Adventist University	2006
				5	DMI St. John the Baptist University	2010
				6	Blantyre International University	2008
				7	Skyway University	2012
				8	ShareWORLD Open University	1994
				9	Columbia Commonwealth University Malawi (CCWUM)	2012
				10	Exploits University (EU)	2011
				11	Africa University of Guidance, Counselling and Youth Development (AUGCYD)	2013

				12	Malawi Assemblies of God University (MAGU)	2013
				13	Pentecostal Life University (PLU)	2010
				14	Daeyang University	2013
				15	Nkhoma University	2013
				16	Riverton University	2013

Source: National Council on Higher Education. [www.nche.ac.mw](http://www.nche.ac.mw)

Table 1.2 indicates the registered universities in Malawi, since the inception of the higher-education sector. The growth pattern shows more private than public institutions, both in numbers and growth rate. The current university sector in Malawi comprises public universities (government funded), religious affiliated universities (religious-agencies funded), and ‘real’ private universities (individually-funded, or funded by groups of people) (Kufaine, 2014). This classification reveals diversity in ownership and an increase in business approach in the higher-education sector. Furthermore, the university institutions are both local and international, according to the list in Table 1.2. The table also shows the current student enrolment for public universities, however, the research failed to secure student enrolment for private institutions. The total number of students in public university institutions in Malawi is 21233.

**Table 1.3. Other Tertiary Institutions**

	<b>Colleges/Institutions</b>		<b>Tuition providers</b>
1	Malawi College of Health Sciences	1	Malawi Institute of Management
2	Mikolongwe College of Veterinary Sciences	2	National College of Information Technology
3	Malawi Institute of Journalism	3	Staff Development Institute
4	Malawi Institute of Tourism	4	PACT College
5	Marine College	5	K&M School of Accountancy
6	Colleges regulated by Nursing and Midwives’ Council of Malawi and Medical Council of Malawi		
7	Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAM)		

8	Management College of Southern Africa (MANCOSA)		
9	Malawi College of Accountancy (MCA)		
10	Montfort Special Needs Education College (MSNEC)		

Source: National Council on Higher Education. [www.nche.ac.mw](http://www.nche.ac.mw)

Table 1.3 displays the categories of other tertiary institutions which award degrees, diplomas, and certificates, but are not accorded the status of university. Some offer postgraduate degrees from affiliated institutions such as ESAMI of Kenya, and MANCOSA of South Africa, while Malawi College of Accountancy falls under both college-awarding diploma and degrees, as well as a tuition provider for international professional programmes.

### 1.6.2 University of Malawi

The University of Malawi is the first institution of higher learning in Malawi, established soon after independence in 1965. It is the country's flagship institution in which the nation's intellectual capital has been trained and developed. As with most African nations, Malawi's higher education was initiated as a prototype of colonial master, with one university – the University of Malawi. However, there has been a gradual growth in profile which includes a number of programmes, a number of departments, faculties, and a number of students, as well as areas of international collaboration and partnership with various higher-education institutions, globally (Unima, 2012). The University of Malawi Act of 1998 and Strategic Plan of 2012-2017, state that the institution has both a local and international education agenda. It aims to provide education for sustainable development of Malawi and the region, as well as education in response to national and global needs. Therefore, in order to achieve some of the University of Malawi objectives, there is continued collaboration with international institutions in areas of programme development, both undergraduate and postgraduate, external examinations, thesis supervision, staff exchange, student exchange, admission of international students, and joint-research projects. Currently, the University of Malawi has both formal and informal links, partnerships, and international networks with international institutions, globally. Although this portrays the usual picture, every university being international in nature through international activities, the scope of international activities in Malawi is still limited.

### 1.6.3 Higher-education finance

The National Education Sector Plan forms the basis of all investment by the government of Malawi and all development partners. Most of the university funding is sourced from government subsidies or grants, student fees, private individual or trust donations, and international funders' or donors' donations (Dunga, 2013). Hence, the government being the principal funder, the main challenge faced by the university with regard to its financial sustainability is underfunding by the government (Dunga, 2013, Mambo, Meki, Tanaka, & Salmi, 2016; World Bank, 2010). As indicated by Jongbloed (2010), the increase of fees, providing a reliable source of university funding, has been a debated issue. In reality, the undergraduate fees do not yet cover a substantial share of higher-education cost. The justification for the current funding/financing system is equity. This shows that funding is not serving as funding allocation, but as a tool for governance, funding not being the end product, but the means to the end. Although the global trend reflects that universities are sometimes funded using student fees (Jongbloed, 2010), this might not bring substantial income into Malawi, the numbers being so low. However, raising fees is a contentious issue in Malawi: it is argued that most Malawians are indigent, and cannot afford to pay for tertiary-level education. Hence, government has introduced a Public University Students Loan Scheme for normal-entry Malawian students, to help them meet their financial obligations. A student admitted to the university is eligible to apply for a loan to pay fee requirements, including stationery. Although it has been argued that the government student loan board has failed to collect from previous students (Nhlane, 2016), the number of beneficiaries has increased over the years.

Therefore, analysis of Higher Education in Malawi reveals that it is operating in developing the economy. However, higher education is prioritised as a tool for economic development and society transformation, which is reflected in the prioritising of access to higher education through direct funding and loan schemes. The funding pattern follows Jongbloed's (2010) three-stream model. However, the contribution from the students and donors is almost negligible: essentially, student and donor streams contribute approximately 5-10% of the higher-education actual budget (Dunga, 2013; Mambo, Meki, Tanaka, & Salmi, 2016; World Bank, 2010). Therefore financing of higher education is minimal, because it is still regarded as the responsibility of government. However, government funding suffices to provide substantial finances for the operation and maintenance of higher education (Mambo, Meki, Tanaka, & Salmi, 2016).

## 1.7 Study Structure

The story of internationalisation of higher education in Malawi is presented in this document using the following structure. The structure is prompted by the desire to respond to the research questions. The study is designed to illuminate the conceptualisation and comprehension of internationalisation of higher education. Further, it is expected to contextualise the implementation of internationalisation in higher education, and elaborate the factors influencing leaders in the way they respond to the implementing of internationalisation.

Chapter One is the introduction to the study, presenting the developments which prompted this study and elaborating on the prevailing challenges in order to understand the justification for the study. The unit of analysis is discussed in relation to the context of higher education in Malawi in general, and the University of Malawi, in particular. The purpose of the study is to describe the general overview of the expectation of the study, which is the broader understanding of internationalisation in Malawi, with specific reference to the outline of the specific study objectives. The research questions and special significance of the study forms the final part of the chapter, which is concluded by the section giving an outline of the study structure.

Chapter Two offers the literature review, in which the prevailing discussions and assertion regarding internationalisation of higher education is presented. This chapter outlines the genesis of international higher education in relation to internationalisation, both globally, and continentally. Clarity of internationalisation was discussed in an attempt to understand internationalisation definitions suggested by various authors and sources. Internationalisation of higher education rationales, approaches and strategies were discussed in relation to development and evolution experienced. This was followed by higher education and leadership development, and concluded by a theoretical framework for the study; thereafter a chapter summary. Chapter Three presents discussions which address research design and methodological issues apropos of research processes, methodology appropriateness, and study worthiness. It partially introduces concept analysis as a methodology, comprehensively addressed in Chapter Four. The chapter presents the detailed stance and justification of all choices regarding the research design and methodology. Chapter Four refers to concept analysis of internationalisation of higher education, delineating concept analysis as a tool for bringing clarity to ambiguous concepts. Chapter Four focuses on characteristics of internationalisation in order to reveal deeper understanding and clarity by unmasking the

dominant and critical attributes that inform definitions. Chapter Five discusses commitment to internationalisation of higher education. This elucidates the prevailing environment in Malawi higher education and the University of Malawi, which may influence the status of internationalisation. The discussion is focused on understanding prevailing commitment in relation to the implementation of internationalisation; then follows a chapter summary. Chapter Six offers the motive for internationalisation, and a comment on its performance. The discussion in this chapter is guided by the quest to understand the dominant rationales and the pattern of activities being performed at the University of Malawi. The discussion centres on institutional motives and performance of internationalisation. Therefore, the chapter concludes with the possible risks, challenges, and opportunities during the study; lastly a chapter summary. Chapter Seven discusses internationalisation leadership, presenting the leadership perspectives, including leadership development and characteristics of leadership decisions related to internationalisation and leadership challenges. Chapter Eight provides the study discussion which presents the comprehensive analysis and overview of the entire study. Chapter Nine is the study conclusion, which synthesises the overall discussion into final information, offering a possible contribution of the study to the body of knowledge and potential further study areas.

### **1.8 Chapter Summary**

Chapter One serves as a preamble to the dissertation. It was designed to raise and justify the study significance, describing the unit of analysis. This chapter argues for the local integration of an international dimension into higher-education activities, and describes the reality and nature of internationalisation. It is essential for leadership to understand the context of higher education. The next chapter is the literature review, which comprises the detailed literature perspective guiding the study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The overall focus of this study is to understand internationalisation of higher education at the University of Malawi from the leadership perspective. However, this chapter presents a review of key literature on internationalisation, higher education, and leadership. Therefore, literature is presented focusing on the purpose of understanding internationalisation of higher education from the leadership perspective. This chapter is divided into three sections, beginning with examining the various aspects of internationalisation of higher education, such as the historical perspective, definitions, rationales, and strategies. The second section explores higher-education and leadership developments, concluding with a discussion on the theoretical frameworks that guided the study, followed by a summary of the chapter.

#### **2.2. Internationalisation**

##### **2.2.1 Historical perspective of internationalisation**

There is a general consensus that higher education exists to create and disseminate knowledge, and to develop higher-order cognitive and communicative skills in young people, such as the ability to think logically, the motivation to challenge the status quo, and the capacity for developing sophisticated values (Altbach, 2007; Chan, Brown & Ludlow, 2014; Teferra & Knight, 2008). Hence, the leadership and management of the university are there to support universities in effectively undertaking their fundamental purposes (Badat, 2013). Higher education has always been an international institution (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Scott, 1998); and this widely accepted statement is generally made with reference to the birth of the university in medieval Europe, and the prevalence of mobility of students and scholars (de Wit, 2011). However, there are varied views on the history and genesis of internationalisation of higher education. Hence, searching for the genesis of internationalisation of higher education is chimerical, internationalisation being an evolutionary process. All the same, it is possible to locate certain events, although not all events have a common origin nor have they necessarily emerged at the same time. Eventually, over the past three decades, there has been a boom experience of internationalisation of higher education (Knight, 2008). Altbach and Teichler (2001) argued that the original universities were founded in Paris and Bologna in the 13th century, quickly expanding to other parts of Europe. Universities used a common language – Latin – and provided training to students from many countries. However, Altbach and de Wit

(2015) have lately argued that this internationalism goes back at least to Nalanda University in India in the 6th century AD, which attracted students and staff from all over the Buddhist world.

Furthermore, there is also a documented history of higher education in Africa prior to colonisation, albeit in a different format, with no dates supplied. Teferra (2008) indicated that there were universities in Timbuktu, for instance, the School of Holy Scripture in Ethiopia. Hence, as people travelled from Asia, Europe, and the rest of Africa to these centres of knowledge, this implies the first form of internationalisation on the continent of Africa. By nature, then, international activities at the early stage came as a result of physical mobility of scholars and students crossing regions and borders for higher learning and scholarship. However, Teichler (2004) argued that to say higher education is internationalising or ought to internationalise is somewhat surprising; universities have long been considered one of society's most international institutions, hence, we should rather refer to this phenomenon as re-internationalisation. Scott (1998) has argued that there were no international universities at the initial stage of higher education, there being no national states. In extending Scott's argument, Jones and De Wit (2012) questioned when exactly international education became known as internationalisation of higher education. However, as indicated by de Wit, Deca, and Hunter (2015), internationalisation began with elements of international education, later becoming full-blown internationalisation; in some cases the nouns may be used synonymously. However, the continued change in focus, scope, and strategies, has made internationalisation a complex and multifaceted phenomenon. This evolution has led to changes and/or increased debates on the understanding of internationalisation (Knight, 2012).

In the current discussion, internationalisation has evolved from international education, to internationalisation, to internationalisation abroad, and to internationalisation at home. Although since its inception the university has offered international education with a focus directed towards the student, the current expectations are about transformational learning, global citizenship, the development of intercultural competence through study abroad, or an internationalised curriculum at home (de Wit, 2013). Internationalisation abroad falls under all forms of education across nations, mobility of people, projects, programmes and providers (Knight, 2008, 2012; Soria & Troisi, 2014). Furthermore, internationalisation at home is more curriculum-orientated, focusing on activities that develop international or global understanding and intercultural skills (Knight, 2012). However, internationalisation abroad may also be curriculum-related and be intent on developing international or global understanding and

intercultural skills, therefore there are limits to such a distinction. This demonstrates that these components have not to be seen as mutually exclusive: they are intertwined in the policies and programmes (de Wit, 2013).

### **2.2.2. Internationalisation abroad**

Internationalisation abroad, or study abroad (mobility of students and faculty, and mobility of projects, programmes and providers) is a popular internationalisation activity, it being believed to foster both holistic and global student development, including global learning and development, intercultural competence, and intercultural sensitivity of students (Soria & Troisi, 2014). Students who are globally competent should be able to formulate and explore globally significant questions, creating a coherent response that considers multiple perspectives and draws useful and defensible conclusions (de Wit, 2013). Studying abroad has an impact on employability and transferable skills which are valuable for employment on graduation. Studying abroad may also lead to an international career (Knight, 2012). Skills referred to include, intercultural competence skills, developed through study abroad, namely, confidence, willingness to take risks, patience, sensitivity, flexibility, open-mindedness, humility, respect for creativity, and the managing of expectations. The employability skills developed are teamwork and team leadership, organisational skills, project management, problem solving, networking, mediation skills and conflict resolution, decision-making and interpersonal skills (de Wit, 2013). Despite so many skills and benefits offered by studying abroad, there remain challenges that students encounter when engaging in study-abroad programmes (Woolf, 2007). Challenges lie with academic as well as administration issues, such as the transition from the local perspective while already in an academic learning session. Cultural differences have their own implications, which may lead not only to late starting of studying, but eventually to delayed graduation. As pointed out by Woolf (2007), the actual cultural immersion, which occurs on any given programme is a concern, since simply being abroad does not always translate to cultural awareness: there may be a blurring between academic learning experiences and observational, exotic vacations. There is always a tendency for students to practise a form of self-adapted immersion, deciding when and how they will interact with the host culture, making faculty mindfulness to encourage cultural participation an important factor (Woolf, 2007). Studying abroad comes with commitment to time and expense involved in participating in study-abroad programmes. However, student experience, programme funding, personal

income, and family relationships during their time abroad affect the programme of studying abroad (de Wit, 2013; Knight, 2008; Woolf, 2007).

### **2.2.3. Internationalisation at home**

Internationalisation at home, also known as an internationalised curriculum, and the teaching and learning process (de Wit, 2013; Knight, 2012) is an aspect of an internationalisation programme initiated by Nilsson, which has gained popularity as internationalisation extends its boundaries. Recent theoretical developments regarding internationalisation at home outline that this term relates both to formal and informal curricula, aiming to develop international and intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes for all students, regardless of whether they also take part in mobility opportunities (de Wit, Deca & Hunter, 2015). This approach appears to be a developmental idea which has been accepted because it responds to issues which the initial internationalisation idea did not address. Primarily, internationalisation at home was introduced after realising that there was a deficiency in mobility that not everyone could move across the border for international education knowledge; however, everyone needed the international perspective on life. Hence, internationalisation at home was established with an understanding of internationalisation that transcends mobility, laying strong emphasis on teaching and learning in a culturally diverse setting (Wachter, 2003).

Internationalisation-at-home activities are designed to help students develop international understanding and intercultural skills through curriculum activities which prepare students to participate in the globalised world (Knight, 2012). Internationalisation-at-home dimensions include a curriculum and programmes, teaching and learning processes, extra-curricular activities, liaison with local cultural/ethnic groups, and research and scholarly activities (de Wit, 2013). However, internationalisation at home has unanswered questions regarding the implementation of some international dimensions of higher-education activities, and understanding of differing cultural perspectives (Knight, 2012). Challenges such as the cultural perspective will require either ICT for connectivity, or an international faculty for discussing the international dimension. However, both options appear expensive for certain developing economies such as Malawi.

## 2.2.4 Internationalisation definitions and rationales

### 2.2.4.1. Definitions

There is general consensus by various authors that internationalisation is indeed a complex concept to define (Zha, 2003; Mtembu, 2004; Teferra & Knight 2008; Warwick, 2014). According to Knight (2012), the challenging part of developing a definition for internationalisation is the need for it to be sufficiently generic to apply to many different countries, cultures, and education systems. There is, however, a range of definitions proposed by various authors (Altbach, 2006; Marginson, 2000; Scot 1998; Van der Wende, 2001), a few of which this study intends to discuss. Altbach (2002) indicated that internationalisation refers to the specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academic institutions or systems which deal with global trends. Policies in this context relate to methods of conducting procedures. Hence, this definition implies that internationalisation is a strategy. Knight (2004) described internationalisation as a process, this means that it is an ongoing activity. Yang (2002) defined internationalisation as a process by which the teaching, research, and service functions of a higher-education system become internationally and cross-culturally compatible. Furthermore, Soderqvist (2002) defined internationalisation of higher education as a change process from a national higher-education institution to an international higher-education institution, leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management, in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning, and to achieve the desired competencies. Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009) also indicated that internationalisation is a strategy by which societies and institutions may respond to the many demands placed upon them by globalisation; and as a way of higher-education preparation of individuals for engagement in a globalised world. The definitions discussed directing their focus similarly, however, emphasising different points. Altbach points at policy and initiatives to deal with a global agenda, while Yang examines the process of making university goals internationally compatible For Soderqvist, again, the focus is the change from a national to an international education system; while Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009) presented internationalisation as a strategy for preparing to engage with the global world. Knight (2004) recognises this phenomenon as a process of integrating international dimensions. For Deardorff and Van Gaalen (2012), internationalisation is a means to the reaching of core goals of an institution rather than an end in itself. The achievement of mission and goals of a higher education institution will therefore be more credible indicators of success and of the positive impact of internationalisation.

However, despite the absence of one generic definition of internationalisation process, there is hope that internationalisation exists because all universities are international in nature; internationalisation has helped the establishment of African universities which were created and developed through an internationalisation process by colonial universities (Teferra, 2008). Therefore, there is a need to locate the purpose of higher education and to discover the role of internationalisation in achieving that purpose, in order to define it (Deardorff & Van Gaalen, 2012). As noted by de Wit (2013) the missing centre is to confront the question of ‘why’ we are internationalising higher education, rather than what we mean by internationalisation. The assumption is that the ‘why’ question will reveal the original intent and will be described based on the original stance. Further, Altbach (2012) noted that internationalisation is a response to globalisation; hence it may be correct to suggest that internationalisation is a strategy for responding to globalisation.

Although internationalisation has grown popular, there are still debates on issues relating to the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation. However, it is clear that globalisation of higher education is broad-based, covering economic, political, cultural and scientific trends, whereas internationalisation only focuses on policy and programme adoption by academic systems in response to globalisation. (Altbach, 2005; Stromquist, 2007). Scott (2005) identified both internationalisation and globalisation as complex, the dissimilarity between them not being well defined. de Wit (2013) concludes that the two concepts overlap and intertwine in all kinds of ways; however, that, by implication, they are not the same (Teichler, 2004; Scott, 2005; Altbach, 2006; de Wit, 2013) This study understands that the distinction between internationalisation and globalisation exists and yet that the two concepts overlap and intertwine, in various ways. Therefore, globalisation is not only unavoidable, but a process which opens up more positive prospects than new threats (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley 2009).

#### *2.2.4.2. Internationalisation Rationales*

The basis of internationalisation differs from nation to nation, and from institution to institution; however, the current trend suggests that the number of rationales is also increasing (Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012). Internationalisation is also described with respect to the primary motivations or rationales which drive the concept. This may include academic standards, income generation, cultural diversity, and student and staff development (Knight & de Wit, 1999; Knight, 2005). The international dimension of higher education has both

potential advantages and inherent risks (Teferra, 2013). Teferra (2013) appended that the prospects and challenges may be related across regions and globally, however, internationalisation still presents peculiar characteristics unique to individual countries. Edwards (2007) remarked that it is important for those who wish to understand and work with internationalisation within institutions to grasp the process which predominates. Hence, Cross, Mhlanga and Ojo (2011) outlined that the rationale for internationalisation is presented on levels, prioritised differently by different nations, reflecting the complex and multifaceted set of reasons which has been evolving over time in responding to various needs and trends. In addition to the four original rationales (political, academic, economical and socio-cultural), as presented by Knight and de Wit, (1999) and de Wit (2002), Zha (2003) added competition, the liberal model, and socio-transformation.

The political rationale is related to aspects concerning the country's position, which is achieved through foreign policies (de Wit, 2002; Zha, 2003). Owing to the different roles of nations of the world, the importance of political rationale has been growing in some countries, concomitantly with the dominant international issue (de Wit, 2013). Economic rationale refers to a long-term objective for growth and competitiveness in which internationalisation is seen as contributing to the skilled human resources needed for international competitiveness of the nation (de Wit, 2013; Zha, 2003). The social and cultural rationale is related to the role of the university, and to research in creating intercultural understanding and intercultural competence for students and the faculty. This concentrates on the country's own culture and language; the importance of understanding foreign languages and cultures is encouraged (de Wit, 2013; Zha, 2003). Finally, the academic rationale has to do with the developing of an international and intercultural dimension in the functioning of higher education. Internationalisation of higher education leads to international academic standards for teaching and research (de Wit, 2013; Zha, 2003). Therefore, international academic rationale has a value-adding merit for the education system.

The rationales discussed are not exclusive. There is an expected extension, owing to requirements by nations and changes, over time. As times change, emphasis shifts from one rationale to the other. It has been observed that the emphasis has altered from the humanitarian, to solidarity between nations. With the emerging competitions and competence demand, economic rationale has become more important than other aspects (de Wit, 2002).

The additional lists of rationales driving internationalisation are as follows:

a) de Wit (1999) internationalisation rationales

- International security;
- Economic competitiveness;
- Environmental interdependence;
- Increase of ethnic and religious diversity;
- Financial reduction; and
- Rise in academic entrepreneurialism.

b) Warner (1992), in Zha (2003), presented rationales in applied format through three rationales models:

- Competitive model; in which the international dimension in higher education is believed to have the potential for making students, institutions, and nations more competitive;
- Liberal model; in which internationalisation is perceived as self-development in a changing world; and
- Social transformation model; in which internationalisation is seen as a tool for transformation which brings deeper awareness of international and intercultural issues.

c) Scott 1992 in Zha (2003) introduced imperatives of international education as:

- Economic competition;
- Environmental interdependence;
- Increased ethnic and religious diversity;
- Reality of working for foreign firms;
- Influence of international trade; and
- National security and peace relations between nations.

d) Schoorman (2000) identified four distinct rationales that framed the need for internationalisation:

- World peace;
- Success in international competition;
- Global knowledge; and
- Global cooperation.

Critical exploration of the list of rationales shows a trend of institutional and national initiatives to benefit from internationalisation. Hence, although rationales vary from institution to institution and nation to nation, in essence, they all focus on development, national security,

marketing, international relations, and education. However, the list cannot be exhaustive, because rationales also appear to be overlapping in terms of focus (Dunn & Nilan, 2007).

## **2.2.5 Internationalisation strategies and approaches**

### **2.2.5.1 Internationalisation strategies**

As argued by Knight and de Wit (1999), internationalisation has two broad complementary strategies which enhance and sustain the international dimensions of university functions, namely, programme, and organisational strategies. The former include various academic initiatives in the education, research, and services of universities; while the latter involves organisational initiatives to facilitate and institutionalise international dimensions at universities through the management and operating systems. The approaches for internationalisation of higher education are also evolving. Initially, there were four approaches (activity, competence, ethos, and process) (Zha, 2003). Literature has an additional two approaches (market approach and business approach) which are being executed in specific sections of internationalisation.

- The activity approach: this promotes activities such as curriculum, student/faculty exchange, technical assistance, and international students;
- The competency approach: this emphasises the development of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values in students, faculty, and staff;
- The ethos approach: this accentuates the creating of a culture or climate that values and supports international/intercultural perspectives and initiatives;
- The process approach: this stresses integration or diffusion of an international/intercultural dimension into teaching, research, and service, through a combination of a wide range of activities, policies, and procedures (Zha, 2003);
- The business approach: this lays emphasis on student fees for income; and
- The market approach: this stresses competition, market domination, and deregulation (Altbach, 2007).

Various approaches and strategies have been suggested on the way in which internationalisation has been implemented (Knight & de Wit 1999; Zha 2003). Common approaches have been presented above. However, it is important to recognise that internationalisation of higher education implementation entails other prerequisites. (Warwick, 2014; Zolfoghari, Sabran, & Zolfaghari, 2009). Hence, Ellingboe (1998) noted that

internationalisation implementation requires: a) college leadership, b) available international programmes, c) international culture, and d) an international faculty. This is consistent with Schoorman (2000), who states that core requirements for internationalisation are: a) commitment to internationalisation, b) organisational leadership, c) availability of resources, and d) evaluation of organisational processes. As noted by Knight (2008), strategies and strategic approaches are fundamental to the successful implementation of internationalisation. However, based on the antecedents presented in the preceding section, it is necessary to broaden the approaches in order to encompass more activities.

Analysis of two studies of internationalisation strategies by John Taylor (2004) and Cross, Mhlanga, and Ojo (2011) shows that institutions have strategies for implementing internationalisation. Taylor (2004) reviewed preparation of strategies and implementation of internationalisation on institutional management. All four leading global universities sampled had different ways with which they sought to formulate their strategies for internationalisation. Cross, Mhlanga, and Ojo (2011) examined emerging concepts of internationalisation on one institution in South Africa. It was disclosed that the overall picture of internationalisation that emerged at institution level is varied, multidimensional, and paradoxical. There is evidence of considerable effort to internationalise the university, an overall institutional strategy and a detailed business plan are in place.

#### *2.2.5.2 Internationalisation Activities*

Although different institutions implement internationalisation based on their context situation (Rumbley et al., 2012), most institutions share a common focus. As summarised by Engberg and Green (2002), most institutions focus on:

- Inclusion of internationalisation in strategic planning;
- Development of new partnerships;
- Attraction of international students;
- Internationalised or modular curricula;
- Exchange programmes for students and faculties; and more recently
- Development of language policies.

These common activities are consistent with the key activities that the following authors, Kehm and Teichler (2007), Teferra and Knight (2008), and Bennet and Kane (2011) have described.

Kehm & Teichler (2007):

- Mobility of students and academic staff;
- Mutual influences of higher education systems on one another;
- Internationalisation of the substance of teaching, learning, and research;
- Institutional strategies of internationalisation.;
- Knowledge transfer;
- Cooperation and competition; and
- National and supranational policies regarding the international dimension of higher education.

Teferra and Knight, (2008)

- Student studying abroad;
- Staff collaboration in research and publishing;
- University signing MOU with partners abroad;
- University satellite campus and franchise in new location;
- Curriculum development with an international eye;
- Evaluation of curriculum delivery;
- Working towards common frame of reference;
- Attracting foreign faculties; and
- Evaluating brain drain.

Bennet and Kane, (2011):

- Study abroad programmes;
- Foreign language instruction;
- International franchising of programmes;
- Provision of internationally relevant curricula and syllabuses;
- Recruitment of foreign staff;
- Employment of home-country staff with international experience;
- Cross-border research collaborations;
- Staff exchange programmes;
- Faculty participation in international conferences and networks;
- Internationally orientated staff training and development;
- Establishment of campuses in other countries;
- Creation of faculties within a university that bears international or cross-cultural titles;

- Funding of infrastructure development for internationalisation projects; and
- Specification of internationalisation as a top priority in strategic plans and university missions.

Exploring the list of activities, the difference between authors appears to lie in their selected terminology and the level of description, which is driven by the institution focus and priority. It is patently obvious that the number of activities is increasing over time, however, all activities are in line with the global consensus that internationalisation activities are diverse and are implemented differently by different stakeholders (de Wit, 2013; Knight, 2008; Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012)

## **2.3 Higher-Education Leadership**

### **2.3.1. Higher education**

Higher education is provided by universities and colleges, hence, it is taken to be teaching, research, and outreach activities of universities (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2005). Higher-education knowledge is a primary type of knowledge produced on which all structures and processes of the academic organisation are grounded (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Fullan & Scott, 2009). Hence, the emphasis within higher-education institutions is on the discovery, conservation, transmission, and application of knowledge (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Birnbaum, 1988). However, as with any other organisations, universities have goals, an hierarchical system, and structures by which to reach their objectives. There has been limited change in description of the purpose of higher education despite the emerging of private, non-profit colleges and universities worldwide. Such establishments have created unprecedented challenges on a wide number of issues, including support for student aid, scrutiny over student access and completion, and the value of a college degree (Chan, Brown & Ludlow, 2014). There is general consensus that higher education exists to create and disseminate knowledge, and to develop higher-order cognitive and communicative skills in young people. Examples of these skills are the ability to think logically, the motivation to challenge the status quo, and the capacity to develop sophisticated values (Altbach, 2007; Chan, Brown & Ludlow, 2014; Sawyerr, 2004; Teferra & Knight, 2008,).

According to Badat (2013), the leadership and management of the university are there to support the university in undertaking their fundamental purposes effectively:

- Universities are expected to produce knowledge of an advanced understanding. This means testing the inherited knowledge, then adding or rearranging the knowledge;
- Universities are expected to disseminate knowledge and to cultivate minds. The goal is to develop imagination and criticism in learners; and
- Universities are expected to engage with communities, which involves voluntary participation in community projects.

While most organisations have clear goals, such as business aims in making a profit, other organisations have task-specific goals, while universities have vague and ambiguous goals (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley, 2000; Vroom, 1984). Cohen and March (1974) and Vroom (1984) describe university as an organised anarchy, with goals which are vague. Clark (1963) commented on the fragmented nature of universities; some describe it as a pigeonhole; others a ‘loosely coupled organisation’, while Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, and Rose, (1984). describe universities as having pigeonhole characteristics in which a student joining a university is excluded right from programme choice, to department, to faculty, up to a specific professor. Furthermore, Weick (1976) described ‘loosely coupled’ as not only characteristic of a university but of education at large. Higher and lower levels of hierarchy are loosely coupled because the link between the technical core or practise of the education institution and the formal structure seems highly tenuous.

However, the loosely coupled education hierarchy has proved remarkably stable over the years, in that it enhances specialisation and autonomy. This illustrates that goal ambiguity is one of the key characteristics of academic organisations (Vroom, 1984; Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000). This assertion that universities’ goals are unclear is debated on the premise that when goals remain ambiguous and abstract, they are readily agreed on, rather than when concretely specified (Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, & Rose, 1984). Furthermore, universities are people-processing institutions, therefore they respond to client demands that are diverse, obtaining significant input into institutional decision-making processes. Hence, Vroom (1984) and Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, and Rose, (1984) indicated that a client in a university brings a different characteristic into the organisation. Universities are also populated by professionals, with a high degree of specialisation (Macfarlane, 2011). However, professionals usually demand autonomy and freedom from supervision (Clark, 1987), hence, mostly, there is tension on professional values and bureaucratic expectations in an organisation of this nature

(Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Birnbaum, 1988). Professionals demand peer evaluation of their work because they believe that only their colleagues can judge their performance, hence they reject the evaluation of others, even those who are technically superior in the organisational hierarchy (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000).

Exploration of the professional characteristics shows that these are the traditional norms in universities, hence there is need for a different leadership approach for universities. Nevertheless, it comes out clearly from the study by Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley, (2000) that universities are influenced by the surrounding environment, universities being mid-way on the continuum from independent to capture. It was reported during this study that, when professional organisations are well insulated from the pressures of the outside environment, professional values, norms, and work definitions play a dominant role in shaping the character of the organisation. However, when dominant external pressure is applied to the professional organisation, the operating autonomy of the academic professional is seriously compromised (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Birnbaum, 1988). Under such situations, control over curriculum goals and daily operation of the organisation is negatively affected; eventually, the academic professional is reduced to the role of a hired employee. However, Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley, (2000) noted that, although universities are not entirely captured by the environment, they are steadily losing ground, and as their vulnerability increases, their governance pattern is changing.

There is a distinction drawn between governance and management (Eurydice, 2008). Governance focuses on the rules and mechanisms which influence decisions. On the other hand, management is about implementation of the objectives pursued by the institution on the basis of established rules. In the context of higher education, governance involves the framework on which the institution pursues its goals (Eurydice, 2008). However, Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley in Brown (2000) described university governance as comprising complex decision-making processes such as a collegial system, and bureaucratic and political activity. These governance models determine university processes, and have implications on leadership responsibility, which requires alignment for successful execution of higher-education institution goals (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000). The collegial system will seek to pursue people by appealing to reasoning, while bureaucracy uses legalistic manoeuvres to gain the outcome; the political approach seeks to form a coalition to pressure decision-makers. Examination of the three governance models by Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker, and Riley in

Brown (2000) shows the following details about the models. Academic institutions practice bureaucracy when regulations are based on the principle of legal rationality rather than on other principles. Under this model, the hierarchical structure is held together by formal commands and systems of communication. In Max Weber's writing of 1947 he described items such as tenure, appointment to office, and salaries, as rational forms of payment; and competence as the basis of promotion of elements of bureaucratic endeavours (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Bolman & Deal, 2008). However, bureaucracy is debated in the university governance, and there are diverse views, which indicate that bureaucracy is of primary concern in the university when it comes to decision-making processes. Hence, it is observed that during bureaucratic governance:

- There is more of formalised power, less of informal type power (Astin & Astin, 2000);
- There is explanation of formal structures, however, little about dynamic process within the university which include community service and outreach (Altbach, 2001);
- There is explanation of the way in which policies should be carried out; however, little about processes by which policies are established within a rational organisation; and
- Bureaucracy ignores political issues such as struggles of various interest groups within the university, including the gaining of academic freedom (Altbach, 2001).

Therefore, under the bureaucratic model, the leader is regarded as the hero who stands on top of a complex pyramid of power. The leader's role is to assess problems, propose alternatives, and make rational choices. There is great expectation because people trust the leader to solve their problems and to fend off threats from the environment. The image of the authoritarian leader is deeply ingrained in most societies and in the philosophy of most organisational theorists. It is expected that a leader should possess unique skills with emphasis on problem-solving abilities and technical knowledge about the organisation. The image is embedded in the culture and beliefs on leadership; however, to organisations like universities, this may not be viable. This is because in the university, power is lodged in professional expertise, and fragmented into many departments. Under these circumstances, higher-education expectations from leaders' performance does not arise and often cannot be met, because the leader has neither power nor information necessary to make heroic decisions. Therefore, the leadership

breaks down under conditions of goal ambiguity, professional dominance, and environmental vulnerability (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Vroom, 1984).

The collegial model apparently argues that decision-making should not be based on hierarchical processes, but be open to participation by the university community (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Birnbaum, 1988). Therefore, a collegial model in a university would be decision-making by consensus and the exercising of professional authority by academic members. However, the collegial model has also been criticised for erroneous simplification of many realities (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Bolman & Deal, 2008). The collegial model sees the leader as above all 'the first among equals' in an organisation run by professional experts. Collegial is also called the dynamic of consensus in a community of scholars (Millet, 1962 cited in Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000). Therefore, collegial leadership demands more listening than command, more gathering of expert judgment than leading, more facilitating than managing, and more persuading and negotiating than ordering.

Consequently, during collegial governance, leadership skills might divert from the usual expected skills. The leader in a collegial model of governance may need more professional expertise to enhance his or her self-esteem in the eyes of the colleagues. Talent in interpersonal dynamics may be necessary in order to achieve consensus in organisational decision-making. Therefore, in collegial governance, a leader has modest and more realistic roles, and usually does not stand alone, since other professionals share the burden of decision-making. There is more negotiation and compromising rather than authoritarian strategies.

Under political governance, the leader is a mediator, playing a political role by drawing coalitions together to fight for desirable change (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Bolman & Deal, 2008). A political model assumes that a complex organisation may be studied as a miniature political system. The political model focuses on policy-forming processes because policies commit an organisation to defining of goals and setting strategies for reaching these goals. Based on the preceding discussion on characteristics of the university, this illustrates that universities are unique. As such, it is necessary for leaders to understand that political, bureaucratic, and collegial governance models offer a useful insight.

Therefore, it is clear that universities require specialised expertise in decision-making. However, important decisions in universities are made neither by individual professors nor by central administration, but require, rather, participation of various sectors having diverse interests and expertise. Decisions in such cases emerge from complex collection and interactive processes, such as the committee of the university council and the committee of the university senate (Birnbaum, 1989). As Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, and Rose, (1984). argue, although the participation takes place within a ‘pigeonhole’ atmosphere, in which the university isolates programmes from one another, minimising the need for coordination across tasks, and maximising the discretion of those carrying out the tasks, nevertheless, there are decision-making processes followed. In the university decision-making process, individuals participate by acting out their roles. Universities have been associated with the collegial model in which a community of individuals make decisions in groups, all of whom may have differing roles and specialties, yet sharing common goals and objectives of the organisation.

Therefore, ‘common interest’ is the guiding force in the views of collegiality; and decision-making is by consensus (Taylor, 1983, cited in Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, & Rose, 1984). However, it is argued that collegiality presupposes unrealistic harmony and consensus. Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, and Rose, (1984) dismissed collegiality assumptions on the premise that they represent an idealistic norm rather than an accurate description of the university process. On the other hand, the proponents of political decision-making assume that the existence of fragmented interest groups gives rise to politics. However, organisational debates have argued that there are other conditions which have to be met as well before political behaviour occurs. An example by Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, and Rose, (1984) on political decision-making in the context of a resource-constrained situation indicates that:

“The English department request from its dean for additional resources to appoint five academic staff for a new area of Modern Literary Criticism. One might expect other departments in Art Faculty to use whatever power is at their disposal to ensure that the dean does not accept the proposal. This is not simply because this proposal is different from that of Economics, which wants to expand undergraduate enrolment, or of Political Science, which wants to develop a new programme in third world studies. Rather it is because the proposal, if approved, will affect funding of other departments possibly preventing them from realising their own intentions and possibly even taking resources away from existing activities” (Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, and Rose, 1984. 186)

This means that political behaviour occurs because all conditions have been met, conflicting goals, interdependence, scarcity, and criticality. In this example, had the request come when funds were plentiful, it would probably have evoked a collegial response, with interested members of the English department debating the benefit of including a modern literary criticism programme, without incurring political opposition from other departments. This shows that neither common interest nor self-interest will dominate decision-making processes all the time. Some combination is naturally to be expected. There may be commitment to certain common goals, but conflict over the way in which they should be achieved is to be expected. Alternatively, consensus may at times exist among individuals who wish to pursue different goals.

Therefore, decision-making is more likely to be political when resources are in decline or when a dramatic shift of distribution of resources threatens a power position. On the other hand, collegiality is more likely when there is a common, accepted ideology or mission, as collegiality tends to happen in small units or departments. Therefore, except in more polarised situations, political and collegial entities may work together (Childer, 1981 cited in Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, & Rose, 1984).

### **2.3.2 Leadership**

Much has been written about leadership evolution and development (Avolio, Walumba & Weber, 2009; Damonse and Nkomo, 2012; Fullan and Scott, 2009; Middlehurst, 2008; Muchiri, 2011; Shahmandi, Silong, Ismail, Samah, & Othman, (2011); Spendlove, 2007). However, the prevailing leadership definitions may be clustered in terms of traits, behaviour, power, interaction, and position, among other items (Avolio, Walumba & Weber, 2009; Middlehurst, 2008). Literature has also revealed that leadership and management are both catalysts for a successful organisation (Fullan & Scott, 2009; Zaleznik, 2004). There are still two groups of thought amongst various authors on leadership and management. Some authors believe that there is a clear link between management and leadership, while others believe that these are two quite distinct roles. However, it is adequately argued by Zaleznik (2004) that both leaders and managers make a valuable contribution to an organisation; and that each one's contribution is different. When leaders are advocating for change and new approaches, managers will be advocating for stability and the status quo. John Kotter (2001) also indicated that leadership and management are two distinct, yet complementary systems of action within organisations. Kotter (2001) distinguished between leadership and management by describing

leadership as the ability to produce and cope with change. The aforementioned researcher emphasised that leadership involves setting direction and overarching strategies to achieve a vision for the future. On the other hand, management involves planning and budgeting for the vision. Hence, leaders align people, finding the right fit between people and vision, whereas managers organise staff. Furthermore, leaders motivate and inspire people, while managers control activity, and solve problems (Kotter, 2001). This shows that management provides stability as it helps an organisation to satisfy the current commitment, while leadership questions the status quo in order to replace unproductive norms and move the organisation into a new future. However, Kotter observed that strong management emphasises bureaucracy instead of organisational purpose; while a strong leader creates change that is not practical. On the other hand, it was reported that, when improving leadership ability, strong leadership weakens management (Kotter, 2001). Therefore, the appropriate way to integrate leadership and management will depend on the situation.

However, it has been observed that the distinction between leadership and management is difficult to apply in practice, despite literature consensus on the differences (Bryman, 2007). Bryman (2007) also indicated that evolution taking place in different organisations has significantly altered the balance between leadership and management activities. Bryman conducted studies to evaluate the roles of heads of department in tertiary institutions, showing that they work both as leaders and managers. The study revealed that, despite recognising themselves as intellectual leaders, when they are given administrative positions, they turn into managers (Bryman, 2007). However, according to Astin and Astin (2000), university leadership comprises leaders in different categories such as: a) Hierarchical models: these are imbued with authority and power from their leadership positions; b) Individual models: these are accorded professional status and recognition; c) Collegial models: these are built from faculty-committee structure, mostly playing advisory roles. Although the three categories of prevailing leadership in the university all belong to one institution, they are recognised differently by different groups, and they play different roles within the university. This means that there are different categories of leadership applicable to a university institution. The examination of leadership has revealed various qualities, characteristics, behaviour, competences and traits, discussed under leadership (Avolio, Walumba & Weber, 2009; Fullan 2006; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Yukl, 2006). However, studies by Vroom (1984) on development or evolution of leadership research discovered that neither the personality-trait approach nor effective leadership behaviour is adequate to dealing with the complexity of leadership

(Vroom, 1984). Furthermore, leadership understanding has evolved and it reflects in clear sequences, from traits to skills to style and behaviourism, followed by situational and contingency, until it culminates in the transactional and transformational (Mestenhauser, & Ellingboe, 2005). This brings a greater challenge when one attempts to define what, in practice, makes a good leader. The mystery, according to Owen (2015), is that leadership is critical to any organisation and everyone can recognise a good leader, yet no leadership effort conforms to one single leadership template. Furthermore, Owen (2015) observed that a leader might not be good at everything, but should be good at something. Yet, there is limited explicit documentation of the quality of good leadership which conforms to every situation (Blanchard, 2007; Yukl, 2006). However, literature has defined and recognised leadership as one of the critical success factors for sustaining continuous improvement in any organisation (Avolio, Walumba & Weber, 2009; Fullan & Scott, 2009). Thus, leadership is concerned with a sense of direction and vision and the imparting of that vision for sustaining continuous improvement in any organisation (Breakwell, 2006; Fullan & Scot, 2009; Rowley, 1997; Trow, 1985). Nevertheless, the ultimate understanding from literature reveals that leadership is contextual (Avolio, Walumba & Weber, 2009; Shahmandi, Silong, Ismail, Samah, & Othman, 2011). Hence, leadership understanding requires gradual development and working using leadership principles in specific contexts.

However, the trend of university leadership shows that senior professors initially managed universities. The rector or vice-chancellor was selected by the senior academic staff from among their ranks, sometimes with the approval of government or clerical authorities (Altbach, 2014; Tight, 2002). This arrangement worked well enough in small institutions that had established roles and required little management. With continued enlarged and expanded responsibilities, university institutions and systems are now large and complex organisations requiring skilled management, innovative leadership, and effective frameworks for decision-making (Altbach, 2014). The expansion of university tasks to include integration of an international dimension on higher-education activities brings an added responsibility to the leaders.

There is consensus that links leadership to individual and organisational outcomes across many contexts (Avolio, Walumba & Weber, 2009). Similarly, literature indicates that some leadership styles and behaviour influence various organisational outcomes (Muchiri, 2011). With the complexity of higher education, the search for effective leadership is inevitable.

However, developing and recruiting leaders into higher education is a daunting task. This is because academicians are often ambivalent about taking leadership roles, this not being a priority and/or this distracting them from the activities of their discipline (Hill, 2005). Leadership development is also a challenge because leaders in higher education are recruited based on scholarly achievement rather than on leadership competence. However, one may argue that successful leadership development in higher education may help to change this trend, because knowledge of leadership may motivate prospective leaders to take responsibility. Similarly, when the already established scholar has leadership knowledge, he or she will become an effective leader.

Theorising the nature of knowledge is a complex issue owing to its representation and in some cases its idiosyncratic constructions (De Jong & Ferguson-Hesser, 1996). Glaser (1993) and McCormick (1997) categorised the principles of knowledge into conceptual and, procedural. Conceptual knowledge is learnt through observing an expert or a teacher, while procedural or 'know-how' knowledge is learnt through imitation, coaching, and practise (McCormick, 1997). However, Smith (2002) asserted that procedural knowledge constructs and enhances own knowledge; and it is observed that conceptual knowledge and procedural knowledge may not be acquired in isolation.

Although generalisation of knowledge claims that what is the case in one place or time, will be so elsewhere or at another time (Payne & Williams, 2005), Day and Hammond (2007) argue that generalisation of knowledge may be a sign of a novice who becomes a master after development, and who begins working in context and content (Day & Hammond, 2007). However, the issue of generality focuses on the transferability of knowledge from one domain to another either in a classroom situation or in life after school. According to Perkins and Salomon (1989), general knowledge includes widely applicable strategies for problem solving, inventive thinking, decision-making, learning and good mental management, sometimes called auto-control, auto-regulation, or meta-cognition. The main factor for generality, however, still remains transferability, with such characteristics as common use, important role, transferable, and commonly absent (Perkins & Salomon, 1989). Any activity that meets these factors is considered general, and the acquired knowledge appears to provide general tools for functioning in other domains or situations.

Mumford, Champion, and Morgen (2007) identified leadership skills such as cognitive, interpersonal, business, and strategic skills, as important qualities for leadership. Cognitive skills relate to thinking, conceptual, and communication skills; while interpersonal skills refer to interpersonal understanding and the influencing of people. Business skills are also related to specific functions, skills, and management of personnel, materials, and resources. Strategic skills are regarded as high-level conceptual skills focused on managing a complex organisation.

However, the leadership competencies and capabilities are becoming important and complex because there are various competences and capacities prescribed by different authors, or because they are overlapping competences (Fullan & Scott, 2009; Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008). Competence refers to a potential ability and/or a capability to function in a given situation. Competency focuses on one's actual performance in a situation. This means that competence is required before one can expect to achieve competency. Thus, competence makes one capable of fulfilling one's job responsibilities (Delamare, Le Deist, & Winterton, 2005). This is determined by comparing current work functioning with established performance standards developed in the work environment according to a specific role and setting. Therefore, competencies are associated with identifying what has to be known or performed, in what context, and to what standard. The concept of being competent typically refers to someone who possesses the key skills and knowledge required to deliver the tasks that make up a specific job; or are necessary to run a particular operation effectively (Scott, Coates & Anderson, 2008). Capability is more associated with leadership than management, such as having the talent and capacity necessary to operate successfully with others to achieve continuous improvement and innovation (Scott, Coates & Anderson, 2008).

Table 2.1 Leadership Competencies and Capacities

1	Personal Capabilities	2	Interpersonal Capabilities
	Self-regulation Decisiveness Commitment		Influence Empathy
3	Cognitive Capabilities	4	Generic and Role-Specific Competencies
	Diagnosis Strategy		Learning and teaching University operations

	Flexibility and responsiveness		Self-organisation skills
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Source: (Scott, Coates and Anderson 2008).

Capabilities are integrated into this process of generic and role-specific skill and knowledge. These areas of competence help provide not only a scaffold for diagnosis but also a source for shaping the right response, and delivering it in partnership with all the other players concerned. Therefore, possession of skill and knowledge components of academic competence is necessary, however, it is not sufficient for effective performance as a leader. Hence, for this to occur, the capabilities have to be present and all five components have to work in an integrated and productive way over time. As this suggests, a weakness in one area will affect the operation of the other areas (Scott, Coates and Anderson 2008).

### 2.3.3 Leadership theories

Leadership understanding has evolved, and it reflects the clear sequences, from trait to skills to style to behaviourist, then situational, and contingency, until transactional and transformational (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe 2005). However, it appears that leadership styles are mostly purposefully oriented (Fullan & Scott 2009). Although most leadership theories were drawn from the business world before penetrating into higher education (Heyl & Tullbane, 2012), leadership theories are useful to higher-education leaders. According to Heyl and Tullbane (2012), theories provide guidance on leading from strength, remedying weaknesses, and exploiting opportunities.

Leadership traits focus on leaders and the personality traits they need to function effectively. In this case, leadership traits may be regarded as inherent characteristics of a leader (Pfeffer & Viega 1999). According to Stogdill (1948), leadership traits include the following:

Table 2.2 Leadership Traits

	Leadership Trait	Description
1	Self-confidence	Self-confidence shows leadership confidence in judgment, decision-making, ideas, and capabilities. Leaders with confidence in their abilities tend to foster confidence among followers.
2	Integrity	Integrity refers to honest and ethical behaviour which is characteristic of people who are

		trustworthy. Trustworthiness is an important factor in business success.
3	Dominance	Every successful leader wishes to take charge. The dominance trait affects leadership as well as management roles.
4	Intelligence	Good leaders generally have above average intelligence. Intelligence, in this case, refers to cognitive ability to think critically, to solve problems, and to make decisions.
5	Flexibility	Flexibility refers to the ability to adjust to different situations. Leaders must be able to adapt to the rapid changes of the business world.
6	High energy	Leaders with high energy have drive: they work hard to achieve goals. Leaders also tend to possess stamina and to tolerate stress well. They are enthusiastic and do not abandon hope easily.
7	Control	Control indicates a leadership belief in control over their behaviour and what happens to them.
8	Sensitivity to others	Sensitivity to others refers to understanding group members as individuals, taking on board their viewpoints, and deciding how best to communicate with them, as well as how to influence them. To be sensitive to others requires empathy, the ability to place oneself in another person's position, seeing the other's point of view.
9	Stability	Leaders who display a high level of stability are emotionally in control of themselves, secure, and positive.

Source: Stogdill (1974), , 1990; Burns 1978; Pfeffer and Viega (1999), Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, (2004). Howard and Bray (1988).

However, despite various support by different reports that there is difference between leaders and non-leaders with respect to traits (Bryman 2007); the study by Stogdill revealed variations from situation to situation. This means that each trait depends on the situation. According to Stogdill's conclusion, possession of some combined traits does not automatically make one a successful leader, because there is a need for certain leadership characteristics relevant to the characteristics of the organisation.

### **2.3.3.1 Contingency/situational leadership theory**

The contingency leadership theory firstly focused on situational variables in leadership personality and behaviour (Avolio, Walumba & Weber, 2009). However, the situational leadership theory determines the leadership style which matches the situation to maximise performance. Therefore, situational leadership benefits from the situational approach which places the leader in a situation that becomes a variable of performance. Situational leadership is also based on the assumption that changes occur over time, calling for the leader to use sophisticated diagnostic skills to assess these developmental changes, matching them with leadership style, ranging from directive to supportive (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, Yukl, 2006). Fielder, the originator of the contingency leadership theory, believes that the leadership approach is a reflection of personality and behaviour. Therefore, Fieldier's studies used the contingency leadership theory model to determine leadership styles. The results from the studies revealed that, when the situation matches the leadership style, there is high performance (House & Aditya 1997). Therefore, the contingency leadership theory is based on a match between the leader and the situation. This encompasses the situation, depending on the relationships between leaders and followers, the task difficulty, and the power of the leader. Following the situational approach route, the contingency theory has also been widely used by industry because it is relatively easy to identify the effectiveness of individuals in various contingency situations (Bass 1990).

### **2.3.3.2 Transformational/transactional leadership theories**

Discussion about transformational leadership points to leaders and followers' relationship and level of motivation (Bass, 1990; Burn 1978). On the other hand, the transactional leadership theory describes motivating followers by eliciting their self-interest. In this case, the transactional leader exchanges pay and status for work. Therefore, influence in transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority. However, according to Bass (1991), transactional leadership does not only bank on incentive and rewards, it also encompasses clarification of

the work. Conversely, transformational leadership may be exercised by anyone in an organisation, therefore this theory aims to transform individuals by exercising an exceptional influence over them so that they perform beyond expectations (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). The core concepts are charisma and vision and the main strategies are long-term goals, ethics, high standards, values, emotions, and high levels of stimulation. As with most leadership endeavours, the transformational leadership theory activates the motivation in followers. Therefore, transformational leadership seeks to inspire vision, and to empower others; hence it is applicable to higher education (Kezar, Carducci, & Contreras-McGavin, 2006). However, as viewed by Bass (1985), transformational and transactional leadership are distinct but not detached from each other: the leader may use either style under different circumstances.

### **2.3.3.3 Connective leadership theory**

The connective leadership model was developed while in search of the various behaviours used by men and women to achieve goals (Lipman-Blumen, 1996). However, this was prompted by reports by Horner (1968) and Rubenstein (1971), that men and women are motivated by different factors. Men achieve goals directly, individually, and competitively; on the other hand, women use a more indirect, collaborative, and vicarious approach. After several refinements of the initial ideas, the connective leadership model eventually emerged and was based on the understanding that leaders must adopt a leadership style compatible with the context (Lipman-Blumen, 1996). Therefore, connective leadership is the leadership style that enhances the connectivity between the various elements of business (Fulton-Calkins & Milling, 2005; Lipman-Blumen, 2000). This involves collaborative and joint efforts of actors that might spread globally. Therefore, the leadership task in connective leadership is to synchronise workers in order to ensure that they achieve the common goal of the organisation (Fulton-Calkins & Milling, 2005). Connective leadership is situation based, hence businesses require leaders with a keen eye to identify the actors with skill, thereafter assigning them tasks that may be mutually beneficial to both members and the company (Lipman-Blumen, 1996; 2000). Therefore, according to Lipman-Blumen (1992), connective leadership is derived from its character of connecting individuals, but also from those of the group and community who depend on the accomplishment of mutual goals. It is leadership that connects individuals to others and others' goals, using a broad spectrum of behavioural strategies (Lipman-Blumen, 1998). Connective leadership, through different studies, has revealed the ability to adapt leadership to suit the context (Lipman-Blumen, 1992; 1996; 1998; 2006). Hence, connective

leadership is appropriate in connecting leaders with academic members, academic to academic, academic to institution, leader to institution, and institution to institution.

Exploration of the leadership theories reveals a pattern reflecting that all theories aim at successful performance and attainment of the organisation's goal. All theories strive to benefit more from the followers, by incentive, rewarding, and persuading, or by motivating and connecting the proper skills with the context. Therefore, the connective leadership theory will connect followers through both transactional and transformational measures in a context which requires connected force to perform.

## **2.4 Theoretical Framework**

Theories are believed to be apposite tools for research in various ways. In order to select an appropriate theory, the theory must at least meet the basic standards, or demonstrate the potential to be used (Hart, 1998). There must be sufficient evidence that the theory is applicable to the proposed context. Therefore, the choice of potential theory begins with compatibility of the problem and objective of the study (Cai, 2010). Studies are sometimes broad in that they require more than one theory; different theories differ in focus, hence some are more widely used than others. Similarly, in this study, different theories and frameworks are employed at different stages of the study. However, the major theory is the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), followed by the Higher Education Leadership Framework (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Trow, 1985).

### **2.4.1. Theory of planned behaviour**

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) dates as early as 1975, when Fishbein and Ajzen proposed a theory known as the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). At the initial stage of TRA, attitude and subjective norms were perceived to have full influence on behavioural intention, an immediate determinant of behavioural achievement. They remained the fundamental blocks for this theory. The theory assumed that there is no barrier to performance of the intended behaviour (Giles & Larmoir, 2000). The TRA generated more research in a wider variety of settings (Sheppard, Jon, & Warshaw, 1988). However, its strength appears to lie not only in its fairly accurate ability to predict behavioural intention and behaviour, but also in the ability to provide a basis for identifying where and how to target strategies for changing behaviour (Sheppard, Jon, & Warshaw, 1988). However, Ajzen's (1991) critique of TRA resulted in

adding a third variable known as perceived behaviour control. It was discovered that successful performance of a particular behaviour is considered dependent not only on motivation, but also on adequate control over the behaviour in question. This was the birth of the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Ajzen recognised that behaviour might have various obstacles both internal and external. In addition, other behaviour may have inherent deficiencies, of skills, ability, or knowledge that may limit goal attainment. Hence, perceived behaviour control was developed to address such challenges. Therefore, the Theory of Planned Behaviour has three independent determinants of intention known as attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norms towards the behaviour, and perceived behaviour control (Ajzen, 1991). These determinants lead to behaviour intention, which results in fulfilled behaviour.

#### **2.4.1.1. Perceived attitude**

Perceived attitude in TPB is a combination of behaviour belief regarding the possible outcome and the outcome evaluation of advantages and disadvantages. Primarily, attitude towards behaviour is a product of a better understanding of the behaviour, in that it arises from understanding the potential outcomes and the possible advantages and disadvantages after evaluation. In other words, attitude towards behaviour is an overall evaluation of the consequences of the performing of the behaviour as either positive or negative. In this case, when the evaluation of the behaviour outcome is desirable, the result is positive attitude, whereas a negative attitude results when the evaluation is undesirable. Therefore, attitudes are determined by belief about outcomes and attributes of performing the behaviour weighed by evaluating the attributes. A person who holds strong beliefs that positively value the outcome which result from performing the behaviour will have a positive attitude towards the behaviour. However, a person who holds strong beliefs that negatively value outcome results from the behaviour will have a negative attitude (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Therefore, this means that a person's attitude towards a particular behaviour reflects an evaluative reaction, favourable or unfavourable towards engaging in the behaviour. Attitude towards internationalisation will emerge from an analysis of the benefits and opportunities which come with internationalisation, and this will lead to motivation to internationalise.

#### **2.4.1.2. Perceived subjective norms**

Subjective norm is an association of normative belief on whether people will approve or disapprove the behaviour and motivation to comply with behaviour requirements. Hence, subjective norms are individual beliefs on whether the behaviour will be approved or disapproved, and on the motivation of the individual to comply with the expectation. Therefore, a person's subjective norms are directly or indirectly determined by normative beliefs, whether other people approve or disapprove performance of the behaviour. A person who believes that a certain group of people approves that he or she should perform the behaviour is motivated to meet the expectation of the community, holding positive subjective norms. Conversely, when one believes that people do not approve the performance of the behaviour, negative subjective norms are evident; the person is less motivated to comply with the behaviour (Ajzen, 2005). Therefore, subjective norms sum up an individual perceived expectation that other people approve or wish someone to avoid the target behaviour. This is applicable in internationalisation when one introduces a programme and the response from the international community is either to endorse the programme or wish it to cease. The feedback and reaction from the international community either encourages or discourages; it reflects whether or not the programme is accepted. Eventually, this causes the success or failure of the programme.

#### **2.4.1.3. Perceived behaviour control**

The perceived behaviour control demonstrates a combination of control belief about what enables or prevents performance of the behaviour and perceived power over factors that may limit or enhance performance of the behaviour. PBC is also believed to incorporate both internal factors (skills) and external factors (pressure) (Huchting, Lac, & LaBria, 2008). However, it is clear that PBC is a major predictor in the TPB, because it has two routes of influence. It either influences the behaviour through intention, or it directs the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). PBC is determined by control beliefs concerning the presence of facilitators and barriers to behaviour performance. This is weighed by evaluating a persons' commitment that shows degrees of control. Control is therefore synonymous with confidence in the ability required to perform a goal-directed behaviour. However, there are some concerns expressed regarding the conceptualisation of PBC. The definition of the concept is unclear to the extent that it is sometimes likened to Bandura's concept of self-efficacy, concerned with judgment of how well one may execute courses of actions required to deal with the prospective situation.

Nevertheless, the inclusion of this variable is conceptualised as an estimate of the extent to which a person has control over performance of the behaviour in question (Giles & Larmour, 2000). Therefore, PBC reflects the influence of personal capacities and perceived constraints regarding the target behaviour (Ajzen, 2005). This variable is consistent with and valuable to the study because it reveals factors which the leadership and institution will use to determine the internationalisation activity, based on the degree of control over the activities and the available capacity in terms of resources.

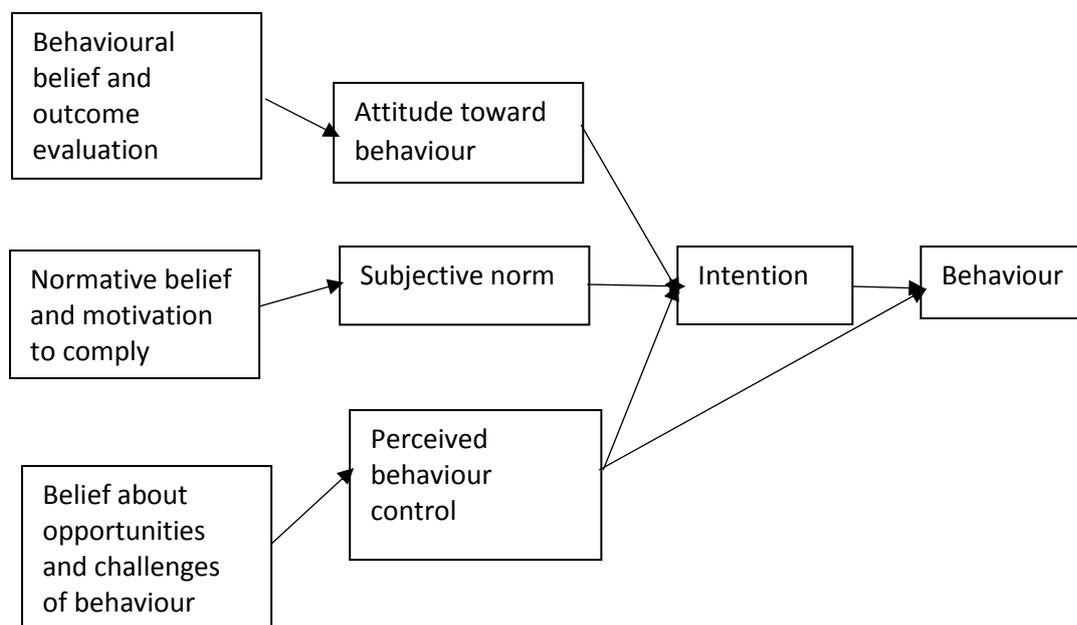


Figure 2.1 Theory of Planned Behaviour- Ajzen (1991)

Although the Theory of Planned Behaviour is better understood in terms of behaviour, normative, and control beliefs, studies have revealed that social background factors which include age, gender, socio-economic status, information, among others, are also influential. This means that people growing up in different social environments will have different ‘social capital’ that provides a basis for their belief regarding the consequences of the behaviour, normative, and control beliefs. In addition, the relative importance of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control in the prediction of intention is expected to vary, dependent upon the type of behaviour and the nature of the situation (Ajzen, 1991). With respect to the influence of perceived behaviour control on intention, Ajzen (2005) states that perceived behavioural control may not be particularly realistic when a person has relatively little information about the behaviour; when requirements or available resources have changed; or when new and unfamiliar elements have entered into the situation. This means that there are

other dominant influences from knowledge and understanding that inform or provide a basis for belief about the consequences of the behaviour apropos of normative expectations and opportunities, and risks of performing the behaviour. Therefore, knowledge and understanding is a single factor that has a relationship with belief and perception.

Ajzen (1991) described TPB as open to further elaboration if yet other important proximal determinants are identified. It was emphasised that the TPB is, in principle, open to the inclusion of additional predictors, if it may be shown that they capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention or behaviour after the theory's current variables have been taken into account (Conner & Armitage, 1998), hence the added knowledge and understanding as an indirect determinant of behaviour.

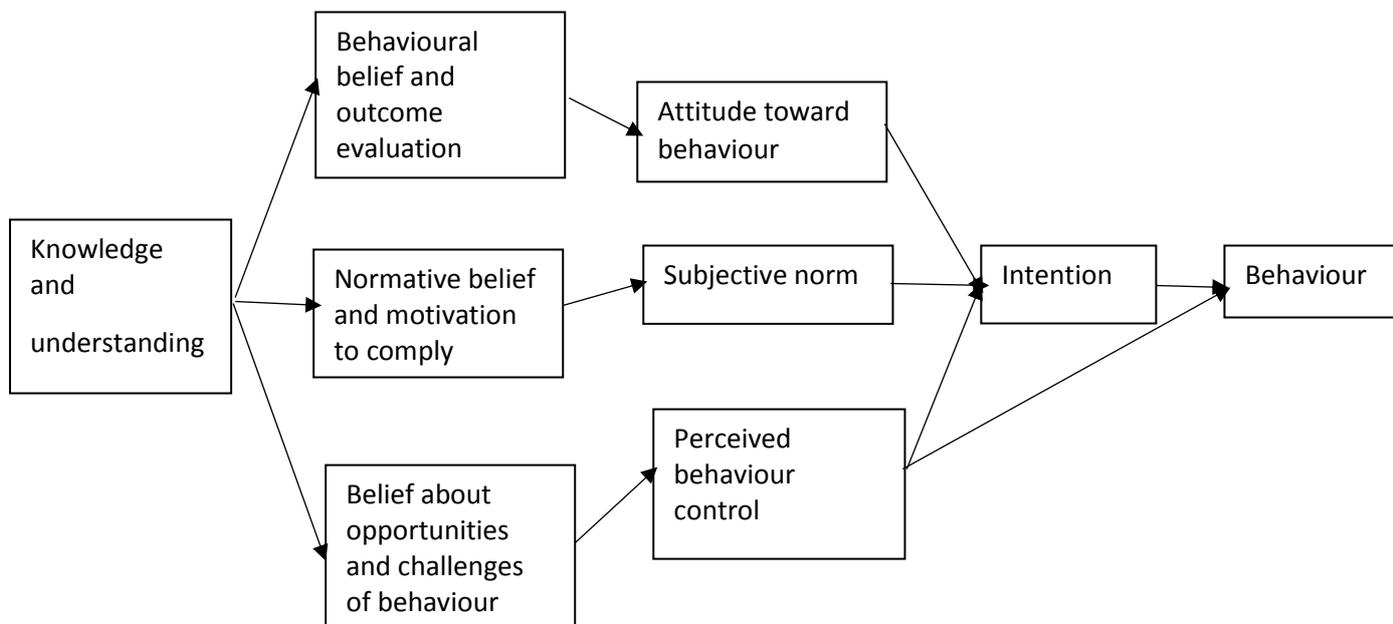


Figure 2.2 Modified theory of planned behaviour, including knowledge and understanding

Since the expected knowledge to inform the belief is diverse, theories of knowledge argue that referent or conceptual knowledge and problem-centred or procedural knowledge may not be acquired in isolation. However, critical understanding of a concept leads to a thorough process; and emphasis of one concept in isolation limits understanding. Hence, there is greater interaction between knowledge, cognitive processes, and direct experiences (Glaser, 1993).

Although knowledge has the potential to inform belief and perception, there is no clear, concrete, established link with attitude, subjective norms, and perceived control. Nevertheless, the knowledge and understanding factors may be traced to their impact on the determinants of

intention. Therefore, knowledge and understanding will influence intentions and behaviour indirectly by their effects on behaviour belief, normative belief, or control belief; and through the belief, their effects on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control, ultimately intention, and action (Ajzen, 2005); in the same vein, knowledge and understanding of higher education. Higher-education leadership and internationalisation of higher education will have either a direct or indirect influence on the decisions and choices made regarding internationalisation implementation.

#### **2.4.1.4. Appropriateness of theory of planned behaviour**

The appropriateness of TPB hinges on the fact that it provides a framework of selected factors that may influence behaviour. The theory addresses not only individual or institutional beliefs and attitudes but also interpersonal or inter-institutional factors as a subjective norm, which is important for shaping internationalisation. The TPB is an appropriate framework because it identifies underlying beliefs relevant to leadership of institutions, thereby affecting their attitudes, norms, and perceived behaviour control that allow applicants to understand their reasons for motivating behaviour. The theory is also flexible in that it is not only used in health science, in which it has predominantly been used, but it also evaluates behaviours from other disciplines (Giles & Larmour, 2000; Huchting, Lac & LaBria, 2008). In this case, it will be behaviour towards implementation of internationalisation of higher education. The theory is also flexible in terms of methodology of study. Despite being dominated by quantitative studies, there are qualitative studies, which have been conducted using the TPB (Tsiantou, Shea, Martinez, Agious, Basa, Faresjo, Moschandreas, Samoutis, Symoulakis, and Lionis, 2013; Zoellner, Krzeski, Harden, Cook, Allen, & Estabrooks, 2012). Hence this descriptive qualitative study will use the same theory of planned behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour will not only address leadership beliefs but also subjective norms, which are important in shaping internationalisation. Furthermore, the TPB is an appropriate framework in that it identifies underlying beliefs relevant to implementation of internationalisation of higher education, thereby affecting the attitudes, norms, and perceived behaviour control, allowing leadership to understand the reason and motivations for implementing internationalisation.

## 2.4.2 Higher-education leadership frames

Martin Trow (1985) in his article *Comparative Reflections on Leadership in Higher Education*, presents leadership in higher education in large part as the taking of effective action to shape the character and direction of a college or university, presumably for the better. Leadership shows itself chiefly along four dimensions: symbolic, political, managerial, and academic. In this case, the symbolic dimension is the ability to express, to project, indeed to seem to embody, the character of the institution, its central goals and values, in a powerful way. Internally, leadership of this kind serves to explain and justify the institution and its decisions to participants by linking its organisation and processes to the larger purposes of teaching and learning in ways that strengthen their motivation and morale. Externally, a leader's ability to articulate the nature and purposes of the institution effectively helps to shape its image, affecting its capacity to gain support from its environment and to recruit able staff and students. The political dimension refers to a leader's ability to resolve the conflicting demands and pressures of his many constituencies, both internal and external, and in gaining their support for the institution's goals and purposes, as he defines them. The managerial dimension is the familiar capacity to direct and coordinate the various support activities of the institution; this includes good judgment in the selection of staff, the ability to develop and manage a budget, planning for the future, and building and maintaining a plant. Finally, the academic dimension shows itself, among other aspects, as the ability to recognise excellence in teaching, learning, and research; in knowing where and how to intervene to strengthen academic structures; in the choice of able academic administrators, and in support for them in their efforts to recruit and advance talented teachers and scholars.

Bolman and Deal (2008), in their book; *Reframing Organisations: Artistry, Choice and leadership*, discuss four element frames for leading organisations. These include: Structural, Human Resource, Political, and Symbolic. The structural frame is focused on positioning the right people in the appropriate roles, creating organisational structures, and strategically using committees and task forces to lead. The human resource frame assumes a co-dependency between the organisation and the people employed by it. Leaders see the people within the organisation both as its most important asset and its competitive advantage. In the political frame, interest groups and scarce resources result in power and position being an important element in negotiating goals and decisions. Finally, the symbolic frame relies on creating

meaning, instilling faith, and using symbols and ceremonies to develop a culture that is unified and committed to a vision.

Table 2.3 Martin Trow (1985) and Bolman and Deal (2008) Leadership Dimensions

1	Symbolic Leadership –Trow (1985)	1	Symbolic Leadership – Bolman & Deal (2008)
	<p>Express the character of the institution and its central goals.</p> <p>Link its organisation and processes to the larger purposes of teaching and learning in ways that strengthen their motivation and morale.</p> <p>Articulate the nature and purposes of the institution to gain support from its environment.</p> <p>Recruit able staff and students</p>		<p>Symbolic leaders create meaning, belief, and faith.</p> <p>Activity and meaning are loosely coupled.</p> <p>People create symbols to resolve confusion, find direction, and anchor hope and faith.</p> <p>Culture forms the superglue that binds an organisation, unites people, and helps an enterprise accomplish desired ends.</p>
2	Political Leadership	2	Political Leadership
	<p>Resolve the conflicting demands and pressures of many constituencies, both internal and external.</p> <p>Gain support for the institution’s goals and purposes</p>		<p>Organisations are coalitions of assorted individuals and interest groups.</p> <p>Scarce resources and differences place conflict at the centre and make power the most important asset.</p> <p>Goals and decisions emerge from bargaining and negotiating among competing stakeholders.</p>
3	Managerial Leadership	3	Human Resource
	<p>Direct and coordinate the various support activities of the institution</p> <p>Select staff members</p>		<p>Most important asset is people.</p> <p>Organisations work for people and people work for organisations.</p>

	Develop and manage a budget Plan for the future Build and maintain a plant		Organisations exist to serve human needs. Individuals find meaningful and satisfying work; and organisations gain the talent and energy they need to succeed. Organisations invest in people as their competitive advantage
4	Academic Leadership	4	Structural
	Recognise excellence in teaching, learning, and research Strengthen academic structures Choose able academic administrators. Recruit and advance talented teachers and scholars		Leaders place people in the most apposite roles and relationships. Structures are designed to fit current circumstances. Analyse and restructure to remedy performance problems. Working committees are created objectively based on knowledge/skills/customers/regions

Table 2.2 provides a summary of elements associated with the higher-education leadership framework from Trow (1985), and Bolman and Deal (2008), which will be discussed in this study to illuminate the higher-education leadership perspective. These frames will serve as guidelines in understanding internationalisation leadership activities. The discussion will be about the frames in relation to leadership situations, documents being relevant to and consistent with the purpose of the study. This will offer a different perspective, the use of both at once never having been done before.

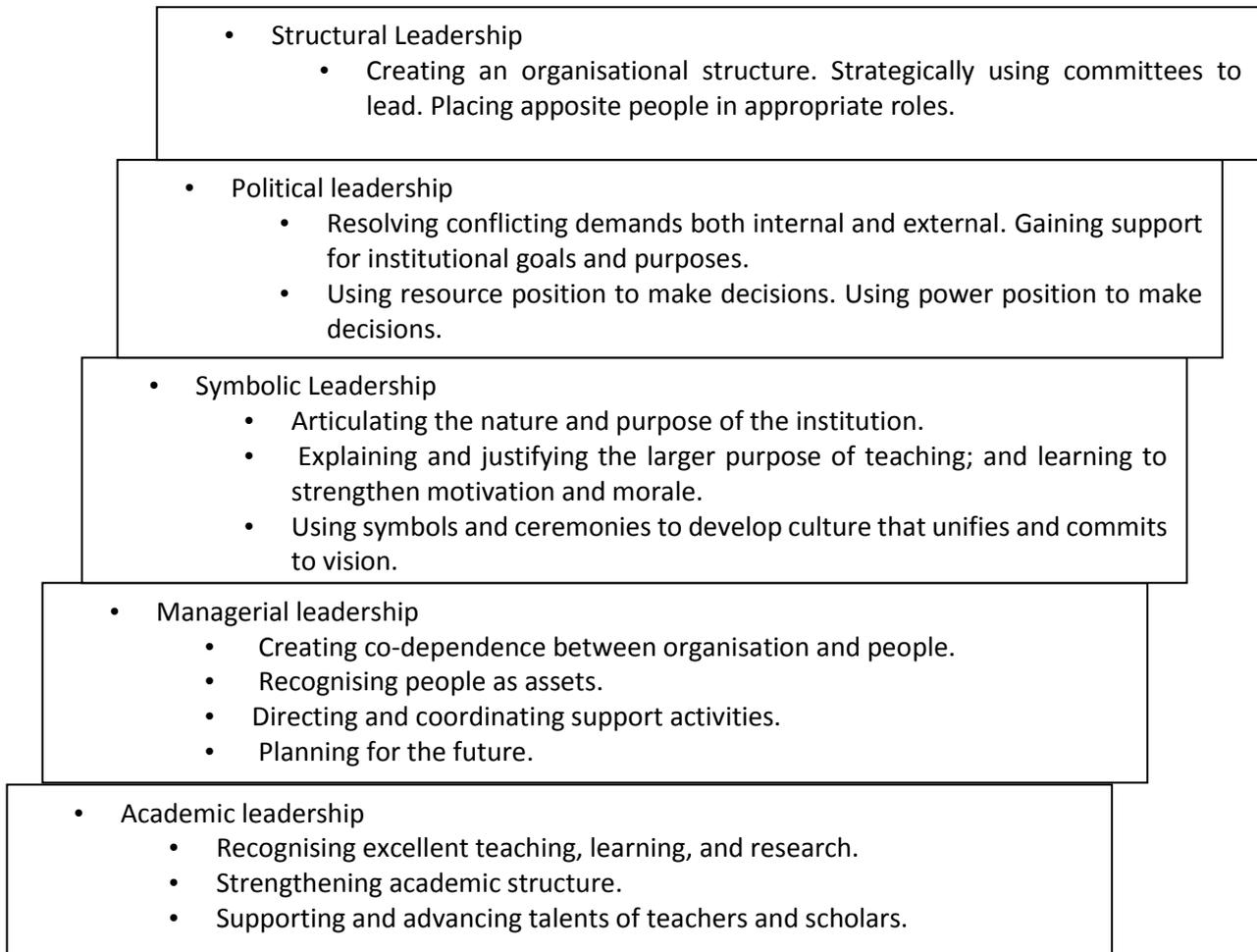
Exploring Bolman and Deal 2008 shows that these researchers place much value on matching the frame to the specific situation in order to enhance understanding of the organisation, hence helping to accomplish the intended purpose. Martin Trow sees that leadership varies in the way in which talents and energy are distributed. Therefore, effective action must be taken to shape the character and direction of the university. In the context of the University of Malawi, understanding of the organisation and the most effective action for shaping the direction with

regard to internationalisation is relevant. The frame appears sufficient and critical, with reference to the previous discussions appearing in the same chapter, on academic organisation and the nature of governance. Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley, (2000) recognise that leadership influence on governance of higher education may be constrained by many factors, functions, and effects. However, the ability to identify the type of governance may help the type of leadership which enables greater success in achieving institutional goals.

#### **2.4.2.1 Modified five-dimension leadership frame**

Although the two frames are different in relation to focus and coverage, they are relevant to higher education as an organisation. Bolman and Deal (2008)'s focus is general and aligned towards organisational structure and operations; however, this does not come out clearly on academic activities. While Trow (1985) has aligned the discussion with specific purposes such as academic elements, he does not clarify the relationship between the organisation and the people. However, in the context of the current higher education and activities related to internationalisation, combining the two will provide an appropriate framework for higher-education leadership. Therefore, the modified five-dimensional higher education leadership frame emerged from the reflections on Bolman and Deal (2008) and Trow (1985), as well as from insights into leadership activities relating to internationalisation of higher education. The frame differs in that it is addressing clear and specific activities, has a broader coverage, and recognises the academic, structural, and managerial imperatives. The five-dimensional leadership framework represents a continuous sequence in the organisation operation. All the leadership dimensions are at the same level of importance; and the sequence of operation has no direction, because the sequence is based on appropriate tasks rather than direction.

Figure 2.3 Higher education modified five-dimensional framework



The modified structural leadership dimension will create and recognise the organisational structure in relation to university culture in which decisions are made by committees (Birnbaum 1989). Leadership will also lead the allocation of the right people for the right purpose both in the structure and in the committees. As argued by Kezar (2004), effectiveness occurs when the structure includes key individuals with the necessary expertise and a clear understanding of their roles. The political-leadership framework will have a political decision-making role. Decisions should be based on position and expected opportunities both internal and external. The university environment is prone to conflicts owing to diversity and complexity emanating from loosely coupled, pigeonholed, and international characteristics (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Cross, Mhlanga & Ojo, 2011; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Vroom, 1984). Hence, the political framework is expected to enhance resolution of conflicts both from internal and external fronts. The symbolic leadership framework will have to bring knowledge and understanding of the purpose and objectives of the university.

Universities are known to have vague and abstract goals (Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000; Vroom, 1984), hence the leadership is expected to clarify the objectives. The clarification will extend to explaining and justifying the core roles of the university, teaching, learning, and research. The leadership is expected to develop a positive culture and commitment to the institution's vision. The cultural diversity is also expected to be understood, both from the national and the international perspective. Managerial leadership looks at the interface between people and the organisation. Workers expect to effectively contribute to the organisation, hence the framework recognises people as an asset, with leadership supposed to coordinate the activities. Leadership will look at the future expectations and implications both financially, in the form of budget; and from the human-resource point of view in the form of peoples' welfare. Academic leadership is an important leadership frame, despite academicians known to be ambivalent about taking control; however, this frame will help to maintain academic excellence. It will demand expertise in acknowledging and recognising excellent achievements in academic activities. The leadership is also expected to support and enhance academic advancement of teachers and scholars.

Although the five-dimensional leadership framework is a merger of Trow (1985), Bolman, and Deal (2008), and has not been tested independently, this framework is relevant because it addresses issues more closely related to each of the five leadership dimensions and the higher-education institution roles.

#### **2.4.2.2 Appropriateness of the framework**

The modified five-dimensional higher education leadership framework introduces leaders to think flexibly about appropriate leadership approaches that fit the organisation. With reference to previous discussions on academic organisations and the nature of governance, in which collegial, bureaucratic and political perspectives were reviewed, it appears that all frameworks are applicable. With the collegial atmosphere prevailing in universities, it would appear that human resources, management, and symbolic frameworks of leadership are critical, in order to respond to university objectives apropos of the community. It is evident that the current trends in universities, with multiple cases of scarce resources owing to reduced funding and economic challenges, will make political and symbolic frameworks relevant. However, higher education has its own culture; each institution has a unique culture that may either assist or resist leadership in achieving internationalisation (Cross, Mhlanga & Ojo, 2011). The five-dimensional leadership framework introduces leaders to flexibility on appropriate leadership

approaches that benefit the organisation, interchanging them or operating them simultaneously. When scarce resources are the prevailing factors, the political framework will be appropriate. When heavily funded, the structural and symbolic frameworks may be used in order to appropriately allocate the available resources. Where there is tension among members or a tense situation, the managerial and political frameworks may be useful in creating a coalition to advance priorities. It is the leadership's responsibility to understand the trend institutions have taken in their attempts to internationalise, taking into account the type of governance being advocated. Therefore, leaders will be effective in referring to any of the five frameworks of leadership when addressing complexities apropos of internationalisation.

## **2.5 Chapter Summary**

Chapter Two provided a detailed literature review which covered aspects of internationalisation, higher education, higher-education leadership and theoretical frameworks. The genesis of international higher education in relation to internationalisation was discussed both globally and continental wise, in order to follow the evolution stages of the concept. Internationalisation definition, diverse rationales, approaches, strategies, and various internationalisation activities were presented in detail. Higher-education leadership was discussed in order to understand the complexity and appreciate the task of leadership of higher education. Finally, the theory of planned behaviour and higher-education leadership frameworks were discussed as central theories in a theoretical framework. However, the theories were modified and improved to sufficiently address the objective of the study and to be useful during the analysis of the study. The next chapter presents an overview of the study design and methodology used to conduct this study.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

The study is designed to understand the internationalisation of higher education from a leadership perspective. In order to understand this phenomenon, a research design was proposed as the procedure for conducting the study, whose purpose is to specify a plan for generating data to be used in answering the research questions (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). There are several research designs available; however, the common goal is the intention to find results which will draw the most valid and reliable conclusions from the answers to the research questions (Creswell, 2007).

This study intends to increase understanding of internationalisation of higher education as a phenomenon in a particular locale, from the study participants' perspective. The study followed the interpretive paradigm using a qualitative approach, which comprises concept analysis and case-study methodologies. This interpretive study is rooted in ontological interrogation and epistemological belief that social reality is constructed by people who participate (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). According to the interpretive paradigm, understanding is filtered through human beings. People construct and interpret knowledge, and therefore knowledge is relative and specific (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Hence, this study recognises a university as organisation which has leaders who make strategic decisions when defining what is essential for its survival.

The first part of the study aims to understand how internationalisation of higher education is defined and understood. This is designed to respond to the first critical question of the study, which seeks to investigate the definition and meaning of internationalisation within higher education. Concept analysis is a method of inquiry resulting in clarification, identification, and the meaning of words (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). Concept analysis requires the same skill and level of rigour as any other research method (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). Walker and Avant (2005) stated that determining the defining attribute is the most critical part of concept analysis. Defining the attributes may be done by searching for the cluster of attributes that are the most frequently associated with the concept (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). McMillan and Schumacher (2014) assert that concept and conceptual analysis are associated with a study that clarifies the meaning of a concept by describing the essential or generic meaning, the various meanings, and the appropriate usage for the concept (Baldwin & Rose, 2009; McMillan & Schumacher,

2014). Furthermore, when the definition of a concept is not clear, the ability of the concept to assist fundamental tasks is greatly impaired (Rodgers, 1989). Thus, the appropriate methodology for understanding definition challenges of a concept such as internationalisation of higher education is concept analysis (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). More about concept analysis is presented in Chapter Four. The second part of the study understood the approach and the strategies leaders use during internationalisation of higher education in Malawi. This is a search for the way in which leaders respond to the implementation of internationalisation of higher-education activities. An apposite approach was the qualitative case-study method through face-to-face semi-structured interviews. This approach focuses on understanding the experiences present within a single setting (Eisenhart, 2007).

### **3.2 Qualitative Study Design**

Much has been written about the superiority and limitations in the use of qualitative design (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Creswell, 2007; Marshall, 1996; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). However, critiques have labelled the qualitative research method flawed, stating that it is inferior to quantitative research, without appreciating the purpose of the qualitative research method and comparing its weaknesses with the weaknesses of the quantitative research method (Denzin, 2009; Marshall, 1996). Some of the scholars are actually offering a ‘straw man’ argument in order to criticise qualitative efforts and trends, before offering a prescription for success (Kvale, 1994). It is a methodological fallacy to expect qualitative research to be conducted or have the same results as quantitative research because each research type has a different purpose, for which it uses different tools (Creswell, 2007). Marshall (1996) observed that the choice between quantitative and qualitative research methods is primarily determined by the research question, and not by the preference of the researcher. Hence, the tendency of criticising as a means of justifying a different method is unfounded. Qualitative case study is important for this study because it is more descriptive, holistic, explorative, and contextual in its design, aiming to produce a rich description of explored phenomena (Creswell, 2007).

A number of previous studies on internationalisation of higher education have searched for qualitative rather than quantitative data in attempting to understand the phenomenon (Chan & Dimmock, 2008; Childress, 2009; Cross, Mhlanga & Ojo, 2011; Taylor, 2004; Warwick 2014 Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004). This study also became familiar with internationalisation of higher education by generating qualitative data through two approaches, in order to contribute and enrich the understanding of the phenomenon. This qualitative research study came to grips

with internationalisation of higher education, viewing it from the perspective of the participants. Thus, qualitative research provided naturally occurring information which helped to increase understanding of the phenomenon. Data was collected in close proximity to the specific situation within the local context. This enabled the study of the phenomenon, making sense or interpreting it with respect to the meaning brought by respondents (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). The whole essence of the qualitative approach is that it is naturalistic. It studies real people in natural settings rather than in artificial isolation (Babbie, 2013; Creswell, 2007; Denzin, 2009). The key assumption underlying qualitative research is the view that reality is constructed by individuals interacting within their social worlds (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Creswell, 2007). Furthermore, the superiority of qualitative research is underpinned by the desire to discover meaning in small and purposefully selected samples and the researcher is the main instrument for data generation, inductive analysis, and comprehensive description of findings (Creswell, 2007). Thus, the central purpose of qualitative study is to contribute to a process of revision and enrichment of understanding, rather than verifying earlier conclusions. Hence, against this background and the nature and the purpose of the study, the appropriate methodology for this study was the qualitative research methodology.

### 3.3 Case Study

A case study is a research strategy which focuses on understanding the complexity and context of behaviour present within a single setting in order to contribute to action and intervention (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Case study may also be understood as a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). While Creswell defined case study as a single instance of a bound system such as a child, a class, a school, or a community, others describe bounded as being 'too tight'. Yin (2003) contended that the line between the phenomenon and its context is blurred as such, a case study is important in setting the case within its context. This means that a case may either be tightly bounded or sometimes less so. Tracy (2010) indicated that the case study involves either single or multiple cases and sub-cases or numerous levels of analysis. Within the broader qualitative-research methodology, the researcher uses a case-study approach, focusing on a single case which leads to studying the responses of the leaders as well as the strategic intentions of the university as a whole. This may present the advantage of extensive analysis that yields different insights from the single case. Therefore, case-study research is an evidence-based research and evidence-led approach that encompasses various research

methods with the aim of generating an in-depth understanding of a specific topic (McMillan & Schumacher 2014). Despite criticisms of case study as a research method, case study has proved popular in education in general, and internationalisation of higher education in particular. Some studies benefiting from a case-study approach include one in which Taylor (2004) examined the preparation of strategies and implementation of internationalisation on institutional management using the case of four leading global universities. Welch, Yang, and Wolhuter (2004) used a case of an extremely peripheral and historically marginalised South African university. Here the researchers investigated the state of internationalisation. Chan and Clive (2008) scrutinised the part played by internationalisation in the functioning of two universities using both the internationalist and the translocation concepts. Stensaker, Frolich, Gornitzka, and Maassen (2008) viewed the impact of growing emphasis on internationalisation on higher-education institutions in the case of 12 Scandinavian universities and colleges. In America, Childress (2009) targeted institutional plans for internationalisation, using the case of 31 institutions. Cross, Mhlanga, and Ojo (2011) had the Witwatersrand University as a case study, examining emerging concepts of internationalisation in one institution within South Africa.

Although the presented studies provide an insight into different case studies of internationalisation, understanding the experience is a complex undertaking, given the history of the various countries. The complexity arises from several factors, however, it is clear that even countries in Africa as a continent have regional and national differences regarding participation in internationalisation (Kotecha, 2012). Hence, this case study extends the literature on internationalisation in Africa in general and Malawi in particular; focusing on leadership response to internationalisation, using the case of the University of Malawi. According to Yin (2009), case studies are suitable when ‘how and why’ questions are under investigation. The focus of this study is to understand how and why leadership of higher education is responding as it does to the internationalisation activities. Therefore, this study intends to shed light on the internationalisation of higher education as a phenomenon, using the case of the University of Malawi. Yin (2003) indicated a number of advantages of the case-study method which include:

- the data is readily understandable by readers, as it is close to their experience of the world;

- The inductive leap from the particular to the general is informed by a detailed understanding of the particular with its own inherent complexities;
- Case studies recognise the social construction of reality and meaning, and are therefore capable of providing alternative translations of situations;
- The data, if it is sufficiently well-collected and analysed, may be used at a later date by other researchers as archival material that is historical;
- Case studies are examinations of the existing reality and therefore are capable of contributing directly to bringing about change in a situation;
- Case studies are more publicly accessible if well written and devoid of jargon. They may therefore provide evidence and leave judgements, based upon that evidence, to the reader;
- Case studies also place the researcher into direct contact with the subject of study, thereby providing first-hand experience and allowing critical observations of phenomena which may have been ignored or disregarded by individuals within an institution as being self-evident, and therefore not worthy of inclusion in any verbal reports such as in a survey response or interview; and
- This social construction of what constitutes relevant information is one that needs to be recognised if the researcher is not to fall into the trap of disregarding what may prove to be key information. Therefore, the emphasis of this case-study methodology of a single case is to illustrate the understanding and conceptualisation of internationalisation of higher education. The unit of analysis was clearly defined and it is congruent with the primary intentions of the study (Yin, 2003).

### **3.4 Sampling**

The main aim of a sampling approach is to draw a representative sample from the population so that the results of the study sample are a true reflection of the study. Creswell (2007) emphasises the importance of selecting the appropriate candidates for interviews. The University of Malawi was chosen as the case for this study. The choice of the University of Malawi was based on its profile in Malawi, allowing the researcher to investigate implementation of internationalisation of higher education. The University of Malawi Act of 1998 and the Strategic Plan 2012-2017 confirm that the University of Malawi has both a local and international agenda; and the vision statement focus is training for sustainable development of Malawi and the region. The University of Malawi is a public university, the oldest and the

largest in the country, a member of SANORD, and signatory to SADC and African education protocols. Against that background, the case was chosen in order to understand the responsiveness of the university to internationalisation activities. It was envisaged that the findings of the case study would contribute to the understanding required to revitalise internal and international potential to implement internationalisation. At the time of data generation, the University of Malawi comprised 4 constituent colleges (Chancellor College, College of Medicine, Kamuzu College of Nursing, and the Malawi Polytechnic) with 13 faculties and a total student enrolment of 21233. According to the University of Malawi hierarchy, the chancellor is a titular head with no executive powers. In addition, there are several hierarchical leadership positions, namely, the vice chancellor as executive head, followed by the pro-vice-chancellor as academic head, and the university registrar as administration head. There are also college principals, faculty deans or directors of centres, heads of departments, and administrative staff within the various university units. Furthermore, the university council is the supreme decision-making body, supported by the university senate on academic matters as enshrined in the University Act 1998.

The selection of leaders at the University of Malawi was based on Babbie's (2012) understanding, that sometimes it is appropriate to select a sample on the basis of knowledge of the population, its elements, and the purpose of the study. Although random sampling is a popular approach, because it gives every member the opportunity of being selected, thus giving a better opportunity of generalising the results to the population (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011), it is not particularly effective in understanding a complex phenomenon such as human behaviour. Random sampling requires the whole population to be known: this may be difficult in a complex study. Furthermore, random sampling for representation purposes requires the sampled characteristics to be evenly distributed throughout the population (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). Conversely, qualitative research recognises that some informants are richer than others therefore using random sampling would make it difficult to target specific participants. Therefore, a purposeful sampling strategy was used to select the targeted leaders at the University of Malawi. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2014), a purposeful sampling focuses on selecting information-rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under research. McMillan and Schumacher (2014) elaborate on purposeful sampling, stating that one chooses particular subjects to include based on judgment because these subjects are believed to facilitate the better understanding of the phenomena. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) append that sampling in qualitative research should be guided by the conceptual

question of the study. It is argued that purposive sampling of specific sites being studied, such as leadership within the university being interviewed, compromises confidentiality and anonymity. However, in line with anonymity agreements with participants in this study, the reports will not attribute quotations directly to a particular institution or individual, hence they have been anonymised.

### **3.5 Data generation**

A data-generation strategy is important in qualitative research because the reliability of the study depends on the data-generation trustworthiness (McNamara, 2009). In this study, data was generated from both primary and secondary sources; this educes triangulation. Primary data generation was accomplished through administration of face-to-face semi-structured interviews with a total of seven leaders at the University of Malawi. Interview as a data-generation strategy provides in-depth information pertaining to participant experience of and stance on a particular topic (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014).

This study would have used observation as a data-generation approach because this has the potential to reveal leadership actions (Creswell, 2007). However, such data-generation requires more time and money because time must be spent with each participant. It is also envisaged that leaders may be unwilling to give access to their daily operation or employment, or to operate under observation for a long period. Hence the study opted for qualitative semi-structured interviews, the interview having the merit of targeted and focused data generation on a specific topic of study (Creswell, 2007). The interview method offers insight in providing perceived causal inferences. As with any other method of data generation, the interview method has shortfalls which include bias as a result of poor questioning, response bias, and the possibility of the interviewee expressing what the interviewer wants to hear (Kvale, 1994). However, during this study, the issue of bias was addressed by asking the same questions to all participants in the study, and by avoiding leading questions. All the interviews were recorded in order to eliminate bias practices.

The interview process was audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Information was compiled to establish emerging themes. A significant portion of the data in answer to the research questions came from the interviews. Consequently, interview data was enriched by document analysis of data which was retrieved through comprehensive and thorough review of strategic documents: the strategic plan, the postgraduate policy, and the research and consultancy policy

containing information related to international programmes, support services, and organisational structures. Possible problems with interview data are best mitigated by data generation approaches that limit bias. A key approach of using numerous or highly knowledgeable informants who view the focal phenomena from diverse perspectives, brings trustworthiness to the data (Eisenhardt, 2007). In this case, the higher education leadership should be highly knowledgeable about internationalisation at the institutional level. Interviews were conducted with a total of seven participants face to face in their respective offices. Invitations to participate in the interview were sent out; interviews were scheduled upon receipt of the consent signed letter by the participant. However, scheduling a meeting was difficult because of busy schedules. Coincidentally, data generation coincided with the university's 50<sup>th</sup> anniversary celebration preparations, hence leaders had little time to spare. After telephone calls had been made and reminders sent to the leaders, one meeting was rescheduled per participant until all leaders had successfully been interviewed. The approximate duration of interview per leader was one hour.

For the credibility of participants in terms of higher-education experience and process of the study, the sample was considered 100% acceptable. All participants interviewed indicated that they had risen through the ranks of the University of Malawi to their current positions. They have held various portfolios in the same university. For instance, among the participants, the longest-serving participant has been with the University of Malawi for some 38 years; while the respondent who had served for the least time had been employed there for approximately 15 years. Academically, all leaders have PhDs, except for one senior university leader with a Master's degree in Higher Education Leadership. Professionally, the participants comprised five professors, one associate professor, and one senior university leader. The study also used document analysis as an approach for data generation. Organisational documents have become the staple for qualitative research (Bowen, 2009). There have been insufficient details about the procedures followed during document analysis. However, document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing document material, which, like any other qualitative research method, analyses data to clarify meaning, gain understanding, and develop knowledge (Bowen, 2009; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The document analysis during this study also used thematic analysis. This involves data selection and data characteristics which are pertinent to the phenomenon (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Therefore, thematic analysis was employed as it requires objectivity and sensitivity in the data selection and analysis of data from the documents (Bowen, 2009; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014).

Although document analysis has been often used to complement other qualitative methods as a form of triangulation (Bowen, 2009), in this study it is used to supplement the main data generation, which involved administration of face-to-face, qualitative, semi-structured interviews with seven leaders at the University of Malawi. The document analysis was specifically focused on policy documents, institution objectives, mission and vision statements, and strategic plans. As indicated by Bowen (2009), the number of policies reviewed do not matter as much as does the quality of the documents, and the evidence available to respond to the research purpose. Hence, the intention for document analysis during this study was to establish the institutional commitment, plans, and experience of internationalisation of higher education in Malawi. Therefore, document analysis is a process of evaluating documents so that knowledge and understanding is developed (Bowen, 2009; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014).

### **3.6 Data Organisation**

Since qualitative data is continuous and voluminous, it is advisable to employ tools for managing data, and any other information related to the study (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). In this study, data was sorted and processed manually by creating separate folders for every stage of the process. After transcribing the interview audio-recordings, the actual names of the respondents were replaced with 'L' giving random numbers to enhance anonymity.

As interview or any other data generation approach is conducted, ideas emerge that may be better understood under the control of an appropriate qualitative-data analysis tool. There are several approaches to qualitative-data analysis, such as grounded theory, and discourse analysis, inter alia. This study used the thematic-analysis approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The meaning from the study was established by using the thematic-analysis approach because the thematic approach encourages the recognition of emerging and dominating themes as the focus of the study. A thematic data-analysis approach is a method of identifying and analysing patterns of meaning within a dataset. It usually illuminates the dominant themes, the end result being to highlight the meaning presented by the study. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), the six stages for thematic analysis are: familiarization with data, generating codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing a report. The thematic analysis process is a step-by-step process; it is also a back-and-forth process, which means that steps overlap, a feature which fits well with qualitative research (McMillan &

Schumacher, 2014). In the qualitative research, data analysis makes sense of data in terms of participant definition of the situation (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). The reason for using thematic analysis in this study is that, unlike other qualitative data analysis techniques, the approach is clear in terms of knowledge demand, and does not involve the intricacies of theoretical foundations of qualitative research (Howitt & Cramer, 2011). The theoretical flexibility of this approach was essential in that it allowed the researcher to develop themes without restrictions. Furthermore, the use of a thematic approach was not only motivated by flexibility but also its ability to permit the researcher to use multiple-data sources. Therefore, the inherent features enable the researcher to analyse the data flexibly and systematically.

However, as with many other processes, the thematic analysis approach has inherent weaknesses. As in the case of the family of qualitative data analysis, the thematic approach is labour-intensive, taking a great deal of time. On the other hand, although its flexibility is applauded, there being no accepted standard approach, different researchers apply the thematic approach variously (Howitt & Cramer, 2011). Braun and Clarke (2006) pointed out that other weaknesses of thematic approach are prompted by inappropriate research questions in the methodology of the study. Based on these assertions, unless the researcher takes the initiative to safeguard against these potential weaknesses, the worthiness of the study will be compromised. Therefore, since there were no predetermined codes and categories to explore, the emerging themes were recorded. The themes were analysed within and across themes, as well as according to source (Aronson, 1995; Eisenhart, 2007). Data analysis for this study was conducted manually, not only because the study by Putten and Nohen (2010) revealed inconsistency between software and manual analysis, but also because manual analysis enabled the researcher to understand hidden meanings and concepts; it also enabled the researcher to have a personal experience of the data (Rademaker, Grace & Curda 2012).

### **3.7 Study Design Worthiness**

There are various strategies available within qualitative research to protect against bias, enhancing validity and reliability of the study. However, in qualitative work, the strategy deployed during the study depends on the judgment and skill of the researcher, and the appropriateness to the question answered of the data collected (Johnston & Christensen, 2012). It is evident that all studies are selective, depending on collecting particular sorts of evidence through the prism of particular methods, each of which has its strengths and weaknesses (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Denzin, 2009; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008; McMillan

& Schumacher, 2014). Therefore, objectivity, as freedom from bias, refers to knowledge that is reliable, checked, and controlled, undistorted by personal bias and prejudice, neutral, factual, and confirmable (Kvale, 1994). Hence, in principle, the study may be described as objective research in the sense of its being unbiased. However, unintentional bias by both participant and researcher is a more pervasive problem. During interviews the influence of the participant expectations of the interview and the influence of the interviewer's expectations are more difficult to control (Kvale, 1994). During this study this aspect was minimised by briefing the participants, and by adequate preparation by the researcher (Creswell, 2003).

### **3.7.1 Researcher positioning**

It is crucial for a social researcher to clarify his or her research role, especially for those utilising the qualitative methodology to make their research credible (Unluer, 2012). Therefore, the study began despite the implication of researcher bias in studying a place of work. The researcher had to reflect personal context and point of view, and to maintain and manage this perspective throughout the study. As pointed out by Unluer (2012), researchers take on various roles when they are conducting research. These roles range from complete membership of the group being studied (insider) to complete stranger (outsider). Although there are various understandings of both insider and outsider researcher, the insider researcher is one who chooses to study a group to which he or she belongs, while an outsider researcher does not belong to the group under study (Breen 2007 cited in Unluer, 2012). According to Unluer (2012), being an insider has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages are that one has greater understanding of the culture being studied; one has established intimacy which promotes both telling and judging the truth. The researcher also understands the politics of the institution. This means that the insider has a great deal of knowledge which may take an outsider a long time to negotiate (Unluer, 2012). Therefore, to conduct a credible research, an insider researcher must have explicit awareness of the possible effects of perceived bias on data generation and analysis. It is also important for the insider to address and overcome the disadvantages of being an insider, in order to ensure credible research (Smyth & Holian, 2008). Unluer (2012) presented the disadvantages, which include: role duality, overlooking certain routine tasks, making assumptions about meanings, assuming that the researcher knows everything, assuming that the researcher knows participants' views, and closeness to participants hinders the researcher from seeing all dimensions of the bigger picture (Smyth & Holian, 2008; Unluer, 2012).

The researcher's position in this study is that he is attempting to understand the internationalisation of higher education from a leadership perspective: a case of the University of Malawi. The researcher, however, works for the University of Malawi as a senior lecturer in the Department of Technical Education. The researcher has also, for 6 years, held a leadership position of head of department. However, during this study, preventative approaches were taken, and positioning was maintained. Literature recommends that the more the insider researcher overcomes the bias, the more he or she is able to offer strong themes during analysis. The researcher considered all the ethical requirements such as privacy, by following the anonymity agreements. Therefore, bias was minimised by the researcher's effort to consider his research within the current social circumstances, therefore clarifying the research process (Unluer, 2012).

### **3.7.2 Validity, reliability, credibility, and transferability**

Researchers within the qualitative domain place less emphasis on the aspects of validity, replicability, and reliability, although they underscore the importance of external validity or generalizability (Bryman, 2004). Some researchers view validity and reliability for quantitative and qualitative research as similar, however, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2014) quantitative validity and reliability focus much on instruments and data analysis techniques, while qualitative validity and reliability focus on interview trustworthiness, content of data analysed, and whether the conclusion rests on the data.

However, the evidence of validity must be contested either through generalisation or transferability. Hence, validity is enhanced by providing a sufficiently full description of the research conducted so that the reader may assess the extent to which the conclusion drawn in this context may be transferred to another study (King & Horrocks, 2010). Creswell (2003) proposed eight strategies for ensuring reliability and validity of qualitative study. These strategies are: triangulating the data source, using participants to check the findings, using rich and thought-provoking description to convey the findings, clarify the bias the researcher brings to the study, presenting negative or discrepant information that runs counter to the main theme, spending prolonged time in the field, using peer debriefing, and using an external auditor. However, validity of interpretations in this study was enhanced by triangulation, which is the combination of methodologies in the study applied to the same phenomena (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) have categorised triangulation as:

- Data triangulation – this involves the use of multiple data sources in the same study;
- Theory triangulation – this is the use of multiple perspectives to interpret the data set;
- Methodological triangulation – this entails the use of multiple methods to gather evidence; and
- Investigator triangulation – this occurs when different researchers are involved in data analysis and interpretation of findings (Patton, 1990).

Although the study did not conduct investigator triangulation, the study was able to achieve the multiple methods and data sources. Interviews were conducted with the leaders. Documents, such as policies, were reviewed and analysed. The extent to which the findings and conclusions in a given case study may be obtained in similar contexts and under similar conditions signifies the reliability of the study and its methodology. Where consistency is evident, the instruments used have been able to elicit intended responses consistently, hence reducing the margin of error and bias (Denzin, 2009). Before data generation, a set of research interview schedules was drafted, based on the preliminary conceptualization of internationalisation of higher education. All the activities during the research process were documented, including notes taken during data generation. Finally, it was noted that leaders' views were aligned with the views expressed in the documents.

Reliability is primarily synonymous with dependability and consistency over time, over the instrument, and over a group of respondents (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The use of reliability in qualitative research is still contested. Debates on the naming of reliability in qualitative research have proposed other terms, such as credibility, neutrality, conformability, consistency, dependability, applicability, trustworthiness, and transferability. Therefore, this discussion in research methodology rigour has been simultaneously and interchangeably used as in the list of terms mentioned above (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1988).

Credibility addresses the issues about whether the study is undergirded by an appropriate theory and whether the claimed findings are really there. Hence, the process of research credibility draws rigour strategies to confirm the process appropriateness (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). The strategies which were enhanced during this study for the credibility of the findings

are the research process, which involved the selection of participants, the interview process, and the data analysis process. As pointed out by Bryman (2004), qualitative research on leadership may become clearer if we build sufficiently on the studies of leadership conducted by others. Therefore, credibility was enhanced by using well-established research procedures, and methods already used by other, previous studies (Bryman, 2004; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Based on the literature, there was a conceptual link between this study and previous studies. The study also collected data by using the most appropriate approaches among several available, some of which did not satisfy the requirements for this study (Bryman, 2004; Kvale, 1994; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008). The study administered qualitative semi-structured interviews to leaders at the University of Malawi, as well as document analysis, as the methods of data generation. This revealed various dimensions relating to internationalisation of higher education. The idea of using two methods was to generate as much and as diverse data as possible to facilitate development of meaningful conclusions. The study equally utilised the descriptive approach which Creswell (2003) recommended as a means of enhancing trustworthiness of a qualitative study. Therefore, the phenomenon under study, the context surrounding it, collection and analysis of data, and the findings, are presented in detail. The results presentation is enhanced by the direct quotations from the interview manuscript and the reviewed documents. This was intended to give the study a clear picture, demonstrating that the study is grounded on facts. Therefore, the strategies were not only used to guarantee study worthiness and credibility, but also to generate a richer explanation of data with minimum faults (Gibbs, 2007).

It is argued that qualitative data is better judged on its transferability than on generalisation. This is because qualitative research findings are often specific to a unit of analysis and its environment. Therefore, it is not easy to generalise specific findings and conclusions to another population. This study endeavoured to provide sufficient information on the unit of analysis and the research process to enable readers to establish whether the described situation might be replicated, and whether the findings are transferable to another situation (Bryman, 2004; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). There may be limitations as far as the extent to which describing details of the process is concerned. As argued by Guba (1985), however, the responsibility of the researcher is only to provide a database that may be transferable; the decision on whether it is compatible lies with the user. Therefore, the answer is to have credible results.

### 3.8 Chapter Summary

Chapter Three offered the detailed research design, methodology, and method used during the study. The study was an interpretive qualitative case study of internationalisation of higher education at the University of Malawi. Data generation was through face-to-face interviews administered to seven leaders, and by means of policy documents from the University of Malawi. Data analysis was accomplished through thematic analysis. The worthiness of the study was justified by describing research positioning, research method validity, reliability, credibility, and results transferability.

The following chapter is a discussion on the understanding of internationalisation in relation to definition and clarity of the concept.

## CHAPTER 4

### CONCEPT ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONALISATION

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion from the concept analysis of internationalisation of higher education. The aim is to understand the way in which internationalisation of higher education is defined and understood, using concept analysis. Concept analysis was designed in response to the first critical question of the study's seeking to investigate the definition and understanding of internationalisation of higher education. This required an exploration of the characteristics and attributes that describe and define internationalisation of higher education. The investigation is based on data from literature and from a semi-structured interview administered to 7 leaders at the University of Malawi. The approach was taken on the premise that understanding internationalisation is a predictor to internationalisation implementation, because, according to the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), attitude is one of the key predictors of intended behaviour. However, studies on attitude (Altmann, 2008; Ajzen 2005) have revealed that cognitive ability or understanding is an attribute of attitude, therefore knowledge and understanding will inform attitude, which eventually will have an influence on intended outcome, whether positive or negative. The chapter opens with an introduction and description of concept analysis as a methodology, going on to discuss the evolutionary approach and the procedures. Finally, the results are discussed, and the conclusion drawn.

#### 4.2 Concept Analysis

Although there are some efforts to define and describe internationalisation of higher education by various authors, there are still challenges in developing a common, shared understanding (Knight, 2012, Warwick, 2014). As noted by Zeleza (2012), scholars do not agree on the meaning of internationalisation, because of the diversity and complexity of its rationales, activities, stakeholders, and providers, at the national, sector, and institutional levels. This study employed concept analysis to clarify the understanding of internationalisation of higher education (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). The understanding of internationalisation is important in that the concept has expanded over a period of time to suit the context (Knight, 2008; 2012). As observed by Knight (2012), as internationalisation of higher education expands, similar, but different terms are being introduced as sub-units: this increases the diversity. Therefore, the depth and breadth of analysis helps to provide greater context in an attempt to develop better understanding (McMillan & Schumacher 2014). In the attempt to seek understanding on

internationalisation of higher education, various processes must be explored, such as a degree of linguistic epistemology, in which one uses words and language in order to gain meaning (Polit & Hungler, 1999) and to examine meanings (Burn & Grove, 1993). There is also a philosophical approach through exploration of literature, examining concept meanings and raising questions. Therefore, both approaches were appropriate, in that both allowed data generation to occur simultaneously, to focus on words, also directed to meaning, which may be implied rather than clearly stated. Most importantly, this approach uses the concept analysis which helps to analyse meanings (Burn & Grove, 1999).

Concept analysis is a method of inquiry resulting in clarification, identification, and the elucidation of words (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). This analysis type requires the same skill and level of rigour as any other research method (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). Walker and Avant (2005) stated that determining the defining attribute is the most critical part of concept analysis. Defining the attributes may be achieved by searching for the cluster of attributes that are the most frequently associated with the concept (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). McMillan and Schumacher (2014) assert that concept and conceptual analysis is associated with a study that clarifies the meaning of a concept by describing the essential or generic meaning, the various meanings, and the appropriate usage for the concept (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). Thus, concept analysis is a formal, linguistic procedure which determines attributes of a concept (Walker and Avant, 2005). Concept analysis also entails an assessment process used to explore descriptions of a concept from literature. Morse, Hupcey, Mitcham and Lenz, (1996) defined concept analysis as the process of unfolding, understanding a concept for purposes of delineation, and clarification. This process also reveals an internal structure and relation to other concepts. However, Rapoport (1997) noted that lack of agreement on the meaning of a concept, and lack of operational definition, is usually as a result of lack of theory, however, it could relate to the independence of the concept. Therefore, concept analysis is employed to understand a concept that is unclear, because it clarifies and produces outcomes that allow scholars to distinguish between similar yet different concepts (Baldwin & Rose, 2009). As pointed out by Rodgers (2000), the concepts that are not clear limit the contribution made by the concept, hence, clarifying a concept adds the functionality of the concept in the field.

Therefore, the work of leading higher education and internationalisation may be affected by the nature and lack of clarity on the way in which this should be accomplished. Therefore, differences in what is meant by internationalisation may lead to different conceptualisation of

goals, choices, and outcomes. Higher education institutions may have hazy notions of internationalisation, therefore being indecisive apropos of the concept without knowing its proper meaning. Hence, the purpose of concept analysis of internationalisation is to increase clarity, and add understanding of internationalisation by examining the various ways in which it is used in higher education. Clarifying what is meant by internationalisation may help those practising in a higher education fraternity to understand and communicate with each other about internationalisation of higher education. Clarification of a concept such as internationalisation in its mundane sense may also help decisions and clarity of goals related to higher education. This clarification may be accomplished by examining the ways in which the term has been used in literature. From these definitions, the critical attributes of the term will be determined; thereafter will follow the definition of the concept given by leaders at the University of Malawi.

#### **4.2.1 Concept-analysis process**

The first part of this process is to identify the critical attributes that define the concept of internationalisation of higher education. This eventually reveals the characteristics that indicate the presence of internationalisation of higher education. Analysing and clarifying concepts and their relationship with each other is an integral part of any scholarly research process. In some cases, the analysis is very restricted, and performed in the background at certain phases, while in other cases it may cover larger areas, or even the whole research process (Nuopponen, 2010). In this study analysis only responds to the first critical question of the study, hence it is discussed in one chapter only. According to this study concept analysis has been described as an important tool for clarifying concept and understanding (Walker & Avant, 2005). Since 1963, when the initial concept analysis model was developed (Wilson, 1963), several authors have offered improved or imitated versions of the concept analysis model and clarification approaches (Norris, 1982; Rodgers & Knafelz, 2000; Walker & Avant, 2005; Wilson, 1963). Concept analysis has been found fundamental, because, when the definition of a concept is not clear, the ability of the concept to assist fundamental tasks is greatly impaired (Rodgers, 1989). Similarly, it is difficult to differentiate between the concept of interest and other concepts which may be related. Thus, the technique is particularly valuable when a concept has more than one meaning (Rogers, 1989, 2000; Walker & Avant, 2005). There is general consensus on the purpose of concept analysis which may be summed up as:

- Clarifying the various meanings of existing concepts;

- Developing operational definition;
- Adding to existing theories; and
- Contributing to the development of a conceptual framework (Rodgers & Knafl, 2000; Walker & Avant, 2005; Baldwin, & Rose 2009).

This study has selected the first purpose, the principle purpose being to bring clarity, and add understanding of the concept.

Therefore, concept analysis is a pragmatic and rigorous approach to defining concepts that can make a significant contribution to knowledge and, by implication, to the practise of internationalisation (Rodger, 1989). Concept analysis helps to reveal basic elements of a concept; this facilitates the distinguishing of factors similar to, but not the same as, the concept, shedding light on the similarity and dissimilarity of concepts (Walker & Avant, 2005). Concept analysis, as defined by Nuopponen (2010), is an activity in which concepts, their characteristics, and the relationships that they hold within systems of concepts are clarified and described. In nursing science, in which concept analysis dominates, concept analysis, according to Walker and Avant (2005), focuses on defining the attributes of a concept. Concept analysis has also been used in business studies by Takala and Lämsä (2001) in Nuopponen (2010), who emphasised an interpretative research of concepts, which has as its purpose the interpreting of meanings and definitions of concepts presented. Therefore, the creation of conceptual clarity of terms that have become catchphrases and lost their meaning, is of great importance for this kind of research methodology.

The importance of defining and clarifying concepts and terms cannot be overemphasised, concept analysis providing a knowledge base for practice, by offering clarity and enabling understanding, rather than mere knowing (Wilson, 1963). Hence, in order to understand a concept, the precise and rigorous process of conceptual analysis is relevant. The technique is particularly valuable when a concept has more than one meaning. Concept analysis models began with Wilson in 1963, followed by several developments to improve the process. Hence, Walker and Avant (2005), Rodgers and Knafl (2000), and Rapoport (1997), are among the many who contributed to the development of different models which could be applied as a research approach whether independently or as part of any other type of study using either a qualitative or quantitative approach.

#### 4.2.2 Concept-analysis procedure

This study followed an interpretive paradigm that uses a qualitative approach, which comprises concept analysis. The concept-analysis approach is rooted in the understanding that concept and conceptual analysis is associated with a study that clarifies the meaning of a concept by describing the essential or generic meaning, the various meanings, and the appropriate usage of the concept (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). An evolutionary concept analysis is based on the assumption that a concept is expressed in some form; stressing that concepts change over time, as affected by contextual factors or purposeful definitions using systematic data generation (Rodgers, 2000).

Walker and Avant (2005) advocate a step-by-step analysis whose goal is to elicit an operational definition of the concept. Walker and Avant simplified Wilson's 1963 concept analysis from eleven to eight elements. Furthermore, Walker and Avant consider a concept that changes over time to be cognitively constructed. Rodger's evolutionary concept analysis is relevant for this study in that it is systematic, focusing on phases in the analysis process. It can contribute to the clarification, description, and explanation of the concept by analysing in which way the concept has been used (Toftthagen & Fagerstrom, 2010). The evolutionary concept analysis of Rodgers (2000) advises that significance of the concept to study is an important aspect when choosing a concept, this significance entails that the concept should serve the purpose, contribute to solving problems, and has adequate characteristics. The evolutionary concept analysis views the context of the concept as critical, emphasising the need to recognise the influence of the concept in context. This also entails socialization with the discipline, because the word concept may be defined differently within different disciplines. Therefore this enables the tracing of ontological or theoretical direction within the discipline. Eventually, this illuminates the way in which concept meaning is perceived (ontology) and the way in which the meanings are developed (epistemology). Hence, the strength of evolutionary concept analysis is that it is systematic and focuses on clear phases in the analysis process. Therefore, it contributes to the clarity and description of the concept, by analysing the way in which a chosen concept has been used.

For the methodological review, all the included papers were searched to identify, in the first instance, the area of study. A general search of the Internet using the Google search engine was undertaken to identify any other measures, and reference lists of all identified papers were hand-searched. The inclusion and exclusion process was conducted in order to achieve quality

and worthiness of data. The inclusion criteria were peer-reviewed journal articles and books in which internationalisation was a key focus and/or was assessed. There was no period restriction, the target being to encompass and identify the earlier definitive reports for internationalisation, in order to identify changes in meaning over time, and to be able to provide a representative count of internationalisation research as applied to different periods. This required that the resource title use the term internationalisation of higher education or international education. The Oxford English Dictionary spelling of “internationalisation” was included, in order to be inclusive of international resources. The main exclusion indicator was that, if not published in English, or if no translation was readily available, duplicate resources, and internationalisation, would not be directly related to higher education. The clarification of internationalisation was conducted while cognizant of the following disclaimer. According to the Concise Oxford English Dictionary (Stevenson, 2010), description and definition are two words are often confused when it comes to their meanings and connotations. It is indeed true that the two words are different, conveying different meanings. Description is a detailed meaning of a concept or a phenomenon, whereas definition is a short meaning of a concept or a phenomenon. It is generally felt that description is the enlarged version of the definition. In other words, a concept that is concisely defined may be fully explained through a very elaborate description. However, other schools of thought put it that definition and description go together. Therefore, a definition is often followed by a description: a definition, in many cases, needs the help of a description for better understanding.

The study used the evolutionary-concept analysis approach as proposed by Rodgers (2000). The evolutionary method has eight phases of analysis for a concept analysis (Rodgers, 2000). Although concept analysis as a methodology lacks a specified approach to data analysis, this analysis was conducted using thematic analysis. The thematic data analysis approach is a method for identifying and analysing patterns of meaning in a dataset. It illuminates the dominant themes; the end result is to highlight the meaning presented by the study (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Howitt & Cramer, 2011). Although the thematic analysis is a step-by-step process, it is also a back-and-forth process, which means that steps overlap, a feature which fits well with qualitative research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). However, the evolutionary method allowed for fluidity and change throughout the data generation and analysis process. Therefore, the study focus was on internationalisation attributes and antecedents, internationalisation terms, definitions, and definition evolutions. The procedure involved interviews because universities are seen as socially constructed phenomena with ‘cultural

locatedness'. Conceptual questions such as meaning of internationalisation and motivations for internationalising are understood through the eyes of the participants (Chan & Dimmock, 2008). The accepted minimum number of items to facilitate a credible analysis of a concept using the evolutionary-method data generation approach is 30 items, or 20% of the total population (Cowles & Rodgers, 2000; Rodgers, 2000). For this study, the sample reflected over 20% of the population of useable citations. The resources for data included journal articles, books, interview data, and documents. Each source was initially read to identify the concept under study, in order to provide full immersion in the literature for concept analysis (Rodgers, 2000). The process of data generation was conducted systematically using a coding process. The coding process for collecting topics included: definitions, attributes, surrogate terms, related concepts, antecedents, consequences, and empirical referents. Relevant data from the resources was transcribed verbatim on to the coding sheets.

After following the inclusion and exclusion criteria, the search criteria for internationalisation of higher education or international education produced a sampling framework. Therefore, randomly ordered citations were selected for analysis. The database was wide, and this included Academic Search Premier. Academic Search Premier from Ebsco Host was used as a database search engine. Academic Search Premier is among the largest multidisciplinary academic database search engines available. The search comprised electronic journals and books and hard-copy books, OECD periodicals, EBSCO host academics search premier, Wiley online library, Elsevier SD Freedom collection, Journals @ ovoid, Sage premier 2012, EBSCO education research complete, JSTOR ARTS and science IV, Taylor and Francis social science and humanities with science and technology, EBSCO business source elite, and Emerald market e-journal collection. However, the main search database was Google Scholar: this allowed a wide database search. Google Scholar has been a reliable source beyond journals since its inception in early 2000 (Shultz, 2007). Despite concerns from other quarters that the Google Scholar search scope is not and does not link directly to the site, Google Scholar has advanced searchability, and covers a breadth of resources. Hence, Google Scholar's searches principally used the Advanced Scholar Search feature (Shultz, 2007).

## **4.3 Results**

### **4.3.1 Internationalisation**

Although it is expected that everyone will describe internationalisation to fit an appropriate framework, there is a concern already about lack of consistency in the understanding of the

concept (Knight, 2006; de Wit, 2013; Warwick, 2014). de Wit (2013) noted a serious lack of unified definitions: Knight doubted whether it will ever be possible to have a unified understanding. The use of inconsistent terms affords some confusion (Rodgers, 2000) in multiple aspects of internationalisation. Knight (2012) developed a typology of words which show the pattern of emerging words rather than clarifying the understanding. However, as indicated by de Wit, Deca and Hunter (2015), the typology began with elements on international education and later internationalisation, and in some cases the terms are used synonymously. Therefore, the analysis of concepts related to internationalisation may assist in understanding the term, through comparison with similar, yet different, concepts.

The attributes or characteristics of internationalisation are associated with the common definitions and uses. This study examined internationalisation over time by using an evolutionary concept analysis. Data analysis of attributes was accomplished by seeking the implicit meanings from the uses and attributes of the collected data. Twenty categories were identified from the open coding of the uses and attributes. Attributes were then grouped into similar categories. After this coding stage, eight main categories were further examined to develop attribute themes. The attributes include: a) international, b) process, c) strategy, d) purpose, e) goal, f) integration, g) dimension, h) policy. Concept analysis also recognises antecedents for clarifying a concept, hence the antecedents were searched during data generation by using the question: ‘What happens before internationalisation takes place?’ The results show characteristics which are critical to the achievement of an intended behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Antecedents such as ‘desire’, for both institutions, appeared prominent; however, there are varying reasons influencing the desire, because of diverse rationales for internationalisation (Jiang, 2008). The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) draws up a framework on which it is stated that behaviour is guided by certain considerations and beliefs about the likely consequence or attributes of the behaviour; therefore ‘knowing’ forms an important antecedent for internationalisation. The capacity for conducting internationalisation activities also appears as antecedent. Every higher education institution will internationalise, based on its capacity (Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012). Since internationalisation is implemented and defined differently, its context is also an antecedent. In this case, higher education must be present before internationalisation of higher education can occur. Knowledge and understanding forms a set of antecedents because they influence decisions, attitudes, and beliefs. However, belief is also an important antecedent in this respect, because it influences the degree of compliance with implementing behaviour (Ajzen, 2005), an

important variable in establishing the achievement of an intended behaviour. Some antecedents are related, such as ability and capacity which all appeared as key factors. Furthermore, the interview results have revealed that planning is a critical antecedent because internationalisation requires resources. According to the theory of planned behaviour, ability and capacity constitute factors which inform perceived behaviour control in the process of achieving the intended behaviour.

The surrogate terms for internationalisation suggest that the popular or assumed meaning of internationalisation is international education. On the other hand, discussions of international education indicate that globalisation and internationalisation are interchangeable terms. However, although frequently used interchangeably, globalisation and internationalisation are two distinct phenomena discussed in detail to distinguish one from the other (Altbach & Knight, 2007; de Wit, 2010). Hence, Altbach (2006) described globalisation as “the broad economic, technological, and scientific trends that directly affect higher education and are largely inevitable in the contemporary world”. Furthermore, the researcher referred to internationalisation in terms of specific policies and programmes undertaken by governments, academic systems, and institutions, and even individual departments dealing with globalisation (Altbach, 2006). Therefore, the clear difference between globalisation and internationalisation is based on the purpose of the phenomenon. For example, internationalisation may be seen as a strategy for societies and institutions to respond to the many demands placed upon higher education.

The study findings in both the literature and in interviews reveal that it is common for internationalisation to be used in relation to other concepts. The majority of words fall within activities taking place across borders. Hence, the term international is used mostly when the description is attached to an activity. Knight (2006) argued that attaching activity and rationales to the definitions will weaken the definitions. However, the study revealed words which are used in literature to mean or to describe, or to be interchangeably used to represent internationalisation. Some of these words are: international education, globalisation, international student, internationalisation at home, internationalisation abroad, networking, partnership. It is clear that some terms are concepts in their own right, while others are activities with different concepts including internationalisation.

The study revealed that the common characteristic of the definitions is international. The word appeared more often in literature, with the interviewed leaders relating to it implicitly by mentioning activities which are international in nature, such as, international networking, international partnership, and international visibility, among others. However, the relationship between internationalisation and international education has been debated in trying to find which comes first (Jones & de Wit, 2012). The integration of international dimension into higher-education activities was the dominant phrase referred to either directly or indirectly.

There was a large diversity in the outcome of the meaning of internationalisation. The outcome changes in relation to appropriate internationalisation options. The list includes: international students, joint PhD programmes, modularized programmes, postgraduate programmes, student exchange, international staff, research collaboration, e-learning programmes, generating of revenue, staff capacity building, equipment acquisition, partnership, increased visibility, and raised institutional profile. This reveals diverse achievement of the purpose as the consequences. However, the outcomes are affected by diversity of higher education and lack of common understanding (Warwick, 2014), therefore common understanding and developing internationalisation purpose and objectives will assist in offering an appropriate outcome (Deardorff & Gaalen, 2012), eventually enabling all the internationalisation activities to work towards the same purpose.

#### **4.3.2. Internationalisation characteristics**

The search for characteristics covered a wide range of scholarly sources. The diversity of the sources reflects the scope of use of the concept of internationalisation. Besides, the breadth of usage applied to internationalisation by both scholarly and non-scholarly people underscores the importance of the concept to both researchers and those practising it. Although internationalisation has a disputed history (Altbach & Teichler 2001; Altbach & de Wit 2015; de Wit, Deca & Hunter, 2015; Scott, 1998; Teferra, 2008), it has been discussed for over thirty years.

The study found out a ‘chicken and egg’ relationship (Thurman & Fisher, 1988) between international education and internationalisation, the term international education appearing as a surrogate, related term, as well as the antecedent. Although literature posits that higher education is international by nature (Altbach & Teichler 2001; Scott 1998), according to these

results, higher education only becomes international when an institution chooses to internationalise.

The results confirmed the general global view that internationalisation has many definitions: ultimately, there is no globally accepted definition. Although Knight (2004) tried to develop a working definition which has been adopted by many, this did not only fail to bring clarity, but also did not prevent people from continuing to develop definitions. However, in order to establish characteristics and patterns of the definitions and definition development, the study grouped the definitions into categories, as in groups of definitions from different periods which addressed various aspects of internationalisation, definitions from one author upgraded or improved over time, various definitions from one author, and emerging definitions. The exploration of the discussion around internationalisation both from literature and interview responses revealed a variety of definitions of internationalisation. The list of definitions is not exhaustive, however, it portrays a pattern of definitions.

Table 4.1 Internationalisation Definitions

	Author	Definition
1	Arum, & van de Water (1992)	Internationalisation refers to the multiple activities, programmes and services that fall within international studies, international educational exchange, and technical cooperation
2	Knight (1993)	The process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching, and services function of higher education
3	van der Wende (2001)	The process of systematic integration of an international dimension into the teaching, research, and public service function of a higher education institution
4	Knight, & de Wit (1997).	The process of integrating an international perspective into the teaching/learning, research, and service functions of higher education institutions
5	Ellingboe (1998)	The process of integrating an international perspective into a college or university system.
6	Marginson (2000)	The term ‘internationalisation’ describes the growth of relations between nations and between cultures
7	Schoorman (2000)	Internationalisation is an ongoing, counter-hegemonic educational process that occurs in an international context of

		knowledge and practise in which societies are viewed as subsystems of a larger, inclusive world
8	van Damme (2001)	Internationalisation refers to the activities of higher education institutions, often supported or framed by multilateral agreements or programmes, to expand their reach over national borders
9	Welch (2002)	Internationalisation is a process of integrating an international, intercultural dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of the institution
10	Altbach (2002)	Internationalisation refers to the specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academics, institutions or systems which deal with global trends
11	Yang (2002)	Internationalisation is a process by which the teaching, research and service functions of a higher education system become internationally and cross-culturally compatible
12	Yang (2002)	For a university, internationalisation means the awareness and operation of interactions within and between cultures, through its teaching, research, and service functions, with the ultimate aim of achieving mutual understanding across cultural borders
13	Yang (2002)	For a national higher-education system, internationalisation refers to dialogue with those in other countries
14	Soderqvist (2002)	A change process from a national higher-education institution to an international higher-education institution leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning, and to achieve the desired competencies
15	Knight (2004)	The process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education
16	Knight (2004)	For some people, this means a series of international activities such as academic mobility for students and teachers; international linkages, partnerships, and projects; and new, international academic programmes and research initiatives

17	Knight (2004).	For others, it means the delivery of education to other countries through new types of arrangements such as branch campuses or franchises using a variety of face-to-face and distance techniques P6
18	Knight (2004).	To many, it means the inclusion of an international, intercultural, and/or global dimension in the curriculum and teaching/learning process
19	Knight (2005)	Internationalisation is considered a process in which an international dimension is integrated into the teaching, learning, and service functions of the institution, through key organisational strategies
19	Knight (2005)	At home-/campus-based internationalisation is interpreted as the creation of a culture or campus climate that promotes and supports international/intercultural understanding and focuses on campus-based activities
20	Knight (2005)	Abroad/cross-border internationalisation is seen as the delivery of education to other countries through a variety of delivery modes (face to face, distance, e-learning) and through different administrative arrangements (franchises, twinning, branch campuses, and so forth)
21	Altbach (2006)	Internationalisation has more to do with the “specific policies and programmes undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments to deal with globalisation”
22	Jiang (2008)	Internationalisation concerns the relationships between and amongst nations in which respect for sovereignty, national policies, and culture are highly accentuated
23	Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009)	Internationalisation may be seen as a strategy by which societies and institutions respond to the many demands placed upon them by globalisation, and as a way for higher education to prepare individuals for engagement in a globalised world.

24	Deardorff and Van Gaalen (2012)	Internationalisation is the means of reaching the core goals of an institution, rather than an end in itself
25	Knight (2015)	“Integration of international, intercultural or global dimensions into the goals, functions and delivery of education” as a means of improving or achieving academic objectives of the institution.

Table 4.2 shows the variety of definitions of different patterns. Meanings were extracted from the many definitions for analysis based on patterns or characteristics displayed. Schoorman (2000) described internationalisation as an ongoing, counter-hegemonic educational process that occurs in an international context of knowledge and practice in which societies are viewed as subsystems of a larger inclusive world; while Altbach (2002) indicated that internationalisation refers to the specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academic institutions or systems to deal with global trends. Policies in this context related to the way in which processes are conducted. Hence, this definition brings an understanding that internationalisation is a strategy. Knight (2004) described internationalisation as a process: this implies that it is an ongoing activity. Yang (2002) defined internationalisation as a process by which the teaching, research, and service functions of a higher-education system become internationally and cross-culturally compatible. Soderqvist (2002) defined internationalisation of higher education as a change process from a national higher-education institution to an international higher-education institution, leading to the inclusion of an international dimension in all aspects of its holistic management, in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning and to achieve the desired competencies. Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009) also indicated that internationalisation is a strategy by means of which societies and institutions may respond to the many demands placed upon them by globalisation; and as a way for higher education to prepare individuals for engagement in a globalised world. This shows that Altbach points at policy and initiatives to deal with a global agenda; Yang views it as a process of making university goals internationally compatible, while for Soderqvist, it is a change from national to an international education system. Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009) presented internationalisation as a strategy for preparing to engage with the global world, while Knight (2004) recognises it as a process of integrating an international dimension. However, to Deardorff and Van Gaalen (2012) internationalisation is a means by which to reach core goals of an institution rather than being an end in itself. This implies that achievement of

mission and goals of a higher education institution will be better indicators of success of internationalisation. Therefore, there is a need for locating the purpose of higher education and the role which internationalisation is playing in achieving that purpose, in order to define it (Deardorff & Van Gaalen, 2012). Therefore, internationalisation is both an expression and an activity of international education; or both a strategy and a process.

An analysis of the second sample was conducted based on characteristics such as updated or improved definitions. The definition by Altbach (2002, 2006, and 2009) and Knight (1993, 1997, 2004, 2005, and 2015) were sampled for patterns which demonstrate the definition of improvement over time.

Table 4.2 Definitions which Implied Improvement

	Author	Definition
1	Altbach (2002)	Internationalisation refers to the specific policies and initiatives of countries and individual academic institutions or systems which deal with global trends
2	Altbach (2006)	Internationalisation has more to do with the “specific policies and programmes undertaken by governments, academic systems and institutions, and even individual departments to deal with globalisation”
3	Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009)	Internationalisation may be seen as a strategy for societies and institutions to employ in responding to the many demands placed upon them by globalisation; and as a way for higher education to prepare individuals for engagement in a globalised world
1	Knight (1993)	The process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching and services function of higher education
2	Knight, and de Wit (1997).	The process of integrating an international perspective into the teaching/learning, research, and service functions of higher-education institutions
3	Knight (2004)	The process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education

4	Knight (2005)	Internationalisation is considered a process in which an international dimension is integrated into the teaching, learning, and services functions of the institution, through key organisational strategies
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Table 4.2 shows two definitions by Altbach (2002; 2006) which have the same original idea, but have subsequently expanded to include stakeholders. The increase in number and size of practising stakeholders is the main change to these definitions. The change depicted demonstrates the growth pattern of higher education. Hence the change in the number of stakeholders eventually required an update of the definitions. Internationalisation is therefore an ongoing process (Knight, 2015). The definitions by Knight (1993, 1997, 2004, and 2005) have a pattern of change differing from Phillip Altbach's pattern. The definitions from Knight started as tenuous, but expanded or improved as definitions were being updated in relation to activities and specific purposes of internationalisation. As an increasing number of activities are involved in internationalisation at different times, updates on the definition or description are to be expected. This shows that internationalisation definitions are flexible; and may be updated or improved at any time: the definitions are continually changing in response to emerging trends.

Table 4.3 Definition for Specific Categories

1	Yang (2002)	Internationalisation is a process by which the teaching, research, and service functions of a higher-education system become internationally and cross-culturally compatible
2	Yang (2002)	For a university, internationalisation means the awareness and operation of interactions within and between cultures through its teaching, research, and service functions, with the ultimate aim of achieving mutual understanding across cultural borders
3	Yang (2002)	For a national higher-education system, internationalisation refers to dialogue with those in other countries.
1	Knight (2004).	For some people, it means a series of international activities such as academic mobility for students and teachers; international linkages, partnerships, and projects; and new, international, academic programmes and research initiatives.

2	Knight (2004).	For others, it means the delivery of education to other countries through new types of arrangements such as branch campuses or franchises using a variety of face-to-face and distance techniques.
3	Knight (2004).	To many, it means the inclusion of an international, intercultural, and/or global dimension in the curriculum and teaching/learning process

The emerging characteristics from Table 4.3 are that definitions for internationalisation are sometimes designated to a specific group. As internationalisation is being practised at different levels (national, sector, institution, and department) in higher education, understandings of the term may differ, hence the need for understanding at various levels. For Yang (2002), internationalisation was defined based on higher-education hierarchical levels. These definitions offer differing meanings because internationalisation is presented as ‘a process’ in one, as ‘awareness’ in another, and, finally, as ‘a dialogue’. This brings a different dimension in which the multiple trends in definition of internationalisation are not only between different institutions or people, but within individuals, definitions being designated by levels within an organisation. Definitions by Knight (2004) also depicted multiple definitions within an individual. However, apart from the common position by Jane Knight that internationalisation is a ‘process’, these definitions indicate that, for some people, it is ‘a series of international activities’, to others it is ‘a delivery of education’, and others ‘an inclusion of international in teaching and learning’. Jane Knight has therefore designated different definitions for different groups, without specifying them. However, this has vindicated the view that internationalisation has different definitions. It is evident that among the many definitions for internationalisation the definition by Knight (2004) has been generally adopted by many authors. The definition of internationalisation, according to Knight (2004), is: ‘the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education’. It appears that this definition is accepted by many authors in that it illuminates the possible elements and activities related to internationalisation. Knight (2012) described this definition as a neutral definition of internationalisation.

### 4.3.3 Emerging discussion

Literature discussions (de Wit, 2013; Deardorff & Van Gaalen, 2012; Knight, 2015; Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012) regarding definitions are attempts to establish the missing link in

an effort to develop a concise and clear definition of internationalisation. de Wit (2013) pointed out that, owing to a lack of an accepted definition, most definitions are based on the purpose of the individual activity. The researcher stressed the need for establishing the reason for internationalisation by answering the question ‘why internationalising?’ however, to Deardorff and Van Gaalen (2012), internationalisation is a means of reaching core goals of an institution, rather than an end in itself. This means that the current definitions are missing the reasons for internationalising, according to de Wit (2013), therefore missing the direct link to the core goal of a higher-education institution. However, Knight (2015) included the word ‘function’ which was generalised, rather than specific.

#### 4.3.4 Interview definitions

This section was designed to respond to the first critical question of the study, which seeks to understand the definition and meaning of internationalisation within the University of Malawi context. The investigation used the qualitative, semi-structured face-to-face interview. Leaders were asked to define internationalisation, according to their perspective. Table 4.4 presents various definitions according to the leaders’ understanding.

Table 4.4 Definitions from Interview

Participant	Definition
L 1	Relationships, partnerships, and linkages across our colleges on different disciplines
L2	Internationalisation involves recognition of the involvement of international parties and establishing links and partnerships or networks with international institutions
L3	Specifically, because in the globalised world, if you are strategically placed yourself, you have to understand what is happening in other universities. If you don’t, external providers can enter your country and take over the market with the new programmes
L4	Internationalisation of higher education captures four things: teaching, research, consultancy, and outreach and how these can connect universities between nations

L5	Internationalisation is the ability of higher-education institutions to be relevant and be visible internationally through networking, collaboration, and partnerships
L6	Internationalisation is understanding that we are living in a global village and operating as part of globalisation
L 7	It is where we recognise the activities and training done in other countries as part of our curriculum

Source: Study data

Exploration of the definitions from Table 4.5 above reveals that there is no common definition of internationalisation at the University of Malawi. The definitions were led by different terms such as activity, recognition, ability, understanding, connection, and relationship.

The overall picture emerging from the definitions suggests a variety of understandings of internationalisation. Definitions were either directed towards a specific internationalisation activity, or were presented as understanding of internationalisation in relation to globalisation. However, according to Schiro (2013), personal meanings make up the knowledge that is unique to each individual that possesses it, and holds personal significance to each person since the particular environmental context in which it is assimilated or constructed is a result of experiences in a particular environment at a particular time. As a result, knowledge is viewed as a fundamental or a basic part of decision-making because it is not a separate entity that has to be drawn from outside but may be reconstructed for use. Therefore, knowledge of internationalisation is influenced by the meaning every leader ascribes to the concept. Consequently, this will affect the type and mode of internationalisation.

The definition of internationalisation from leaders revealed divergent perceptions. The three sampled definitions by L6, L5, and L4 reveal more.

The exploration of the views of respondents shows that L6 sees internationalisation as operating within globalisation, L5 perceives it as being relevant and visible internationally, while L4 understands internationalisation as the way in which teaching, research, consultancy and outreach can connect universities of many nations. This is characteristic of internationalisation in the context of the University of Malawi leadership understanding. This trend is a global situation, as indicated by Cross, Mhlanga and Ojo (2011) that there is increased consensus for universities to internationalise, however, very little agreement on the meaning.

It is noted by Warwick (2014) that one challenge with implementation of internationalisation of higher education is a lack of common, shared understanding. However, the University of Malawi's case is unique because the varied definitions come from the same leadership, one which is implementing internationalisation. Hence, according to Schiro (2013), personal meanings make up the knowledge that is unique to each individual, which eventually affects attitude (Ajzen, 2005). However, the common characteristics found in definitions from respondents are 'international, network, and partnership'. When the defined characteristics are combined, the results show a lexicon of definitions. However, according to Deardorff and Van Galen (2012), definitions should be directed towards achieving a goal. Therefore, process, strategy, means, and ability all offer a way of responding to the higher education purpose. Therefore, the key missing link is shared understanding of internationalisation, as alluded to by Warwick (2014).

#### **4.4 Chapter summary**

This chapter was a concept analysis study of internationalisation of higher education. Concept and conceptual analysis is associated with a study that clarifies a meaning, by describing the essential or generic meaning, adding the appropriate usage for the concept. The discussion was based on data from both literature and the semi-structured interview administered to the leaders at the University of Malawi. According to antecedents and related terms referring to internationalisation, the term is a precursor to the term international higher education. Based on the results, internationalisation has multiple related terms and a diversity of definitions. The results also revealed that a definition is an ongoing exercise, definitions in the study being regularly updated. However, definitions appear to be stable, except for those who are advocating for explicit justification for internationalisation in relation to higher education functions. Lack of a common shared definition and understanding of internationalisation of higher education has impacted on and negatively affected the process of implementation. According to the theory of planned behaviour, attitude is one of the key predictors of intended behaviour. Studies on attitude reveal that cognitive awareness or understanding is an attribute of attitude; therefore, a lack of understanding will result in a negative attitude, which will eventually affect the intended outcome.

The next chapter presents the discussion on the commitment towards internationalisation of higher education by both individuals and institutions.

## CHAPTER 5

### INTERNATIONALISATION COMMITMENT

#### 5.1 Introduction

The overall study focus is the understanding of internationalisation of higher education at the University of Malawi, from a leadership perspective. However, this chapter is a discussion which focuses on commitment to internationalisation activities. The chapter explores the commitment of the University of Malawi as an institution, based on data from documents and semi-structured face-to face interviews conducted with 7 leaders from the university.

#### 5.2 Commitment

Commitment to internationalisation is a core characteristic considered a prerequisite for the implementation of internationalisation (Schoorman, 2000). Commitment is also regarded as a key ingredient of the process of internationalisation (de Wit, 2010; Green 2005; Schoorman, 2000). de Wit (2013) noted that internationalisation requires commitment and involvement at all levels: leadership, faculty, student, and administrative staff. The Oxford English Dictionary (Stevenson, 2010) defines commitment as the “willingness to give your time and energy to something that you believe in, or firm decision to do something.” This willingness may be to give resources to undertaking a meaningful pursuit. It is also indicated by Fox et al. (2011) that commitment may be defined and operationalised by what people say, the presence of organisational structure, and service delivery. However, research associates leadership with organisational commitment (Bono & Judge, 2003; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003). Although commitment is associated with individual psychological influence (Cook & Wall, 1980), Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) defined organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual identification with involvement in a particular task. Hence, commitment comprises organisational attributes such as strategic plans, actions, policies, structures, activities, and processes (Fox, Goldberg, Gore, & Bärnighausen, 2011). This assessment of commitment would have used the commitment assessment model by Cook & Wall (1980). The scale used by these researchers measures three basic components of commitment: identification, involvement, and loyalty. For example, when a person says: ‘I am quite proud to be able to tell people about the hospital I work for’ this represents ‘identification’; if one says: ‘I feel myself to be part of the hospital’ this implies ‘involvement’ while ‘to know that my own work has made a contribution to the good of my ward would please me’ is a sign of ‘loyalty’ (Cook & Wall, 1980). However, this model is more applicable to the individual than to an organisation, and limited in terms of number of attributes. In order to

expand the scope of assessment, commitment to internationalisation in this discussion uses three types of commitment: expressed commitment, institutional commitment, and budgetary commitment (Fox, Goldberg, Gore, & Bärnighausen, 2011).

### 5.2.1 Expressed commitment

Expressed commitment is an explicit expression by leaders when emphasising issues. This means that what leaders openly talk about and support is regarded as a sign of commitment (Fox, Goldberg, Gore, & Bärnighausen, 2011). Hence, the expressed commitment understanding in this study is presented from the interview data. Commitment to internationalise was evident during the study when leadership were asked to explain their plan. Respondent L1 indicated that:

*We need an individual who can take the international issues on daily bases. Other universities have international offices are fully furnished. We need someone specialized in internationalisation (L1 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L1 further expanded the expression of commitment, adding that:

*We are committed to this agenda, we are expanding relationships and partnerships. We will go into strategic partnerships which are beneficial to both partners, particularly also this relationship should foster human capital development at Doctoral level because we would like to increase the content of PhD among our staff. Once they have that they will be able to participate competitively effectively both in research and postgraduate supervision. (L1 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L2 indicated that the future plans are:

*Internationalisation is very important and complex issue it requires sufficient human capacity to run it. Therefore, we have plans to build capacity for the office handling internationalisation, engage more staff members to be involved in internationalisation issues under the Pro-Vice Chancellor office. (L2 interviews 2014-2015)*

Exploration of the responses above shows that there is an expression of commitment of the plans to strengthen internationalisation activities in order to develop both human-resource capacity and infrastructure. Furthermore, there are plans to establish a fully-fledged international office, recruiting a full-time officer who is an expert in international relations. It was indicated by (L3 interviews 2014-2015) that the university intends to create and strengthen its international office in order to aggressively market the university internationally. There are also plans to establish strategic partnerships in order to increase the number of partnership opportunities. However, commitment is easier to prescribe than to put into practise.

This shows that the University of Malawi has integrated capacity building of staff into internationalisation in order to raise the potential of competitiveness. Therefore, a commitment to capacity building translates into a commitment to internationalisation, thereby enabling the implementation. This is in line with the global trend: many countries have pursued foreign-policy agendas focusing on capacity building. Therefore, the expressed commitment is a demonstration of a positive attitude towards internationalisation and is a positive predictor of the intended behavioural outcome (Ajzen, 2005).

### **5.2.2 Institutional commitment**

Internationalisation of higher education occurs at different levels of the sector, both national and institutional (Knight, 2004). However, since there is more internationalisation of higher education activities at the institutional level (Yang, 2002; Zha, 2003), the discussion focuses more on commitment at institutional level. According to Fox et al. (2011), institutional commitment focuses on existence and lack of basic units, such as infrastructure and procedures. Institutional commitment is much broader than expressed commitment because it is beyond announcement of plans, but rather, it creates mechanisms (Fox, Goldberg, Gore, & Bärnighausen, 2011). It is important to understand institutional structural functions in relation to internationalisation. As noted by Mthembu (2004), internationalisation of higher education should be self-reflective, internalised, and institutionalised processes. Although planning is the central process by which strategies are formulated, structures are designed for implement planning. Organisational structure is usually referred to as an organisational internal pattern of relations, authority, and communication (Fredrickson, 1986).

The study revealed that there were some revisions of education policy in order to include provisions of higher-education quality control which promotes internationalisation of higher education. The National Council for Higher Education was created to oversee the increased number of tertiary institutions that constitute higher education in Malawi. This shows commitment to the running of higher education (MOEST, 2007). Furthermore, among the responsibilities of the National Council for Higher Education, there are some which are directly related to internationalisation, such as monitoring the implementation of international agreements concerning higher education; and promoting international cooperation, facilitating exchanges in higher education. This reflects the available structure at national level responsible for higher education partnership and international collaboration. Internationalisation has thus become central and appropriately integrated as a national strategy.

The University of Malawi does not have an explicit office for internationalisation at operational level. As indicated by L3:

*The office assigned to look after internationalisation activities is the office of the Pro-Vice Chancellor (L3 interviews 2014-2015).*

The report by respondent L3 infers that internationalisation is being handled by the second-highest office in the university. This could be advantageous: discussions are likely to be taken seriously, being handled by a high office. Conversely, the high office is a busy office, and far from the lower level where most internationalisation activities take place. Although there are plans to build capacity for the office handling internationalisation at the lower level of the structure, the current situation has implications of a federal system, internationalisation being practised at the institutional level (Knight, 2004; Zha, 2003). There are some international activities at college level, in which there is no international office, hence no coordination of international activities.

Therefore, although the University of Malawi has an internationalisation responsibility accorded the high office of pro-vice-chancellor, the lower-level participation is important: most internationalisation activities taking place at the lower level (Zha, 2003; Yang, 2002), particularly activities such as curriculum and research partnership. Therefore, creating internationalisation structures at the lower level not only fills the structure, but may help to improve organisational commitment. As indicated by Walumbwa & Lawler (2003) , by encouraging followers to seek new ways of approaching problems and challenges, leaders are able to motivate their followers to become more involved in their work, resulting in higher levels of organisational commitment (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). This view is also supported by Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia, (2004.) that organisational commitment is high when leaders encourage followers to think critically by using novel approaches, and by involving followers in decision-making processes. Therefore, the current situation at the University of Malawi depicts weak structural commitment, there being no internationalisation operation office at the lower levels of the structure.

#### ***5.2.2.1 Internationalisation policies***

As noted by Knight (2004), internationalisation affects policies. Internationalisation should therefore be visible in policies (Schoorman, 2000) because policies commit an organisation to define goals and set strategies for reaching these goals. Furthermore, Schoorman (2000) indicated that commitment should be visible: internationalisation should be an integral facet

of the mission statement. Davies (1992), cited by Schoorman (2000), pointed out that the mission statement should emphasise the rationale and the scope of internationalisation. Although there is consensus in literature on characteristics of higher education relating to ‘loose coupling’ and ‘organised anarchy’ (Vroom, 1984; Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker & Riley, 2000), organisations in which everyone works independently offer evidence of inconsistent preferences. Baldrige, Curtis, Ecker and Riley, (2000) observed that, besides goal ambiguity, universities serve clients of disparate and complicated needs; this leads them to working with problematic technologies.

The study found that in 1997, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) member states agreed to promote regional cooperation and integration in the education sector, formulating the SADC Protocol on Education and Training. Exploring the impact of this education protocol revealed that this protocol has inspired countries to internationalise (Kotecha, 2012), notwithstanding that the protocol’s primary aim was to provide a framework for regional cooperation in addressing education needs. The policy promotes internationalisation of higher education in the region through the agreement of a five per cent quota of study places for students from SADC member countries. Member states further agreed that students from SADC countries should pay local fees. These two agreements give a clear demonstration of commitment to internationalisation by SADC member countries through the policy. The policy implementation may have other challenges, as indicated by Kotecha (2012), however, Malawi, as a member of SADC, has been loyal to the agreement, and has benefited from the protocol by both sending students to neighbouring countries, and enrolling students from the region. Respondent L7 reported the nature of international activities this way:

*We made a deliberate decision that we reserve 5% to 10% for international students. But 5% is in line with SADC protocol that requires us to reserve places to help countries which does not have medical schools (L7 interviews 2014-2015).*

The quotation above shows that commitment to internationalisation through the policy should be followed by commitment to implementation and evaluation (Schoorman 2000). Therefore, besides adhering to the SADC protocol and resources from international students, the leader also reiterated that they believe that having students from different backgrounds enriches the teaching and learning. Consequently, the SADC protocol on education and training is evident in policy commitment to internationalisation from the regional perspective which has promoted internationalisation in Malawi.

Policies from government and academic institutions play a crucial role in determining the nature of foreign study opportunities, and in shaping the realities of the experience (Altbach, 2006). However, with the increased number of foreign students, both governments and academic institutions have been experiencing challenges owing to lack of explicit policies (Altbach, 2006). Higher education in Malawi falls under the Ministry of Education Science and Technology and the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) which is the key driving document. The commitment to internationalisation is demonstrated through the formulation of education-related policies which reflect both national and international priority areas of development (MOEST, 2007). This upholds the commitment by government through government agencies in the higher-education sector to promote internationalisation of higher education in Malawi. The available policy documents at national level support internationalisation efforts.

With the current trend apropos of movement of international staff, immigration authorities are central to the internationalisation process, thus aligning legislation with facilitating the entry of skilled workers, and offering foreign students easier access to studies (Mestenhauser, 2000). Immigration policies, such as a study visa and permanent residence permits to graduates, or the ability to stay longer to seek work, are paramount (Coelen, 2009). Work permit requirements for international staff in Malawi is a general application form for academics and any other profession. Upon satisfying the requirements, one is eligible to work. However, the permits fall under both permanent and temporary categories. All the categories require justification by the employer for employing a foreign worker rather than a local.

#### *5.2.2.2 Institutional policies*

The University of Malawi is a public university enacted by the Act of Parliament: it is governed by the statutes (Unima Act, 1998). The UNIMA was established to provide higher education in the country through teaching, research, consultancies, and public outreach (Unima, 2012). The current UNIMA policy encourages all college faculties to explore opportunities of establishing effective relationships with reputable international and local private or public institutions (Unima, 2015). There are divergent views on internationalisation policy at the University of Malawi. When asked to articulate the policy position, respondents L7 indicated that they do not have a purposeful policy for internationalisation; however, they use parts of the current university policies and some management and strategic decisions. The three respondents with divergent views on policy status reported that:

*L3-Because internationalisation is a response to globalisation, we started developing globalisation policy. Our hope is that globalisation policy will help us manage internationalisation (L3 interviews 2014-2015).*

*L5-We have policies, the challenge is implementation, they just need touch-up or updating, sometimes our rules are too rigid. We need policies that will motivate people to raise money. (L5 interviews 2014-2015)*

*L6-We have policies, university strategic plan has issues about internationalisation in place. Guiding documents are there, strategic plan, research and consultancy policy and postgraduate highlight these. We do not just wake up and start internationalisation. (L6 interviews 2014-2015)*

Exploration of the three respondents' remarks shows that there is a paradox, as evidenced by the discrepancy in the statements made; and by their perception of internationalisation and higher education policies. Respondent (L3) has the understanding that internationalisation is related to globalisation; hence, creating a globalisation policy will suffice. Although Altbach and Knight (2007) indicated that internationalisation is a response to globalisation, this does not mean that the terms are interchangeable (Altbach, 2006; Scott, 1998). Hence, if internationalisation policy is to be developed aligned to globalisation, the higher-education goals should be explicit. The two cannot be separated, rather, they must be converged.

Furthermore, this situation shows the influence of globalisation on internationalisation of higher education. Respondent L5 is advocating for a review or updating of the current regulations, either because they are contradicting or inhibiting success, or because there is a need for making them compatible with internationalisation. Respondent (L5) also reveals an approach in which internationalisation is shaped as an add-on, marginalised, and a short-term policy (van der Wende, 2001) strategic to a specific need. Conversely, respondent (L6) reported that there are policies and guiding documents. Therefore, within one university respondents are practising internationalisation based on different perceptions of the internationalisation policy. The current situation is consistent with de Wit's (2002) observation that some people use the available information to suit a particular purpose. However, following Knight (2008) and Jowi's (2009) argument, no single rationale stands out as the most important for internationalisation, hence diversity of rationales may influence the formulation of policies and strategies at institution level. This situation may affect the institutional commitment which eventually will affect the perceived behaviour control over the intended outcome, through lack of policy explicit on internationalisation.

The study revealed that the University of Malawi commitment could be evaluated through university objectives which appear in the University Act (1998), and through their mission as found in the university's strategic plan. According to Kolter and Murphy (1981), mission is the basic purpose one is trying to accomplish, while objective is a major variable that an institution emphasises (Kolter & Murphy, 1981).

The University of Malawi Act 1998 states:

*“The objects of the University shall be to advance knowledge and to promote wisdom and understanding by engaging in teaching and research and by making provision for the dissemination, promotion, and preservation of learning; by engaging in such university education and research as is responsive to the needs of Malawi and the whole world; and by offering, within the limits of its resources, to persons suitably qualified academically and who, in the opinion of the Council, are able and willing to benefit from the facilities offered by the University, an education of high university standard”*  
(Unima Act, 1998. 326).

The exploration of the stance of the University of Malawi objective shows a broad objective. However, organisations which are goal oriented, eventually make decisions on how to reach their goals based on objectives (Vroom, 18984). The above objective appears to address individual, national, and global demands. This reflects the University of Malawi as serving clients of disparate and complicated needs. The target for the University of Malawi is international education by addressing global needs. Internationalisation is the integration of an international dimension into all higher-education activities (Knight, 2015); and internationalisation is known to have an influence on institutional policies and practices of the universities (Knight, 2004). Although the word internationalisation is not explicit in the University of Malawi objective, it is broadly addressed by the clause stating: *“the objects of the University shall be to advance knowledge and to promote wisdom and understanding by engaging in such university education and research as is responsive to the needs of Malawi and the whole world”* Therefore, there is a clear demonstration of internationalisation commitment in the University Act (1998). Currently, the University of Malawi is experiencing a national demand for widening and equitable access (Unima, 2012; World Bank, 2010) and these demands have an influence on the way in which higher education should be run. Therefore, both widening access and equity access affect internationalisation in that they have a direct impact on the number of students to be enrolled locally, as opposed to internationally. Therefore, based on the University of Malawi's objective statement, the university has both the

international and national perspective as a demonstration of institutional commitment towards internationalisation of higher education at the University of Malawi; internationalisation being mentioned among the activities to be achieved.

The priorities and purposes of an organisation are identified through a mission statement on the strategic plan, The mission statement is a tool for conveying identity, value, and purpose (Kolter & Murphy, 1981). The mission statement describes the institutional commitment rather than specific objectives and goals it will pursue. Therefore, the strategic plan should articulate an institution's commitment to internationalisation, providing a roadmap for implementation (Dooris, Kelley, and Trainer, 2002; The University of Malawi's strategic plan comprises mission and vision statements, as follows:

Vision: *To be a centre of excellence in higher education for sustainable development of Malawi and the region.*

Mission: *To advance knowledge and to promote wisdom and understanding by engaging in teaching, research, consultancy, public, and community engagement, and by making provisions for the dissemination, promotion, and preservation of learning responsive to the needs of Malawi and her global partners (Unima 2012, iii ; 2).*

A well-presented mission statement provides the institution with a shared sense of opportunity, direction, significance, and achievement. The mission statement acts as an "invisible hand" guiding a college or university's diverse personnel to work independently and yet collectively toward the realisation of the organisation's goals. As mentioned by Schoorman (2000), the mission and vision should designate internationalisation as a sign of commitment. The vision and mission show that strategies have been developed within a cohesive conceptual construct that recognises and capitalises on the distinctive strengths and contributions of the University of Malawi (Unima, 2012). It is envisaged that the strategic plan will enable the university to manage the issues that are critical to achieving its vision, allowing it to play a strengthened and increasingly relevant role in the development of Malawi and the region.

These statements highlight that the University of Malawi has an international commitment to internationalisation activities through its vision and mission statements. The statements indicate the commitment of the university to train graduates who will be recognised as possessing abilities and qualities which are compatible with both local and international

dimensions. The key strategies outlined in the strategic plan are: linking the University of Malawi to worldwide university networks, developing links with strategic universities to benefit from their existing expertise, and conducting internal capacity building on higher education trends, both local and international, for students and staff. This is in line with Green (2005), who indicated that an institution must articulate its commitment to internationalisation through mission statements, and strategic plans, inter alia.

The University of Malawi's strategic plan indicates the implementation approaches, which include annual capacity building in international partnership and research collaboration. Therefore, the university has an international dimension, through the training vision for sustainable development of Malawi and the region. The mission focused on training in response to the needs of Malawi and her global partners. However, although the University of Malawi Act (1998) and the Strategic Plan (2012-2017) are not explicit in terms of the word internationalisation, there is evidence that internationalisation activities are taking place. Although internationalisation is defined as a policy issue, it has failed to gain explicit recognition in policy documents. This appears to be a trend in internationalisation policy studies (McClellan, 2008), however, without explicit definition of internationalisation in key policy documents, internationalisation activities are being implemented as routine activities or by experiment. Consequently, this undermines the degree of internationalisation commitment through policy documents.

### **5.2.3 Support commitment**

According to Fox, Goldberg, Gore, and Bärnighausen, (2011), both expressed and institutional commitments will fail unless tangible resources are committed to supporting the process (Fox, Goldberg, Gore, & Bärnighausen, 2011). According to Schoorman (2000), both financial and human resources are necessary for commitment and for successful internationalisation of higher education. Therefore, internationalisation requires a commitment of institutional resources and often a revision of practices and orientations, with perhaps an opportunity cost in some other areas (Hudzik & Stohl, 2009). The economic situation at the University of Malawi is such that resources are inadequate (Dunga, 2013) to provide for local students. Financing international students would therefore burden an already overstretched system: international students may not be a priority. Respondent L5 indicated:

*We haven't done much, but it may be for obvious reasons, that we are failing to satisfy our own access here in terms of opening up, it might be difficult. But if we put our house in order in terms of access, we might expand (L5 interviews 2104-2015).*

Public universities in Malawi are funded by the government (MOEST, 2007). The government priority themes starts with access, therefore, the government may have influence on universities to give the same priority to local students: eventually, this may affect the implementation of internationalisation. Analysis of higher education in Malawi shows that it is operating in a developing economy, therefore operating under limited resources (Dunga, 2013; Mambo et al., 2016). However, higher education is prioritised as a tool for economic development and societal transformation which is being reflecting in prioritising access to higher education through direct funding and loan schemes (Mambo et al., 2016). Although the Malawian government spends more on the university sector than do some countries in the SADC region, this does not translate to quality and general services at the institutional level (Dunga, 2013; Hayward and Ncayiyana, 2006). Various authors have proposed ways of studying internationalisation funding (Jongbloed, 2004; Matei, Iwinska, & Crăciun, 2015). These simple frameworks help to establish the areas on which to focus when investigating internationalisation funding. The types of activity funded could be identified and categorised based primarily on their motivation. A large body of literature on motivations is already available (de Wit, 2010; Knight, 2004; Zha, 2003). With the diverse internationalisation activities, there will be more internationalisation activities funded. Therefore, the priority for funding will determine the areas committed to be funded. It is imperative to question: 'what is being funded?'

The study has revealed that the government of Malawi continues to give high priority to training and staff development in order to equip its officers with the requisite skills and knowledge. The government was sufficiently committed to establish the Malawi Government Scholarship Fund (MGSF) in addressing human-resource capacity gaps through sponsorship of officers in pursuing various postgraduate courses. However, for financial and cooperation reasons, the majority of students sponsored under the Malawi Government Scholarship Fund (MGSF) are placed at universities in South Africa, Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, and the United Kingdom, where they pursue various postgraduate degree programmes. The Department of Human Resource Management and Development (DHRMD) which is a secretariat to the MGSF helps new students find places of study at various universities. This is in line with what

literature indicates about the economic position of the institution as a major influence of the type of internationalisation (Knight, 2004; Rumbley et al., 2012).

Respondent L7 also commented on the economic implication:

*The challenge is the cost implication of sustaining that and it becomes a problem to the extent that in most cases the one who has the funding has more to say on the type of relationship. Sometimes it has been one sided. Unlike if we had our funds we would determine the exact expectation (L7 interview 2014-2015).*

The comment by respondent L7 reflects that internationalisation is being implemented without an institutional budget to sustain the operation. There is heavy reliance on partners who have resources for the partnership activities. Financial dependence on the state means that the funding levels are influenced by the way in which government resources fluctuate. Budgets are typically approved by government officials, who might have little understanding of higher education and the local context in which it operates. Funding is typically channelled by governments to other areas perceived to be more urgent or important.

The current situation at the University of Malawi regarding its financial sustainability shows underfunding by the government. As indicated by respondent L6:

*Government does not give us enough money. What government gives us is enough for salaries, students' allowances and small operation money. No money for research (L6 interviews 2014-2015)*

This observation by respondent L6 shows the second model of dependence experienced by the university in terms of funding. The dependence on government for subvention has limited research support, and little private participation. Respondent L4 appended the economic issue:

*Funding has become very central, to the extent that the value of university are beginning to change to mirror or imitate the corporate world, how the corporate world manages its self is creeping into university, it's no long a rank, we are colleagues, truthful consensus decision and therefore things will work this way. This time is cost where are we going to get our next cheque, the corporate world is really influencing higher education and the leader need to know this things if he doesn't the issues of funding which is central will really disturb much of his leadership (L4 interviews 2014-2015).*

The concept of university funding and financing has been a topical issue for discussion and investigation. The global trend shows that public universities are underfunded and every institution is taking initiative to supplement the shortfalls (Mambo et al., 2016). As pointed out by Schein (1996), there is always an external influence in an organisation, hence university

leadership has to brace itself for such experiences in order to maintain the purpose of the university.

Respondent L3 reported the consequences of the current funding situation on the culture of the university:

*Against social demand of higher education and limited resources you need capable managers to manage resources prudently. Previously it was possible to lead without management training because all was provided by the government. Now government gives you part of the money, hence you need professional financial managers and auditor to manage the resources. All these come with their profession culture in the university, the longer they stay as part of the university they transform the university culture from the purely academic to the professional one (L3 interviews 2014-2015)*

As reported by respondent L3, there is a demand for competent and skilled personnel to lead universities in the current situation. Besides, there is also a need for professionals in respective areas to manage the control and use of resources and finances.

It has been observed that higher education in Malawi is somewhat undeveloped; universities are unable to respond to the country's emerging capacity challenges, owing to limited resources. The problem of underfunding has impacted on current resources and infrastructure constraints at the universities. This has had an extremely negative impact on the university's ability to achieve its goals and objectives, including internationalisation. However, under the current Strategic Plan 2012-2017, the University of Malawi has indicated its intention to create sustainable research funding through the university budget. Therefore, there is budgetary commitment which is mostly dependent on external support supplemented by the internal budget. However, this is not unusual. Green (2005) indicated that external support is one of the attributes of internationalisation.

### **5.3 Chapter Summary**

The chapter discussed the diverse commitment to internationalisation at the University of Malawi. This was based on the understanding that commitment is among the critical requisites for implementing internationalisation. Data used was collected from qualitative semi-structured interviews and document analysis. Based on the data, the study discussed expression, institution, commitment, and leadership commitment. The discussion revealed that, although there is a positive expression of commitment by leaders, the practise is disappointing. The institutional commitment is available but not explicit in terms of structure and policies. It has

been noted that support for internationalisation as a commitment is based on external support, donations, and partnership. The leadership commitment exists, but is hampered by challenges of leadership such as divergent perspectives, different competence levels and the complexity of the organisation and processes. Therefore, the commitment stance for internationalisation is positive, as is the attitude however, there are challenges of capacity, resources, knowledge, and understanding.

The next chapter addresses the internationalisation rationale and performance.

## CHAPTER 6

### INTERNATIONALISATION RATIONALE AND PERFORMANCE

#### 6.1 Introduction

The chapter discusses the results from the qualitative data generated from face-to-face semi-structured interviews conducted in 2014 and 2015 with 7 University of Malawi leaders, and from analysis of the institution's documents. The overall focus of the study is to understand internationalisation of higher education from a leadership perspective, using the case of the University of Malawi. However, this chapter was focused on responding to the second critical question of this study: "How do leaders at the University of Malawi respond to the implementation of internationalisation?" Therefore, this discussion is about the internationalisation rationale and performance at the University of Malawi.

The word rationale has a number of synonyms, which include underlying principle, basis, foundation, justification, motivation, and grounds (Stevenson, 2010). The word 'perform' from which the noun 'performance' is derived, also has a number of synonyms, i.e. carry out, do, act upon, achieve, execute, conduct, make, and complete (Stevenson, 2010). The discussion will therefore seek to establish what informs internationalisation rationales and how leadership responds to internationalisation activities.

The chapter is divided into four sections, the first section providing the results and discussion of the specific emerging rationales for internationalising of higher education activities at the University of Malawi. The second section will present performance trends of internationalisation activities, followed by internationalisation challenges during the internationalisation process, and finally, a chapter summary will be provided.

#### 6.2 Internationalisation Motivation

The motivation to integrate an international dimension into higher education is underpinned by the rationale, which is a driving force giving reasons for a country, sector or institution's intending to address and invest in internationalisation (Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012). Cross, Mhlanga, and Ojo (2011) stated that a rationale for internationalisation is presented in levels, and is prioritised by different nations differently. However, it is evident that more internationalisation is taking place at institutional level, hence, higher-education institutions are being driven by different rationales (Knight, 2006; Yang, 2002; Zeleza, 2012). Zha (2003) identified four key rationales that drive internationalisation in most institutions of higher

education, namely, academic, political, economic, and socio-cultural rationales. However, as indicated by de Wit (2002):

- There is a strong overlap in rationales within different stakeholder groups, the main differences being in the hierarchy of priorities;
- In general, stakeholders do not have one exclusive rationale, but a combination of rationales for internationalisation with the above-mentioned hierarchy of priorities;
- Rationales may vary both between and within stakeholder groups;
- Priorities in rationales may change over time and according to country and region; and
- Rationales are, in general, more implicit than explicit motives for internationalisation.

This shows diversity on issues relating to the motive behind internationalisation. However, according to the results of this study, internationalisation at the University of Malawi is motivated by more or less the same rationale factors highlighted in the literature. For instance, L1 indicated the following motivation factors:

*Our motivation is that in the country we should be number one. Although there is no scientific evidence, but we are the best and most students and parents would want their students to be enrolled in university of Malawi. We are offering programmes which are only offered by UNIMA like, engineering, medicine, and nursing. In Africa a very competitive landscape and every university is working on the same goal (L1 interviews 2014-2015)*

The rationale for internationalisation was also raised by L5 as follows:

*It does help to raise the profile of the institution. It also helps to bring resources. International students pay high fees. This has helped us build capacity in proposal writing and it has brought resources. The regular visit by international visitors brings something, either money, equipment, or even just an idea. We learn a lot as we travel and when we use what we learn out there help development of our institution (L5 interviews 2014-2015).*

Further, L2 added to the list of rationales as follows:

*Internationalisation helps us to increase our visibility and we are known through the partnership. Internationalisation brings revenues, especially through postgraduate training and postgraduate fees (L2 interviews 2014-2015).*

Finally, L3 reported the strategies influenced by the rationales:

*We have seen that when you are under resourced and you manage your internationalisation partnership very well, you can have an alternative source of income. You can mount joint degree programmes that can help you to develop your own capacity. You can also give your students opportunity to be attached to foreign universities where they learn how others do their work. When they come back they improve the way they do things. You also learn to know about international symposiums and conferences where members go to hone their skills without pulling money from their pocket or from your budget (L3 interviews 2014-2015).*

Exploration of the internationalisation driving factors shows that, consciously or unconsciously, leaders reported the same rationales presented in the literature. The University of Malawi leadership is therefore implementing internationalisation based on satisfying a particular rationale. Political, economic, academic, and socio-cultural rationales are all driving the internationalisation process at an institutional level.

The political rationale relates to the issue concerning a position which is informed by such factors as foreign policy, national security, technical assistance, peace, mutual understanding, and national and regional associations. It is also closely linked to the issues regarding a status and role as an independent institution (de Wit, 2002; Jiang, 2008). As with many African countries, Malawi was once a colony of Great Britain. Eventually, after independence, the initial university projects were supported by Great Britain's education agencies. This political positioning influenced the type of education system, including language. The activities leading to the capacity building were political and international in nature because the two governments or international relation offices or agencies were establishing the national security and enhancing foreign policies (Chimombo, 2003). The results of the study revealed that the enhancement of foreign policies and international relations and internationalisation activities were politically driven and influenced by the benefits from the partnership and associations. As indicated by respondent L2:

*Internationalisation involves several parameters like, recognition of the involvement of international parties in the form of academic partnership. We talk about establishing links and partnerships or networks with international institutions. These partnerships come with several different initiatives, like joint research programme, staff and student exchange programmes, exchange of external examiners, and several of them. This is what constitute internationalisation package. These normally are formalized through*

*the MOU, which two parties sign as a way to recognise the relationship or partnership (L2 interviews 2014-2015).*

The exploration of the quotation above reveals that partnership is central to the internationalisation activities, because, as indicated by L2, all the activities come as a package of partnership. However, although there are various ways of implementing the partnership and execution of internationalisation activities (Altbach et al., 2009; Knight, 2004), this is just one of the approaches. Hence, the results of the study show that the University of Malawi belongs to several associations and is affiliated to several organisations.

Respondent L1 reported some of the associations as follows:

*It is interesting that university does not exist alone, it must be associated with regional, like SADC. Since Malawi is a member of commonwealth at commonwealth level, at continental level African union as well as international level globally (L1 interviews 2014-2015).*

Respondent L1 reports goes along with Teichler (2004), who argued that universities have long been considered one of society's most international institutions. This shows that leadership at the University of Malawi also recognises that a university is an international organisation; it must work within that realm. Hence, the University of Malawi falls within regional, inter-regional, and continental groupings, which has influenced higher education in various ways, including in internationalisation. This notion was echoed by L6:

*We live in a global world where you cannot operate as an island. Whatever you are doing should correspond to the global requirements. Graduate trained should be an international graduate and the graduate should be on the same level with graduates from other countries. So internationalisation is to understand that we are living in a global village and operating within globalisation aspect (L6 interviews 2014-2015).*

The quotation above shows that the University of Malawi is practising internationalisation of higher education, motivated by membership of the international society. The University of Malawi has membership with institutions from SADC, the Commonwealth, and the African Union. Therefore, loyalty to SADC, the Commonwealth, and the African Union has some political advantages to higher education in Malawi. As indicated by Schoole and de Wit (2014), higher education in Africa is supported by several stakeholders, such as government departments and agencies, regional and sub-regional organisations, and international, intergovernmental organisations. There are several regional and international bodies which are poised to work with higher education in Africa in the form of capacity building, for instance, African Capacity Building Foundations and the African Development Bank. At the time of this

dissertation, African Development Bank was implementing a capacity-building project named Higher Education, Science and Technology (HEST) in several countries in Africa, including Malawi. Therefore, as indicated by Schoole and de Wit (2014) the international relation is a locus for development, hence the University of Malawi has benefited scholarships and infrastructure development through loyalty to international associations.

The political position of Malawi as a nation enables association and affiliation of higher-education institutions. The SADC countries signed an education and training protocol which has enabled institutions to participate in regional internationalisation activities. The protocol has decreed that SADC students studying in SADC institutions should pay local fees. Hence the University of Malawi has internal students, as reported by respondent L7:

*We have international students from the regions mostly and this is in line with SADC education protocol requirement that requires us to reserve places to help countries which does not have medical school. Like Lesotho, Swaziland (L7 interviews 2014-2015).*

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology reported that elements of the SADC Protocol on Education and Training have influenced Malawi's national higher-education policy and practice (MOEST, 2007). This is an example of government-signed protocol which has benefited higher-education institutions because both government and higher education institutions place considerable importance on regional collaboration and integration. Even though the number of students moving from SADC to Malawi does not remain descriptive, there has been a significant commitment by the respective agencies to respect the SADC protocol on education and training in order to benefit from it (Kotecha, 2012).

The results also show that the University of Malawi has different associations which have enabled internationalisation activities between universities which fall within the same body. Therefore, the association creates a network between institutions. Table 6.1 outlines the association and, briefly, its purpose.

Table 6.1. The University of Malawi Association Table

	Organisation	Purpose
	AAU	Provides a platform for research, reflection, consultation, debates, co-operation, and collaboration on issues pertaining to higher education
	ACU	Manages prestigious and internationally-renowned scholarship schemes
	SANORD	Primarily aims to promote multilateral research cooperation on matters of importance to the development of both regions. SANORD is committed to advancing strategic, multilateral, academic collaboration between institutions in the two regions, as they seek to address new local and global challenges of innovation and development
	SARUA	To promote, strengthen, and increase higher education research and institutional collaboration and capacity-building throughout the region

Table 6.1 reveals that the University of Malawi is a member of associations such as AAU, ACU, SANORD, and SARUA. Exploration of the purposes of these organisations concludes that they initiate, facilitate, and enhance internationalisation activities between and among institutions. For example, the University of Malawi has benefited through partnership with SANORD, in research collaboration, annual higher-education conferences, and scholarships between nations and institutions from the two regions. Respondent L5 reported:

*We have links with university of Oslo in Norway, where we send faculties for PhD, masters and student exchange. We have a grant which has graduated four PhD from Norway (L5 interviews 2014-2015).*

This shows a Southern Africa institution linked with north-eastern European institutions through association or support by networks created by association organisations. Exploration of the whole process shows a network of associations and linkages which begin with the University of Malawi and the University of Oslo, Malawi with SADC, the University of Oslo with NORDIC, University of Malawi with SANORD, and, finally, the University of Oslo with SANORD. This shows the model of network development route which plays a role in

supporting internationalisation activities through initiating, facilitating, mediating, and enhancing the already established linkages within or across the regions. However, there is also a temporary network development route between individuals and institution or institution to institution created by scholarship sponsors. When the funding agency has a particular designated institution this means all those earmarked to benefit will study in that institution (see model in Chapter 8).

However, the political rationale being exercised in the university has mostly appeared in relation to visibility, raising the profile in terms of capacity building, and this is in line with the points made by de Wit (2002). Visibility appears important because, as leaders indicated, university ranking recognises and acknowledges the visibility and profile of the university. Therefore, the University of Malawi plans show that leadership hopes to augment the visibility of the University of Malawi so that it may stand proudly among the top universities in the region as well as on the continent. As averred by Shabani (2010), international association and cooperation has potential to process knowledge generation and dissemination. However, capacity development appears to be a dominant activity of the University of Malawi association. These strategic alliances have been forged out of the realisation that the development and prosperity of Malawi in general and the University of Malawi in particular are intimately bound up with the global community. Therefore, the political rationales are not only influenced by the loyalty to regional bodies, but also by political decision-making (Hardy, Langley, Mintzberg, & Rose, 1984), motivated by expected benefits.

The economic rationale for internationalisation is aligned with preparing students for a domestic and international career, generating income and contributing to economic development. Consequently, internationalisation has become an important part of a university strategy, in establishing partnerships in order to generate income, research opportunities, or to transfer knowledge. The economic imperative therefore drives the university to act politically, each institution competing in national and global markets (Harris, 2008).

The economic benefits through internationalisation were reported by respondent L3 as follows:

*One reason we need to create and strengthen international office is to aggressively market the university to international students, so that the number of international students to pay commercial fees can be increased. Because international students pay commercial fees and currently the university is financially strapped. .... We have seen that when you are under resourced and you manage your internationalisation*

*partnership very well, you can have an alternative source of income* (L3 interviews 2014-2015).

The quotation above endorses the emerging trend representing the economic rationale. An economic rationale refers to objectives related to economic effects in which internationalisation of higher education is seen as a contributing agent to both skilled human resources and to direct economic benefit (de Wit, 2002; Knight, 2004). Therefore, there is a desire to generate income for the institution, and contribute to economic development and competitiveness. The University of Malawi does not only gain financial and material resources from partnership but also fees from international students. However, there is more emphasis on partnership for internationalisation than on fees, resources from partnerships being more valuable than fees when the number of international students is low.

Academic rationale is an objective related to aims and functions of higher education. There is an assumption that internationalisation helps to achieve international academic standards for teaching and research. This assumption has led leaders to enhance the international dimension of teaching, research, and services. Consequently, this has encouraged internationalisation to be considered central to higher education (Zha, 2003). The University of Malawi has striven for international standards by offering programmes accredited by international organisations such as the World Health Organisation. Eventually, this has enhanced visibility and increased the opportunity of enrolling international students. The study has revealed academic rationale through various activities, mostly related to capacity building of academic staff, assisting them to grow professionally and in practise. Hence, internationalisation activities fall under areas of international curriculums, studies towards PhD degrees, and acquiring skills in research and project management. However, the possible interpretation is that higher education in Malawi is still at developmental stage, the core functions still aligned with capacity-building. Hence, in an effort to satisfy the higher education needs of Malawi, academic benefits are greater motivators of internationalisation activities.

The socio-cultural rationale recognises and acknowledges the cultural and ethnic diversity within and outside a country, as well as in organisations with a strong motivation for internationalisation, there being significant gains in the socio-cultural sphere when a country welcomes new educational ideas and methods from other countries (de Wit, 2002; Yang, 2002; Zeleza, 2012). The socio-cultural element also highlights the need for developing students' intercultural communication skills, which are necessary in addressing the increasing cultural

and ethnic diversity within and between countries. The intercultural understanding and communication skills are emphasised, and while focus is on the role and position of a nation's own culture and language, the significance of understanding foreign languages and culture is underlined (Jiang 2008, de Wit 2002). Higher education being international in nature is well positioned to play a significant role in preparing graduates by affording them a strong knowledge and understanding of intercultural stances.

The study reveals that the socio-cultural rationale does not emerge as a dominant rationale for internationalisation at the University of Malawi. However, there are some efforts taking place as in advocating for institutional activities which support the intercultural competence. It was reported by respondent L6 that the Chinese government project intends to introduce Chinese language lessons on one campus. There were also Finnish exchange students studying sociology. The socio-cultural aspect might be mentioned in government policy documents, but in practise it is not visible. However, a 2005 National Cultural Policy in Malawi indicated that:

*Malawi's culture needs to be clearly defined and actively promoted, as it is liable to neglect, distortion or abuse. Many pressures tend to work against culture as an important aspect of national life and development. With the increased influence of foreign cultures due to globalisation and with the coming in of multiparty politics, different practitioners have suddenly subjected Malawian culture to exploitation. There is, therefore, a need to deliberately put efforts that will ensure proper approaches are followed as cultural activities are undertaken in order to preserve the authenticity of the culture and to protect the rights of the cultural custodians as well as the practitioners. (MTWC, 2005, p1)*

Exploration of the quotation above shows that small countries like Malawi understand the importance of the preservation and promotion of national culture, an internationalisation imperative (Knight, 2008). The policy recognises the importance of well-defined and clarified culture which guards against any exploitation. The policy points at multiparty democracy and globalisation as possible causes of exploitation of Malawian culture because of the activities related to democracy and globalisation. However, the issue of whose culture and language should prevail during socio-cultural interaction is the question asked by Jiang (2008). This may be cause for culture-safeguarding statements raised in the National Cultural Policy in Malawi. However, Sanderson (2008) indicated that accepting of cultural differences, and knowing something of other cultures, has a pivotal place in internationalisation.

Therefore, not only one rationale dominates all the time, because rationales sometimes overlap, combine, or differ within and between processes, owing to differences in levels of priorities and interpretations of internationalisation, and more lately, changes over time, as also pointed out by various authors (de Wit, 2011; Jiang, 2008, Zha, 2003; Yang, 2002) Discussions on an internationalisation rationale cannot be linear, there being overlaps, and in some cases activities take place simultaneously. However, as noted by Zeleza (2012), although political, cultural and academic benefits are proclaimed, all these are trumped by economic reality.

### **6.3 Internationalisation Performance**

The University of Malawi operates in a federal system, and is organised under four constituent colleges, namely, Chancellor College (Chanco), College of Medicine (COM), Kamuzu College of Nursing (KCN), and The Polytechnic (Poly). Therefore, the context of the University of Malawi is necessary to fully understand the factors that influence strategies and participation in internationalisation activities as it locates itself into the international education realm.

Internationalisation activities are spread all over the University of Malawi constituent colleges, however, they are also operating on various levels. The study has revealed that internationalisation activities do not operate in linear mode; and in some cases, two or three activities appear concurrently. Consequently, this increases the complexity of internationalisation of higher education as indicated by de Wit, (2011), Teferra and Knight, (2008). Study reports on internationalisation differ regarding implementation approaches; and activities in which institutions are engaging. Literature shows that internationalisation of higher education may be understood from six major approaches: the activity approach (involving discreet activities), the competency approach (the development of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values), the ethos approach (fostering a campus-based culture of internationalisation), the process approach (the integration of an international dimension into teaching, research, and services) (Zha, 2003), the business approach (an emphasis on student fees for income), and the market approach (stress on competition, market domination, and deregulation) (Altbach, 2007).

The activity approach describes the international dimension in terms of specific activities (Zha, 2003). The integration of the international dimension into higher education is referred to as higher-education activities; hence internationalisation is better described through activities such as international student mobility, faculty collaboration and curriculum, among others (de Wit, 2002). The activities revealed in this study are 1) international students' enrolment; 2)

international curriculum development; 3) postgraduate programme offering; 4) student exchange; 5) international staff employment; 6) research collaboration; 7) partnership and networking; and 8) association. Therefore, since the activities occur concurrently, and sometimes overlap, the presentation is not in any order: activities are presented as they emerged in the data. The exploration of the list of internationalisation activities shows that partnership/networking is most popular, followed by international curriculum development, research collaboration, and postgraduate programmes. However, it has been noted that some activities are antecedents of the other, hence their presence influences the existence of others. The study also separated international student and student mobility to reflect international student representing inward, and student mobility the outward student. Nevertheless, the picture of internationalisation activities depicted is a realistic representation of the situation at the University of Malawi.

Until recently, student mobility was the main activity of higher-education internationalisation. Internationalisation now refers to the increased activities and collaboration between education systems (Van der Wende, 2001). Nevertheless, student mobility remains an important part of internationalisation, and the trends in student mobility are a significant indicator of the level of internationalisation (Coelen, 2009). The international student concept has been debated in terms of its specific reflection. There have been arguments about the meaning of international student, as well as about the period of stay, the specific task, and the origin (Altbach, 1989; Teferra and Knight, 2008). Hence, in this study, international student is understood as a student absorbed in a full programme of study, either in Malawi, or another country, leading to an award of an academic certificate. There are, however, variations in terms of student movement and the rationale; the institutional effort to attract students from other locations is the institution's responsibility. However, for purposes of this study, the focus is on activities leading to attracting or/and dispersing students. Hence, the study reveals a pattern of activities which influences the attracting of international students to study at the University of Malawi. Respondent L3 reported:

*One reason we need to create and strengthen international office is to aggressively market the university to international students, so that the number of international students paying commercial fees can be increased (L3 interviews 2014-2015).*

The University of Malawi attracts international students from various countries through aggressive international marketing. Although higher education is international and accessed by every interested person, gaining international students is a fiercely competitive task (Knight,

2008). The University of Malawi has demonstrated a pattern through which international students are attracted in various ways. International students are drawn to Malawi through strategic activities related to teaching and learning, as reported by different respondents respectively a) by complying with SADC regional protocol on education and training; b) By designing modular curriculum with elective modules which are transferred to other universities; c) By designing a specialist undergraduate programme; d) By developing programmes which are unique in the region; e) University of Malawi attracts international students by offering World Health Organisation approved courses.

The University of Malawi enrolls international students in response to regional SADC education and training protocol. The University of Malawi has solicited international students through loyalty to regional education protocol. This was indicated by leader L7:

*We have international students from the region mostly this is in line with SADC education protocol requirement that requires us to reserve places to help countries which does not have medical school. Like Lesotho, Swaziland (L7 Interviews, 2014-2015).*

As stated by respondent L7, the participation of international students within the SADC region is primarily influenced by unwavering loyalty to the education protocol of 1997. However, besides the loyalty to regional groupings, and responding to the call by the SADC protocol on education and training, it is evident that the quality of programmes also has influence; there being fifteen countries in SADC; fewer than 5 other countries are without medical schools. Eventually, competition is inevitable among the nations, also considering that other nations in SADC have more than one medical school. This means that, besides the loyalty to education protocol in enrolling SADC students at local fee structures, the programmes offered are seen as of a desirable quality. The evidence on quality of the programme offered by the University of Malawi was reported by L5:

*We have just graduated two doctors from Sierra Leone who were supposed to have gone to South Africa. But they changed their mind when they saw that we have a good master's degree in productive health (L5 interviews 2014-2015).*

Although the number of international students is low, this report is evidence that the University of Malawi has programmes which are competing in the region and on the continent.

Furthermore, besides being a response to SADC protocol on education, the service to the regional demand is a fulfilment of the University of Malawi's objective (Act, 1998) which stipulates that ... *'It is responsive to the needs of Malawi and the whole world'*, and Strategic

Plan vision statement (Unima, 2012) which claims ... *'To be a centre of excellence in higher education for sustainable development of Malawi and the region'*.

Internationalisation activities are not really an additional activity; they fulfil the legal mandate according to the objectives, mission, and vision of the university.

The study has also revealed that the University of Malawi recruits international students through the International Organisation affiliation. After qualifying as a centre of excellence for World Health Organisation (WHO), the University of Malawi has the opportunity of enrolling international students. This was reported by respondent L5:

*University of Malawi School of Nursing is a World Health Organisation collaborative centre for Inter-professional education and practice. This means we can offer any health related programme. When WHO gives you this status, it means you are international centre. So World Health Organisation brings people from all over the world. The reason we pursued for this designation, it took us two years. We were looking at internationalisation and our profile has risen (L5 interviews 2014-2015).*

As attested to by respondent L5, the University of Malawi has quality programmes, having qualified to be a centre of excellence for World Health Organisation programmes. Besides, the University of Malawi is benefiting from the relationship; and this is in line with Schoole and de Wit (2014), that international relationships are the locus for development.

The University of Malawi has identified courses which are in short supply, developing programmes for the region. Eventually, the University of Malawi will be able to attract international students who follow the programme because it is sought after, being a scarce resource. The respondent L5 elaborated:

*We have unique programmes in the region and internationally. We have masters in midwifery- there is no programme of this nature in Africa. We also have PhD in Inter-Professional Health (L5 interviews 2014-2015).*

This was endorsed by L1, who reported that:

*When Technical Education programme was introduced we were the only institution offering in the SADC region and students were coming from the region. Now that some countries developed their own, we have developed masters in Technical and Vocation Education and none of the countries offers, and we have some students from Zambia and Swaziland (L1 interviews 2014-2015).*

The University of Malawi uses a marketing approach. This is an innovative initiative in terms of curriculum design, which has bestowed on the university the opportunity of enrolling international students.

The University of Malawi also enrolls international students through designing specialised undergraduate programmes. It was also reported by respondent L5:

*Specialised undergraduate programmes means, a nurse can come from Zambia to do community health nursing in Malawi. We have profiled our programmes differently so that we should attract student from outside (L5 interviews 2014-2015).*

Finally, respondent L6 commented:

*We are offering elective modules with other universities. Recently we had students from Finland who were studying two modules in sociology for one year (L6 interviews 2014-2015).*

The University of Malawi has attracted students from different countries looking for elective modules which are transferrable to other universities. Curriculums are designed following a modular system. Consequently, the international students come to the University of Malawi for designated elective modules for a programme studied in their respective universities.

When leaders were asked about enrolment of international students against the access capacity of the university, respondent L1 reported:

*Access is an import pillar for education sector and the University of Malawi. ...However the increase of intake should not only be local student, but also international and therefore we are working hard that we should attract international students. But this depends on the type of the programmes. The MBBS from college of medicine is a good example of an international programme and it continues to attract. However, we don't want to go beyond the annual increase sealing of ten per cent. We don't want to be too ambitious because quality should not be compromise despite our commitment (L1 interview 2014-2015)*

Exploration of the quotation by respondent L1 shows that access to the University of Malawi may be achieved by both international and local students. However, the priority still remains the national development; access is a government priority: thematic pillar number one for the whole education system in Malawi (MOEST, 2007).

Despite the highest funding rate in SADC region (World Bank, 2010), the study has revealed that more students are exiting Malawi for studies than entering Malawi. Of course, there are many factors which influence this pattern of movement, some being: a) Limited number of

higher education institutions in Malawi compared with the growing number of students; b) The presence of few postgraduate programmes, and focus on few fields; c) Availability of scholarships from the host countries; d) Some with the capacity to attain training from outside institutions go to other countries (MOEST, 2007). However, despite increased enrolment to almost double in the University of Malawi, the demand for higher education still remains high.

The enrolments at postgraduate level are relatively low in relation to the total enrolment in public institutions, partly because not all faculties and departments offer postgraduate programmes; and there are few postgraduate programmes available. Currently, postgraduate studies account for about 10 per cent of total enrolment (World Bank, 2010).

However, internationalisation has the potential to improve the quality of curriculum, student, programmes, staff, and facilities in the higher-education sector (Jowi 2009; Knight 2008). In order for a university to attract foreign students, quality of education influences their decision; hence, the University of Malawi has challenges to sustain quality despite various limitations. In the current situation, the University of Malawi has a limitation on attracting foreign staff. This could impact on quality of research and quality of teaching; lack of resources has greatly affected internationalisation activities.

Respondent L1 reflected:

*We have not done much on international lecturers, hence we have not competed favorably however, as much as a person may want to work at University of Malawi, but when they convert the salary to Dollar, it might not be attractive compared to South Africa. However, there is always a window for individuals to come and work with us, through sabbatical or two years contracts, individuals can apply direct to relevant offices (L1 interviews 2014-2015)*

The above quotation reveals that the University of Malawi has initiatives to recruit international staff through vacancy adverts which are posted internationally; however, very few are responding, for economic reasons. The influence of the market competition has impacted the number of international staff at the university. This means that competition in internationalisation is not only for students, but also for academic teaching staff.

Leadership at the University of Malawi is using every available opportunity to adopt an international stance on higher education. Leaders are devising strategies to enable the institution to operate internationally. One of the strategies was indicated by respondent L3:

*Any university even in America has benefited from international staff. When you have people from all over the world they enrich your staff because they bring different experience in research. If we had people willing to take jobs in University of Malawi they will be welcome. However, we are putting priority on our own lecturers because it is possible to run internationalisation with local lecturers provided they understand the concept. (L3 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L5 cited another, more cost-effective strategy of acquiring international staff:

*We have embarked on volunteer staff service to teach at the University for a Minimum of one to two years. They serve as additional staff or take the place of my staff sent for further studies. My benefit is I have a needful international staff but also I do not pay salary, therefore I do not need additional money for an international staff (L5 interview 2014-2015)*

The above quotations speak to the support required by the University of Malawi for international staff in various ways. Although international academic staffing has a cost implication, there are other means of gaining an international stance through other approaches. Although the numbers are small, they serve the purpose. Therefore, this extends the understanding on the means of acquiring international staff. In addition to the strategies outlined, it was reported by (L1 interview 2014-2015) that the University of Malawi benefited from scholars from Zimbabwe during the time that Zimbabwe had economic challenges. These international scholars were employed on a local salary structure.

The University of Malawi has taken into account the cost implication of hiring international staff for internationalisation purposes, hence, they are devising cheaper means of gaining the same service. Therefore, based on respondents' (L1; L3; and L5) reports, the target is international staff on full pay, granting of sabbaticals, recruiting professionals from Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) volunteers; and internationalising the local lecturers by assisting them in understanding the internationalisation context (L3 interviews 2014-2015; Sanderson 2008). The University of Malawi has partnerships and international networks with international institutions worldwide which include: University of Cape Town, University of Western Cape, North-West University, University of Pretoria, University of Witwatersrand, University of KwaZulu-Natal, University of Stellenbosch, University of Botswana, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan in Tanzania, University of Zambia from SADC region. Also included are Rice University in USA, Curtin University of Australia, University of Liverpool in Britain,

University of Strathclyde in Scotland, University of Regina and University of Saskatchewan in Canada, among others.

The list of institutions working in partnership with the University of Malawi suggests a pattern of working more within the SADC region. However, this may have emerged as a result of the regional education and training protocols (Kwaramba, 2012), with countries encouraging their institutions to target regional institutions as a cost-saving measure. Internationalisation activities taking place at regional level are capacity building in the form of training of staff and curriculum development. The model of partnership is either formal or non-formal and the characteristics are more top-down when projects are initiated by government ministry or government agencies. The analysis of the results shows that most formal and top-down models are for capacity building both for infrastructure and human capacity, while the bottom-up models are research based. Although internationalisation activities are reported as manifested at national, sector, and institution levels, there are more internationalisation activities at institutional level, according to this study, which are initiated at faculty and departmental level with university leadership recognising and encouraging the lower-level participation in internationalisation. Hence, the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding for the projects takes place at the top leadership level, as indicated by respondent L3:

*The office assigned to look after internationalisation activities is the office of the Pro-Vice Chancellor. The office of the registrar facilitates and supports the process to keep record of what transpired during these engagements. Because, when these international relations have been cultivated there is need for guidance and leadership (L3-interviews 2014-2015)*

This shows the involvement of leadership during internationalisation activities at the University of Malawi. Hence, this extends the responsibility of leaders from the routine higher education activities to international relations.

Constituent colleges of the University of Malawi have different internationalisation activities and deal with different partners. There is evidence of more activities in some and few in other colleges. There are many internationalisation activities at COM and KCN. This is not surprising because these colleges are centres of excellence for specific disciplines. The College of Medicine is known for tropical disease studies; this attracts global projects and partnerships. As reported earlier, Kamuzu College of Nursing is known globally for midwifery programmes and is currently a World Health Organisation collaborative centre for inter-professional

education and practise. However, since the University of Malawi is federal in structure, and constituent colleges are mostly discipline-based, factors influencing the availability of internationalisation may also include the discipline. Therefore, the discipline itself may help some departments rather than others attract internationalisation activities. The University of Malawi leaders are deploying various initiatives to implement activities; however, it is not possible to discuss all the activities independently, internationalisation activities being widespread and overlapping. Some of the activities indicated above have been discussed in the previous section.

#### **6.4 Internationalisation Opportunities, Risks and Challenges**

Higher education is experiencing forces of internationalisation which present many exciting opportunities to higher-education institutions (Jowi, 2009). At the same time, risks and challenges are inherent in this complex and fluid environment (Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, 2009; Schoole and de Wit, 2014). Although internationalisation is gradually becoming the key activity in Malawi, the internationalisation profile shows that higher education in Malawi has been practising internationalisation since its inception. However, despite the long history, the low progress of internationalisation is still one of the key limitations of higher education in Malawi compared with other regional and global competitors. However, the respondents demonstrated that internationalisation has brought exciting benefits to the university. Respondent L4 reiterated that the University of Malawi has benefited by receiving equipment, improving research skills, and gaining new insights and ways of thinking. The university programmes have been ‘macdonaldised’: packaged programmes may be taught anywhere by the same means. The university also offers modular programmes, and has same credit rating as other programmes internationally.

Although literature on internationalisation of higher education shows that there are great benefits, giving stakeholders positive outcomes, there are also unintended consequences (Knight and Schoole, 2013). Therefore, the benefits of internationalisation are many and varied; however, the potential risks and unintended consequences are significant. It is also noted that some internationalisation risks and challenges are inherent (Schoole and de Wit, 2014), or they come as a consequence of being a university. Universities being international in nature (Altbach and Teichler, 2001), they are exposed to global standards and competition. However, although risks and challenges for internationalisation are inherent, some being difficult to mitigate, benefits are great. The discussion above suggests that, under any

circumstances of internationalisation there will be some benefits, therefore it must be understood, as noted by Rumbley et al. (2012), that leaders in higher education must be prepared to track and absorb the broadest global trends in higher education, as well as the internationalisation of higher education; at the same time attending effectively to the unique needs and aspirations of their particular institutions, local communities, and regional or national contexts.

Higher education has attracted increasing attention both locally and internationally; it is generally agreed that knowledge may be used as a tool to respond to development challenges (Jowi, Knight and Sehoole, 2013). Since the advent of internationalisation, higher education has experienced global interactions and overwhelming benefits which have been recorded in many areas. However, the positive contributions are not only academic but also economical: there are concomitant risks and challenges (Jowi, 2009). Risk, as used in this study, denotes those factors that have placed the University of Malawi in a disadvantageous position in engaging in international activity, given her peripheral position. The study revealed that the prevailing challenges at the University of Malawi are; a) Brain drain; b) Cost implications; c) Power imbalance competition for students and staff; d) Forced programme implementation; e) Compromise of desired standards; f) Joint research exploitation; g) Crash of culture (L1; L3; L4; L5; L7).

It is generally agreed that brain drain weakens the human resource supply. Unfortunately, internationalisation of higher education has exposed the potential in human capacity from developed countries, turning out a steady supply of smart minds for developing nations (Altbach, 2006; Knight, 2008). This was reiterated by respondent L3:

*The challenges are that when you are dealing with more experience partners, they can easily take advantage of your inexperience. On the surface they can give you an impression that they are of great benefit to you while in fact it is of great benefit to them. If we offer them our finest researcher to team up with them on international research project and when they see how good our researcher are, they entice them and go with them home ( L3 interviews 2014-2015).*

The exploration of the quotation by respondent L3 reveals a number of challenges and risks experienced by the University of Malawi as it takes part in internationalisation practices. The challenge of brain-draining appears to involve both students and research staff, hence, after affording them the training, research staff and students alike are being enticed and recruited

outside the country. Therefore, the growing mobility of both professionals and students is becoming a losing experience, most of the best of these people not returning home (Jowi, 2009). However, what is more serious is that this eventually weakens the capacity of the institutions which are expected to compete internationally. According to Jowi (2009), several mitigation measures have been tried in order to find a working and lasting response: none has been successful. Since brain drain cannot easily be stopped, the response to these risks should be by better preparation of the institutions at risk. A system must be developed which is self-sustaining or/and resilient to brain-drain effects. Home-grown academics must be better trained so that, even if they move away, there will be replacements enough to run the system. However, this will have a cost implication.

Internationalisation has already brought cost implications to institutions as reported by respondent L7:

*The challenge is the cost implication of sustaining that and it becomes a problem to the extent that in most cases the one who has the funding has more to say on the type of relationship. Sometimes it has been one sided. Unlike if we had our funds we would determine the exact expectation (L7 interview 2014-2015).*

Internationalisation activities require a budget specifically for such operations. However, in the case of the University of Malawi this is difficult because funding is egregious; most services are affected by budget decline (Dunga, 2013). It was pointed out by L6 that:

*Government does not give us enough money. What government gives us is enough for salaries, students' allowances and small operation money. No money for research (L6 interviews 2014-2015)*

The situation reported by respondent L6 is a challenge with a direct effect on the activities of higher education in general, and internationalisation in particular. Eventually, this influences university leadership to make political decisions, aligning themselves with international partners for financial benefits. Although the decisions to align with partners is commendable, collaboration must be structured reciprocally in order to gain a healthy balance in the exchange of knowledge, skills, and human resources (Jowi, 2009). The University of Malawi is expected to seek out more resources, government funding not only inadequate to run universities, but also unreliable (Dunga, 2013; Mambo et al., 2016). The University of Malawi is operating in an environment of budget cuts or no funds at all to prioritise internationalisation. Conversely, implementing internationalisation requires large spending, for example, on staff development, changing and internationalising curricula, improving facilities, and building additional accommodation. The other cost implication raised by respondent L7 in the quotation above is

the challenge with internationalisation sustainability. This is a situation created by the pattern of internationalisation activities which are projects having time frames. Therefore, life after project requires sustainable sources for the resources to be used for the continuation of the internationalisation activities.

However, as indicated by Dunga (2013) and Mambo et al. (2016) the University of Malawi is already affected by economic perplexity because of its poor economic environment and the diversified resource mobilising of funding as directed by government being practised but not yielding as expected. The University of Malawi has thus suffered the effects of the weak economy (Mambo et al., 2016), finding itself in a situation in which government subvention is reduced, students pay low fees because they are supposed to be subsidised by government, and the economy affecting the possible opportunities for support from industry (Dunga, 2013; Mambo et al., 2016; World Bank, 2010). The current situation reveals that government funding as the main source of revenue is constantly being reduced; financial dependence on the state means that the funding levels are influenced by fluctuation of government resources. Furthermore, the current economic situation does not suggest anything different in the near future, therefore, the challenge of funding internationalisation is critical to discuss because it affects almost all of the other challenges mentioned in this section.

The internationalisation activities in higher education cannot be divorced from the wider geopolitical forces; however, there is evidence of power imbalances between northern and southern countries which lie at the heart of relationships between scholars in developed and developing countries (Zezeza, 2012). Consequently, these imbalances affect the focus and design of collaborative work, the resources available for such work, and the roles played by academic partners in different parts of the world. Respondent L2 reiterated:

*If it's a North-South partnership sometime the more dominant partner is the one with resources and in most cases has been the north partner. We are aware of the departments which have been exploited and some members who have been taken for a ride (L2 interviews 2014-2015)*

The fear of power imbalance and discriminatory practices was also mentioned by respondent L7:

*Our student sometimes have ended up going out on programmes which are professional and hands on but they end up just being observers out there. You wonder whether it's for certificate or skills or MOU satisfaction. Therefore we need to be careful to*

*determine the exact type of training we expect and be explicit (L7 interviews 2014-2015).*

It is evident that the imbalance of power between developed and developing nations is a serious concern, being repeatedly echoed by all respondents and covering all areas of internationalisation of higher education. As indicated by Zeleza (2012), imbalance of power affects the flow of people and programmes, institutions, infrastructures, and languages. Furthermore, internationalisation has given English, followed by certain other European languages, global supremacy as the language of instruction and scholarship (Zeleza, 2012). Exploration of the challenges above shows that most partnerships and collaborations are entered into because they are available, not necessarily because they are appropriate to the institution. Internationally, universities in developing countries have already suffered negative consequences as a result of unequal partnerships (Jowi, 2009; Knight, 2008). This is demonstrated by the concern raised and lack of satisfaction expressed by all the respondents during this study.

The integration of an international dimension into higher education activities means that internationalisation processes can also be physically demanding. The study revealed that the University of Malawi has critical physical-resources challenges resulting from various limitations. The University of Malawi has a serious physical infrastructure challenge in that there has been no substantial building expansion of university infrastructure: this has affected the student enrolment. Now that enrolment has doubled, the situation is critical. The space challenge was also reported by respondent L6:

*In terms of internationalisation we have challenges to accommodate international activities. Currently I have a Chinese lecture who wants his own classroom which I do not have because classrooms are supposed to be shared. I have received equipment for biology, where do I put it, it is a positive to get equipments but where do I fix them?*  
(L6 interviews 2014-2015)

The process of internationalising has brought an infrastructure challenge which has required financial support for infrastructure development. This extends the factors affecting internationalisation to include physical structures. Another physical infrastructure deficiency reported by L4 concerned Internet connectivity: campuses are partly connected while some sections of the campuses have no connection at all. Some are currently depending on wireless facilities whose efficiency is challenged by size of bandwidth.

Despite positioning higher education as early as 1965 as an initiator of human resources capacity building (World Bank, 2010), human capacity has been a challenge in Malawi since independence. Human-resource challenges which deter the University of Malawi from practising internationalisation effectively point to human-resource limitations in conducting research at the international level. This includes the number of senior members of academic staff in their respective departments. Hence, for the University of Malawi to operate effectively in internationalisation there is need for quality research by qualified academics. Quality of teaching will only be appreciated if handled by qualified staff; the success of education will only be possible through appropriate teaching conducted in classes with manageable numbers (Altbach, 1989; Knight, 2008). Hence, the quality and extent of human resources is a challenge at the University of Malawi. The solution to this dire situation is to obtain financial resources: as mentioned by (L1 2014-2015), recruiting quality staff is economically demanding, which explains the failure of the University of Malawi. Recruiting additional staff proportional to the number of students requires building establishments: this means budgetary demands.

The emerging information technology has changed the whole landscape of information use and delivery. With the coming of computers and the Internet, information technology has affected education in many ways, international education being one of them. The Internet has become a commonplace source of learning for students and staff by means of which teaching materials may be both downloaded and uploaded. The Internet has also proved imperative to higher education institutions who wish to solicit interested parties on a website. To be international means being accessible internationally, therefore an active website is a priority for most universities. Higher education must be abreast of advanced technology. However, the availability of such resources is limited at the University of Malawi. It was commented on by respondent L4 that:

*Internet came as very positive but it's now expensive, you can't afford and internet is slow, tariffs are heavy. You begin to ask whether it really benefit us. It needs to be put into context, to establish whether it is benefiting us or not benefiting us (L4 interviews 2014-2015)*

Information technology is not easily available; where available, there are limitations in terms of cost, energy support, and physical infrastructure (campus-wide network). Despite being a critical component for internationalisation, information technology has become a burden in the sustaining of internationalisation activities.

## 6.5 Leadership Challenges

Internationalisation operates in various contexts; there are issues which require attention, and decisions must be made in order to proceed. Therefore, it is not only regulations that influence decisions apropos of internationalisation, but leaders who understand the process. As indicated by Fullan and Scott (2009), if leadership does not see the relevance, desirability, and feasibility of change; if they are not clear on what they are supposed to do differently, there will be no reform, only 'window dressing' plans without implementation. Zeleza (2012) stated that, as internationalisation increases in complexity, there is a need for drawing up and implementing plans which require commitment by top institutional leaders. Leadership at the University of Malawi is using every available opportunity to participate in internationalisation, thereby maximising the benefits. This has been demonstrated through strategic partnership for financial and material benefit, in developing specific programmes for international students, and in devising easier and more cost-effective ways of attracting international students and lecturers. Leaders at the University of Malawi have a responsibility to serve their own nation as well as taking on international responsibility. However, the economic situation has hampered the leadership's achieving the expectation. Hence the University of Malawi, is implementing internationalisation of higher education depending on financial support from international partners. Although certain resource-dependency theorists maintain that everybody is vulnerable to dependency, it not being optional (Finkelstein, 1997; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978), others explain that, when organisations become deprived of critical resources, they are forced to change their patterns in order to compete for resources (Smith, 1981). As reported by respondent L6, the only available way for the University of Malawi academic staff to conduct meaningful research is through the support of partners, because the government subvention is only enough for limited operations. This situation has affected the role of university leadership in planning for activities, shifting the responsibility to resource mobilization. The leadership *vis-à-vis* internationalisation reveals that leaders at the University of Malawi have a positive attitude towards internationalisation, and are committed to implementing it; however, resources affect the perceived behaviour control (Ajzen, 1991).

## 6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter elaborates significant motivation factors, implementation approaches, and emerging challenges for internationalisation of higher education in Malawi.

The University of Malawi leadership is aware of the rationales driving internationalisation both internationally and locally. There is constant overlap between and among the rationales for

internationalisation. However, the possible interpretation of the dominance of economic and academic is that the University of Malawi is not in the same league as competing universities, the core functions still being aligned with capacity building. Therefore, in an effort to satisfy the higher-education need in Malawi, the University of Malawi has become involved mostly with academic-related activities, and activities which are supported by economic benefits. As the role of university leadership shifts more to resources mobilization, the predominant rationale for internationalisation at the University of Malawi is activities economic in nature. The aim of resource mobilization is to generate funding to supplement the dwindling government subvention. Therefore, although literature expresses some concern on the dominance of the economic rationale over academic rationale (Jiang 2008), for the University of Malawi, this is for economic survival.

The analysis of the performance of internationalisation revealed that there is a link between an internationalisation activity and the higher education goals. Leaders at the University of Malawi wish to implement certain internationalisation activities in order to attend to higher-education goals. On a small scale, the University of Malawi is currently in collaboration with international institutions focusing on various programmes and disciplines. The University of Malawi, being an interdisciplinary university, demonstrates that the degree of partnership and networking is dependent on the programme and discipline. The University of Malawi is plagued by multiple challenges relating to internationalisation. However, the understanding of challenges of internationalisation must come through the initial conceptual purpose and current factors that define the context. The next chapter is a discussion relating to internationalisation leadership.

## CHAPTER 7

### INTERNATIONALISATION LEADERSHIP

#### 7.1 Introduction

The overall study focus is to understand internationalisation of higher education at the University of Malawi, from the leadership perspective. However, the focus of this chapter is on the leadership situation in the context of internationalisation of higher education. The chapter discusses the characteristics of the University of Malawi leaders apropos of leadership knowledge, understanding, and experience during internationalisation of higher education.

Data presented in this chapter was generated through analysis of the University of Malawi's policy document, and face-to-face semi-structured interviews administered to 7 leaders at the University of Malawi. For the credibility of respondents in terms of higher-education experience and knowledge, the sample was considered acceptable: 100% of participants indicated that they had risen through the ranks of the University of Malawi to their current positions. They have held various portfolios at the same university. For instance, the longest-serving respondent had been with the University of Malawi for about 38 years; while the respondent who has been employed for the shortest period had served for about 15 years. Academically, all participants have PhDs, except for one senior university leader, who has a Master's in Higher Education Leadership. Professionally, the sampled respondents comprised five professors, two associate professors, and one senior university leader.

Some leadership theories make the assumption that studying leadership within a given organisation will explain how the organisation functions (Mestenhauser and Ellingboe, 2005). For institutions of magnitude and complexity such as higher-education institutions having a somewhat obscure profile, finding respondents with rich information on a particular phenomenon could be problematic (Fullan and Scott, 2009). Hence, after a rigorous sifting of possible sources, the study settled for the leaders at the University of Malawi informed by the organisational structure (Schein, 1996). Therefore, data was collected by qualitative face-to-face semi-structured interviews with 7 leaders of the University of Malawi. It was observed that, of the 7 leaders, there was only one female, the study therefore interviewed one female and six males. Despite this, no conclusion will be drawn in relation to gender in this study. It is accepted as an international trend that there are fewer female leaders than males in higher

education (Madsen, 2011). It is worth noting that the University of Malawi, in line with this observation, has low female representation at the leadership level. The leadership of higher education was studied using a constructivist lens. Social constructivism assumes that leadership is socially constructed, impacted by culture and context, continuously evolving, and that it takes its shape from the subjective experience of the individual. Primarily, according to Kezar et al. (2006), the idea behind the employing of social constructivism in studying leadership is to understand what leaders identify as leadership, in order to see leadership perspectives in context, and to illuminate and understand the impact of leadership perspectives on the leadership process. This is because the social constructivism stance may depict real leadership perceptions. Leadership has for some time been a major topic within social and organisational psychology. Underlying the research has been the assumption that leadership is related to organisational performance (Pfeffer, 2000). On the other hand, there are consistent findings by historians, sociologists, and empirically oriented social psychologists that leadership should depend on the particular situation, the task to be performed, and the characteristics of the leaders' subordinates (Schein, 1996). Some leadership theories make the assumption that studying leadership within a given organisation will explain how the organisation functions (Mestenhauser, and Ellingboe, 2005).

The University of Malawi is one of the public universities established to provide higher education in the country through teaching, research, consultancies, and public outreach. The university has four constituent colleges, namely: Chancellor College, College of Medicine, Kamuzu College of Nursing, and The Malawi Polytechnic. Their names imply that these institutions have specialised orientations. The current UNIMA Policy encourages all college faculties to explore opportunities of establishing effective relationships with reputable international and local private or public institutions for symbiotic gain. According to the University of Malawi Act of 1998, the University of Malawi structure comprises the chancellor, the vice chancellor, the university registrar, members of council, and members of senate as top leadership positions. The university has a central office headed by the university vice chancellor, who is an overall leader of the day-to-day operation of the university (Unima Act, 1998), together with college principals as heads of respective constituent colleges. The table below illustrates the summary of responsibilities, according to the University of Malawi Act 1998;

Table 7.1 Unima Responsibilities

	Position	Responsibility
1	Chancellor	There shall be a chancellor of the university who shall be the head of the university. The chancellor of the university shall be the head of state.
2	Vice Chancellor	There shall be a vice chancellor of the university, who shall be the principal academic and administrative officer of the university.
3	Registrar	There shall be a registrar of the university appointed by the council who shall be the chief administrative officer of the university under the vice-chancellor and shall exercise such powers and perform such duties in relation to the administration of the university as are assigned to him/her by this act, by the statutes and by the council, or as are delegated to him/her by the vice chancellor.
	Principal	The principal of each college shall be responsible to the vice chancellor for maintaining and promoting the efficiency and good order of the college of which he is principal.
4	Council	The Council shall be the governing body of the university and shall be responsible for the management and administration of the university and of its property and revenues, and, shall exercise general control and supervision over all the affairs of the university.
5	Senate	The Senate shall determine matters relating to teaching within the university, or to the teaching of any specified subject, periodic reports from professors and lectures on the progress of students in any subject, faculty, school, or college, and other like matters.

Source: (Unima Act, 1998)

The exploration of the duties and responsibilities accorded the top university structure, both for designated offices and committees, reveals that committees are part of the key structure. The

chancellor is the state president, who is also the chancellor of all public universities in Malawi. The vice chancellor and the university registrar run the university administration; the Committee of University Council is positioned as a governing body to exercise general control and supervision over all the affairs of the university, while the Committee of Senate is designated with academic responsibility in determining the direction of the university's academic affairs, university leadership being members of both committees.

According to Kezar (2004), structure has an impact on efficiency; effectiveness appears when the structure includes key individuals with the necessary expertise and a clear understanding of their roles, the process becoming more efficient (Kezar, 2004). Necessary expertise and a clear understanding of university academic activities are crucial to university structure in order to effectively implement internationalisation. The University of Malawi structure shows that functions and decisions are endorsed through the committees. However, Astin and Astin (2000) pointed out that, although committees are believed to offer the possibility of collegial or collaborative leadership, committees are generally ineffective: reports frequently gather dust on library shelves. Furthermore, Birnbaum (1989) reported that a Committee of Senate is often known to be weak, ineffective, an empty forum, unrepresentative, and inept. Interestingly, despite being labelled weak and empty, the university Committee of Senate is a popular structure of the university system (Birnbaum, 1989).

As indicated in the University of Malawi Act 1998, the University of Malawi structure, at top management level, comprises two committees. The current Committee of University Council (Unima Act, 1998) comprises 20 members, having 40% university leadership. There is also a university Senate Committee which has university leadership constituting only 19% of the 42-member Senate Committee. Kezar (2004) asserted the need for expert knowledge; however, is no record of the expertise of the Committee of University Council except the university leadership team, whose credentials have already been described above. The Committee of Senate is predominantly composed of academic members of staff, especially deans of faculties and faculty representatives (Unima, 1998). Birnbaum (1989) described an academic senate as the normative organisational structure through which academic staff exercise their roles in college or university governance at the institutional level. The academic senate is above all an instrument for the defense of academic and scholarly standards in the face of multiple pressures and demands on the university (Trow, 1985). Although Trow (1985) acknowledged the influence of the academic senate, conversely, he indirectly indicated that sometimes a strong

academic senate reduces the power of leadership. Trow (1985) on page 150, acknowledged the friction which exists between senate and academic leaders.

However, although the University of Malawi leadership is numerically small in the current composition of university senate, the study did not record any friction. This does not mean it cannot happen, therefore, the process of having plans approved by the senate committee may not necessarily require the majority to be leaders. Structural dictation is not possible, hence, the strong leadership in terms of vision, based on legitimate assumption and expert analysis (Fairholm, 2009) is critical in this situation, leaders being expected to use ‘rational persuasion’.

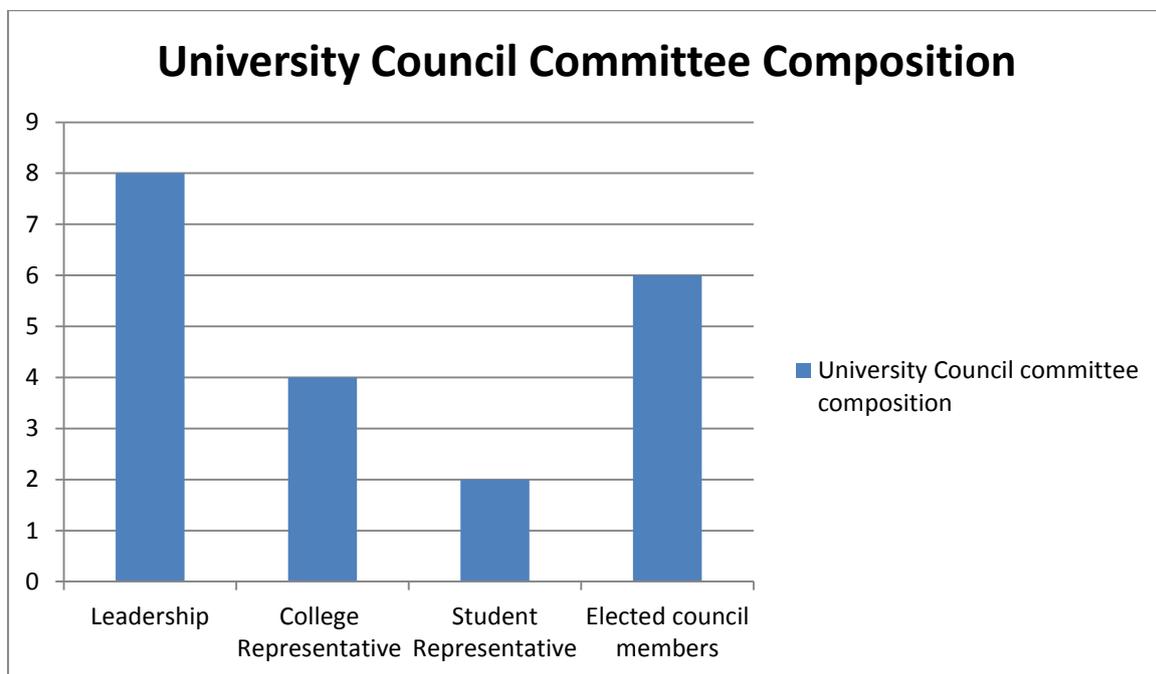


Figure 7:1 University Council Committee composition. Source: (Unima Act, 1998)

The backgrounds of members of a university council vary. The expertise and competence of members of university council may be on different levels; university council member selection does not prescribe a specific expertise. However, it is the prerogative of the state president as chancellor to appoint trusted individuals. Of course, some members are appointed to represent a designated society, while the university top leadership forms part of the committee of the university council.

The Committee of Senate comprises the seven top leaders whose competence and understanding has already been discussed in this chapter. The leadership constitutes 19% of Committee of Senate members; the majority of senate members being academic staff members

comprising deans of faculties and faculty representatives. However, the University of Malawi has a system by which deans of faculties are elected through voting by faculty members. According to respondent L1:

*When choosing a dean of faculty, people look for an individual with relative abilities that can mobilise the faculty and can add value to the vision of the strategic plan if it is being implemented. (L1 Interviews 2014-2015)*

The academic members of staff could be described as having diverse expertise. They are elected by respective groups to represent faculties in the committee of the university senate. Members may not have individual vision for the university, in not aspiring to the position; however, they have the trust of the people.

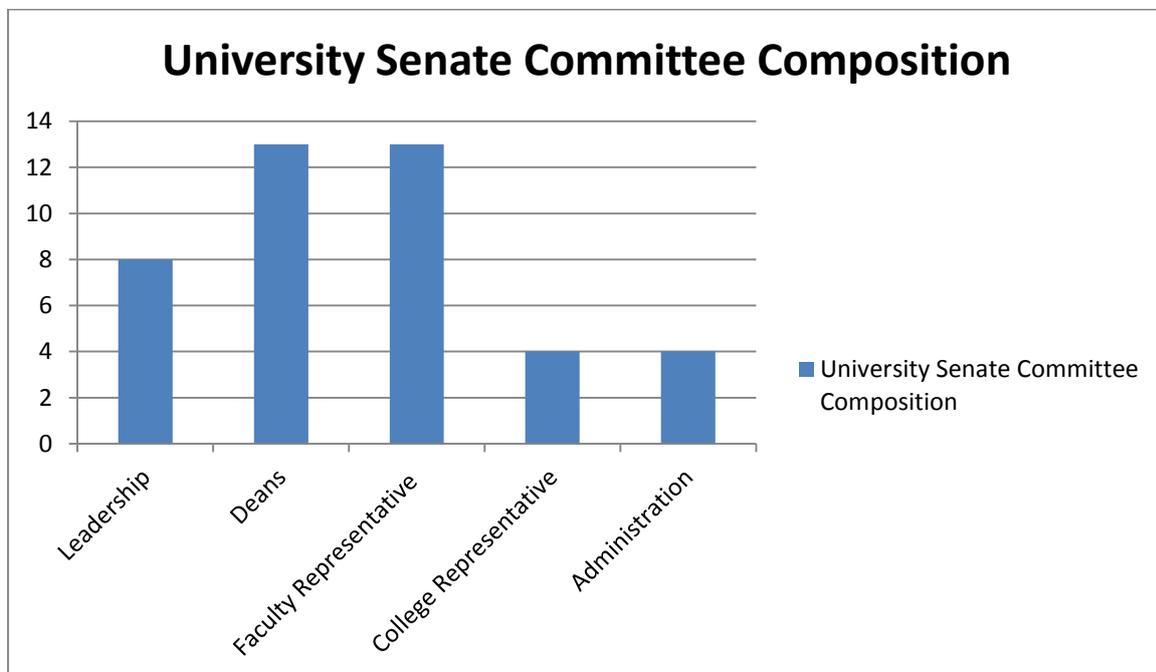


Fig. 7.2 University Senate Committee composition. Source: (Unima Act, 1998)

The quote from respondent L1 shows that academic staff selects a senate member based on general abilities. The University of Malawi policy regarding the position of deans of faculty only stipulates that the candidate should be a senior member of staff in terms of hierarchy. However, seniority does not refer to knowledge.

Functional analysis of both the University of Malawi Committee of Council and Senate revealed that both committees exist; however, the effectiveness is not discussed as part of the study. As suggested by Birnbaum (1989), some practices not appearing to achieve their formal intended functions may persist because they are fulfilling underlying functions that are

important to the organisation. Therefore, as advised by Birnbaum (1989), one should not be focusing on recommending ways in which these committees might be made more effective, nor on the composition of the committee; rather focusing on understanding roles of the committee within the university organisation. However, although Kezar (2004) did not specify the type of expertise and degree of understanding, context knowledge would be paramount in this case. Hence, the University of Malawi's Committee of Senate may benefit by considering the advice of Kezar (2004), that effectiveness will be achieved by including key individuals with necessary expertise and a clear understanding of their roles, constituting an appropriate leadership commitment.

In order to achieve the goals of internationalisation, there is a need for effective leadership (Kishun, 2007). Trow (1985) indicated that leadership in higher education in large part is the taking of effective action to shape the character and direction of a college or university, presumably for the better. However, academic leadership is seriously challenging, because of many external and volatile change forces that occur. Local forces may either help or hinder necessary action (Fullan and Scott, 2009). In line with this thinking, Rumbley, Altbach, and Reisberg (2012) noted that leaders in higher education must be prepared to track and understand the broadest global trends in higher education, as well as the internationalisation of higher education, at the same time attending effectively to the unique needs and aspirations of their particular institutions, local community, and regional or national contexts. Furthermore, Fullan and Scott (2009) accentuate that if leadership does not see the relevance, desirability, and feasibility of change, if they are not clear on what they are supposed to do differently, there will be no reform, only 'window dressing' plans without implementation. Success is therefore facilitated by leadership efforts in defending the integrity of the institution while responding to the many needs of the society they serve (Trow, 1985).

Respondent L3 described the higher-education leadership requirements as follows:

*Leadership in higher education requires tolerance and education to the highest level possible. Unlike in the public sector where you just use your power, in academic you have to persuade using rationality. Persuading with rationality to people who are equally educated even better than you it's a tall task. But when you learn and understand that academic is generally anarchical, you don't get shocked you take it as academic. You begin to function normally in what others consider to be abnormal environment (L3 interviews 2014-2015)*

The quotation by respondent L3 clarifies the complexity of the institution and the requirements of the one who intends to lead a higher-education institution. This is in line with the general perspective on leadership in higher education (Fullan and Scott, 2009; Trow, 1985). However, the study has revealed varied requirements of a leader at the University of Malawi. Respondent L1 reported:

*First, you must be interested to participate in university leadership. You should have some type of vision of what you can do to take the university to a different level. When an advert appears, it also indicate that one must be an academic and of higher level.*

*There is also need for national and international knowledge (L1 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L1 captured above the outline of requirements that one should demonstrate, such as ‘interest’ in leadership in a university. This may appear strange, however, this is not surprising in higher education because academicians are ambivalent about taking on leadership positions, according to Hill (2005). Interest in the role and responsibilities is an important factor: there is need for a personal vision which points out the direction. Eventually, the plan may become an organisational strategic plan. As indicated by Zolfoghari et al. (2009), the prerequisites for internationalisation of higher education are mission and vision statements, core values, smart objectives, and services provided by a university. An organisation’s strategic plan captures mission and vision statements, and provides the basis on which goals and objectives may be set to answer a variety of questions that may arise in the course of executing organisational activities (Pearce and Robinson, 2002). A strategic plan, therefore, provides a broad framework for activities, and has a bearing on organisational performance. In this case, vision becomes an important factor for the successful implementation of leadership of higher education.

All respondents in this study indicated that leaders must be academicians, senior scholars with experience in leadership. Respondent L6 summarised:

*An advert goes and people who apply are from the colleges. All qualifications are appropriate, there is a criterion, like one should have at least a PhD in any field. May have experience in leadership, they might have been dean or head of department. Through that they have acquire a particular level of leadership experience (L6 interview 2014-2015).*

When asked whether it is necessary to have a specific knowledge requirement for leadership in the university, respondent L6 extended this response:

*If we restrict to leadership qualification it means the principals will be coming from one department. (L6 interview 2014-2015)*

The above explanation shows that more emphasis is laid on academic experience than on leadership experience as the main prerequisite for a leadership position at the University of Malawi. L6 indicated that there should be no requirement of a specific qualification for leadership: universities will find themselves being led by members of only one department. However, respondent L3 gave a different view when asked about leadership requirements:

*Yes, it does require qualified leaders. Ordinarily university was a community of scholars. But now it's a community of professionals. . There is competition and things done in universities are not the same as previously. The university now has to operate like a business, the university had no strategic plans but now they need. If you are to do it well you need experts. (L3 interview 2014-2015).*

These two contradictory views of the requirements for a leadership position shows that the University of Malawi does not have a common, shared position on criteria for leadership. Respondent L3's views correspond with Astin and Astin's (2000) viewpoint that the university leadership pattern has changed, owing to the complexity of the institutions. Analysis of the documents at the University of Malawi revealed that a generic advertisement for leadership positions at University of Malawi has the following details:

*Suitably qualified candidates are invited to apply for this demanding position. Interested candidates should be senior academics with proven managerial, teaching and research experience. They should also hold either a PhD in their field of specialization or its equivalent on top of having served in a senior management position in an institution of higher education over a period of not less than 5 years (www.unima.mw)*

The official advert indicates the need for a proven track record in both academic leadership and management. It also places emphasis on experience, with 5 years as a minimum. Therefore, both interview responses and official advertisements agree that a suitable candidate must be an academic at a senior level, with a proven track record of experience for a minimum of 5 years. According to Morgan and Teichler, (2007) the early description of university organisation accepted the dominance of the academic way of working; however, this was based on the belief that academics constitute the knowledge-production unit. However, there is no record of the exact knowledge or understanding an academician possesses to qualify for a leadership position. Nevertheless, the academician gradually progresses to a senior hierarchical position, such as a professor, as part of career development. A professor is usually regarded as an individual situated in a subject discipline as a professing expert or leading academician in a particular domain of knowledge (Macfarlane, 2011; Tight, 2002). This is generally accepted as

being a prestigious position at the pinnacle of an academic career. Evans (2015) appended that a professorship is reserved for those at the pinnacle of the academic staff hierarchy. Such an academic falls into a special category universally recognised as one who has attained vast knowledge in his or her field. The criteria for professorship are usually available in appointment or promotion information (Kugel, 1993; Macfarlane, 2011).

The study found out that for one to be a professor at the University of Malawi one must either be recruited as a professor or be promoted through the academic hierarchy. Through performance, one is expected to publish more than 18 academic peer-review journal articles, as well as demonstrating academic leadership. This includes demonstrating that one has acquired a national and international reputation for quality of research and scholarship (Macfarlane, 2011). However, Tight (2002) asked not what it means simply to be academician, but what it means to be a member of this exclusive cadre. It is clear that academic leadership, rather than administration functioning is the key purpose of a professorship. Therefore, to simply accept the premise that professors are prepared to be leaders does not only fail to recognise the circumstances of being a professor, but also overlooks the complexity and diversity of higher education and its leadership demands. This does not derogate the capacity of professors to lead; however, it brings understanding on how leaders could be chosen and encouraged appropriately, using a criterion which recognises the diversity of higher education. As indicated by Hill (2005), the professional identity and satisfaction of professors comes from professional expertise and accomplishment rather than administration. Furthermore, as pointed out by Day and Hammond (2007), a leader develops from being a generalist to being more context-dependent, therefore the developing of leadership is imperative.

Given the shortage of individuals holding doctoral and professorship positions at the University of Malawi, it is worth considering the ‘supply and demand’ of professors, the numbers being far fewer than the available positions. Of course this may be owing to many factors; however, failure to recognise the nature of demand and supply of leaders in higher education might be detrimental to higher-education leadership (Fullan and Scott, 2009; Hill, 2007)

## **7.2 Leadership experience**

There is a range of views on leadership knowledge, not only its importance as a tool, but also on the scarcity of specific higher-education leadership knowledge. Leadership experience is regarded as a better yardstick than knowledge (Derue and Wellman, 2009). However,

according to Astin and Astin (2000), university leadership comprises leaders in different work arenas such as the hierarchical, in which authority and power emanate from the leadership position. The individual arena lays store by professional status and recognition. Finally, there is the collegial arena built upon faculty committee structure, and mostly playing the advisory role. Although all three categories of leadership belong to one institution, they are recognised differently by different groups, playing different roles within the university. It is therefore obvious that there are different categories of leadership and that there are different sources of leadership experience within a higher-education institution. A challenge remains in outright indicating that leadership experience is a prerequisite for one to be a leader, without describing the measurable outcome. Although leadership is known to be acquired through experience, there is no assurance that every learning experience yields superior results. This is in line with Owen (2015), who argues that learning by experience is ‘a game of luck’. Although the experience cannot be prescribed, every respondent interviewed indicated that experience is a very important prerequisite for a leader. In reality, when one finds a good mentor, a good experience is the result; whereas a poor experience ensues when mentorship is weak or inept.

Therefore, based on the inconsistency in leadership learning through experience, and the importance of leadership to any organisation (Avolio et al., 2009), leadership experience as a criterion should be more focused on a specific, measurable outcome.

The study revealed that all leaders are in agreement that the undergraduate programme studied has a direct influence on the leadership. The various undergraduate programmes attended by leaders had prepared them for leadership. In clarifying the exact knowledge the undergraduate programme afforded the leaders, respondent L1 summarised:

*It's interesting, since chemistry is a subject with appropriate theories and practices, and being a science, what is interesting is that the scientific approach used in research and in teaching is also applicable to even management and leadership. The thought process about looking at administrative, management and leadership matters requires that analytical deductive process and skills (L1 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L4 briefly described the knowledge at undergraduate level as follows:

*A lot was learned because the jobs we do are through projects. From one project to other, and generally these jobs are unique. You cannot compare this job with previous job, you have unique situation, workforce and unique challenges. And then it required leadership. Leadership we learn ..... does help because in the project you are looking at situations all the time. When you came to higher education you begin to relate to*

*how things are changing in higher education same as the projects. (L4 interviews 2014-2015).*

Respondent L5 articulated the outline of leadership know-how acquired via an undergraduate degree:

*My profession is a very interesting profession because we learn about a human being and we look at a human not just as a physical being, we look at a human being as a social being, spiritual being, psychological being, of course as a physical being. Because of that we learn a lot of skills for interaction with public because we do a lot of community work, interaction with stakeholders. I believe my preparation..... has helped me a lot in terms of how I handle the institution as a leader and a manager. It has been very easy because from day one .... you are told you are a leader. Every time you are looking forward, you need to be focus, you learn how to delegate... you learn resource mobilization all that is part of what we do..... and this has influence on my leadership role in University of Malawi. (L5 interviews 2014-2015)*

Exploration of the three quotations above revealed that in the process of pursuing academic programmes, respondents acquired knowledge which is related to leadership and management in general. This knowledge is general in nature but may still be useful to leadership development. As indicated by Day and Hammond (2007), general leadership knowledge will convert to context-knowledge as one specialises. Therefore, since leadership development is progressive (Avolio et al., 2009), leadership development may begin at any point. In order to understand the leadership requirements in higher education, the leaders were asked to describe their understanding of higher education, and what it entails to be a leader. Respondent L4 described the higher-education situation thus:

*First, need to understand that higher education is completely different from other industries. Higher education is top heavy, you have a lot of well-informed people and a lot of them and less informed people and are few (L4 interviews 2014-2015)*

This reveals the challenges which lie in higher education, not explicitly to do with the leadership roles which address the situation. However, respondent L3 outlined the situation as follows:

*Professionals in the academia are used to functioning where they are self-regulated, they resist control, when in fact the major component of management is control, because results are to be controlled and an organisation exists for a purpose. The role of management is to make sure that the role for which a university exists for is*

*forwarded. That would require control and that the very thing academic resist, they resist because they enjoy working without being regulated. (L3 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L7 indicated that the leadership in higher education is about:

*Try to move the institution forward, having knowledge of the environmental factors surrounding the institution, but making sure that you are leading the institution like taking people where the institution should go in terms of vision and mission of the university. It means better utilization of resources, at the same time creating avenue for generation and growth of the institution, at the same time making sure human resource development by providing guidance and means. (L7 interviews 2014-2015)*

Finally, respondent L5 gave a personal view of leadership responsibility in higher education as follows:

*I believe the key responsibility is resource mobilization, and lead a team. In the university system you cannot work alone you just need to work with other people, the teams in our colleges the head and deans and committees. And your role is to lead, other things can be done by other people but resource mobilization is the responsibility of the head of the institution. (L5 interviews 2014-2015)*

Exploration of the quotations above shows diverse understanding of higher education and leadership roles and responsibilities. However, this may not only vindicate the assertion that higher education is complex (Derue and Wellman, 2009; Fullan and Scott, 2009). It also suggests that knowledge and understanding which was acquired at undergraduate level was simply general; this requires aligning with the context of higher education. There is a gap which must be addressed by developing leadership knowledge and understanding in the prospective leaders. Finally, understanding of a higher-education institution also varied; different leaders valued different elements of higher education. This situation is in line with the literature, which intimated that leadership is being executed differently by different people (Fullan, 2006).

### **7.3 Leadership Challenges**

There is a general consensus that leadership is critical for every organisation (Fullan and Scott, 2009; Avolio et al., 2009; Mestenhauser and Ellingboe, 2005). Therefore, the role of leadership during internationalisation is equally important. Hence, Ellingboe (1998) asserted that leadership is one of the key attributes for studying internationalisation. This was also supported by Schoorman (2000) in the internationalisation framework, in indicating leadership as a critical commitment for internationalisation. According to Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005), the success of internationalisation depends on the way in which it is integrated throughout an

entire institution, including in the upper echelons of the leaders. Therefore, leadership commitment, in this case, involves the presence of leadership and administrative support, adequate staff and financial support, inter alia. The study revealed that the University of Malawi leadership is striving to manage internationalisation through various initiatives which include international partnership, and mobilization of funds for internationalisation activities.

In order to respond to the mandate, leadership at the University of Malawi must work with both academic and non-academic staff members, students, and other stakeholders. It is evident that both empirical studies and the literature recognise leadership as one of the crucial success factors for sustaining continuous improvement in any organisation (Avolio, Walumba and Weber, 2009; Fullan and Scot, 2009); however, the concept of academic leadership is unique, and arguably, is concerned with leadership that extends beyond the organisation into the wider world that higher education institutions seek to serve (Rowley, 1997).

Therefore, although internationalisation is not a new concept, there has been minimal practise of its effects in heralding a new dimension of higher education and leadership. Respondents were asked whether there is need for training in preparation for leadership on internationalisation.

According to respondent L4:

*Funding has become very central, to the extent that the value of university are beginning to change to mirror or imitate the corporate world, how the corporate world manages itself is creeping into university, it's no long a rank, we a colleagues truthful consensus decision and therefore things will work this way. This time is cost where are we going to get our next cheque, the corporate world is really influencing higher education and the leader need to know this things if not the issues of funding which is central will really disturb much of their leadership. (L4 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L3 stated:

*Universities all over are funded more when they partner with African university. At the position of leadership you seek these opportunities on behalf of your staff so that when these opportunities come, you are able to provide to your staff with projects they can acquire skills and experience on, external examiners at limited fees, learn how others review curriculum, attend postgraduate at relatively low price because you are coming under partnership. Leadership in university of Malawi is aware that if we are to*

*develop capacity one of the ways is through internationalisation. (L3 interviews 2014-2015)*

Respondent L3 continued describing the current situation in higher education as follows:

*Ordinarily university was a community of scholars. But now it's a community of professionals. A lot has changed in the environment in the university. There is competition, things done in universities are not the same as previously. The university now has to operate like a business, the university had no strategic plans but now they need. If you are to do it well you need experts. You need professionals from different fields, estate agent, financial managers, auditors who are professional (L3 interviews 2014-2015).*

The quotations above reflect that higher education leadership may be characterised in terms of its multifaceted structure, its cooperation, alliances, quality, and competency. Higher-education leaders perform a variety of functions including, but not limited to, planning, making decisions, evaluating the faculty, providing the faculty with the necessary resources, and managing financial resources. As indicated by Smithee (2012), leadership for internationalisation is a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. With the coming of internationalisation, the roles and responsibilities of leadership of higher education have expanded. Besides attending to the routine higher-education roles and responsibilities, leaders also attend to internationalisation activities. This requires the collective capacity of organisational members to engage effectively in organisational roles and processes (Day, 2000). Therefore, as indicated by Fullan and Scott (2009), the growing complexity of managing higher-education institutions makes it crucial to have in place administrators well prepared through strong academic and professional training to understand the challenges and opportunities facing higher education.

The quotations above point out the divergence in understanding of higher-education leadership. Understanding is not only important to leadership of higher education, but also to internationalisation; this is supported by Fullan and Scott (2009); Heyl and Tullbane (2012); and Rumbley et al. (2012). Therefore, competence in both higher-education leadership and internationalisation should be a central aim of development programmes aimed at leadership of higher education. Competence, in this case, refers to feelings of self-efficacy or personal mastery on successfully performing a task (Bandura, 1986). Leadership must switch focus to a higher-education and internationalisation perception and practise. The university must strive to

improve internationalisation, or the success will be marred by diluting the knowledge base of higher education leadership.

#### **7.4 Chapter Summary**

The focus of this chapter was on understanding the leadership situation in the context of internationalisation of higher education. The chapter discussed the characteristics of the University of Malawi leaders apropos of leadership knowledge, understanding, and experience during internationalisation of higher education. Data presented in this chapter was generated through analysis of the University of Malawi's policy document, and face-to-face semi-structured interviews administered to 7 leaders at the University of Malawi. The study revealed that there are contradictory views on the requirements for an individual to assume a leadership position. This shows lack of a common shared position on the criteria for leadership. Much diversity of leadership knowledge and understanding was evident. The current route to leadership does not sufficiently prepare a leader to take internationalisation responsibility. Therefore, with internationalisation, the leadership roles and responsibilities within higher education have increased, requiring the collective capacity of leadership to engage effectively. The following chapter is a study discussion of overall results of the research.

## CHAPTER 8

### STUDY DISCUSSION

#### 8.1 Introduction

Internationalisation of higher education has been studied in various ways by means of varied discussions, drawing a variety of conclusions. However, universally, internationalisation has various definitions, motivated by varying rationales and implemented by using different strategies in different contexts. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to explore and understand internationalisation of higher education at the University of Malawi from a leadership perspective. The study was built on the assumption that leadership is socially constructed, impacted by culture and context, continuously evolving, and that it takes its shape from the subjective experience of the individual (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Consequently, institutions of magnitude and complexity such as higher-education institutions whose profile is ill-defined would provide respondents with rich information on a particular phenomenon.

The study was guided by the three research questions which sought to explore the defining and understanding of internationalisation of higher education, to establish the implementation and response to internationalisation of higher education, and to identify aspects and circumstances that would prompt leaders at the University of Malawi to respond to internationalisation of higher education in a particular way. The first question arises from the global trend towards lack of shared, common understanding of internationalisation of higher education as a concept (Warwick, 2014). This addresses the definition, clarity, and understanding of internationalisation; and was investigated through literature and qualitative interview data by using concept analysis, and by thematic analysis of the data. Concept analysis is a method of inquiry that is capable of contributing to increased clarity and understanding of the body of knowledge (Baldwin and Rose, 2009). The response to the second question was obtained through investigating the way in which internationalisation of higher education is implemented at the University of Malawi. This was achieved by using face-to-face semi-structured qualitative interview data from seven leaders at the University of Malawi and from scrutiny of the organisation's relevant documents. The third question sought to establish reasons for the particular response to internationalisation. The researcher ultimately used the theoretical frameworks based on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), which stipulates that the intended outcome may be predicted by attitude, subjective norm, and perceived control (Ajzen, 1991), Bolman and Deal (2008) and Trow (1985), leadership frameworks on higher education, and other relevant literature (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009; Bolman, and Deal, 2008;

de Wit, 2002, 20013; Fullan and Scott, 2009; Knight, 2004; 2012; Schoorman, 2000; Scott et al., 2008).

In qualitative research, data analysis refers to making sense of data in terms of participant definition of the situation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Therefore, in order to make sense of the study, the thematic analysis approach was used on both the interviews and the document review data. The thematic data-analysis approach is a method used for identifying and analysing patterns of meaning within datasets (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Uhl-Bien, 2006). It usually illuminates the dominant themes, the end result being to highlight the meaning presented by the study. Since there were no predetermined codes and categories to explore, the emerging themes were of critical importance. The analysis revealed an understanding of internationalisation, commitment to internationalisation, the internationalisation rationale and performance, and internationalisation leadership, as key themes emerging from the data.

## **8.2 Concept analysis of internationalisation**

The clarification and understanding of internationalisation of higher education was achieved through the process of concept analysis. McMillan and Schumacher (2014) assert that concept and conceptual analysis is associated with a study that clarifies the meaning of a concept by describing the essential or generic meaning, the various meanings, and the appropriate usage of the concept. Therefore, the purpose of the concept analysis was to increase clarity and add understanding by examining the attributes and characteristics of internationalisation of higher education. The study used Rodgers' (2000) evolutionary approach, which assumes that a concept is expressed in a certain form: concepts change over time and are affected by contextual factors. Literature review, document analysis, and interviews revealed that, although there are some efforts to define and describe internationalisation of higher education by various authors (Altbach, 2002; Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, 2009; Jiang, 2008; Knight, 2004; 2015; Soderqvist, 2002; Yang, 2002) and the work is particularly useful in understanding the internationalisation processes, there are still challenges in developing a definition with a shared, common understanding (Cross et al., 2011; de Wit, 2013; Knight, 2012; Warwick, 2014). The search for a definition used diverse sources, reflecting the scope of internationalisation. The analysis revealed that, although internationalisation has a disputed genesis (Scott, 1998; Altbach and Teichler, 2001; Teferra, 2008; Altbach and de Wit, 2015; de Wit, Deca, and Hunter, 2015), it has been growing in number of definitions. Ultimately, there

is no globally accepted definition; rather, there are multiple definitions and understandings. Therefore, understanding of internationalisation is important because the concept has expanded with the dimension of time and context. The investigation was based on data from literature, document analysis, and semi-structured interviews administered to the 7 leaders at the University of Malawi.

The study revealed various patterns of definition which were grouped for better understanding. There are some definitions from the same authors which have been upgraded or improved over time (Altbach, 2002, 2006; Knight, 1995, 1997, 2004, 2005). Patterns are noted in the upgrading, for instance, Altbach (2002, 2006) added the stakeholders, but maintained the stand that internationalisation is a policy. Knight, however (1995, 1997, 2004, and 2005), increased the activities and the wording but maintained that internationalisation is a process. This shows that, as internationalisation grows in both number of activities and stakeholders, definitions are also increasing. Some definitions represented a designated hierarchy of the community. Yang's (2002) definitions were based on hierarchical levels of the higher-education; however, the definitions were not consistent in terms of meaning: internationalisation was presented firstly as 'a process', secondly, as 'awareness', and thirdly, as 'a dialogue'. The multiple trends on definitions of internationalisation are not only between different institutions or people; various trends may be used by individuals. The multiple definitions used by an individual were also traced in Knight's (2004) definitions, which were designated to a specific group of people. Apart from the common position by Jane Knight that internationalisation is a 'process', these definitions indicate that, for some people, internationalisation is 'a series of international activities'; to others it is 'a delivery of education', and to yet others 'an inclusion of international in teaching and learning'. As pointed out by de Wit (2013), there is a missing 'why' in these definitions, therefore, they are guided by factors other than those related to the purpose for internationalisation, hence, they are all different definitions, including those within a single individual.

Leaders from the University of Malawi gave various definitions of internationalisation as well as referring to various activities and strategies. This is general trend: internationalisation is perceived based on assumptions: people follow their own assumptions of internationalisation, accepting a personal definition of internationalisation; however, most often not explicitly enough (Mestenhauser, 2000). When this is the case within the same institution, this denotes organisational information inconsistency. Eventually, the lack of agreement on a correct

definition and description of internationalisation may itself hamper and inhibit coordination of internationalisation activities within an institution. On the contrary, despite diverse and multiple definitions, the popularity of internationalisation of higher education appears to be growing daily. The significance of the concept is higher than the impact of a definition discrepancy. Therefore, even though it appears neither feasible nor desirable to develop an appropriate understanding and definition of internationalisation, there is a need to use appropriate tools for generating the understanding. This is because the general approach when ubiquitous terms are being used without a specific definition has been to develop a provisional operational definition for a particular purpose, such as that developed by Jane Knight (2012). In other cases, people settle for a single definition, one which appears general enough to accommodate the rest, and specific enough to serve, becoming viable, such as the 2004 definition by Jane Knight. However, this is a rather arbitrary method of arriving at a definition rather than conducting a rigorous search by using concept analysis. However, empirical research and advanced practise and development have the potential to improve the understanding of the complex nature of internationalisation, and to aid in developing a definition.

There is a long list of terms used to mean or to describe, or to provide an alternative for, or to be used to represent internationalisation. These include: international education, globalisation, international student, cross-border education, internationalisation at home, internationalisation abroad, networking, and partnership. It is clear that some terms are concepts in their own right, while others are activities with various attributes related to internationalisation. The additional words on the list demonstrate the diversity of the concept, adding to its ambiguity. Therefore, the overall picture of the definition and understanding of internationalisation is one of multiple definitions and diverse understanding in the literature, in documents, as well as in the leadership interview data. This has not stopped the growth of internationalisation; however, lack of knowledge and understanding can affect the quality of internationalisation.

The study subscribes to de Wit's (2013) ideas on the need to answer the question 'why internationalising?' if we are to pin down the definition for internationalisation. Hudzik and Stohl (2009) argued that a definition for internationalisation must make clear and explicit reference to the purpose of higher education, rather than being subsumed under the strategies and policies, becoming lost in the discourse, and therefore being paid insufficient attention (Hudzik and Stohl, 2009; de Wit, 2013). There is therefore hope that plans and strategies for

internationalisation of the higher education institutions will indeed prevail. Hence, this study reflects the understanding of several definitions for internationalisation, based on the characteristics of diverse attributes of internationalisation both from literature and interview data, and informed by definitions offered by Knight (2004), Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009), Deardorff and Van Gaalen (2012), and finally Knight (2015). Therefore, the study recognises internationalisation as a strategy for clarifying the purpose of internationalisation activities in higher-education circles. The study observed that most definitions describe internationalisation activities as internationalisation; while the activities are elements of the internationalisation as a strategy. Therefore, according to the observation by de Wit (2013) that the definition of internationalisation development lacks “why”, the study elaborates the importance of recognising the purpose for internationalisation of higher education rather than its activities, as seems now the case. Therefore, internationalisation as a strategy is the sum of internationalisation activities which are executed in order to run higher education. However, this does not mean the sum of all activities; every activity contributes at different times and at various levels to the achievement of internationalisation as a strategy. However, this shows the link between the higher-education function and internationalisation as a strategy. It also shows the link between internationalisation as a strategy and the respective internationalisation activities. Internationalisation activities appraise internationalisation as a strategy; while internationalisation as a strategy responds to a higher-education function.

As indicated by Giles and Larmour (2000), some behaviour fails through personal deficiencies such as lack of skill, or ability, or knowledge. Theoretically, this means that the predictive power of knowledge and understanding (Packham, Jones, Miller, Pickernell, & Thomas, 2010) influences attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control, under the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen 1991). There is an established relationship between knowledge and attitude (Packham, Jones, Miller, Pickernell, & Thomas, 2010) in that attitude is derived from perception, which is a product of knowledge and understanding. Furthermore, Altmann (2008) concluded during analysis of the attributes of attitude that cognition is a key attribute of attitude. Therefore, cognitive deficiency will lead to a negative attitude toward internationalisation which will eventually affect the expected outcome of internationalisation of higher education. Conversely, successful implementation of internationalisation of higher education will be influenced by a positive attitude resulting from well-informed leadership, those who are aware of implications and who understand appropriate activities which will result in desirable consequences. Correct knowledge and understanding will help establish a positive attitude,

which will lead to a positive intended outcome for internationalisation. The same applies to the normative belief, also influenced by knowledge and understanding of internationalisation and the way in which it is implemented; this influences the degree of compliance. Equally, all available knowledge and understanding will enable the execution of control over the intended behaviour. Understanding affects one's attitude towards internationalisation, therefore eventually, according to theory of planned behaviour, the intended behaviour is also affected.

### **8.3 Internationalisation Commitment**

Commitment to internationalisation is among the core characteristics considered a prerequisite for the implementation of internationalisation (Schoorman, 2000). According to de Wit (2013), internationalisation requires a commitment and involvement at all levels, in other words, the entire organisation must be committed. Although commitment is associated with individual psychological influence (Cook and Wall, 1980), Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004) defined organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual or organisation identification with involvement in a particular task. Therefore, according to the theory of planned behaviour, commitment unveils the position of the institution regarding the implementation of internationalisation.

The degree of commitment to internationalisation and available support by the university is not explicit. The decision to internationalise is not only a question of process and structure but also behaviour and demonstration of commitment. Although internationalisation is taking centre stage, according to the expressed commitment by leaders, the progress in terms of institutional and budgetary support and policies still remains retarded. Internationalisation has been somewhat integrated despite the regulatory framework still being in draft form. Therefore, the nature of commitment to internationalisation of higher education discussed reveals that, although many indicators and activities appear unsupported, the university and entire higher-education sector is committed to internationalisation. This is evidenced by the presence of initiatives, although perhaps not explicit, that provide and support the integration of international dimensions into university activities. The interview data reveals the normative consensus on the significance of internationalisation, but showing limited perceived behaviour control (Ajzen, 1991).

The study revealed commitment towards internationalisation from the leaders, through expression of the plans for internationalising at the University of Malawi. The plans include: a) Internationalise nationally, b) Install more collaboration, c) Improve quality, d) Use more ICT, e) Develop relevant electives, f) Connect internationalisation with performance, g) Explore partnership from Asia, h) Advertise e-learning, i) Offer more student exchange, and j) Offer more staff exchange. The list of plans is diverse, coming from different leaders at one institution. This confirms the multiple understanding of internationalisation at the University of Malawi. There are plans to establish a fully-fledged, fully-functional international office, recruiting a full-time officer who is an expert in international relations. It was indicated that leaders intend to create and strengthen the international office in order to aggressively market the university internationally. There are plans to establish strategic partnerships in order to increase the number of partnership opportunities. The University of Malawi has an integrated capacity building of staff for internationalisation activities in order to raise the potential for competitiveness. Capacity building was the plan mentioned by all respondents: this shows the commitment to a successful internationalisation of higher education and adherence to national education priority (Moest, 2007). Therefore, a commitment to capacity building translates into knowledge and understanding which influences the attitude (Altmann, 2008), leading to commitment to internationalisation and compliance with implementation. This is in line with global trends, many countries having pursued foreign policy agendas focused on capacity building (Knight, 2012).

The study revealed a policy paradox as evidenced by multiple views expressed in statements made and in participants' perception of internationalisation and higher-education policies. Some believe that internationalisation is related to globalisation, therefore, creating a globalisation policy will suffice. However, although Altbach and Knight (2007) indicated that internationalisation is a response to globalisation, this does not mean that the two names share a meaning (Altbach, 2006; Scott 1998). Hence, when internationalisation policy is to be developed aligned with globalisation, the higher-education goals should be explicit: the two cannot be separated; rather, they need to be converged. Others are advocating for a review of, or an updating of the current regulations at the University of Malawi because either they are prohibiting success, or there is a need to make them compatible with internationalisation. Leaders view internationalisation as an add-on, marginal, and a short-term policy (van der Wende, 2001) strategic to a specific need. As indicated by Knight (2006), internationalisation has an influence on institutional policies; this is evidence of the process of integrating an

international dimension into the policy document. Conversely, others argue that they have policy and guiding documents for internationalisation. Leaders serving in the same university all practise internationalisation, however, they bear differing perceptions on the availability of an internationalisation policy. Knight (2008) and Jowi (2009) argue that no single rationale stands out as the most important for internationalisation. Thus diversity of rationales will lead to diverse policies and strategies at institutional level. Multiple views in this regard may affect perceptions and attitudes, which will have an impact on the degree of commitment to internationalisation, owing to lack of a uniform policy understanding.

The University Act (1998) and Strategic Plan (2012-2017) have a strong internationalisation focus, albeit not explicit. However, strategies have been developed within a cohesive conceptual construct that recognise and capitalise on the distinctive strengths and contributions of the University of Malawi. It is envisaged that the strategic plan will enable the university to manage the issues that are critical to achieving its vision; allowing the university to play a strong and increasingly relevant role in the development of Malawi and the region.

The University of Malawi has an international commitment to internationalisation activities as seen in its vision and mission statements. The statements indicate the intention of the university to train graduates who will be recognised as possessing abilities and qualities compatible with both the local and the international dimension. Key strategies outlined in the strategic plan are: linking the University of Malawi to worldwide university networks, developing links with strategic universities to benefit from their existing expertise, and conducting internal capacity building for staff and students on higher-education trends both local and international. This is in line with Green (2005), who indicated that an institution must articulate its commitment to internationalisation through mission statements, and strategic plans, *inter alia*. As indicated by Kolter and Murphy (1981), the priorities and functions of an organisation are identified through mission statements via the strategic plan, the mission statement being a tool for conveying identity, value, and purpose (Kolter and Murphy, 1981). Therefore, the strategic plan should articulate an institution's commitment to internationalisation, and provide a roadmap for implementation (Dooris, Kelley, & Trainer, 2002; Schoorman, 2000). For the organisation to work towards the same ideas, there must be a reflection and definition of the vision and mission *apropos* of internationalisation (Schoorman, 2000).

Internationalisation activities are coordinated by the office of the pro-vice chancellor; currently there is no designated international office. Discussions at high-office level are said to be taken seriously, however, the high office is a busy office and far removed from the floor on which internationalisation activities take place (Knight, 2012). Although there are plans to build capacity for the office handling of internationalisation at the lower level of the structure, the current situation is likened to a federal system, internationalisation practised at institutional level (Knight, 2008; Zha, 2003). The study has revealed that there are some international activities at college level, in which there is no international office, hence no coordination of international activities. Therefore, although the University of Malawi's pro-vice chancellor has internationalisation responsibility at high-office level, the lower-level participation is important, internationalisation activities taking place at the lower level (Zha, 2003; Yang, 2002).

Higher education in Malawi is still somewhat undeveloped; universities are unable to respond to the country's emerging capacity challenges owing to limited resources. The problems of underfunding have impacted on current resources and infrastructure constraints at universities. This has had a major negative impact on the university's ability to achieve its goals and objectives, including internationalisation. However, in the current strategic plan 2012-2017, there is an intention to create sustainable research funding through the university budget. Therefore, there is budgetary commitment, although mostly dependent on external support supplemented by the internal budget. This situation is not unusual. Green (2005) indicated that external support is one of the attributes of internationalisation.

As indicated by Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (2005), the success of internationalisation depends on the way in which it is integrated throughout the entire institution including with the leadership. Therefore, leadership commitment involves the presence of leadership, together with administrative support, adequate staff, and financial support, among other aspects. The study revealed that leaders at the University of Malawi are striving to manage internationalisation through various initiatives, including international partnership and funds mobilisation for internationalisation activities. The commitment to internationalisation is demonstrated through the positive attitude leaders have regarding internationalisation activities. All leaders interviewed exhibited a positive attitude to internationalisation. However, since positive attitude alone is not enough, there is need for commitment through compliance (Conner & Armitage, 1998) to implementation of the international activities; also to taking

sufficient control of the implementation. The University of Malawi acknowledges internationalisation as part of its higher-education activities. This is evidenced by the current initiatives to develop explicit policies and plans to expand internationalisation activities, having budgeted support.

Although internationalisation takes centre stage according to expressed commitment by leaders, progress in terms of institutional structure and policies remains discouraging. The analysis shows that internationalisation has been somewhat integrated, although the regulatory framework is still in draft form. Hence, commitment to internationalisation and available support by the university is unclear: internationalisation is not only a process and a structure but also a behaviour and a demonstration of commitment.

The nature of commitment to internationalisation of higher education reveals that, although many indicators and activities appear unsupported, the university and entire higher education sector is committed to internationalisation. This is demonstrated by the presence of initiatives that provide and support the integration of international dimensions into university activities, albeit not explicitly. In a situation in which budgetary support is limited, internationalisation should be aligned with the routine higher-education activities of the institution in order for international activities to benefit budgetary support from other activities.

#### **8.4 Internationalisation Rationale and Performance**

Analysis of higher education in Malawi indicates that activities are international in nature; however, there is little progress on internationalisation, activities being affected by many factors. This is a widespread situation, as found in the literature (Knight, 2012, Rumbley et al., 2012) that internationalisation is defined and implemented differently by different stakeholders.

The analysis of the results shows that the University of Malawi is a site at which the broad spectrum of rationales is implemented simultaneously. The study has revealed that the University of Malawi leadership is aware of the rationales driving internationalisation both internationally and locally. There is constant overlap between and among the rationales for internationalisation, with some rationales more accepted by the leaders than others; however, no rationale is completely ignored. Leaders are implementing internationalisation driven by specific rationales. However, the possible interpretation of the dominance by economic and academic faculties is that the University of Malawi is not in the same league as competing

universities: its core functions are still aligned with capacity building for national development (Unima, 2012). Therefore, in an effort to satisfy the higher-education need in Malawi, the University of Malawi is exercising more academic-related practices and internationalisation activities, which are supported by economic benefits. As the role of university leadership shifts to one more of resources mobilization, the study has revealed that the dominant rationale for internationalisation at the University of Malawi deals with activities economic in nature. However, the aim of resource mobilization is to generate funding for supplementing the meagre government subvention.

The analysis of the performance on internationalisation revealed that the University of Malawi is not performing as badly as might be expected in the light of its economic challenges, national access challenges, and regional and global ranking; however, much is yet to be accomplished. Amongst the leaders there is unanimous agreement on the importance of internationalisation and the desire for more features of internationalisation. At the same time, there appears to be widespread ambiguity on what exactly should be done to advance internationalisation. The major challenge is a lack of a common, shared understanding. This could have arisen from the absence of an explicit institutional position, and clear plans for internationalisation, as well as from the ambiguity of the concept.

Partnership and networking is the predominant internationalisation activity at the University of Malawi. However, the model exists for an internationalisation network which is initiated and supported by the institution, associations, and donors. The University of Malawi has internationalisation networks with the University of the Western Cape, the University of Oslo, the University of Strathclyde, and Curtin University, among others, initiated by the institution, but sometimes initiated and supported by associations such as SADC, SANORD, and SARUA. There is also another initiative in which scholarship sponsors such as Commonwealth and DAAD, Australia Aid, and Fulbright, among others, initiate and support capacity building of staff at a designated institution affiliated with the sponsor. The sponsor connects the beneficiary with an institution affiliated with the sponsor. However, the sponsor only funds the activities. This is usually a temporary arrangement which expires soon after graduation. Internationalisation networks are therefore directed by one institution to another, or institution to institution through association, or institution to institution through a sponsor. Therefore, Figure 8.1 depicts graphically a three-route internationalisation network model.

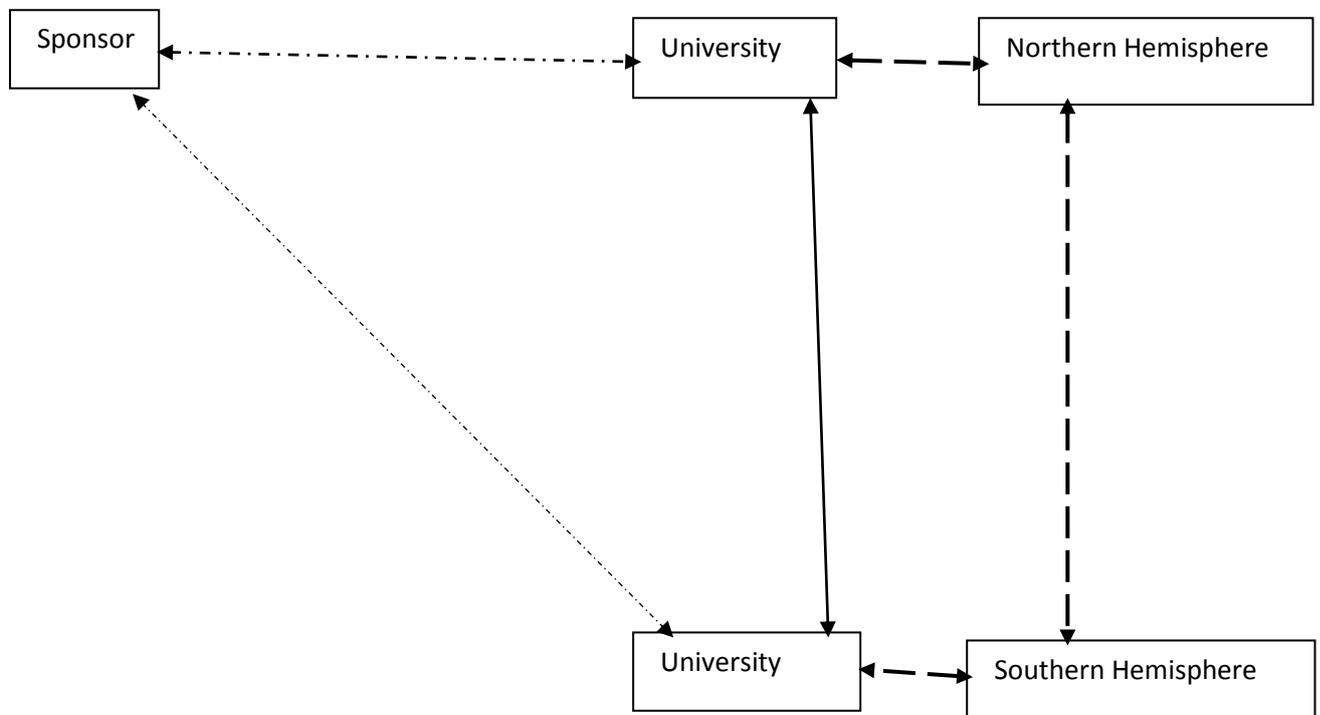


Figure 8.1 Three-route internationalisation network model

Exploration of Figure 8.1 shows the three-route higher-education internationalisation model for initiating and established linkages within or across the regions. Common interest among different institutions is shown in direct interaction between universities, indirect interaction between universities through sponsors, and in the interaction between universities influenced by a bilateral arrangement between two macro bodies.

Leadership at the University of Malawi leadership is using every available opportunity to participate in internationalisation, thereby benefiting appropriately. This has been demonstrated through strategic partnership for financial and material benefit, in developing specific programmes for international students, and in devising more cost-effective ways of enticing international lecturers, inter alia. The leaders at the University of Malawi must take both national and international responsibility. However, the economic situation has impacted on the leadership achievement of this expectation. Therefore, as internationalisation continues taking a central position at the University of Malawi, the glaring deficiencies in budgetary

support cause dependence on outsiders. Some resource-dependency theorists maintain that everybody is vulnerable to dependency, it not being optional (Finkelstein, 1997; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978), others explain that, when organisations become deprived of critical resources, they are forced to change their patterns in order to compete for resources (Smith, 1981). This study data has revealed two dependency activities: one on international partners as a source of finance, and government or government agent as source of support. All have implications because of the dynamics that surround the execution of the support. International partners bring conditions which compete with national and institutional priorities, while the government or government agency dependency compromises the university's academic freedom and autonomy: priorities are dictated by a government agenda, and there is unstable and continually declining support. Therefore, analysis of the situation shows that leaders at the University of Malawi have a positive attitude to internationalisation and are committed to its implementation; however, resources affect the perceived behaviour control (Ajzen, 1991). Leaders demonstrated dependence on partnerships and collaboration more than on internal resources. This created a feeling of inferiority, and dependency, and shame regarding the underdevelopment of internationalisation. This attitude affects the perceived behaviour control apropos of the implementation of internationalisation (Ajzen, 2005). As indicated theoretically in the modified TPB framework (see Chapter 2), attitude as a predictor of intention relates to cognition and understanding (Ajzen, 2005), which influences the quality and type of internationalisation activity.

The University of Malawi is dependent on international institutions when conducting internationalisation activities because it lacks resources: this limits its control. Therefore, as stated by Ajzen (1991), in his theory of planned behaviour, lack of control affects the attainment of the intended behaviour. However, besides it is not being possible to reject international education in a university, as indicated by Rumbley, Altbach and Reisberg, (2012), there are also some benefits in internationalisation, therefore ignoring it will be a deliberate forfeiture of the available benefits.

### **8.5 Internationalisation Leadership**

This section focuses on understanding the leadership situation in the context of internationalisation of higher education in this study. The analysis is conducted by using the modified five-dimensional higher-education leadership framework (see Chapter 2) with the intention of providing a model of internationalisation leadership. It was revealed that the

definition and description for both higher education and leadership are themselves complex, having multiple attributes. The study has served to illustrate some of the existing discrepancies and misconceptions about leadership and higher education which may create resistance or mask development of higher education, and internationalisation of higher education. The study also revealed the leadership beliefs and values on generalization of knowledge for higher-education leadership. However, according to Day and Hammond (2007) generalization is a sign of practising at a novice level because as one develops, one gradually moves into context. Therefore, in a complex higher-education and diversified internationalisation environment generalization may not be appropriate. There is a need for a capacity-building strategy. However, the mode of learning appears to be elusive. The main source of leadership knowledge is experience which is argued to be inefficient and full of misconceptions (Owen, 2015). Therefore the nature of experience should be prescribed with measurable goals, and be developmental and ongoing (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009).

The study also revealed that, with the inception of internationalisation, the roles and responsibilities of leadership of higher education have expanded because, besides attending to the routine higher-education roles and responsibilities, leadership is also attending to internationalisation demands. Therefore, leaders are involved in respective internationalisation activities which include: international students, curriculum development, financial resource mobilization, academic staff development, international staff recruitment, and negotiating partnerships. Analysis of the challenges existing in higher education since the inception of internationalisation three decades ago shows that higher-education leaders need a combination of leadership and management competencies. However, contingent and transformational leadership approaches emerge as dominant approaches within the context of each particular situation of internationalisation. Nevertheless, the connective leadership appears appropriate among the other leadership models which internationalisation of leadership may require; because, over and above connecting capabilities, it also embraces the contingency and transformational qualities (Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Lipman-Blumen, 2006). Therefore, the discussion of internationalisation leadership will be based on the modified Bolman and Deal (2008), and Trow (1985) leadership frameworks, which comprise a structural framework, a political framework, a symbolic framework, a managerial framework, and an academic framework.

### 8.5.1 Structural framework

The structural leadership framework focuses on creating and recognising organisational structure, in this case the University of Malawi, with a fully-fledged and filled structure for higher education. There was general consensus among the leaders on the internationalisation activities taking place at the lower level of the organisation. The lower level of the University of Malawi comprises people who are assigned to work on the activities, based on their expertise in their respective disciplines. This shows that internationalisation activities are also determined by expertise within the structure and disciplines. However, there is more international interaction in some departments, and little in others. Internationalisation activities are managed by the office of the pro-vice chancellor: internationalisation is an academic matter, hence it is seen as a responsibility of the highest academic office at the university. However, university leadership is trying to strengthen the office by supplying the best structure and people. The leadership has recognised that internationalisation is an academic matter, therefore they are developing a structure of a stand-alone international office to work with the existing office of the pro-vice chancellor. The leadership therefore recognises that structure is an important factor which, according to Schein (1996), should be supported by skilled staff in order to successfully internationalise. As confirmed by Knight (2008), it is important to consider the realities of the environment in which internationalisation is operating (Knight, 2008; Rumbley, Altbach & Reisberg, 2012). Therefore, understanding higher education is vital; however, higher education appears complex. Fullan and Scott (2009) indicated that higher education is a place at which change is inevitable, unexpected is expected, leveraging talents is critical, and academic culture, tradition, and corporate goals collide. This multidimensional and dynamic nature of the university characterises the activities and the nature of mission, vision, and strategies in higher education (Cross, Mhlanga & Ojo 2011). Besides, universities are not only complex, but are also decentralised; operations are mostly influenced by students and staff. This situation creates a landscape in terms of higher education which has the potential to affect the implementation of internationalisation of higher education. Therefore, knowledge of higher education structure and an appropriate leadership framework is imperative.

### **8.5.2 Political Framework**

The modified leadership framework shows that political leadership is expected to strive to gain support for the institution, to make decisions based on available resources, to make decisions based on powers of the office, and above all, to be able to resolve conflicting demands, both internal and external. All leaders interviewed are responding by using a political-leadership framework in cases such as prioritising resource mobilization as a key activity in order to support the current financial distress. Leaders also indicated that, in the current situation, the key responsibility of every leader should be resource mobilization. This was echoed by all, the current government budget being insufficient for operations. Therefore, for the university to function properly, there is need for additional funding opportunities; hence, internationalisation through partnership and research collaboration has been identified as an option. Politically, the current situation demands vigorous resource-mobilization strategies. Leaders are expected to choose internationalisation activities based on substantial financial benefit, and with minimum financial implications. Leaders are devising less costly activities, such as the recruiting of international staff through volunteer association; devising ways of developing the local staff to comprehend the internationalisation concept for application to their respective classes. However, in a situation in which higher education in Malawi is still at the development stage, and the priorities are still the internal-capacity building, a dilemma arises of conflicting decision-making. Leaders have to choose between enrolling local students as a national priority, and taking on international students for much-needed financial benefit. Hence, the University of Malawi leadership has created an enrolment quota for students based on national-education priorities, and internationalisation benefits, the process of internationalisation being about integration and adaptation of international dimensions (de Wit, 2002). The integrating is filtered, modified by organisational realities at institutional or national level through a political-leadership framework, with decisions made based on consequences and appropriateness (Martin & Simmons, 1998).

### **8.5.3 Symbolic framework**

A symbolic framework is intended to help leaders articulate the nature and purposes of the institutions, to develop higher-education culture. The study revealed that leaders are using various methods as a demonstration of commitment to internationalisation. The university has benefited from the symbolism of a centre of excellence, which has helped to increase visibility

for the university. As indicated in Chapter 5, the University of Malawi is currently working on an explicit policy for internationalisation to articulate the goals and purposes of the institution apropos of internationalisation of higher-education activities. However, the current articulation of goals and visions is not only affected by lack of explicit policy, but by – as revealed in Chapter 4 – all leaders describing internationalisation differently: this will eventually affect both policy and implementation, as reported by Knight (2004). The failure to articulate may also be aggravated by what Chapters 5 revealed: leadership in higher education is not appropriately prepared for its responsibility, because the criteria for recruitment are not specific to higher-education leadership. Hence, in an effort to meet these high expectations, it is necessary to ensure meaningful knowledge and understanding and high levels of appropriate training; the relentless forces of internationalisation will continue to urge higher-education institutions onwards. However, the study revealed that the leadership has used positions such as that of the pro-vice chancellor as symbolic in demonstrating the serious commitment to internationalisation.

#### **8.5.4 Managerial framework**

The managerial framework scrutinises the interface of people and the organisation. People are expected to contribute to the organisation, hence they are assets: their activities ought to be coordinated. Management leadership also deals with creating co-dependence, directing and coordinating support and making future plans. International activities are initiated at different levels, either top-down or down-top. However, all activities are facilitated by a central office in terms of memoranda of understanding, and facilitation of international travel requirements. As the internationalisation opportunities unveil, leadership connects the activities with the proper department for implementation. All leaders have future plans for internationalisation; and every leader is passionate about achieving the plans. Therefore, the future plan does not only show commitment to internationalisation, but also a demonstration of managerial leadership.

#### **8.5.5 Academic framework**

The academic framework of leadership is demonstrated through recognition of excellence in academic matters, and strengthening of academic culture and support to the advancement of talent of staff and scholars. The University of Malawi has a structured academic leadership

through the university Committee of Senate, whose responsibility is to decide on quality aspects of academic programmes, in order to strengthen academic culture. All the leaders interviewed are members of the senate committee, hence they participate in the academic decisions of the university. University leadership at the University of Malawi also strives to recognise staff development in strengthening capacity. Processes are in place to encourage local lecturers to accept the internationalisation context through exposure to other countries. Excellence is provided by the available centres of excellence. Conversely, there was an appeal for quality during internationalisation, claiming that some international staff members are good on paper; however, they fail to deliver. This implies that the academic leadership framework is being used during delivery of internationalisation in order to establish prescribed standards to enhance quality at the University of Malawi.

Furthermore, the study has revealed that leadership at the University of Malawi is practising the leadership frameworks to varying degrees. Leadership frameworks often overlap, while some operate simultaneously. Therefore, it was appropriate for the study to develop a modified framework taking its cue from Bolman and Deal (2008), and Trow (1985), and internationalisation literature. During the study, leaders were identified as making symbolic statements, at the same time providing structural support. As national goals and institutional priorities create an opposing continuum, the political and the symbolic will become dominant. Based on the higher-education funding situation in Malawi (Dunga, 2013; Mambo, Meky, Tanaka, & Salmi, 2016; World Bank, 2010), financial distress is evident. Under such a situation, the political framework would be dominant: this demands negotiating before decision-making. This was achieved along with other leadership frameworks. All frameworks of leadership proved helpful in this regard. Therefore, depending on the context of the demand for internationalisation, one framework might be more appropriate and dominant than another. However, all five frameworks may be used as leadership tools for internationalisation.

Therefore, analysis of higher-education and internationalisation activities has revealed that internationalisation has positioned leaders in a continuum in which national priorities and international benefits are pulling in opposite directions. The leadership activities agree on various leadership characteristics apropos of situational/contingent leadership; which recognises the context during leadership, and recognises transformational leadership (Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Burns, 1978) which focuses on empowering the subject and directing the operation. Hence, based on the attributes, characteristics, and nature of

internationalisation activities, and cognizant of the operating of institutions in other countries at different hierarchical levels of the higher-education sector, the study concludes that connective leadership is appropriate as a model for leadership of internationalisation of higher education. According to Lipman-Blumen (1992), connective leadership is derived from its character of connecting individuals, the group, and the community that depend upon the accomplishment of mutual goals. It is leadership that connects individuals to appropriate tasks and strategies (Lipman-Blumen, 1998). Connective leadership, through various studies, has revealed the ability to adapt to suit the context (Lipman-Blumen, 1992; 1996; 1998; 2006). Hence, connective leadership is appropriate in connecting leaders with academic members, academic member to academic member, academic to institution, leaders to institution, and institution to institution. The internationalisation of connective leadership constitutes leadership which is the initiator, facilitator, and supporter of the internationalisation process. In this case, leadership will involve, among other items, the identifying of the appropriate internationalisation activities, identifying of appropriate partners, and the identifying of appropriately skilled academic members for the activities. However, the figure also shows what the study has revealed: that academic members are also encouraged to solicit or source internationalisation activity opportunities; however, the signing of MOU is facilitated by top management. Therefore, connective leadership is being exercised during internationalisation activities between institutions and between leaders and academic staff.

## CHAPTER 9

### STUDY CONCLUSION

#### 9.1 Introduction

The study of internationalisation of higher education from a leadership perspective was conducted to reveal internationalisation in context. The University of Malawi context was used to illustrate the institutional situation on internationalisation, as perceived by the leaders. The University of Malawi is practising internationalisation of higher education in a developing higher education sector and developing economic environment. As with most developing nations, Malawian higher education began as a prototype supplied by a colonial master, with one university called the University of Malawi. However, there has been a gradual growth in terms of international collaboration and partnership with various higher education institutions, globally. The University of Malawi Act of 1998 and its strategic plan 2012-2017 shows that the University of Malawi has both a local and international education agenda. The institution aims to provide education for sustainable development of Malawi and the region, as well as education in response to national and global needs. Despite the ambiguity of university goals and objectives, the sector appears to have a structure for checks and balances, that is, an accountability mechanism, through the university committees. However, financial distress is the greatest challenge for higher education in Malawi: raising student fees has been a contentious issue of late. Universities are heavily dependent on government whose subvention is declining and unstable, while efforts to work with industry are frustrated by a weak economy. The underpinning theories of the study were Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behaviour, and Bolman and Deal (2008), and Trow's (1985) higher-education leadership frameworks. However, the theoretical frameworks were eventually modified by the researcher, expanding them to address specific issues and to be appropriate for the study. The study was conducted using concept analysis in order to extend clarity and understanding of the concept, and face-to-face, semi-structured qualitative interviews were obtained to establish the ways in which internationalisation is implemented. The meaning from the results was established by using a thematic-analysis approach. The thematic approach encourages the recognition of emerging and dominating themes as the focus of the study.

Understanding the context of internationalisation and the leadership perspective provides a valuable contribution to the body of knowledge on internationalisation. Internationalisation is broad; earlier studies have not exhausted the clarification of the concept, increasing understanding of it, therefore it was imperative to study internationalisation in the context of

Malawi. Although internationalisation is globally used in higher education, there is no shared understanding of the definition. The concept has suffered from multiple definitions and from the general acceptance of the failure to develop a common, shared definition. Reading through literature and interviewing leaders in higher education the researcher, by employing analysis, concludes that the term lacks understanding of the subjective nature of internationalisation of higher education. This conclusion was reached notwithstanding that internationalisation of higher education is multidimensional: many dimensions are assessed. Internationalisation of higher education is ultimately determined by what is important to the individual. The study revealed that the multiple definitions are not only found between individuals, within an institution, and between institutions, within and among nations, but also within single individuals. There is a trend for definitions to be developed, updated, and improved, influenced by changes in number of stakeholders, and growth in internationalisation activities.

The study did not aim to develop a theory or a definition for internationalisation; however, it attempted to understand and clarify the concept, based on emerging attributes and characteristics of internationalisation, and the dynamics surrounding the definition of the term. The study supports the general consensus that internationalisation has multiple definitions; however, the researcher does not subscribe to the assertion that it is difficult to define internationalisation of higher education. There are inconclusive discussions on what informs a definition, and how to develop a definition. Hence, the study proposes the use of concept analysis as a rigorous approach to the unmasking of the attributes of internationalisation. Based on the understanding in relation to the definition of internationalisation, and the understanding of characteristics of diverse attributes of internationalisation, both from literature and from the interview data, the study recognises internationalisation as a strategy. Therefore, internationalisation as a strategy is the sum of internationalisation activities which are executed in order to run higher education while purpose is the original intent. However, this does not mean the sum of all activities, every activity contributes at different times and on various levels to the achievement of internationalisation as a strategy.

Furthermore, the study argues that a lack of a common, shared definition and understanding of internationalisation of higher education affects the process of implementation. According to the theory of planned behaviour, attitude is one of the key predictors of intended behaviour. From previous studies on attitude, it has been revealed that cognition or understanding is an attribute of attitude, therefore the lack of knowledge will result in a negative attitude which

eventually will affect the intended internationalisation outcome. The study shows that commitment to internationalisation is a core characteristic considered a prerequisite for internationalisation implementation: commitment is regarded as a key ingredient in the process of internationalisation. Among the various categories of commitment, expressed commitment was dominant; however, cross-checking with other categories of commitment, the situation was different in reality. A positive attitude and positive subjective norms were evidenced; however, there was weak perceived control of internationalisation because of a lack of common understanding, and dependence in terms of resources. However, the nature of commitment to internationalisation of higher education shows that, although many indicators and activities appear unsupported, initiatives that provide and support the integration of international dimensions into university activities are available, although not explicit. Fullan and Scott (2009) believe that capacity of leadership during the reform is critical, reform not being compromising or transcending differences, but confronting, reconciling, and fulfilling disparate aspirations through unified experience and clear understanding of what constitutes progress. Nevertheless, higher education leadership is a different phenomenon, beginning from the ways in which leaders are appointed, and the expectations that are placed on them. Therefore, the leadership-development strategy is imperative for higher education: with the coming of internationalisation, the demands on leadership have broadened. Theoretically, based on the attributes, characteristics, and nature of internationalisation activities, and on cognisance of the cooperation between institutions of different countries operating at different hierarchical levels of the higher education sector, the study concluded that connective leadership is appropriate as a leadership model, applicable to leadership for internationalisation of higher education. Therefore, connective leadership is being exercised during internationalisation activities between institutions, and between leaders and academic staff.

The University of Malawi is found in the continuum between national priorities of capacity building for national development and internationalisation economic benefits, shoring up the deteriorating funding situation. Eventually, for the benefit of both local and international education, the economic rationale predominates. Analysis of the long list of internationalisation activities shows that capacity building is dominant, although appearing through other different activities. However, the internationalisation trend reflects that choice of internationalisation activity is determined by the appropriateness, according to resources and capacity. Therefore, there is more enactment in which activities are based on context, not guided by a prescribed framework. This means that enactment will help in explaining the complexity of

internationalisation, counteracting hasty and presumptive work by understanding the context (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, (2012). Enactment takes into account the overlap between sets of objective conditions and subjective interpretations (Ball, 2006). According to Singh, Heimas, and Glasswell (2014), enactment is context-related, in which a situation is interpreted and translated in context. Therefore, according to this study, enactment of internationalisation is informed by the knowledge and understanding of internationalisation, by the commitment to internationalisation, by the purpose for internationalisation, and by the leadership of internationalisation.

Internationalisation Enactment Model;

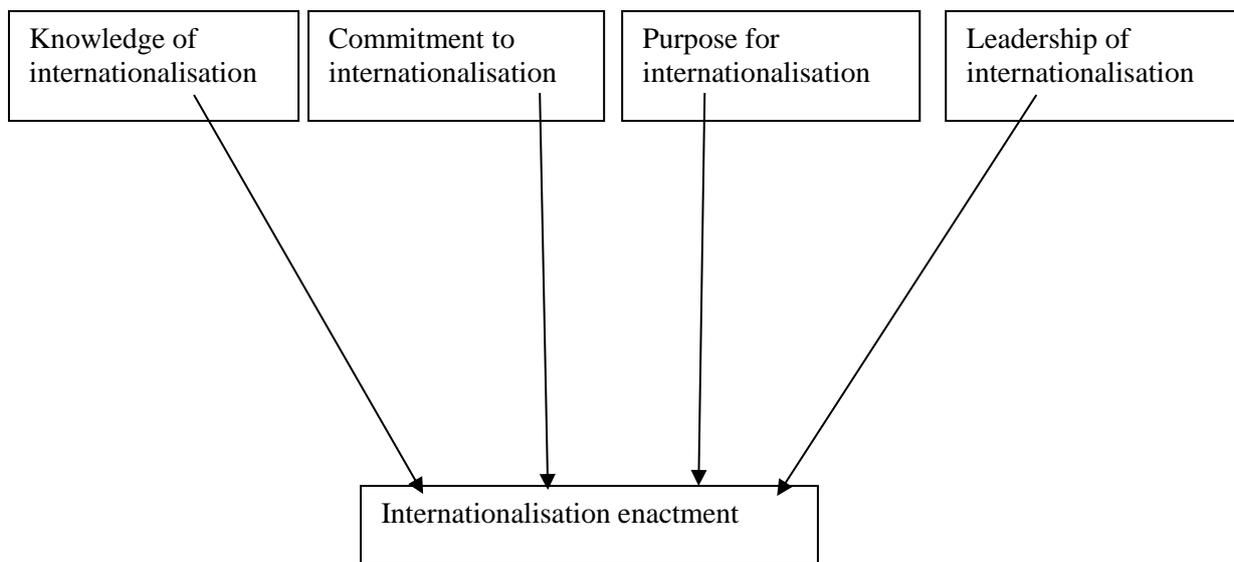


Figure 9.1 Internationalisation enactment model

According to Figure 9.1, the enactment of internationalisation activities will be informed by knowledge and understanding, commitment, purpose, and leadership. As discussed in various sections above, knowledge and understanding influences attitude towards the intended behaviour. Hence, the correct knowledge generates a positive attitude which will lead to positive outcomes of intended internationalisation. Enactment is also informed by commitment, which will influence compliance with the internationalisation activity requirements, influencing the subjective norms as applied to the intended internationalisation outcome. Although the study revealed dependence in terms of sources of resources used, the commitment to internationalisation also influenced the perceived behaviour control, in that it involves provision of resources. The purpose for internationalisation informed the attitude, and the subjective norms, and made the perceived control possible, because purpose precedes plan, hence, eventually, a positive intended behaviour is attained. Leadership will eventually effect action by making appropriate decisions, and connecting with appropriate skills.

Finally, the study has confirmed that internationalisation has multiple definitions and strategies which are continuously being updated. Diversity results in the concept being flexible to change or progress as it is being updated; however, it also demonstrates a lack of stability, increased complexity, and disagreement between various authors; this brings challenges during implementation because of the missing common understanding. However, although the diversity and multiple definitions among authors show disagreement and create confusion, on the other hand, they provide some rich sources of engagement and debate on internationalisation. Internationalisation at the University of Malawi is taking place in order to satisfy particular goals. Although internationalisation is motivated by various factors, with some factors overlapping, the dominating rationale is economically driven, because it serves the purpose of rescuing the university from economic distress. The University of Malawi is addressing internationalisation activities by using a market approach in which international students are attracted through aggressive marketing, customer-demand-driven programmes and scarce programmes. Based on the situation as presented, it is clear that, although internationalisation experiences external influence on choosing strategies and approaches, where budgetary commitment to internationalisation is low, there is a high drive for an economic rationale for internationalisation as a source of income. Therefore, this introduces a new dimension in which internationalisation is becoming a critical financing attribute of higher education.

The University of Malawi has approached internationalisation activities based on consequences and appropriateness; therefore, the response by leadership of the University of Malawi apropos of implementation of internationalisation of higher education is driven by the context of internationalisation activities rather than by prescribed implementation. Although there are positive attitudes and positive subjective norms, there is loosely-coupled perceived behaviour control. The University of Malawi is engaged in internationalisation with high infrastructure, human resources, and financial deficiencies. Consequently, despite its 50 years of existence, the University of Malawi has achieved minimal growth internationally. There is a noticeable element of dependency which reduces the perceived behaviour control of the intended pattern of internationalisation activities. Therefore, the University of Malawi should negotiate to seek strategic alliance with a symbiotic relationship, rather continuing to depend on others for survival. The study argues that it is important for leaders to understand the purpose and value of internationalisation in their own contexts, in order to liberate themselves from international

pressure. The study indicates that internationalisation of higher education is not only a concept to be implemented using a designated framework: there are other social forces that foster internationalisation activities independently of the designed framework. In order to achieve the intended purpose of internationalisation of higher education, leaders should avoid a programmed environment; leaders should internationalise in such a way that they perceive the meaning and understand the ultimate goal of internationalisation for the institution. There is a need for knowledge that underpins internationalisation and enactment of internationalisation activities. Therefore, the study posits that the internationalisation process should focus on enactment in context as opposed to implementation by prescribed framework.

## 9.2 Study Contribution

The design of the study was driven by the possible contribution to the understanding and clarity of internationalisation of higher education research. Consequently, this study provides a detailed literature review of higher-education understanding, implementation, and leadership on internationalisation. As indicated by Rumbley, Altbach and Reisberg, (2012), implementation of internationalisation is influenced by various factors. As appended by de Wit (2013), most definitions are framed to serve a particular purpose. However, these reports ignore aspects of internationalisation such as specific activities, and the state and purpose of internationalisation at institutional level. Thus, by focusing on internationalisation of higher education at the local context, the study brings new dimensions to the higher education research, providing a theoretical and practical contribution that will be valuable to higher-education internationalisation. Individual contributions are as follows:

- The study supports the general consensus that internationalisation has multiple definitions; however, it does not subscribe to the assertion that the term is difficult to define. There are inconclusive discussions on what informs a definition, and how to develop a definition. Hence, the study proposes the use of concept analysis as a rigorous approach to the unmasking of the attributes of internationalisation. The study revealed that internationalisation as a strategy. Internationalisation as a strategy may be seen as the sum of international activities which are executed in order to run higher education, while purpose is the original intent. The study calls internationalisation as a strategy in order to shed light on the purpose of internationalisation activities in higher education circles. The study observed that most definitions take internationalisation activities to mean internationalisation, the activities being elements of the internationalisation as a strategy.

This understanding is informed by the cognisance of the general purpose of higher education, which responds to national needs and international demands. Therefore, according to the observation by de Wit (2013) that the definition of internationalisation development lacks “why?” the study sets out to outline the importance of recognising the purpose of internationalisation of higher education, rather than activities, as has been the case.

- The inclusion of internationalisation into higher education means more work for leaders. This is aggravated by divergence in information and knowledge related to higher education and leadership, hence the study highlights the need for planned leadership capacity building in higher education. This is known as leadership development rather than leader development. Leadership development should be implemented through the two approaches, as proposed by Day (2000): leadership development in higher education may be achieved either through individual training or group training. However, this should be conducted despite academic ambivalence on the idea of taking a leadership position.
- The source of higher education leadership knowledge remain elusive, hence the study has unmasked the flaw of depending on experience and other unreliable sources as a means of gaining leadership capacity. There is more generalization of knowledge apropos of leadership and internationalisation. Leadership learning through experience is surrounded by misconceptions; the general arguments that learning through experience (on the job experience) is superior, and that difficult and challenging experiences provide the most apposite learning fields, are all illusory. However, all these assumptions have not been proved in terms of self- efficacy. The study does not dispute the influence of experience as a learning model: it argues that learning using experience should be regulated through prescribed, measurable indicators, including specific internationalisation activities.
- Knowledge and understanding of internationalisation is regarded as an important element in this study, emphasis during internationalisation practices having focused on activities. However, the absence of a better understanding of the concept is evident both in the literature and the interview data: this stance has been transferred through time to influence the nature of internationalisation. As pointed out earlier, although important, internationalisation has been implemented without an explicit policy, yet driven by

commitment to higher education. Therefore, the study has theoretically revealed that the predictive power of knowledge and understanding is not only more than the separate aspects of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control under the theory of planned behaviour, it has influence on all aspects, including on intended behaviour. Therefore, there is a strong relationship between knowledge and attitude; the outcome being a product of knowledge and understanding. Based on the same understanding, the normative belief is also influenced by knowledge and understanding of internationalisation and the way in which it is implemented in our institutions. This influences the degree of compliance. Equally, the available knowledge and understanding will enable the execution of control over the intended behaviour. Therefore, based on a modified theory of planned behaviour (see Chapter 2.4.1) knowledge and understanding is a possible challenge that will influence approaches to internationalisation of higher education.

- The study maintains that, from the theoretical perspective, the theory of planned behaviour discussion does not only enforce the claim that it enhances prediction and increases importance, attributed to the theory of planned behaviour as an exploratory concept; it adds the knowledge perspective as an attribute or antecedent for a grounded attitude leading to intention towards behaviour. Hence the study proposes an extension of the theory scope of application to include knowledge and understanding. These attributes will influence intention and behaviour indirectly by their effects on behaviour belief, normative belief, or control belief; and through the belief, their effects on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control, ultimately intention and action, in the same vein, knowledge and understanding on higher education. Higher education leadership and internationalisation of higher education will have either a direct or indirect influence on the decisions and choices made regarding internationalisation implementation. This has been established by the relationship between attributes of the predictors to knowledge and understanding throughout the study. Practically, the theory of planned behaviour revealed that leaders not only need resources to allow them to internationalise, they must also understand the concept and accept their responsibility. The lack of certainty in understanding internationalisation among leaders and the absence of clear definitions within strategic documents, despite being a global trend, together with lack of consensus according to internationalisation literature, may have implications on implementation of internationalisation.

- The study revealed that choice of the type and level of internationalisation is also based on other factors than presented in the literature, because decisions are made based on various grounds. Therefore, since the process of internationalisation is about integration and adaptation of international dimension, the integration is filtered, modified by organisational realities at institutional or national level. Several studies have demonstrated that the process of integration is shaped by historical, cultural, and academic influence. Hence, from this perspective, one should analyse how decisions are made in approving a particular integration. Based on this understanding internationalisation requires a rational and technical choice approach as well as deliberate choice made by purposeful actors in reaching an optimal solution. Levels on which internationalisation is found are a result of various initiatives and motivation among stakeholders. Therefore, entering and exiting internationalisation is mostly based on consequences and appropriateness rather than on institutional rules and norms of internationalisation.

### 9.3 Further study

Internationalisation of higher education is widely used throughout the world in many ways, influenced by various factors. This study attempted to increase understanding of the concept. Based on this investigation some understanding has been achieved; however, considering the breadth and depth of higher education and internationalisation practices, further exploration of the concept is certainly necessary. Therefore, although there are encouraging results, reports, and literature on internationalisation of higher education, more work is certainly needed to shed light on key characteristics and models for internationalisation implementation efficacy in higher-education institutions.

Higher education institutions need leadership in order to navigate the challenges experienced during implementation of internationalisation. Although this study did not necessarily dwell much on the correlation of leadership with internationalisation performance, nevertheless, based on higher education literature in general, and internationalisation of higher education leadership in particular, there is overwhelming evidence that leadership has a direct influence on higher education performance. Therefore, the specific achievement of leadership based on the context of internationalisation of higher education would be strongly recommended as an issue for further study.

The University of Malawi has a federal system with respective constituent colleges which are mostly discipline-based; they revealed varied experiences of internationalisation. Therefore, there is need to understand the influence of academic discipline on internationalisation.

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## APPENDIX 1- Study admission letter



**College of Humanities**  
Private Bag X03  
Ashwood, 3605, South Africa  
Telephone +27 (0) 031 2603888  
Facsimile +27 (0) 031 2603650

January 24, 2014

Student no: 214583287

Kufaine Noel Drake  
University of Malawi Private Bag 303  
Chichiri Blantyre  
Malawi

Dear Kufaine Noel Drake

### **Selection and Registration- PhD Education 2014 Semester 1**

Congratulations! I am pleased to inform you that you have been accepted to study towards the PhD in Education for the 2014 academic year.

Please note that it is your responsibility to apply for study visa. You must make an application as soon as possible and enquire whether or not such visa will be issued. You are also advised that you must produce proof of adequate Medical Insurance before registration. If you require a place at our University residence, please contact student Housing office at this number 031 260 3662 for further information.

Please note that your proposal must be accepted within two semesters of full time registration or three semesters of part time registration. If you fail to secure approval for a suitable research proposal, you will be required to apply for re-registration which will only be permitted on receipt of a motivation that is considered satisfactory to Board.

Please confirm your acceptance of the offer and remember to quote your student number in all future correspondence to the University.

We are looking forward to welcoming you to the University of KwaZulu- Natal. We hope that your academic career will both be happy and successful.

  
Bongzi Bhengu  
Academic Administrative Officer  
Research & Higher Degrees Office  
Contact Details: 031 260 3888  
e-mail: bhengu@ukzn.ac.za



### **School of Education**

Postal Address: Private Bag X03, Ashwood, 3605, South Africa  
Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3663  
Facsimile: +27 (0)31 260 3600  
Email: education@ukzn.ac.za  
Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

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Appendix 2- Study gate keeper letter



UNIVERSITY OFFICE

TELEPHONE: 522 622  
FAX: (265) 524031  
E-Mail: [provc@unima.mw](mailto:provc@unima.mw)

UNIVERSITY OFFICE  
P.O. BOX 278  
ZOMBA  
MALAWI

**OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR**

Ref: P. PF.A.329

15<sup>th</sup> August, 2014

Mr. N.D. Kufaine  
The Polytechnic  
Private Bag 303  
Chichiri  
**Blantyre 3**

Dear Mr. Kufaine,

**RE: CONSENT TO USE UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI IN YOUR STUDY TITLE  
AND ACCESS TO UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI PREMISES**

I write you to convey the University of Malawi's consent for you to use the name "**University of Malawi**" in the title of your study and also for you to access the University of Malawi and all the relevant sections required for your study.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Al Mtenje'.

*Professor Al Mtenje*  
**PRO VICE-CHANCELLOR**

CC: Vice-Chancellor  
University Registrar  
Deputy University Registrar

## Appendix 3- Participants consent application

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

Data generation participant's Informed Consent.

My name is Noel Kufaine staff member at University of Malawi currently studying at University of Kwazulu Natal. Research is the main component of my study, hence, I hereby present to you my proposal for consideration to take part in my academic research study. You have been identified as a participant in this study by virtue of your leadership position in the University of Malawi. You will be requested to participate in interviews that will be conducted at your convenience. After understanding the objective of this study as outlined below, I would like to request you to consider signing the **Consent to Participation** at the end of this letter.

**Study Title:** Internationalisation of higher education from the leadership perspective: A case of the University of Malawi.

**Central Research Question:** What is the implication of internationalisation of higher education from the leadership perspective?

Research Aims and Benefits:

To explore the conception and understanding of internationalisation of higher education by leaders at the University of Malawi.

To establish the approaches, methods and styles of leaders at the University of Malawi in responding to the internationalisation of higher education.

To identify aspects and circumstances that prompt leaders at the University of Malawi to respond to the internationalisation of higher education that way.

**Research Student**

Noel Drake Kufaine

Telephone: 27-780632483 /265-999577999

Email: nkufaine@poly.ac.mw/noel.kufaine@yahoo.com

Project Location University of Malawi

Alternate Contact Person Professor Damtew Teferra

Telephone: 031-2608578

Email: teferra@ukzn.ac.za

**Participation is Voluntary** Participation in this study Interviews, is entirely voluntary; with the right being reserved to the participant to withdraw participation without experiencing any disadvantage.

**Confidentiality & Anonymity** Participants are offered the opportunity to declare the type of anonymity and confidentiality in their involvement in this study. Although names will not be mentioned materials from the study might be attributed to the role holders.

**Research Instruments** Single Interview lasting maximum one hour will be administered to leaders at different structural levels in the University of Malawi. A copy of the Interview Schedule is attached. Audio recording device will be used to record the Interviews proceedings.

**Disposal of Data** The primary data will be stored in the School of Education in which the study is based and will be disposed according to the regulations of the University of Kwazulu Natal.

I look forward to receiving your responses to this request.

Thank you.



Noel Drake Kufaine

#### CONSENT TO PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH STUDY

I..... (full names of participant)  
hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research study, and I consent to participating in the research.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the Project at any time, should I so desire.

I hereby provide consent to:

Audio-record my interview YES NO

NAME OF PARTICIPANT \_\_\_\_\_

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT \_\_\_\_\_ DATE \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix 4 – Study data generation guide

### Data generation guide

- What is your academic background and specialisation?
- What is your leadership background and knowledge?
- What entails to be in leadership position at University of Malawi?
- What entails to be in your current leadership position?
- What are the local and international activities in your office?
- What is the profile of students in the University of Malawi?
- What are the students' local and international academic activities?
- What is the profile of lectures at the University of Malawi?
- What are Lecturers' local and international academic activities?
- What is the profile of academic programmes in University of Malawi?
- What is University of Malawi profile in the country locally?
- What is University of Malawi profile internationally?
- What are University of Malawi international academic activities?
- Who is involved in University of Malawi international academic activities?
- What are the benefits and implication of international academic activities?
- What is your understanding of higher education internationalisation?
- What are the Internationalisation activities in University of Malawi?
- What forces are behind implementation of international activities?
- What are the benefits of internationalisation of higher education activities?
- What are the challenges in internationalisation of higher education?
- Why did University of Malawi opt to be conducting on international activities?
- How does university of Malawi conduct internationalisation activities?
- What policy changes have been made for international activities?
- What infrastructure changes have been made for international activities?
- What are the future plans of internationalisation activities?

## Appendix 5- Ethical clearance approval



14 November 2014

Mr Noel Drake Kufaine 214583287  
School of Education  
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mr Kufaine

Protocol reference number: HSS/1488/014D

Project title: Internationalisation of Higher Education from the leadership perspective: A case of the University of Malawi

### Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 31 October 2014, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

**PLEASE NOTE:** Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

.....  
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)  
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

Cc Supervisor: Professor Damtew Teferra  
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor P Morojele  
Cc School Administrator: Ms T Khumalo/Ms B Bhengu

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Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

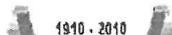
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4600 Email: [ximbap@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:ximbap@ukzn.ac.za) / [snymnm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:snymnm@ukzn.ac.za) / [mohuna@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:mohuna@ukzn.ac.za)

Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)



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