Analysing the Coordination and Organisation of International Mobility of Students in Four Mozambican Universities 2010-2015: UEM, UP, UCM and AP

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Maputo, May 2016
Analysing the coordination and organisation of international mobility of students in four Mozambican universities 2010-2015: UEM, UP, UCM and AP

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Maputo, May 2016
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this dissertation has not been previously submitted in whole, for the award of any degree and it is the result of my own work. This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters in Higher Education Studies and Development at Eduardo Mondlane University.

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May, 2016
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ABSTRACT

This dissertation explores how four Mozambican universities, namely Eduardo Mondlane University, Pedagogic University, A Politécnica University and Catholic University of Mozambique, formally coordinate and organise international mobility of students in the context of globalisation and internationalisation, both from receiving, as well as sending perspectives. It also examines how different stakeholders in each university perceive the mobility of students, the alleged rationales, as well as the advantages and main obstacles. Furthermore, the study probes the available statistical data regarding domestic students sent abroad as well as foreign students coming from abroad.

The dissertation intends to contribute to knowledge on the topic, since there is a dearth of available research on the matter in Mozambique. The theoretical framework of internationalisation and globalisation provided the contextual foundation, while analytical models of institutionalisation of internationalisation developed by Davies (1992) and Knight (1994) enabled a description of the main indicators and levels of analysis. The methodology consisted of four case studies, where the collection of data was carried out by conducting in-depth interviews and questionnaires, as well as document analysis.

The findings of the study indicate different patterns of formal coordination and organisation of international mobility of students: while the two public universities, Eduardo Mondlane University and the Pedagogic University, tend to have formal structures centrally coordinated to manage issues related to the international mobility of students, in the two private universities, A Politécnica and Catholic University of Mozambique, the degree of institutionalisation is less clear. Regarding perceptions of internationalisation and international mobility, participants across and among the targeted universities show different views, but they generally equate internationalisation from an activity approach rather than as a process approach. Finally, statistical data on the international mobility of students is scarce, and the universities in question do not possess reliable and systematic data on the number of inbound and outbound students in the last five years.
RESUMO

O presente estudo tem por objectivo explorar como quatro universidades moçambicanas nomeadamente a Universidade Eduardo Mondlane, a Universidade Pedagógica, A Politécnica, e a Universidade Católica de Moçambique coordenam e organizam a mobilidade internacional de estudantes no contexto da internacionalização e globalização, quer como instituições emissoras assim como receptoras. O estudo investiga igualmente como os diversos intervenientes em cada instituição percebem a mobilidade internacional de estudantes, quais as motivações alegadas, as vantagens e obstáculos. Para além disso, o estudo procura avaliar a disponibilidade dos dados estatísticos sobre os estudantes domésticos enviados para o exterior, assim como os estudantes estrangeiros recebidos do exterior.

O estudo visa pois contribuir para enriquecer o conhecimento académico sobre o tópico, dada a escassez de estudos sobre o tema em Moçambique. A metodologia consistiu em quatro estudos de caso, onde a recolha de dados foi feita mediante entrevistas e aplicação de questionários, bem como análise documental. O quadro teórico forneceu o contexto de análise da mobilidade internacional de estudantes no quadro da internacionalização e globalização do ensino superior, enquanto os modelos de análise do grau de institucionalização da internacionalização desenvolvidos por Davies (1992) e Knight (1994) permitiram estabelecer e descrever os indicadores e níveis de análise.

Os resultados do estudo indicam a existência de diferentes padrões de coordenação e gestão da mobilidade internacional de estudantes: por um lado, nas universidades públicas, (Universidade Eduardo Mondlane e Universidade Pedagógica) nota-se a existência de estruturas centrais formais que coordenam a mobilidade estudantil internacional. Por outro lado, nas universidades privadas (A Politécnica e a Universidade Católica) o grau de institucionalização da coordenação é menos claro. No que diz respeito à percepção, os diversos participantes partilham opiniões heterogéneas relativamente aos conceitos de internacionalização e mobilidade estudantil internacional, o que remete para a subjectividade dos conceitos em causa. Finalmente, os dados estatísticos sobre a mobilidade estudantil internacional são escassos, tendo a investigação revelado que as universidades em questão, não possuem dados estatísticos fiáveis e sistemáticos referentes aos últimos cinco anos.
KEY WORDS

Higher education,

Internationalisation,

Globalisation,

International student mobility,

Coordination

Mozambique
ABBREVIATIONS

AIESEC  Association of international students
AP       A Politécnica
AULP     Association of the Universities of Portuguese Language
CAPES    Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento Pessoal De Nível Superior
DESAFIO  Development Programme in Reproductive Health, HIV/AIDS and Family Matters
DRA      Directorate of Registar
DREAM    Dedicated Research Exchange and Mentorship
GC       Gabinete de Cooperação
GRI      Gabinete de Relações Internacionais
HEIs     Higher education institutions
IAU      International Association of Universities
IMS      International mobility of students
IOs      International Offices
SADC     Southern Africa Development Community
SARUA    South African Regional Universities Association
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>University</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UCM</td>
<td>Catholic University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UECU</td>
<td>Unidade de Extensão e Cooperação Universitária</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UEM</td>
<td>Eduardo Mondlane University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UP</td>
<td>Pedagogic University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context of the study

Although universities have always carried out international activities, the internationalisation of higher education has become a key issue in Europe since the 1990s, and has become a high priority on the agenda of many higher education institutions (HEIs) and national governments (De Wit, 2015; Maringe, 2010; Teichler, 2004). As Jane Knight (2008), puts it, internationalisation is “a key factor, shaping and challenging the higher education sector in countries all over the world […] it has become a formidable force for change, perhaps the central feature of higher education sector” (p.3).

While the concept of internationalisation is complex and multi-dimensional, this study adopted the definition proposed by Knight (ibid.), who views internationalisation as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education at the institutional and national level” (p.21).

This notwithstanding, if internationalisation is changing the landscape of higher education, the phenomenon of globalisation, which characterises economic and social activities, is also influencing higher education. As with internationalisation, globalisation is also a multifaceted, and a complex concept, leading to various interpretations. Nevertheless, globalisation seems to underscore worldwide interconnectedness, fostered by communication and transportation technologies, where national frontiers become almost blurred (Maringe, 2010). Regarding the influence of globalisation in higher education, the growing marketisation of knowledge and competition between HEIs are the major aspects discussed by several authors (Altbach, 2004, Knight, 2008).

However, there is currently an intense debate regarding the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation. Two main schools of thought have emerged where, on the one hand, some authors argue that internationalisation and globalisation are different, but related concepts (Altbach, 2007; Knight, 2008; Maringe, 2010). On the other hand, there are authors (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011; Gacel-Avila, 2005), who perceive internationalisation and globalisation as antagonistic concepts, based on the idea that the former emphasises the existence of nation-states and national borders, while the latter fails to respect borders, and tends towards
homogenisation.\(^1\) However, what ought to be at stake in the discussion is that the intertwined relationship between internationalisation and globalisation sets up the contextual framework within which the international mobility of students (IMS) takes place.

The growing centrality of internationalisation and globalisation in higher education was accompanied by a dramatic increase of physical mobility of students and scholars in Europe (Teichler, 2004). The physical mobility of students, which can be understood as sending domestic students abroad (outbound students) and receiving foreign students (inbound students), constitutes a paramount dimension of internationalisation. In the context of IMS, two types of cross-border movements are notable, namely: the free movers, who independently and spontaneously travel abroad; and the exchange students who travel in the context of institutional agreements between their home HEIs and their counterparts abroad (Le-Jeune, 2008). As the focus of the current study is located at the institutional level, exchange mobility, rather than free mobility, will receive focus here.

According to statistical data provided by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the number of students who cross national borders for academic purposes has been increasing across the world: while for example in 1975 there were about 0.8 million of mobile students, in 2011 this number more than doubled to 4.4 million (OECD, 2014). In 2013, the OECD estimated that there were more than 4 million mobile students (OECD, 2015).\(^2\) According to the OECD (2015), countries such as the United States of America (USA), the United Kingdom (UK), Germany, France, Australia, Canada and Japan are responsible for hosting 50 % of the international students worldwide.

Regarding the situation of IMS in Africa, data presented by the Campus France (2013) through the note *La Mobilité des Étudiants d’Afrique Sub-Saharan et du Maghreb*, indicates different mobility directions from those observed in Europe. According to the report, there were 380,376 African mobile students in 2010, constituting about 10 % of all international students worldwide.

\(^1\)A discussion of the different views on the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation is further detailed in Chapter 2.

\(^2\)These figures only serve as a guide, as they do not distinguish between free movers and exchange students.
and 6% of all African students. France was the main destination hosting 29.2% of the total mobile students, followed by South Africa (15.1%) and the UK (9.7%).

In relation to the main source countries of mobile students in 2010, Campus France (2013) points Morocco (11.3%), Nigeria (10.2%) and Algeria (5.9%) as the top countries. These findings obviously demonstrate that Mozambique neither belongs to the main sending countries, nor to the top receiving countries in Africa.

Particularly referring to the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC)\(^3\), of which Mozambique is a state member, Chien and Chiteng (2011) and Mpinganjira (2011) state that SADC students are among the most mobile in the world, after Asian students. According to the authors, half of SADC mobile students remain in their own region with South Africa as the top destination. Regionally, the main reasons that make South Africa a pole of attraction for international students include the following aspects: less complexity to obtain a visa than for European and American countries; cost of living is lower than Europe; and its public universities are of high quality (Campus France, 2013). However, language should not be ignored as a major pull factor when analysing the tendency for intra-mobility in SADC region, as the majority of foreign students seeking higher education in South Africa come from neighbouring countries such as Swaziland, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe, which are English speaking countries. As Mpinganjira (2011) emphasises, Portugal and Brazil are also top destinations especially for Mozambican and Angolan students.

Mpinganjira (2012) presents data\(^4\) on the student mobility in SADC referring to 2008. Although the data is not recent it can provide a useful picture of the trends on IMS in Mozambique, especially the host countries. The author provides statistical data for the 15 member countries, showing the distribution of students by different destinations with emphasis to the major destinations.

\(^3\) Member states include: Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

\(^4\) Again, the statistical data do not distinguish between free movers and exchange students. For that reason, the figures will serve as indicators of patterns of IMS.
Table 1.1 presents a selection of SADC countries including Mozambique which were analysed by Mpinganjira (2012).

Table 1.1 Top Destinations for Selected SADC Students in 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total mobile students</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th>UK</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Namibia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>7344</td>
<td>1101</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>4794</td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>7315</td>
<td>5194</td>
<td>591</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>511</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>3924</td>
<td>1579</td>
<td></td>
<td>282</td>
<td></td>
<td>741</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>4300</td>
<td>4098</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>1945</td>
<td>802</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>7401</td>
<td>1165</td>
<td>1702</td>
<td>1273</td>
<td>1826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>2441</td>
<td>892</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>78</td>
<td></td>
<td>1006</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>8252</td>
<td>7813</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>5500</td>
<td>1539</td>
<td>1622</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>3518</td>
<td>3278</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>128</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>4149</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>989</td>
<td>1193</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>419</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>4250</td>
<td>1523</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>788</td>
<td>551</td>
<td>297</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>23512</td>
<td>17766</td>
<td>2027</td>
<td>1423</td>
<td>1423</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Mpinganjira (2011)

Analysing the case of Mozambique, Table 1.1 indicates that Portugal, South Africa and the USA were the major host countries in order of importance. Another observation is that compared to other SADC countries, Mozambique presents a lower number of mobile students than other countries. This is an important aspect to take into account when discussing and analysing IMS in Mozambique.

Apart from the statistical growth of IMS, the literature review (De Witt, 2015; Davies, 1992; Knight, 2008; Vincent-Lacrin, 2011) also indicates the tendency to develop more regulation and coordination through the establishment of formal organisational structures, policies and programmes, to support it at all levels. As an institutional and organisational issue, internationalisation can therefore be seen as the process of developing and implementing policies
and programmes in order to integrate the international, intercultural and global dimensions into the functions of higher education (Knight, 2008).

In Mozambique, the international mobility, particularly of foreign lecturers, has been an integral element of higher education during the 1980s. During that period, Portuguese lecturers had fled the country, leaving the sole university, Eduardo Mondlane University, with a dearth of staff. Thus, the university was required to rely on foreign lecturers through multilateral and bilateral cooperation (Knight & Teferra, 2008; Mário et al, 2003). Regarding IMS, which is the focus of this study, it is important to stress that there are not sufficiently reliable and systematic records available on the number of students involved in both outbound and inbound students. Nevertheless, according to the Ministry of Education of Mozambique (2013) there were about 396 foreign students enrolled in both public and private Mozambican HEIs in 2012.

Figure 1.1 below shows the distribution of foreign students in Mozambique, according to their home country.

Figure 1.1 Distribution of Foreign Students in Mozambique by Country of Origin

Source: Based on data from the Ministry of Education of Mozambique (2013)

---

5Mozambique has been colonised by Portugal until 1975, when the country gained independence.

6Again, as for the figures presented regarding the growing increase of mobile students around the world, the data contained in Figure 1.1 provide a global picture of foreign students in Mozambique, without discriminating as to whether they either constitute free movers or exchange students.
As can be seen, Mozambique hosts a variety of foreign students coming from various countries. Clearly, the three leading sending countries were in order of importance: Portugal (94 students), Angola (48 students), and Brazil (39 students); countries which have strong historical, political and cultural ties with Mozambique. From a regional perspective, it is noteworthy that the majority of countries of dispatch are especially neighboring countries such as Angola, Sao Tome and Principe, Tanzania and Malawi.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the distribution of foreign students by 23 Mozambican HEIs. The data suggest that the top host institutions are Eduardo Mondlane University (32%), A Politécnica (18%) and the Instituto Superior de Ciência e Tecnologia de Moçambique (15%).

**Figure 2.1 Distribution of Foreign Students by Mozambican HEIs**

![](diagram.png)

*Source: Based on data from the Ministry of Education of Mozambique (2013)*
This distribution indicates that the main receiving institution is the major public HEI in Mozambique. The other two top institutions are both private, but they also represent the major and oldest ones in the private sector. This may indicate that the major receiving HEIs are well-established institutions, with a significant position in the Mozambican higher education landscape.

Figures 1.1 and 2.1 above only provide a partial picture of the reception of foreign students by Mozambican HEIs, while data in respect of domestic students sent abroad by Mozambican HEIs is sparse and unavailable in a systematic way.

However, the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) offers data regarding the number of Mozambican students who studied abroad during the years 2012, 2013 and 2014. Nevertheless, as the data does not cover the same countries across the same years, solely the data referring to 2013 will be presented as it is more extensive.

**Table 2.1 Distribution of Mozambican Students per Host Country 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of destination</th>
<th>Total mobile students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Unesco Institute of Statistics (2016)

Considering Table 2.1 and Fig. 1.1 the following considerations can be made:
• In general, Mozambique could be described mainly as a “sending country”, rather than a “receiving country”;

• As a sending country, Portugal, South Africa, the USA and European countries clearly dominated destinations of Mozambican students in 2013. Probably, the key factors behind these trends are linked with historical, cultural and political factors;

• As a receiving country, on the one hand, there is a certain degree of reciprocity with African countries as Mozambique hosts students from neighboring countries, but on the other hand, the number of European students is lower than African students.

Furthermore, there are several aspects that remain unclear regarding the phenomenon of IMS in Mozambique, namely: who coordinates/manages IMS in each institution? What kind of structures and services are in place to support IMS? How opportunities for international mobility are made available to students? What kind of statistical or qualitative information regarding mobile students is available in HEIs? What are the meanings attached to IMS in the eyes of the participants of HEIs?

Keeping in mind these questions, the purpose of this study is to investigate how four Mozambican universities, namely: Eduardo Mondlane University (UEM), Pedagogic University (UP), Catholic University (UCM) and A Politécnica (AP), coordinate and organise IMS. In addressing this question, special attention was given to the following aspects:

1) administrative organisation of IMS and services to support IMS;

2) academic programmes; and

3) perceptions of different institutional stakeholders over the phenomenon of IMS.

The main motivation for carrying out this study was primarily triggered by my own personal experience as an exchange student at the University of Oslo, in Norway. By being exposed to cross-cultural interactions, and having the opportunity to meet people from different parts of the world, I was propelled to reflect on the importance of studying IMS in my own country. The fact that to date, little research exists regarding IMS coordination and organisation of international
exchanges taking place in Mozambique, also played a central role in the choice of focus for this study.

1.2 Research problem

There is a relatively generalised belief that sending students abroad as well as receiving foreign students can generate benefits for the multiple stakeholders involved in HEIs: the students themselves, the HEIs, the governments and the society at large (Knight, 2008). Furthermore, IMS is considered as an important way of participating and advancing internationalisation.

The four Mozambican HEIs selected for this study have been participating in IMS, either by sending their students abroad or by receiving foreign students. However, several organisational and coordination aspects are scarcely known: how mobility is organised and coordinated, what kind of support is provided by the HEIs to both outbound and inbound students; how many students participate in IMS; and what are the perceptions of different stakeholders involved in IMS.

In the face of such issues, the present study firstly proposes to shed light on how UEM, UP, AP and UCM coordinate and organise IMS. Secondly, the study intends to obtain a better understanding of how different stakeholders see the phenomenon of IMS.

1.3 Research objectives

The aim of this study is to investigate how four selected Mozambican universities deal with IMS, both academically as well as organisationally, between the periods of 2010-2015. Following the intentions above mentioned its main objectives are as stated:

a) to explore what organisational and structural configurations are in place to accommodate the international mobility of students: distribution of functions and responsibilities, policies and support services offered to inbound and outbound students;

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7Information obtained through existing data, interviews with officers of international officers of HEIs and institutional official documents.
b) to investigate what kind of statistical data on international mobility of students is available in the four HEIs, which might help in shedding light on the trends of mobility in terms of geographic and academic patterns; and
c) to probe the views and arguments of different stakeholders about internationalisation and international mobility of students.

1.4 Research questions and sub-questions

In line with the above-mentioned objectives, the main research question guiding this study is stated below:

1) How are Mozambican HEIs dealing with the international mobility of students?

This question is further sub-divided into the following sub-questions:

a) How is international mobility of students coordinated and organised in HEIs?
   - Who is in charge of coordinating student mobility?
   - Are there any policies/procedures/plans regulating student mobility?
   - What kind of communication channels are used to inform students about international mobility opportunities?
   - What kind of support services are in place to accommodate foreign students (accommodation, registration, transportation, etc.)?
   - What kind of support is provided for both national and foreign students (orientation programs, coaching, etc.)?

b) What kind of academic trends are being developed by Mozambican universities when it comes to the international mobility of students?
   - How many Mozambican students were sent abroad from each HEI, from 2010 to 2015?
   - How many foreign students were received in each HEI, from 2010 to 2015?
   - What were the main destinations of outbound students in the same period?
   - What were the main countries of origin for inbound mobility in the same period?
c) **How is international student mobility perceived by different participant groups in HEIs?**

- How do different institutional stakeholders (deans of faculty, lecturers and international office managers and staff of international offices) define internationalisation?
- How do different institutional stakeholders (deans of faculty, lecturers and international office managers and staff of international offices) define the international mobility of students?
- What are the perceived benefits of sending students abroad?
- What are the perceived obstacles to the international mobility of students?

### 1.5 Significance of the study

This study intends to contribute to the field of comparative higher education by deepening the understanding of how IMS is coordinated and organised in four Mozambican universities, taking into account the broader context within which they operate. Several authors (Knight, 2008; Teferra, 2008) point to the need of producing more research on the African continent in order to understand how African universities are faring regarding the responses to the challenges imposed by globalisation and internationalisation. In that sense, this study will certainly bring some input and add knowledge regarding this matter, by shedding light on the current state of IMS organisation and coordination in the four selected HEIs.

On the one hand, the research might allow the comparison of the Mozambican universities with other universities operating both regionally as well as internationally. On the other hand, although the results of the study cannot be generalised to other Mozambican HEIs, the institutional contours of organisational and academic dimensions revealed by the study might give an indication of what is occurring in similar universities in Mozambique. In that sense, the study intends to explore new paths for further investigation.

Finally, in a more practical level the results of this study might be of interest for policy makers, higher education senior leaders, administrators, and faculty members in Mozambique who have a vested interest in establishing adequate policies and approaches, taking into account an empirical basis.
1.6 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework supporting this research derives from two fronts: on the one hand, the concepts of internationalisation and globalisation of higher education provide the contextual comprehension of IMS trends: conceptually, statistically, geographically and organisationally. Internationalisation is theoretically conceived as the process of integrating an international, cross-cultural and global perspective into the purposes of a university. In that sense, internationalisation can be understood as an institutional strategy to respond to global pressures (Knight, 2008).

On the other hand, the theoretical framework also relies on the review of organisational models of internationalisation developed by authors such as Davies (1992), Rudzki (1995) and Knight (1994). In general, the models discuss the degree of institutionalisation of efforts to integrate the international dimension in HEIs. The first model developed by Davies (1992) evaluates the way in which HEIs respond to external pressures, through the development of institutional strategies. The second model by Rudzki (1995) assesses the way in which HEIs progress from a reactive mode to a proactive mode. Rather, Knight (1994) focuses on the cyclical and continuous character of internationalisation.

The models developed by Davies (1992) and Knight (1994) will be presented in greater detail, as they fit my interpretation of the internationalisation process, both theoretically as well as at a more operational level. These models were applied to identify the components and indicators that could be applied to the analysis of mobility in the HEIs studied and also to categorise the degree of institutionalisation of internationalisation in each of the HEIs.

1.7 Methodology

A multiple-case study design was adopted in this study, consisting of four case studies. The aim is to understand how IMS is coordinated and organised at the institutional level. They comprise two old and large public universities, and two private, relatively smaller and newer institutions. Data collection methods consisted of document analysis, in-depth interviews and questionnaires. In-depth Interviews were conducted with managers of international offices, deans of faculties.
and administrators. Questionnaires were applied to lecturers, students and staff of international offices (solely of UEM). Document analysis consisted of reviewing several types of documents in order to get contextual and factual information regarding IMS and internationalisation in each HEI. Documents examined included strategic plans, institutional websites and institutional reports.

1.8 Thesis structure

The present dissertation is composed of seven chapters. The first chapter introduces the background, the problem statement, the objectives, the research questions and research design. The second chapter deals with the literature review, the theoretical framework applied in the study, as well as the main concepts relevant to the analysis. The third chapter describes the methodology that guided the dissertation and the techniques for collecting and analysing data. The fourth chapter presents the four universities case studies, through a comparative approach. The fifth chapter discusses the main findings through the analytical framework. The sixth chapter is dedicated to the conclusions generated through the research.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The first part of this section presents the state of the art of the research on IMS emphasising the main topics of research in the field and general theories through which IMS is analysed. The section also approaches the concepts of internationalisation and globalisation, providing a discussion of how both concepts differ and how IMS can be integrated in the light of the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation. This discussion allowed the clarification of the theoretical framework to be adopted in this study. On the one hand, the discussion provided the context in which IMS can be understood particularly in higher education, what internalisation means, why universities pursue internationalisation, what are the benefits and obstacles, and how the coordination and organisation of IMS can be related to the internationalisation. In this part, I also clarify the concept of a ‘mobile student’ given the importance of this concept for the present study.

The second part of this section deals with models of internationalisation developed by several authors (Davies, 1992; Rudzki, 1995 and Knight, 1994). These models address internationalisation in HEIs from evolutionary perspectives, as well as taking into account the strategies adopted by HEIs in facing external pressures. The models developed by Davies (1992) and Knight (1994) are particularly useful to the purposes of this study, as they allow the distinction between the relevant dimensions and indicators to be analysed, as well as to classify different HEIs according to their strategies and modes of management of IMS.

2.1 The state of the art in the field of student mobility

Internationalisation research topics draw from multiple disciplines. As Kehm and Teichler (2007) have noted, there is not a single “dominant, disciplinary, conceptual or methodological “home” (p.260). Consequently, a variety of disciplines such as economics, sociology and geography may provide the theoretical basis for research in this field.
However, what is the best practice when it comes to research in internationalisation? Kehm and Teichler (2007) also provide an overview of the main developments in the research of international dimension of higher education, including student mobility. According to the authors, research on the international dimension is quantitatively growing and becoming increasingly visible in publications on higher education.

Academic mobility is traditionally a preferential topic within internationalisation research. As Luijten-Lub (2007) points out, there is a significant amount of empirical research available regarding academic mobility. According to the author, “a wide range of studies have been conducted on this theme, and for a time, they formed the main body of knowledge in the area of internationalisation in higher education (p.36). The main research sub-topics linked with academic mobility are: mobility flows and statistical data; recruitment and selection of international students; the evaluation of mobility and exchange programmes; the recognition of credits and credit transfer; and the impact of mobility programmes on students, their studies and their professional development (Kehm and Teichler, 2007). Next, a brief discussion of theories of student mobility will be provided in order to sketch the main theoretical strands through which student mobility can be articulated.

2.1.1 Brief presentation of theories of student mobility

Authors like Bošnjović & Trivun, (2013); Findlay et al. (2005) and Galalae & Voicu (2011) refer to three main theories of student mobility. The first perspective considers students as part of a broader skilled migration movement from a geographic point of view. According to this conception, students who cross borders seeking out higher education are seen as a potential reserve of highly qualified workers, constituting an important source of labour for the host countries.

However, a second perspective defines mobile students as the result of the globalisation process, particularly in the context of higher education (Knight, 2008). Following this understanding, students seek higher education abroad, due to the growing demand for highly qualified graduates, who are both internationally and culturally aware.
The third approach understands mobile students in the context of youth mobility cultures. The emphasis of this perspective is not on economic factors, but rather on subjective factors. In the words of Findlay et al. (2005) “this fits with the notion of the do-it-yourself biography of the young post-modern individual.” (p.193). Thus, this notion entails a perception of mobile students as going abroad on the basis of their personal experiences.

Although each of the three theories briefly presented may contribute to understand student mobility, the second perspective which assumes student mobility to be a dimension of internationalisation of higher education in the context of globalisation, was adopted for the purposes of the present study. The reasons for adopting this framework are related to the scope and range of this approach: on the one hand, this study does not intend to restrict the analysis of the phenomenon of student mobility to economic or geographical dimensions. On the other hand, the notion of mobile students as the result of personal choices ignores other important factors, such as the institutional dimension, which is central to this study.

Thus, the internationalisation perspective appears to be more useful in understanding and discussing student mobility, since it examines this phenomenon in the context of higher education, taking into account the peculiar conditions under which higher education functions, and its dynamics. The merit of applying this theoretical framework is due to the fact that it recognises both economic and geographic dimensions. Consequently, a more detailed discussion of internationalisation theory will be further provided.

### 2.2 Internationalisation and globalisation

This section will be reserved to a general discussion of internationalisation and globalisation, which constitute the core concepts in this study. Since each of these concepts entails a whole range of nuances, understandings and uses, and above all disagreements, it will be useful to closely examine them.

Furthermore, internationalisation and globalisation are widely used concepts across different disciplines, such as economics, sociology, cultural and historical studies and political science (Luijten-Lub, 2007). This fact may substantially contribute to the lack of a single definitive
agreed upon definition on what each of these terms mean. Instead, according to Luijten-Lub (2007) the use of both terms has been characterised by a “…complicated demarcation and often inconsistent use of these concepts…” (p.17).

Additionally, both terms have been used interchangeably (Altbach et al., 2009; De Witt, 2010; Knight, 2008). Thus, for a matter of clarification, each concept will be examined in terms of the major debates pertaining to it; as well as how they are discussed in the field of higher education, and their usage in this study will then be defined.

2.2.1 Globalisation

The notion of globalisation has currently become a commonplace, pervading both academic and public discussions. Nevertheless, instead of being a homogeneous concept over which consensus has been reached, its definition is still highly disputed. In terms of theoretical domain, no particular orthodoxy persists (Held and McGrew, 2005; Steger, 2010). On the contrary, the current state of globalisation is characterised by the existence of multiple disciplinary perspectives.

Accordingly, globalisation has been defined in a number of ways. For instance, Beerkens (2003) and Stohl (2004) offer a glimpse of several definitions proposed by some of the most prominent globalisation theorists (Figure 3).

Table 3.2 Various Definitions of Globalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theorist</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Main focus</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Migration, Identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulrich Beck (2000)</td>
<td>Social relations based on transnational community ties surpassing time and space. National states are both traversed and undermined.</td>
<td>Political, economic, and social Globalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthony Giddens (1990,</td>
<td>The intensification of worldwide social relations, which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings</td>
<td>Political, social, and economic Globalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Definition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Held and McGrew (2000)</td>
<td>Expanding scale, growing magnitude, speeding up and deepening impact of interregional flows and patterns of social interaction. Shift or transformation in the scale of human social organisation that links distant communities and expands the reach of power relations across the world’s major regions and continents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weiss (1999)</td>
<td>Globalisation is synonymous with state power erosion.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oman (1996)</td>
<td>Growth of economic activity across national and regional political boundaries. It is expressed in the increased movement of tangible and intangible goods and services, including ownership rights, via trade and investment, and often people, via migration.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lash &amp; Urry (1994)</td>
<td>Globalisation is really advanced capitalist globalisation, since a hegemonic role is played by the North Atlantic Rim countries and Japan in the development of these non-national transnational practices.</td>
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The definitions provided in Table 3.2 reveal a plethora of conceptions regarding globalisation: while some authors such as Lash and Hurry (1994) and Oman (1996) emphasise economic aspects as the core feature of globalisation, others such as Beck (1992), Giddens (1990) and Held and McGrew (2005) discuss globalisation from a multidimensional perspective (cultural, political and social dimensions). However, the common feature shared by the authors is the idea that the world is becoming more interconnected as time and space become increasingly compressed.
2.2.2 Some theoretical perspectives on globalisation

Academic debate on globalisation comprises different schools. Authors such as Held & McGrew (2005) and Litz (2011) discuss the dominant theoretical perspectives of globalisation. For the purposes of this study, three of these will be briefly presented, namely: globalists, skeptics and transformationalists.

The first theoretical approach encompasses a group known as the ‘globalists’ or ‘hyper-globalists’. They argue that globalisation is a unique historical development leading the world into a ‘global age’, characterised by global capitalism, free markets and the rise of new transnational forms of global culture, governance and society (Held & McGrew, 2005). For the globalists, nation-states are retreating as the leading actors in favour of the market forces, more specifically through multinational corporations, the transnational economy and the rise of a new global division of labour.

The second approach is also referred to as the ‘sceptical position’. Opposing globalists in particular, the sceptics adopt a dubious position over globalisation, arguing that as a process, globalisation is a new word, describing an old process. As a concept, they assert that globalisation lacks clarity, since the universality implicit in its definition does not match a clear geographical referent; preferring the term ‘internationalisation’ to describe the increasing links between different nations (Held & McGrew, 2005).

Additionally, sceptics emphasise that certain areas of the world have been excluded from globalisation, thereby exacerbating the divide between developed and developing countries. They also view globalisation as performing an ideological function, in the sense that it helps to justify and legitimise the neoliberal project, viz. “the creation of a global free market and the consolidation of Anglo-American capitalism” (Held and McGrew, 2005, p.5).

In relation to the role of the nation-state, the sceptics argue that national governments are still the major players, and that multinational corporations are still linked to the nation-states where they

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Note: Sceptics tend to assess contemporary globalisation against the period known as the belle époque (1890-1914), which they consider the golden age of globalisation.
are originally established. For them, national economies still play a significant role, although a greater control is exerted by regional blocs.

Amidst this debate, emerges a third perspective, known as the institutional perspective or the ‘transformationalists’. This approach tries to combine the views of both globalists and sceptics, by accepting that

… [ ] although we are experiencing unprecedented levels of global interconnectedness, globalisation [sic] should be viewed as a historically contingent process that abounds with contradictions. Thus, although globalisation [sic] is resulting in greater integration in some areas of the economy, politics, culture, and society, it is also resulting in greater fragmentation and stratification in which some states, societies, regions, communities; ethnic groups etc. are becoming increasingly entwined in the global order while others are becoming increasingly marginalised [sic] (Litz, 2011, p.48).

This means that for the ‘transformationalists’, globalisation and the state do not necessarily oppose one another; neither the state retreats, as the globalists believe, nor is the state omnipresent. On the contrary, ‘transformationalists’ believe in a dialectical relationship between globalisation and the state. In the context of the present study, the ‘transformationalist’ position is the strand through which globalisation in general is understood. Thus, globalisation is a process that tends to increase integration and interconnectedness, where at the same time it does not mean that this process is occurring in the same way and to the same degree around the world. In terms of the state’s role, it encompasses the state adapting to the new realities brought about by global trends.

2.2.3 Internationalisation

As for internationalisation, according to Flach & Flach (2010), the concept was originally applied to the field of economy, from the perspective of the firm, and it has subsequently penetrated the field of education. The authors mention a few examples of approaches applied to the firm, such as the ‘network approach’, which conceptualises internationalisation of firms in terms of development of foreign networks, in order to establish business relationships. The other
approaches also converge in terms of looking at the internationalisation in firms as an adaptation process through which firms connect themselves with the outside and the international level, crossing national borders.

It was based on similar assumptions that internationalisation has subsequently been applied in the field of higher education. Flach & Flach (2010) made an analogy of what occurs in the internationalisation of firms, to analyse internationalisation in higher education. They argue that “[…] higher educational institutions play an important role in creating networks with […] universities around the world. Besides facilitating the exchange of projects such initiatives also enhance the exchange of research ideas and human resources” (p.43-44). At this stage, the following question ought to be posed: what is internationalisation of higher education? How does it relate to student mobility? This discussion will start by providing the evolution of the concept, and afterwards, the definitions of internationalisation discussed in the literature.

2.3 Conceptual evolution of internationalisation

Internationalisation can be considered a young concept which emerged in the 1990s. Before that, “international education” “international relations”, “international cooperation” and “global studies” were the most popular terms (De Witt, 2011; Knight, 2008).

However, in the mid-1980s Knight (2008) indicates that internationalisation was conceived as a series of activities such as study abroad, language studies, institutional agreements and area studies, while in the 21st century, the emphasis was on academic mobility. Currently, De Witt (2011) points to a whole new range of terms associated with internationalisation: borderless education; education across borders; global education; offshore education; and international trade in educational services.

The definition of internationalisation is problematic and non consensual since it can mean different things to different people, that is, different countries and institutions will understand internationalisation in different ways, according to their own views (Knight, 2004; Knight 2008; Zeleza, 2012). Maringe (2010) illustrates the diversity of definitions regarding internationalisation in the context of higher education, by presenting several definitions proposed
by the most influential authors in this field. For instance, for Van Damme (2001) internationalisation means essentially enhancing the quality of higher education, while for Goddard (2006), it represents the growth of entrepreneurialism, entailing the view that universities are similar to any other business organisations. Instead, Fielden (2008) sees internationalisation as the equivalent to student and staff international mobility.

Altbach & Knight (2006), as cited by Maringe (2010), define internationalisation as:

> Ranging from traditional study abroad programs [sic], which allow students to learn about other cultures, to providing access to higher education in countries where local institutions cannot meet the demand. Other activities stress upgrading the international perspectives and skills of students…and providing cross-cultural understanding (p.26).

From the various definitions provided above, it is clear that internationalisation encompasses multiple views on what it constitutes and a myriad of rationales. However, one of the most widely accepted definitions in the literature (according to Beerkens, 2005) was that provided by Knight (2008), who referred to it as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education at the institutional and national level” (p.21).

According to Knight (2008), this definition entails several key concepts:

- **Process** – a continuous effort towards internationalisation (developmental character).
- **Integration** – the embedding of the international and intercultural dimension into policies and programmes.
- **International, intercultural and global** – where international refers to the relationship between nations, but in the context of diverse cultures; while global refers to a worldwide dimension.
- **Purpose** – the role higher education has for a country, more specifically the mission of an institution.
- **Function** – the main tasks performed by a national higher education system or institution usually (teaching, research and service to society).
This definition indicates that internationalisation expresses an intentional action of HEIs towards achieving improvement of the functions and the roles of higher education, by going beyond their “national borders”. The underlying assumption leading this process is that different institutions adopt different strategies and policies, according to their own rationales, objectives and expected outcomes (Knight, 2008).

De Witt (2015) emphasises the intentional character of internationalisation by defining it as the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, including a contribution to society.

It is noteworthy that Knight (2008) also presents an important distinction between two types of internationalisation carried out by HEIs, namely: ‘internationalisation at home’, which includes changes in the campus activities (intercultural and international dimension in the teaching/learning and research; extracurricular activities with local cultural and ethnic community groups and the integration of foreign students and scholars into campus life); and ‘internationalisation abroad’, which corresponds to a more outward position consisting of mobility of students, faculty and staff; delivery of programmes, mobility of providers, and international projects.

2.4 Globalisation, internationalisation and higher education

Globalisation and internationalisation are critical terms to debating international mobility of students. Due to the interchangeable use of these terms, some clarification is necessary. Several authors (Scott, 1998; Teichler, 2004; De Wit, 2010; Knight, 2008; and Maringe, 2010) discuss the intricate relationship between internationalisation and globalisation. Following that discussion, it is possible to identify several positions: those who agree that both concepts mean the same thing, those who argue that they are distinct, and finally those who defend that these are different, but related concepts.

For instance, Scholte (2007) indicates that globalisation can be understood as internationalisation when referring to “…a growth of transactions and interdependence between countries.” (p. 6).
Thus, according to Scholte (2007), the world is characterised by the intensification of cross-border movements of people, ideas, money, investments and pollutants. The idea that globalisation is an intensified form of internationalisation is shared by authors such as Paul Hirst and Graheme Thompson (1999) and Kearney (2005)\(^9\).

Maringe (2010) states that globalisation and internationalisation are related, but they are not synonyms. For the author, while globalisation “denotes a process of increasing homogenisation of political, cultural, ideological and social dimensions of life, impacting on higher education, internationalisation constitutes a strategic response” (p.2).

Similarly, Altbach et al. (2009) define globalisation as being “shaped by an increasingly integrated world economy, new information and communications technology, the emergence of an international knowledge network, the role of the English language, and other forces beyond the control of academic institutions”, while internationalisation refers to “the variety of policies and programs [sic] that universities and governments implement to respond to globalisation [sic]” (p.7).

On the same note, for Teichler (2004), the two concepts are similar, but they differ, in that internationalisation indicates an increase of cross-border activity, such as physical mobility, academic collaboration and knowledge transfer; while globalisation is more linked to the blurring or disappearance of national borders, competition, commercial knowledge transfer and commercial steering. The notion proposed by this author emphasises the retreat of the state regarding HEIs, leading to the transfer of authority and responsibility “to higher education institutions, to regional, supranational bodies and to the private sector” (Beerkens, 2005, p.20).

Rather, Scott (1998) offers a dialectical view on the relationship between globalisation and internationalisation. For this author, universities are objects as well as subjects, and they influence – and at the same time are affected by – the process of globalisation. Another view is forwarded by Gornitzka et al., (2003), who affirm that both concepts are definitively unrelated to each other. The authors argue that while globalisation is an economic phenomenon, involving the expansion of multinational companies, intellectual property, internationalisation is related to the

\(^9\) Scholte (2007)
existence of the nation-state. As it can be seen, there is no agreement on the relationship between internationalisation and globalisation in higher education. For instance, while for Maringe (2010) and Altbach et al. (2009) internationalisation is a response to globalisation, for Teichler (2004) globalisation represents the dominance of supranational forces across national frontiers, threatening nation states.

2.5 Debates on internationalisation and student mobility in Africa

In the previous sections, internationalisation has been discussed without taking into account African perspectives. For that purpose, this section will provide a general picture of the views of authors who debate the state of internationalisation and IMS in Africa.

Several authors (Teferra, 2008; Zeleza, 2012) concur that internationalisation is undoubtedly changing higher education worldwide, including Africa. Though, any discussion of the development and current state of internationalisation in Africa should not be dissociated from its historical, cultural and national contexts (Jowi, 2012; Teferra, 2008; Zeleza, 2012). In that sense, Zeleza (2012) contends that internationalisation in African higher education is experienced by African countries “… depending on the history and structure of their higher education systems, their national and institutional resources, and their respective geopolitical locations and aspirations” (p.10)

African countries face several problems and although it is difficult to generalise the context in which higher education operates, some similar situations are mentioned: a developing economy, low levels of participation in higher education, low supply capacity, funding, recognition of qualifications, quality assurance, immigration policy laws, direction of mobility flows, mobility services (Chien & Chiteng, 2011; Mpinganjira, 2011).

From a historical perspective, internationalisation is not considered a new phenomenon in Africa given that higher education systems were historically characterised by the borrowing of European models of universities applied in Africa and also the mobility of students and scholars (Alemu, 2014; Jowi, 2012; Teferra, 2008; Zeleza, 2012).
However, debates on internationalisation in Africa have been characterised by a strong normative side and integrated into broader development debates over the asymmetry or divide between the South and North. Kotecha (2012) for instance, discusses the value and the advantages of internationalisation for the SADC region. The author claims that

Internationalisation in higher education cannot be divorced from the wider geopolitical forces that shape the world. Power imbalances between Northern and Southern countries lie at the heart of relationships between scholars in developed and developing countries [...]. Co-operation between higher education institutions continues to take place on terms set by Northern partners, because of the wealth available in Northern countries and the dominance of Northern scholarship. The asymmetry of power and access to resources has produced a situation where knowledge generated in the North has become hegemonic (p.2)

Alemu (2014), Jowi (2012) and Zeleza (2012), on the same token also share a similar position raising concerns regarding the invisibility of African perspectives in the conceptualisation of internationalisation. As an example, Jowi (2012) argues that

Internationalisation in Africa has been to a large extent externally driven, making the West the centre (or the main driver) of internationalisation in Africa. Africa has to position itself as the centre of its own internationalisation agenda. The emerging global realities in international education in recent years have compelled Africa to take deliberate steps to engage with the realities of internationalisation and the demands of the knowledge society (p.52)

The main assumptions illustrated by the statements of Kotecha (2012) and Jowi (2012) are that broader world inequalities are also present and are reproduced in the conception, definition and praxis of internationalisation, to such an extent that Zeleza (2012) states that “...in many ways, internationalisation has reinforced historic inequalities (p. 15)

As a strategy to overcome the disadvantageous position of African HEIs, Jowi (2012) proposes the “Africanisation of internationalisation as a new trajectory (...) to empower Africa universities
to reconceptualise internationalisation in their own terms, and to formulate a distinctively African internationalisation and development agenda. (p.51)

Similarly to the discussions of internationalisation in Africa, the debate on the mobility of African students is characterised by mixed views. On the one hand, IMS is understood as a positive phenomenon, given the benefits for the sending countries and the continent. On the other hand, a significant number of students who pursue these opportunities out of Africa do not return home after finishing their studies, thus depriving the continent of the human resource capacity needed for its economic development (Chien & Chiteng, 2011; Jowi, 2012; Teferra, 2008). Thus, the phenomenon of “brain drain” or “human capital flight” characterised by students mainly from developing countries remaining in their foreign destination after concluding their studies, seems to be a major issue when discussing the risks of African students going abroad (Alemu, 2014).

For instance, Mpinganjira and Rugimbana (2009) discuss brain drain as “human capital flight”. The authors emphasise the main factors that motivate African students to seek studies abroad, and conclude that students are mainly interested in having a widely recognition of their qualifications, broaden their personal experiences and obtain high quality education. Allied to the fact that the major host countries such as Australia, UK, USA and Canada have in place deliberate policies aimed at attracting international postgraduate students to remain in their countries after successful completion of studies, makes the situation worse. In that context, Alemu (2014) states that “internationalisation is considered as the new mode of imperialism, due to the recruitment of the best brains…” (p.6). The issue for African HEIs, would be how to develop mechanisms to retain their students, or to encourage them to return home after concluding their studies abroad, in order to contribute to the development of their countries.

However, Jowi (2012) advises that “The ability of African countries and their institutions of higher education to retain students wanting to study abroad will however depend on the capacity to understand the needs and wants of the market and develop appropriate strategies to help satisfy these needs and wants” (p.1).
Regardless of all challenges, unclear future, risks and threats, authors such as Chien and Chiteng, (2011); Jowi, (2011); Mpinganjira, (2011) and Zeleza (2012) propose intra regional cooperation (one that takes place within African), as a critical step in strengthening higher education systems and helping build the human capacity in Africa.

Mpinganjira (2011) mentions the main benefits of intra-mobility in SADC, among them:

- human resources development where increasing human capital promotes economic growth;
- promoting social cultural development of students and staff: understanding other cultures, promoting international and institutional ties to establish partnerships;
- enhanced research production and university reputation;
- commercial benefits SADC HEIS with supply capacity can benefit from attracting full fee-paying international students which are non-SADC students.

On the light of the African perspectives above presented, I conclude that they do not necessarily clash with other perspectives already discussed, since both of them recognise that internationalisation does not offer a single model applicable to all contexts. Rather, its dynamics have different manifestations across regions, countries and institutions. In face of the shift from a cooperative approach to a more competitive one, African HEIs are propelled to deal with internationalisation, against a contextual analysis as to why embark on internationalisation and how it can contribute to improve the quality of higher education and development in Africa. Particularly, student mobility is seen as an important strategy to develop capacity-building and contribute to the socioeconomic context of the region.

After presenting different perspectives of internationalisation, it is now relevant to clarify the definitions of internationalisation and globalisation adopted in this study:

- **Globalisation** is as a worldwide phenomenon affecting all spheres of social life, including higher education. It tends to create more world convergence and interconnectedness but above all, competition between HEIs. This process triggers new
challenges to HEIs, whereby national states are pressured to become more pervasive, but by the same token, also open to new opportunities.

- **Internationalisation** means that nation states still play an important role through cooperation with foreign states. At the institutional level, this means that HEIs are not immune to external pressures, needing to accommodate and to adapt to the global environment. This process of adaption involves cooperating with similar institutions abroad. Nevertheless, HEIs are not passive and compliant in the process, but capable of displaying agency. This explains different strategies and approaches applied by different HEIs in the process. For operational purposes, internationalisation should be understood in the context of this study as being **cooperation between institutions** via formal agreements or arrangements. Under these agreements, institutions can send their own students abroad, or receive foreign students.

### 2.6 Internationalisation approaches

Knight (2004) describes an approach as “the values, priorities, and actions that are exhibited during the work toward implementing internationalisation [sic]” (p.18). Thus, Knight (2004, 2008) mentions four approaches used to describe the manner in which internationalisation is implemented at the institutional level, namely: a process approach, an activity approach, a competency approach and an ethos approach. The process approach is described as a set of activities, programmes and services (such as mobility, technical cooperation or curriculum). A competency approach looks at internationalisation as equivalent to the development of a set of new skills, attitudes and knowledge in students, faculty and staff (human dimension). Finally, the ethos approach relies on developing a culture in the university, which supports intercultural and international perspectives and initiatives. These approaches will be helpful to understanding how different actors in different HEIs describe internationalisation.

Table 4.2 summarises the four approaches proposed by Knight (2008).
Table 4.2 Internationalisation Approaches by Knight (2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internationalisation approaches</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activity approach</td>
<td>Internationalisation is described in terms of academic and extra-curricular activities (curricular development and innovation, scholar, student and faculty exchange, international students), excluding the organisational aspects necessary to start, maintain the activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency approach</td>
<td>Focus is on the human dimension (development of skills, attitudes and knowledge in students, faculty and staff).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethos approach</td>
<td>Aims at developing a culture or an ethos within the institution that supports intercultural or international perspectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process approach</td>
<td>Internationalisation is perceived as a process of integrating an international dimension into the main functions of the institution.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Knight (2008)

2.6.1 Rationales for internationalising

Rationales can be understood as the motivations or reasons for a country or an institution making efforts towards internationalisation (Knight, 2008). Several authors (Knight, 2008; Quiang, 2003) discuss the main arguments defended by different stakeholders at diverse levels for supporting internationalisation in higher education. Typically, there are four types of rationales: political, social/cultural, academic and economic.

The political rationale reflects the position of a country as a nation worldwide (Qiang, 2003). It is linked to issues of foreign policy, national security and peace.

According to Knight (2008), the cultural rationale is based on the idea that values such as national cultural identity, citizenship development, intercultural understanding and social community development should be preserved in the process of internationalisation. This means that although nations and HEIs should expand their cross-border activities, they should also be able to maintain their national character.

The academic rationale is directly linked to the mission and functions of higher education. Issues such as achieving international standards for teaching and research, enhancing the quality
of higher education and extending academic horizons, are generally the motives for internationalisation of HEIs. The underlying assumption is that internationalisation can greatly benefit HEIs and generate positive changes (Qiang, 2003).

Finally, the *economic rationale* emphasises the development of qualified human resources necessary to feed the labour demands, as well as increasing institutional income by offering education abroad or attracting international students. The economic rationale is strongly connected with economic growth and competitiveness, labour market and financial incentives. According to several authors (Knight, 2008; Qiang, 2003) there has been an increasing emphasis on economic rationales to the detriment of the other rationales.

Although the four types of rationales may complement one another, until the 1990s internationalisation was largely seen as a cooperative enterprise based on political, cultural and academic reasons. Nevertheless, from 1990s onwards, it seems that economic rationales became more dominant in the internationalisation of higher education (Knight, 2008, Qiang, 2003).

Table 5.2 shows a typology of rationales at the institutional level, developed by Knight (2008). It is clear that academic and economic rationales constitute the main motivations for internationalisation at the institutional level.

**Table 5.2 Types of Rationales for Internationalisation at the Institutional Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International branding and profile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality enhancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income generation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student and staff mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic alliances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge production</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Knight (2008)
2.7 How can mobile students be defined?

After presenting a discussion of the theoretical framework guiding this study, it is essential to clarify the concept of international mobility of students. The literature review indicates the existence of multiple terms associated with IMS. Terms such as ‘foreign students’, ‘exchange students’, ‘international students’ and ‘mobility of international students’ are but a few examples of such conceptual diversity.

Chien & Chiteng (2011) define internationally mobile students as those who “have crossed an international border and moved to another country (of which they are not citizens) with the objective to study” (p.4). This definition highlights the importance of student’s citizenship, as well as the physical cross-border movement to foreign countries.

In turn, Galalae & Voicu (2011) have defined international student mobility as “any form of international mobility which takes place within a student’s programme of study in higher education. The length of absence can range from a short trip to the full duration of a course of study” (p.48). According to this definition, the duration of stay abroad is also an important factor for defining mobility.

Furthermore, the Eurydice Report 2009-2012 also distinguishes mobility according to the period of duration, that is, according to the categories of long-term mobility and short-term mobility. While the former is aimed at acquiring a degree, the latter is related to a temporary stay abroad with the purpose of acquiring credits. According to the report, credit mobility may involve several activities, such as internships, research, summer schools among others.

Klementovichus (sd) cited by Bazhenova (2013) defines student mobility in higher education as “the exchange of students; sending the students for a full course of study to the universities of the partner countries; the exchange of trainees for preparing diploma projects and taking evaluation, production and pre-diploma practice; enrolment of graduates for training for master's degree or doctorate” (p.485). This kind of conceptualisation rather emphasises mobility, taking into account the different academic purposes attached to student mobility.

Bazhenova (2013) prefers to use the term academic mobility to refer to the same phenomenon. The author offers the following definition of academic mobility of students, describing them as
“studying the period of study in a country other than the country of student’s residence. This period is limited in time and involves a return home.” (p.484). This definition emphasises the expectation of students returning home after completion of studies. This is an important aspect, since ‘brain drain’ constitutes an important risk factor for developing countries. Besides these criteria, Bazhenova also calls for two kinds of mobility: physical (physical cross-border) and virtual (facilitated by ICT/ internet).

The OECD (2015) also makes an important conceptual distinction between international or mobile students, and foreign students. While the former refer to those who left their home country with the purpose of studying, foreign students are those who are not citizens of the country in which they are enrolled. Thus, the traditional criterion to define a foreign student is citizenship, while the international mobile student is defined according to additional criteria such as country of permanent residency and country of prior education.

The conceptual distinction between a foreign student and a mobile student poses significant problems regarding the statistical measurement of mobile students. The reasons pointed out are, for instance, the fact that not all foreign students may have moved for study purposes, since they may have already lived and studied in the country of study. Other students may also have moved to a foreign country, only to return to their country of citizenship. Due to this complexity, foreign students have been used as a weak proxy for a mobile student (Teichler, 2012; Wachter, 2014).

When it comes to international students, the main difficulty is to statistically capture the flows in the same moment as they occur. In principle, statistical data should be able to capture student movements in a given period of time, though mobility is a complex and dynamic process. Consequently, the concepts above presented do not perfectly capture the phenomenon they are accounting for, but should be considered as the best possible approximation for analytical purposes.

Furthermore, Teichler (2009) discusses two types of mobility, namely: ‘vertical’ mobility and ‘horizontal’ mobility. ‘Vertical’ mobility refers to the flow of students from a perceived low quality higher education system to a superior or better quality higher education system, while “horizontal” mobility involves exchanges between programmes of equal value, or what one may call intra-mobility. Thus, horizontal mobility reflects a trend towards the reinforcement of
regional cooperation. At the European level, the Bologna Declaration\textsuperscript{10} and exchange programmes such the ERASMUS programme\textsuperscript{11} explicitly promote student mobility among member states. In Africa, this phenomenon is also present (see for instance Chien & Chiteng, 2011; Kishun, 2008; Vincent-Lancrin, 2011) through, for instance, the Education and Training Protocol signed in 1997 by Southern Africa Development Community (SADC). Under this protocol, state members compromised to allocate at least 5\% of their enrolments to students coming from the same region. Similarly, the Bologna Process in Europe stipulated that 20\% of students from member states should have a study abroad period (Teichler, 2012).

Rather, according to Teichler (2009) ‘vertical’ mobility is attached to normative issues, that is, the perceived notions of quality of higher education systems, in which European and American systems are considered of higher quality; horizontal mobility expresses the political will of supporting harmonisation at the regional level via cooperation, tending towards equalisation of higher education systems.

Table 6.2, sums up the main criteria revealed by the literature to classify diverse types of mobility. It also shows the complexity inherent to defining a mobile student, given the existence of multiple criteria.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline
\textbf{Criteria} & \textbf{Types} & \textbf{Characteristics} \\
\hline
\textbf{Duration} & \textbf{Short-term}: credit mobility. Travelling abroad for a temporary period. & -Major form of mobility in Europe \\
 & \textbf{Exchange} involves inter-institutional agreements under which the number of both inbound and outbound students is equal. & -Up to a year \\
 & & -Students are enrolled in their home HEIs \\
 & & -Recognition of credits \\
 & & -Return home immediately after conclusion \\
 & & -Exchange, foreign language study, internship, summer schools, field work, international projects and \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{10}The Bologna Declaration was signed in 1999 and it envisioned the creation of a “European Higher Education Area” by 2010. Several measures such as a common system of degrees, a credit system and cooperation in quality assurance aimed at building a convergent higher education system (Teichler, 2012).  

\textsuperscript{11}One of the most prominent programmes, supporting short-term student mobility in Europe, established in 1987 (Teichler, 2012).
The different typologies presented are not fixed. Rather, they are interactive and allow for the simultaneous categorisations of different types of mobile students. However, it is important to stress that for the purposes of this study, both inbound and outbound students will be referred to as ‘international students’ or ‘mobile students’, given that both of them travel abroad for educational purposes.

2.8 Previous studies on the same topic

The International Association of Universities (IAU) has carried out at least four global surveys on internationalisation in 2003, 2005, 2010 and more recently in 2014. To become aware of the latest trends of internationalisation, it will be helpful to examine how the latest survey was conducted as well as the main results. Methodologically, the survey was carried out in 2013 and
enquired 1336 HEIs, over 131 countries aimed at providing primary data on internationalisation policy and practices in all regions of the world (IAU, 2014).

The findings of the survey revealed that:

- Internationalisation is becoming a central priority to HEIs. This idea is also shared by other scholars (De Witt, 2015; Knight, 2008), more than half of the HEIs enquired reported having in place an internationalisation strategy
- The majority of the HEIs pointed student mobility as the most important aspect of internationalisation
- Funding was indicated as the major obstacle to internationalisation

Veiga et al. (2006) analysed the degree and extent of internationalisation of six Portuguese HEIs by applying the Davies’ model. The results of the study showed that in terms of rationales, public HEIs are more oriented by cultural and academic motivations, while private HEIs are more guided by political and economic rationales.

These findings are relevant to the present study, since it investigates rationales among public and private universities. This issue directs the debate to the social roles public and private universities may play. The fact that private universities might be specially driven by economic rationales may indicate a tendency towards commodification, while public universities tend to remain as social institutions, emphasising academic and social functions. In terms of nature and importance of internationalisation process, the study concluded that Portuguese HEIs tend to adopt ad hoc strategies, based on reactive responses.

Another study was carried out by the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) in 2006, focusing internationalisation in 56 Canadian institutions. The results showed a growing interest in providing international experiences for students. Regarding the reasons for sending students abroad, the main ones mentioned were by order of importance: to develop global citizens, strengthen international understanding, develop international cultural awareness and skills, increase job skills and employability, enhance disciplinary expertise, and enhance quality of curriculum (AUCC, 2007). Towards the other extreme, the reasons for receiving foreign students was related to promoting an internationalised campus, generating revenue,
increase enrolment in specific programmes, increased institution profile, response to the needs of international students, and improvement of quality of applicants.

Another important aspect included in the survey is the support granted to student mobility. According to the universities surveyed, services provided involved activities of dissemination of information about the application process and expectations, logistical and moral support (both prior to departure and during the period abroad), and follow-up services. Regarding the services offered to foreign students, those most mentioned are the existence of counselling activities, orientation programmes after arrival, academic advising, international student clubs and international support offices. As can be seen, there is a marked tendency to create supporting services both to outbound students as well as to inbound students.

Finally, the study also tackled the main constraints facing student mobility. Regarding this issue, the survey showed that the major barriers are related to the following aspects: lack of financial support; low levels of awareness and commitment of faculty; students lacking language skills; lack of interest by students, and inadequate support services.

Nevertheless, until now, all the studies above cited refer mostly to European countries, whose higher education systems are differently shaped from the African ones. Both systems also operate in different contexts, whether from economic, political or social perspectives. This study therefore examines how Mozambican universities are dealing with the same aspects.

2.9 Models of internationalisation strategies

As noted previously, an important trend pointed out by several authors such as Knight (2008), and Teichler (2004) is the move from internationalisation activities being casuistic, to a more strategic and systematic approach in the 1990s. Teichler (2004) points at least three important aspects leading to a greater institutionalisation of internationalisation:

- the establishment of decision-making structures in HEIs, for coordinating international issues;
- the extension of services to accommodate the multiple aspects involved; and
the creation or extension of international offices.

This move from a casuistic approach to a more strategic approach was analysed by several authors (Davies, 1992; Rudzki, 1995 and Knight, 1994), who developed models to discuss and interpret internationalisation. Since these models include important aspects related to mobility, it is worth discussing them in order to devise an analytical model suitable for the purposes of this study.

2.9.1 Davies’ model

Davies (1992) developed an analytical model to evaluate the degree of institutionalisation of internationalisation strategy, and its implementation in HEIs. Figure 3.2, illustrates the four possible categorisations of HEIs according to the combination of activities carried out and the importance attributed to internationalisation.

**Figure 3.2 Davies' Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low(marginal)</th>
<th>Ad hoc</th>
<th>Systematic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ad hoc / marginal</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few foreign students. Academic cooperation is based on individual initiative, internationalisation is low in the institutional mission; There are few specialised personnel for the management of international affairs, and no incentives exist for engaging in co-operation.</td>
<td>International activities have a small scale, but they are well organised and coordinated. Operations are targeted; they coincide with institutional strengths and opportunities and are based on a conscious internationalisation strategy. Few institutional agreements but operational, supporting procedures are clear and relevant, small number of competent staff.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High (central)</th>
<th>Ad hoc/central</th>
<th>Systematic/central</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ad hoc/central</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant international activities, but not very focused. Several agreements but not operational, support services not sufficiently oriented to international effort. Ground rules change rapidly.</td>
<td>International activities are high in volume and are coherent. The international mission is explicit and guided by policies and supporting procedures; dedicated organisational structure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Davies (1992)
According to the author, HEIs can be placed in the following positions, depending on the degree of importance attributed to the internationalisation strategy: central or marginal. In terms of manner of implementation, it can be ad hoc (non-explicit and unstructured) or systematic (more explicit and systematic).

2.9.2 Rudzki’s model

Rudzki (1995) also built a model to analyse the internationalisation of HEIs, relying on four central dimensions: student mobility, staff development, curriculum innovation and organisational change. Adding the degree of importance, which cuts across the dimensions, Rudzki distinguished two inter-related modes of internationalisation: reactive and proactive. Figure 7.2 provides the modes proposed by Rudzki.

Each stage involves several steps in which HEIs evolve by expanding their degree of formalisation of agreements, and planning, respectively. In reactive mode, the first stage is when HEIs start by establishing links with their counterparts abroad. Then in the second stage, those links are formalised through agreements. In the third stage, central coordination of activities is attempted as a way to manage growing activities. In the fourth stage, there can be a conflict between staff and management, leading to the fifth stage, in which a more proactive approach is embraced.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.2 Modes of Internationalisation by Rudzki</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 1</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 4</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The proactive mode, in the other extreme, initiates in the first stage, understanding internationalisation from a strategic point. The second stage is featured by the formulation of a strategy through a strategic plan. The third stage addresses the implementation of the strategy, while the fourth stage is characterised by the assessment of the performance, where objectives are reviewed. Finally, in the fifth stage, objectives are redefined and possibly there is a move back to the reactive mode.

This model is useful in the sense that it adds up to Davies’ model. In essence, both models describe different progressive stages, ranging from a low degree of formalisation to a high degree of formalisation of strategies of internationalisation. The usefulness of these models is that they allow contrasting the degree of institutionalisation of internationalisation policies against practices in concrete HEIs. It also enables, from an analytical point of view, the categorisation of HEIs, taking into account the modes and stages above described.

However, the models of Davies and Rudzki have also limitations. The first one is that they are linear and prescriptive, in that they ignore political obligations and stakeholders interests as external influences (Hartert, 2007; Luijten-Lub, 2007).

### 2.9.3 Knight’s model

The last model to be presented was developed by Knight (1994) in an attempt to improve on models described above. Knight, (1994) criticised the previous models by arguing that they are highly prescriptive, static and linear. Instead, the author proposes a cyclical model, composed by six steps of internationalisation, namely: awareness, commitment, planning, implementation, review and reinforcement (Figure 4.2). As can be seen, the model developed by Knight (1994) firstly involves recognising the value of internationalisation. Then, this awareness is expressed
through the commitment and support of all stakeholders involved in academic community at the
institutional level, especially the administration. Next, there is a need to design a strategic plan
with clear objectives. The final stage is the implementation of the strategy, followed by the
analysis of the process, and finally, the acknowledgment of the support by all members. With
more detail, each of these stages will be briefly explained:

- **Awareness:** The first stage of the internationalisation process is acknowledging the
  importance of implementing internationalisation. According to Knight (1994), this can be
  achieved through discussions on the need, purpose and benefits of internationalisation for
  students, staff and faculty.

- **Commitment:** The second step in the process is to create commitment primarily by
  senior administration but above all from faculty and staff.

- **Planning** is the third step towards internationalisation. It implies establishing a
  comprehensive plan or strategy for the internationalisation of a HEI. At this stage,
  purposes and goals are clarified, as well as the reasons for internationalisation, the
  expected outcomes, the resources, and needs of the organisation. Also, the international
  dimension of the institution is clearly stated in the mission statement.

- **Operationalisation** is the following stage in the internationalisation cycle and it
  covers academic activities and services, organisational factors and guiding principles.

- **Review** is the next step, and it consists of assessing and continually enhancing the
  quality and impact of internationalisation in all its aspects.

- **Reinforcement** is the last step in the process. It deals with rewarding faculty and staff
  through incentives.
The virtue of the Knight’s model is that it includes a cyclical vision in a two-way flow of information as the author mentions (Knight, 1994). This allows an HEI to pursue the integration of international dimensions in their core functions at its own pace, and takes into account current challenges. For those reasons, I decided to adopt Knight’s model as a theoretical guidance to analyse the coordination and organisation of IMS in the four HEIs selected for the study.

Within the conceptual framework developed by Knight (2008), the author developed the concept of strategies to describe a more integrated and planned manner of performing activities aiming
for the integration of international dimensions in an HEI. Strategies cover programme and organisational initiatives at the institutional level as illustrated in Table 8.2.

**Table 8.2 Programme and Organisation Strategies Developed by Knight (2004)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme strategies</th>
<th>Academic programmes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Student exchange programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Foreign language study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• International students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Internationalised curricula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Area/thematic studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Work/study abroad</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Teaching/learning process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Joint/double degree programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Cross-cultural training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Faculty/staff mobility programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Visiting lecturers and scholar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Research and scholarly collaboration</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Area and theme centres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Joint research projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• International conferences and seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Published articles and papers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Institutional research agreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Research exchange programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>External relations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Domestic:</em> community-based partnerships with NGOs or public/private sectors, community service and intercultural project work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Cross-border:</em> international development assistance projects, cross-border delivery of education programmes; International linkages, partnerships and networks, contract-based training and research programmes and services; alumni abroad programmes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>|                      | <strong>Extracurricular</strong> |
|                      | • Student clubs and associations |
|                      | • International and intercultural campus events |
|                      | • Links with community and ethnic groups |
|                      | • Peer support groups and programmes |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational strategies</th>
<th>Governance</th>
<th>Operations</th>
<th>Services</th>
<th>Human resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Expressed commitment by senior leaders</td>
<td>• Integrated into institutional-wide and department, college level planning, budgeting and quality review systems</td>
<td>• Support service units (housing, registrar, fundraising, alumni, etc.)</td>
<td>• Recruitment, selection procedures that recognise international expertise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Active involvement of faculty and staff</td>
<td>• Appropriate organisational structures</td>
<td>• Involvement of academic support units</td>
<td>• Reward and promotion policies to faculty and staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Articulated rationale and goals for internationalisation</td>
<td>• Systems for communication, liaison and coordination (formal and informal)</td>
<td>• Student support services for incoming and outgoing students (orientation programmes, counselling, cross-cultural training, visa advice, etc.)</td>
<td>• Faculty and staff professional development activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Recognition of international dimension in institutional mission statements, planning and policy documents</td>
<td>• Balance between centralised and decentralised management of internationalisation</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Support for international assignments and sabbaticals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Knight (2004)

Given that the present study discusses the way in which HEIs coordinate and organise IMS, both program and organisation strategies developed by Knight (2004) were useful in determining the main dimensions to be analysed, as well as the indicators. Particularly, within programme strategies, solely the academic programmes will be examined. Regarding organisation aspects categories such as governance, operations and services will be applied. Table 9.2 illustrates the
aspects selected for analysis. Covering all the aspects would be time-consuming and would also go beyond the scope of this study and each category was chosen taking into account the purposes of this study.

Table 9.2 Dimensions Selected for Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program strategies</th>
<th>Academic programmes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Student exchange programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• International students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational aspects</td>
<td>Operations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Appropriate organisational structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Systems for communication, liaison and coordination (formal and informal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Support service units (housing, registrar, fundraising, alumni, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Student support services for incoming and outgoing students (orientation programmes, counselling, cross-cultural training, visa advice, etc.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER III

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In the previous section, I reviewed the literature on internationalisation as well as the theoretical framework adopted in the study. This chapter aims to describe the methodology, the unit of analysis, the type of data collection used, as well as the data analysis procedures applied in the study. The study was conducted in four HEIs, two public (UEM and UP), and two private (UCM and AP). These are considered leading HEIs in terms of public/private sectors, constituting the largest and oldest institutions. The research was conducted from February 2014, until January 2015.

3.1 Research approach

For the purposes of this study, I adopted a qualitative approach. I considered the adoption of this type of approach to be more appropriate, given the objective of the research: to explore how four Mozambican universities deal with international mobility of students in the context of internationalisation?

The characteristics of the study follow the features of a qualitative approach as proposed by Bryman (2008, p.22), where:

- qualitative research proposes to study how people interpret their own experiences and what meanings they attribute to those experiences; and
- no statistical techniques were used to make statistical inferences or establish validity.

I followed a qualitative approach given the nature and objectives of the study, namely:

- it is an exploratory study aiming at gaining an insight of the way in which IMS is coordinated and organised; and
- it seeks to understand the perspectives of different stakeholders in HEIs approached.
3.2 Case study

For the purposes mentioned above, I selected multiple case studies. The main characteristics of the study fit into the fundamental characteristics of a case study described by Yin (2009), namely: in-depth investigation of a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context; the type of research questions “why” and “how” are more frequent, and the researcher has a limited or no control over the events under investigation. Thus, the main rationale for adopting a case study is linked to the nature of the questions posed by the research (fundamentally “how” questions).

3.3 External validity

One of the major concerns regarding the use of case studies is the extent to which the same methodological procedures can be applied to other settings with the same results. The possibility of generalisation from a single case has been subject to a high level of suspicion as a rigorous method. For that reason, case studies are sometimes not acknowledged as a reliable formal research strategy.

Yin (2009) argues that case studies “are generalisable to theoretical propositions and not to populations or universes” (p.10). Thus, external validity in this study should be restricted to analytical generalisations as I do not intend to generalise the results of the four HEIs investigated to all Mozambican HEIs. The main reason guiding this assumption is of a theoretical nature, that is, all institutions differ from each other in terms of legal status, institutional culture and history. Consequently, different reactions should be expected regarding the variables used in the study. However, the results may provide an indication for possible reactions of similar institutions, under similar conditions.

3.4 Selection of participants

The selection of participants occurred at two levels: at the institutional level, and secondly at the individual level (members of the universities across several levels). The choice of the four universities was entirely purposeful, according to the following criteria:
☑ **Time of existence**: the study attempted to cover the oldest HEIs, both public and private that also absorb a relevant portion of student population in Mozambique. The rationale was the possibility of collecting accounts, historical information and archival records on student mobility that could enable a comparison between them;

☑ **IMS practices**: prior knowledge of academic mobility occurring in these HEIs also influenced the choice of participant HEIs;

☑ **Legal status**: the distinction between private and public was intentional and aimed at introducing a differential element following the literature review, which identified different trends for different types of HEIs.

At the individual level, the selection of informants was primarily determined by the availability of the different stakeholders in taking part in the study on a purposeful basis except students. Therefore, individuals or departments previously known being involved with mobility and internationalisation were contacted and requested for an interview schedule.

**3.5 Data collection**

In order to investigate the topic proposed, the research gathered information from multiple sources:

1) documents (such as strategic plans, operational plans, annual reports and archival data);

2) websites of the HEIs;

3) in-depth interviews;

4) self-completed questionnaires.

**3.5.1 Documents**

The first method for collecting information consisted in the review of institutional or official documents such as strategic plans, operational plans and annual reports as well as unpublished documents. The intention of analysing this type of documents was first of all, to gather sufficient knowledge on the existence of any formal references to terms or notions, whether implicitly or
explicitly linked to the fundamental concepts applied in this study, namely: student mobility, internationalisation, and globalisation.

Secondly, the analysis also aimed at studying the meaning of those terms in the context of institutional mission statements, in order to assess how the terms are articulated with the purposes of the institution. Thirdly, the document analysis attempted to establish and study the existence of formal policies or any regulations and guidelines regarding internationalisation and IMS in the HEIs. Finally, documents also provided generic information about the HEIs under study (the history of their origins, how HEIs are organised in terms of faculties, schools and administrative structures).

Thus, although the four institutions were requested to provide the same formal documents, such as strategic plans, operational plans, annual reports, archival data and any other relevant documents to the study, not all of them have provided the documents requested. For instance, in UEM, the strategic plan and operational plan are documents of public domain that were accessed in printed form or electronically on the internet. Whereas the Annual Report of the Cooperation Office was not readily available, and it was solely provided upon formal request.

Rather, in the case of UP the strategic plan was the only available document online and the institution did not provide any other documents that could illuminate the questions raised by the study. Regarding AP, none official documents were provided except a brochure containing the mission and vision statements of the university, the courses offered, and organizational aspects, both in printed as well as in electronic versions. AP also provided a list of memoranda of understanding with foreign partners. As for UCM, none type of document was provided. In this case, the data basically relied on the institutional website as well as the questionnaires sent to the institution. Despite the unevenness of documents provided, all the institutional websites were accessed to enrich the data collected.

3.5.2 Interviews and questionnaires

Since it is not possible to directly capture the institutions’ perceptions, its participants emerge as the lens through which the institutions express themselves. Thus, in order to find out how student mobility is perceived, and why institutions send/receive students in the context of
internationalisation, it was useful to consider the opinions and views of several participants of HEIs.

As Luijten-Lub (2007) reminds us, the main participants of a university belong to the administration and management, academic staff, support staff and students. Taking into account this consideration, four groups of participants were targeted to take part in this study, namely: administrators, lecturers, support staff from international offices and students. It is important to note that administrators include deans of faculties and directors of central organs; while support staff covers both the employees of international offices as well as manager positions (office managers or programme managers).

3.5.3 In-depth interviews

The interviews aimed at gaining insight into the perceptions of administrators of HEIs and managers of international offices regarding ISM, the priority ascribed to ISM at the institutional level, the organisational strategies applied and also the benefits and risks of ISM. It is important to clarify that the managers of international offices interviewed do not refer to the directors, who are the top leaders of international offices. Thus, managers of international offices may refer to managers of programmes seated within these offices, or to managers of mobility. As for administrators the group of interviewees was composed by deans of faculties and directors of central organs (registrar).

For that purpose, an interview guide composed of open questions was developed for administrators and managers of international relations offices (see Appendix 1). The questions were specifically useful to probe on the perceptions on the importance, motivations, risks and benefits of ISM. This kind of questions gave room to explore the topics with less limitations and it also offered the respondents the opportunity to freely express themselves. For the purposes of this study, 15 respondents of the four HEIs were available for interviews (see Table 10.3).
Table 10.3 Distribution of Interviews per Position in the Four HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEI</th>
<th>Administrators</th>
<th>Managers of international offices</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UEM</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UP</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A P</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCM</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The content of the questions privileged the following aspects:

1) importance, benefits and obstacles of internationalisation in the context of the institution;
2) existence of formal internationalisation policies, including academic mobility; and
3) conceptualisation, benefits and obstacles of IMS.

In terms of procedures, the interviewees were previously contacted and requested for the interviews. After confirmation of acceptance received telephonically, the interviews were conducted face-to-face, according to the place and time indicated by the interviewees. Generally, the interviews were carried out in the offices of the informants and they lasted approximately forty-five minutes to an hour. In some cases, especially in international offices, I paid more than one visit to managers to clarify certain issues. Additionally, the interviewees also provided their e-mails and telephone numbers for eventual clarification of specific questions.

The interviews were, in all cases, preceded by the introduction of the researcher, the explanation of the objectives of the research, its importance, the kind of information to be collected, and the reasons for the selection of the respondent. The respondents were also assured that their responses would be treated anonymously. In terms of recording answers, from the 14 interviews, only two were tape-recorded, while for the remaining respondents, replies were written down on paper. The decision for not using recording devices was that they have occurred in such an informal environment that I felt that recording might, in a way or another, put the interview at risk, given the rapport already established between myself and the interviewees.
3.5.4 Self-completed questionnaires for lecturers, support staff and students

Three specific questionnaires containing both open and structured questions were designed to be applied respectively to lecturers, support staff and students of the four HEIs (see Appendix 1). In essence, all the questionnaires contained the same topics, except for one specific section, exclusively related to each group. All the questionnaires were piloted for inconsistencies and misunderstandings. At least three questionnaires of each group were distributed for trial. After identifying sources of possible confusion or misunderstandings, the required changes were undertaken in order to improve the questionnaires.

Self-completion questionnaires for students

The questionnaires completed by 20 students (five students per HEI) contained both structured as well as open questions. In terms of gender, from the 20 students enquired, 12 were female and eight were male. Regarding age groups, 10 students belong to age group of 24-34 years; eight students belong to the age group 35-45, while two students were 35 years old and older. It is necessary to make clear what criteria influenced the choice of the students involved in this study.

Firstly, neither gender nor age influenced the respondents’ selection. Secondly, students enrolled in Year 1 and 2 were purposely excluded from the study, based on the rationale that they would not have been sufficiently familiar or exposed to the issues dealt with in this study, where including their views might result in some bias to the study. Thirdly, courses also played an important role, as I decided to explore the perspectives of diverse disciplines and attempted to cover disciplines from social sciences and engineering. Thus, the choice of students by courses was oriented by the following terms: in UEM I choose the Faculty of Engineering and the Faculty of Social Sciences as locations to randomly find students; in UP I also randomly looked for students from the Faculty of Social Sciences and the Faculty of Natural Sciences and Mathematics. Regarding AP, only the Higher School of Management, Science and Technology was targeted given that it includes courses from both engineering and social sciences field. Finally in UCM, given that the campus is not located in Maputo where the other HEIs are located, I was able to contact students from the Faculty of Engineering includes some courses of the social science field.
In terms of year attendance, from the 20 students asked to participate, 16 were attending Year 3 in different courses, while on the other extreme four students were attending Year Four.

Regarding the field of study, four were enrolled in economics, 12 in social science courses, and four in engineering courses. All the students enquired were enrolled in day courses and all of them were attending honours degree courses (licenciatura).

The questionnaires covered the following five categories:

1) socio-demographic profile;
2) perception of internationalisation;
3) perception of international mobility of students;
4) degree of availability of information on mobility opportunities; and
5) application to mobility opportunities.

In terms of procedures, students were purposely contacted in person in their HEIs, where they were asked to complete the questionnaires. The contact with the students was firstly characterised by the introduction of the researcher, the explanation of the objectives of the research, and also the guarantee of anonymity. The questionnaires were collected immediately after being completed, on the same day.

Self-completion questionnaires for lecturers

A specific questionnaire containing both open and structured questions was applied to 16 lecturers of the four HEIs (four in each HEI). In terms of gender, five were female and 11 were male. Regarding age, the average participant ages ranged from 34-47 years of age. Regarding the field of teaching, from the 16 lecturers enquired, two taught engineering courses, and 14 in social science courses. The selection of lecturers was significantly influenced by the availability of lecturers, in the same faculties where students were chosen.
The questionnaires contained five categories:

1) socio-demographic profile;
2) perception of internationalisation;
2) perception of international mobility of students; and
3) international experience.

In terms of procedures, the lecturers were contacted in person in their HEIs, where they were asked to complete the questionnaires. The contact with the lecturers was firstly characterised by the introduction of the researcher, the explanation of the objectives of the research and also the guarantee of anonymity. From the 11 questionnaires distributed, all of them were returned within one to two weeks.

*Self-completion questionnaires for the support staff of international relations offices*

A third questionnaire was created to capture the perceptions of staff of international relations offices. However, it is important to note that only the staff from the international relations office of UEM actually completed the questionnaires, since the remaining HEIs do not have extended personnel, other than managers. From the eight questionnaires sent, at least half of them were returned duly completed. The questionnaire contained issues related to the following aspects: 1) socio-demographic and professional profile; 2) international experience; and 2) perception of international mobility of students.

In terms of procedures, staff members were contacted through the international relations offices in HEIs, where they were asked to complete the questionnaires. I was introduced to staff members by a manager, followed by the explanation of the objectives of the research, as well as the guarantee of anonymity. I left the questionnaires to be completed by staff members. After a week, the questionnaires were collected for analysis. Table 11.3 illustrates the distribution of questionnaires by lecturers, students and staff of international relations office.
### Table 11.3 Distribution of Questionnaires per Lecturers, Students and Staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEI</th>
<th>Lecturers</th>
<th>Support staff</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UEM</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UP</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCM</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12.3 presents the distribution of all the participants in this study, by position and also by HEI. Overall, 54 participants voluntarily took part in this study. All in all, the number of students and lecturers was equal in the four HEIs, while the number of administrators enquired in UEM was higher than in the remaining HEIs. Regarding support staff of international offices, only UEM personnel were questioned. It is noteworthy to observe that in UCM only one administrator was available for an interview.

### Table 12.3 Distribution of all Participants According to Position and HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers of int. Offices</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support staff</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 3.5.5 Websites of HEIs

The questions that guided the analysis of institutional websites are similar to those that guided the document analysis. More specifically, institutional websites allowed me to retrieve the following information:
• General information about the institution (history, organisation, departments)
• Mission, objectives and vision

3.6 Data analysis

3.6.1 Documents

The documents collected were analysed through basic content analysis. This method of textual analysis consisted of examining content at two levels: on the one hand, the analysis of thematic issues directly related to the indicators established for the objectives of the present study. On the other hand, after identifying relevant excerpts, phrases or paragraphs of interest, I analysed them in terms of frequency of key words, as well as the context in which they appeared. The next step was to examine the context on the light of the analytical framework guiding this study.

On the other hand, I attempted to explore the meanings of the content by trying to unveil significant values and meanings, according to the indicators established. The main documents explored were strategic plans and mission statement for public HEIs, whereas for private HEIs, this information was retrieved from their websites. As mentioned before, only two HEIs had strategic plans available, while mission statements were available mainly online.

3.6.2 In-depth interviews

After the transcription of interviews, they were read at least two times in order to gain a general idea of the information contained. In a third time, some excerpts of the interviews were underlined, and notes taken. Thus, the excerpts were coded according to key themes/concepts, words or phrases that related to key themes addressed in the literature review: globalisation, internationalisation, international mobility of students, organisation, support services, statistical data communication and strategy. After that, the excerpts were reinterpreted according to the analytical framework guiding this study.
3.7 Ethical considerations

Ethical concerns respecting the privacy and maintaining the anonymity of the identity of interviewed people. In this study, I placed all effort into avoiding the identification of participants. Furthermore, during the interviews, participants were assured that all the information provided by them would be used solely for the purposes as stated in this study. They were also assured that their identity would remain unrecognised through their cited discourses.
CHAPTER IV

4. DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Case studies: Eduardo Mondlane University, Pedagogic University, A Politecnica and Catholic University

This chapter presents the main research findings as the result of document analysis, in-depth interviews and questionnaires in the four Mozambican HEIs selected for this study. It addresses IMS from the perspectives of administrators, lecturers, domestic students, staff and managers of international offices. It also discusses the way in which IMS is structured, managed and regulated in each HEI. An attempt to present statistical data was also undertaken, although only two of the four HEIs have provided this type of data.

Table 13.3 below provides preliminary information about the size and structure of the universities involved in the research. It can be noted that both UEM and UP, which are public universities, are relatively older and larger than the UCM and AP, which are private universities. Furthermore, public universities absorb more students than the private ones.

Table 13. 3 Brief Description of the Four HEIs Studied

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of HEI</th>
<th>Year of creation and main campus</th>
<th>Nr. Faculties/schools</th>
<th>Nr. students (approximate)</th>
<th>Nr. lecturers</th>
<th>full-time foreign lecturers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UEM</td>
<td>1962, Maputo</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27250</td>
<td>1107</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UP</td>
<td>1985, Maputo</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>45000</td>
<td>1140</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCM</td>
<td>1995, Beira</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9038</td>
<td>778</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>1995, Maputo</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4000</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Education of Mozambique (2012)
4.1.1 Eduardo Mondlane University

UEM was the first public university established in Mozambique by the Portuguese government, in 1962. It was originally created under the name Estudos Gerais Universitários de Moçambique (General University Studies) -EGUM. The institution was created to replicate the Portuguese higher education system, mainly to provide education for the children of the Portuguese. This meant that the majority of black Mozambican population experienced restricted access to higher education (Langa, 2013; Mário et al. 2003; Taimo, 2010)

In 1968, EGUM was upgraded to the status of university, under the name of Lourenço Marques University. From 1976 onwards, the University of Lourenço Marques was renamed Eduardo Mondlane University. Until 1985, UEM remained the sole HEI in Mozambique, when two more public HEIs were established (UP and Higher Institute of International Relations). UEM’s main campus is located in Maputo, but it is also currently established in other provinces of Mozambique through schools and institutes in Gaza, Inhambane, Manica and Zambezia (Langa, 2013).

In UEM, cooperation with foreign countries is not a new phenomenon. For instance, Swedish support to UEM began in 1978\textsuperscript{12} through Sida, and later on SAREC, and still remains the larger cooperation partner of UEM.\textsuperscript{13} Another aspect that should be highlighted is that immediately after the independence, a significant number of Portuguese lecturers left the country, creating a gap of teaching staff. At the time, UEM decided to seek out foreign lecturers, mainly from socialist countries, to cover immediate needs (Mário et al., op.cit). It seems that it was during this decade that academic mobility became more prominent, as many Mozambican students were sent abroad to be trained especially in socialist countries, such as East Germany, the Soviet Union, Cuba, China, Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria (Da Costa, 2009; Langa, 2013; Mário et al., 2003).

Until 2013, UEM had signed about 36 agreements with several countries (at inter-governmental and inter-institutional levels (Annual Report of the Cooperation Office, 2014). In terms of mobility programmes, the following ones are noteworthy to mention: CARIBU, DREAM (Dedicated Research Exchange and Mentorship), Linneaus Palme, CAPES/AULP (Coordenação

\textsuperscript{12} Sida/SAREC (2003)

\textsuperscript{13} FLCS, 2011.
de Aperfeiçoamento Pessoal de Nível Superior), DESAFIO (Development Programme in Reproductive Health, HIV/AIDS and Family Matters).\textsuperscript{14} It will be useful to look at some of these programmes in a more detailed manner, in order to understand the objectives of the mobility schemes promoted.

CARIBU is part of the Erasmus Mundus programme. It is a partnership between eight European universities (from Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Poland, Portugal, Romania), and countries from the ACP region (Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda, Mozambique, Gambia, Ghana, the Bahamas, Suriname, Timor-Leste and Samoa). In Mozambique, UEM is a member of the consortium of the ACP region. It aims at increasing academic mobility, research and capacity building opportunities through the offer of scholarships for Masters, doctoral students, as well as academic and administrative staff.\textsuperscript{15}

CAPES, another mobility programme in which UEM is involved, is a Brazilian governmental agency that promotes an international programme for supporting research and teaching through the international mobility of teachers and students (Pró-Mobilidade Internacional). The programme offers exchange opportunities and scholarships for both students and teachers from member universities of the Association of the Universities of Portuguese Language (AULP), after the approval of submitted projects.

DESAFIO is a cooperation programme between four Flemish universities (Belgium) and UEM. It focuses on the institutional capacity building of UEM in teaching, research and services through a focal theme “Reproductive Health and HIV”. This programme offers scholarships for master’s and doctoral students to Belgium and South Africa.

Table 14.3, illustrates the mission, vision and values pursued by UEM.

\textsuperscript{14}Information obtained during a personal interview with a coordinator of the GC at UEM, August 13, 2014.

\textsuperscript{15} http://www.caribu.be/the-project/about-project-caribu/, accessed on 10 April, 2015.
Table 14.3 Mission, Vision and Values of UEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UEM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mission</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vision</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Values</strong>¹⁶</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UEM Strategic plan 2008-2014

4.1.2 Pedagogic University

The Pedagogic University was the second Mozambican public university, firstly established in 1985, under the name of Instituto Superior Pedagógico (Higher Pedagogical Institute) –ISP. The main purpose of its foundation was training teachers and boards of education for secondary education. In 1985, ISP was renamed as Pedagogic University (Universidade Pedagógica). Although the main campus is located in Maputo, UP is also represented in all the provinces of Mozambique, through its delegations. In 2010, the majority of students at UP was composed by teachers of primary and secondary education (UP Strategic Plan, 2010).

In terms of international cooperation, UP –in a way similar to the UEM – has a tradition of establishing relationships with other countries since its foundation. Initially, for the functioning of the faculties UP relied on foreign lecturers, mainly from England, where for technical courses, lecturers came from Germany and Russia. Portugal and France were also major partners during this period, assisting in courses related to language training (English, Portuguese and French courses).¹⁷

¹⁶ Only the values pertinent to the study will be mentioned.

¹⁷ Information obtained during a personal interview with a manager of the International Relations Office at UP, September 08, 2014
UP still maintains cooperation ties with diverse countries. For instance, Brazil, Cape Verde, Kenya, Madagascar, Guinea, Vietnam, India, Portugal, Canada, USA, Australia, Germany, France, Italy, Spain, UK, Angola and Malawi are countries with which UP has signed agreements (UP Strategic Plan, 2010).

Several activities are carried out under cooperation at UP. For instance, the participation of UP lecturers in conferences and international seminars, the reception of foreign lecturers to teach in post-graduation courses, as well as scientific events at UP, with the participation of foreign researchers and academics (UP strategic Plan, 2010). Figure 15.3 describes the aspirations of UP in terms of mission, vision and values.

**Table 15.3 Mission, Vision and Values of UP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mission</strong></td>
<td>UP is a vocational teaching institution with the mission of providing higher education for teachers of all levels of education, and other professionals of educational related areas, research and service to society. In this context, UP strives for universalisation and regionalisation, besides its instrumental function in the production and dissemination of knowledge, for the transformation of Mozambican society towards social, cultural and technological development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vision</strong></td>
<td>To become a higher education institution of reference in Mozambique, providing quality teaching, research and service to society, integrated in curricula structured in regional and international patterns, with a modern and sufficient physical and laboratorial infrastructure and functioning with collegial, transparent and modern management patterns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Values</strong></td>
<td>Autonomy, freedom and democracy, excellence, trust, locality, social responsibility, justice and equity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** UP Strategic Plan (2010)

**4.1.3 A Politécnica**

AP is a private institution first established in 1995, under the name of Instituto Superior Politécnico e Universitário (Higher Polytechnic and University Institute) or ISPU. In 2007, it was renamed as Polytechnic University, known as AP. The establishment of this university was
linked to the emergence of private HEIs in Mozambique, under the Law 1/93. The main campus is located in Maputo, but has also delegations in Zambézia, Nampula and Tete.\textsuperscript{18}

In terms of cooperation, AP is involved with partner institutions abroad, through several memoranda. The main objectives of memoranda are faculty and student mobility and research projects. The main partner countries of AP regarding memoranda of understanding are Portugal and Brazil.\textsuperscript{19} Table 16.3, illustrates the mission, vision and values of UP.

**Table 16.3 Mission, Vision and Values of AP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mission</strong></td>
<td>- To strengthen the patriotic feeling;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- to critically intervene in the analysis and debate of matters of public concern at the national and international level; and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- to contribute to the elimination of asymmetries in national development namely through promoting access of citizens to education and training.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Vision</strong></td>
<td>As a future strategy to develop national, regional and international exchange in order to assure scientific and technological production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Values</strong></td>
<td>Humanism, rigour and professionalism.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: www.apolitecnica.ac.mz

**4.1.4 Catholic University of Mozambique**

The Catholic University of Mozambique was officially created in 1995 by the Conferência Episcopal, as a private institution of a religious nature (Estatutos da UCM). Similarly to AP, the establishment of this HEI was only made possible after the legalisation of private HEIs under the Law 1/93. Its main campus is located in Beira, but there are also delegations in Nampula, Cabo Delgado, Tete, Zambézia, Manica and Niassa. In the cooperation domain, UCM maintains ties with universities in several countries such as Germany, USA, Italy, UK, Portugal, Spain, Belgium and Brazil. Table 17.3 below illustrates the mission, vision and values of UCM.

\textsuperscript{18}Based on an institutional brochure provided by AP

\textsuperscript{19}According to the list of memoranda provided by AP
As can be seen, all the HEIs selected are somehow engaged in cooperation activities with foreign countries worldwide, ranging from institutional development, academic mobility to research.

Looking at the cooperation partners of both HEIs, it can be said that public HEIs have more partners than do private ones. The long tradition of cooperation and the fact that public HEIs are older and larger in size and structure may partially contribute to the unevenness of cooperation frameworks. Nevertheless, it is in the context of international cooperation that IMS takes place. It is within the agreements signed with foreign countries and/or counterpart HEIs that the possibility is open to students to participate in several types of mobility, including scholarships, exchange, research networks and other international events.

After briefly presenting the main characteristics of the four HEIs selected for this study, this chapter moves on to discussing how IMS is coordinated and organised in each of the four HEIs. Table 18.3 illustrates the dimensions that guided the collection and analysis of data. The dimensions are three fold: academic programmes, administrative organisation and support services and perceptions of stakeholders.
### Table 18.3 Summary of Dimensions and Indicators of Research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Programmes</th>
<th>-Student exchange programmes</th>
<th>-Number of outbound students (per destination, field of study and degree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-International students</td>
<td>Number of inbound students (per destination, field of study and degree)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative organisation and support services</td>
<td>-Function</td>
<td>-Who is responsible?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Strategic planning</td>
<td>-Mission, objectives, plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Dissemination of mobility opportunities</td>
<td>-Means, channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Services offered to support mobility of students</td>
<td>-Orientation programmes (pre-departure) for domestic students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Orientation programmes (pre-departure) for foreign students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Housing, counselling, transport, visa advice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of stakeholders</td>
<td>-Comprehension of internationalisation</td>
<td>How they define internationalisation?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Comprehension of IMS</td>
<td>How mobility is defined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Advantages of mobility</td>
<td>Perceived advantages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Obstacles to mobility</td>
<td>Perceived obstacles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: De Witt and Knight (1994)

### 4.2 Administrative organisation and support services

The study revealed that from the four HEIs researched, three of them (UEM, UP and AP) have a specific department formally responsible for coordinating activities related to IMS, while UCM does not have a unit dedicated to the management of IMS. However, a deeper analysis revealed the organisation and management of IMS to be structured differently across the four HEIs. For that reason, the configuration of the administrative organisation and support services in place in each HEI will be described below in more detail.

The administrative organisation and support services include the following dimensions: function and coordination of activities; strategic planning; dissemination of mobility opportunities; and finally, the support services provided for both outbound and inbound students. As a matter of simplification, and given the variety of designations in each HEI, the different units dedicated to the international mobility of students will be collectively treated as international offices (IOs), except when referred to individually.
4.2.1 Function and coordination of activities

4.2.1.1 Coordination of international mobility of students in UEM

The body formally responsible for IMS at UEM is designated as Gabinete de Cooperação-GC (Cooperation Office), which is a central administration organ reporting directly to the Rector. The office was established in 2010, after the extinguishing of the Public Relations Office and the Unit for Coordination of Donors. The main responsibilities of the GC include, amongst others: to propose to the Rector the policy of national and international cooperation; to coordinate the implementation of agreements and cooperation programmes; and to organise a database on national and international cooperation and keep updated statistical information. Regarding IMS, the GC mobilises national and international partnerships, including the management of exchange programs and scholarships for full-degree mobility abroad.20

In terms of organisational structure, the GC integrates a director coordinating several departments and sections. Departments specifically dealing with cooperation are organised according to geographical areas: cooperation with Mozambique and Africa; cooperation with America and Asia; and cooperation with Europe, and Oceania.21 Each of these departments may deal with several general cooperation programmes and specific mobility schemes. Some of the programmes are managed by programme managers of the GC in coordination with their counterparts abroad, in accordance with specific guidelines involved in each programme.

In terms of personnel, the GC is composed of 23 employees, although only three people are fully dedicated to mobility issues.22

In that which pertains to IMS, the GC coordinates its activities with several units across the institution, from the central ones to the organic units (faculties and schools). The articulation is mainly done through focal points, which are persons of contact in each of the units/faculties/schools, specifically designated for that purpose. Usually, the focal points also occupy management positions in their respective units/faculties (such as deans of faculty, deputy

22 Information provided by the GC.
deans of faculty, and directors of research and extension or post-graduation directors). The main tasks of the focal points are essentially to provide the GC with information on the international mobility of students, faculty and staff, including statistical data. They are also responsible for disseminating information on mobility opportunities in their respective faculties.

Another central structure, with which the GC closely coordinates IMS issues, is the Directorate of Academic Registry (DRA). DRA deals with the academic life of students, with a focus on the management of registration of both nationals as well as foreign students in UEM. For that reason, DRA is usually involved in processing registration of foreign students and data regarding foreign students enrolled in the UEM. This data is subsequently shared with the GC.

However, during the interviews with administrators and managers of the GC and DRA, they mentioned that several times foreign students seek the assistance of the DRA for issues that are usually managed by the GC, such as visa advice and the other formal aspects of exchange programmes. This might be an indication that either foreign students are not sufficiently clear on whom to contact at UEM, have little knowledge regarding the structure of UEM and its facilities, or that specific responsibilities of both DRA and GC are not clear enough. However, the interviewees argued that foreign students are re-oriented to go to the adequate organ according to their specific needs.

### 4.2.1.2 Coordination of international mobility of students in UP

UP, another HEI selected for this study established an organ officially responsible for the management of IMS, designated Gabinete de Relações Internacionais (International Relations Office) or GRI. The office was originally established in 1985, under the name International Relations Directorate. Later on, it changed to International Relations Assistance, and finally in 2007, it was renamed as the International Relations Office. GRI is a central organ, reporting

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23 Information obtained during a personal interview with a GC Manager at UEM, June 17, 2014

24 According to a DRA Manager of UEM, DRA is also being restructured in order to accommodate new demands imposed by the internationalisation in UEM. In that context, GC and DRA are working on the creation of a student affairs department within the DRA. The department referred to is expected to include a repartition, dedicated to academic exchange, and aiming to improve support services for both inbound and outbound students. However, this information could not be corroborated with further sources.

25 Information obtained during a personal communication with a coordinator of the GRI at UP, July 04, 2015.
directly to the rector. The main function of this office is to advise, coordinate, promote and follow up activities linked to the internationalisation of the university.26

These activities include, among others: assisting the Rector, supporting teaching staff, technical and administrative staff, researchers and students who participate in international mobility, supporting the elaboration and review of contracts, agreements and memoranda of understanding and disseminating scholarships.27

In terms of internal structure, GRI is managed by a director, who coordinates the activities with four more staff. During the interviews, it was mentioned by the managers of GRI that so far, no departments have been created, because GRI is composed of a relatively small number of personnel. Rather, the structure of the office is composed by a director, two managers organised according to the direction of mobility: inbound and outbound; and two other administrative officers.28 GRI coordinates its activities with faculties, since it is at the faculty level where students can be reached. The information on IMS is received by the GRI from its foreign partners and donors, and then sent to the faculties for dissemination. Each faculty and delegation29 has a person designated to coordinate the promotion of opportunities in their respective faculties. According to a manager of GRI, the role of the GC is simply to coordinate mobility activities, whereas it is at the faculty levels that operationalisation occurs.

In terms of coordination with other organs within UP, besides the faculties, the GC also works in collaboration with the Directorate of Academic Registrar, in a way similar to the UEM. The reasons are the same as mentioned in the case of the UEM, where the academic registrar is responsible for processing the registration of foreign students serves as a source of information regarding these students. In that sense, I was advised to contact DRA to obtain statistical information on foreign students.

28Information provided by GRI managers during the interviews.
29Delegations are located in several provinces across the country.
At this point, a comparison should be made between the UEM and the UP, where in both HEIs, there are specific units dealing with IMS, although they are not exclusively dedicated to IMS. Rather, the offices in question deal with cooperation with national as well as international counterparts. It is important to note that cooperation activities also involve other dimensions besides academic mobility, such as for instance, capacity building, research and other aspects. Then, IMS makes part or is a consequence of cooperation activities developing between these HEIs, and their counterparts abroad.

Regarding coordination, on the one hand, the international offices in both UEM and UP are centrally coordinated, since both of them report directly to the Rectors, a fact which might indicate the importance attributed to those organs as contact points for all international activities carried out by these HEIs. On the other hand, on both HEIs, there is also a sharing of responsibilities to other organs, especially with the faculties. The rationale seems to be linked with several reasons, including the fact that information can be more effectively channelled to students in their own faculties. The other reason is that decentralising services may improve coordination of activities, in the sense that information on IMS can be directly collected at the faculty level and then sent to international offices, saving both resources and time. However, the interviews indicated that this type of coordination although advantageous, can pose some problems regarding the collection of data on IMS. This issue will be approached in detail in the section dedicated to the availability of statistical data on the four HEIs.

Another aspect which deserves attention is the size and organisation of the international offices in UEM and UP, which differ. While the number of personnel at the UEM (23) is higher than it is at UP (five), the number of people directly involved in mobility activities in both HEIs is similar (about four). This means that at the UEM, the majority of staff is linked to cooperation activities in general, while another portion is dedicated to the IMS. Rather, in UP, the relatively small number of staff (four people) of the international office deals with both management of cooperation and IMS.

As for organisational structure, the composition of international offices is made up of similar functions and responsibilities, although UEM displays more departmentalisation within its international office than UP. In terms of organisation of mobility, while in the UEM activities revolve around geographical areas, in the UP it is organised according to the direction: inbound
and outbound movements, regardless of regions. Globally, the UEM seems to have a more complex and structured, unit carrying out cooperation and academic mobility activities.

4.2.1.3 Coordination of international mobility of students in AP

I will now turn to AP as a private HEI, in order to bring an insight of how mobility is coordinated and structured. The AP manages its cooperation activities including academic mobility through a central organ, called the Unidade de Extensão e Cooperação Universitária (UECU) or Office of Extension and University Cooperation. UECU was created in 2010 to coordinate cooperation activities. Before that period, all activities linked to cooperation and mobility were treated at the faculties, integrated in other student affairs. The competences of UECU involve several activities of cooperation and services including: services and social responsibility, and cooperation, through the enforcement of agreements with other institutions.

In terms of organisational structure, the UECU is composed by a director coordinating four departments: studies and projects office (GEP), psychological assistance office (GAP), assistance centre and legal practices (CAPJ); and the centre of Asian studies (CEAS). CEAS is the department responsible for the promotion of exchange as well as academic, scientific, technical and cultural cooperation between AP and institutions from Asia and Oceania.

The research revealed that although the UECU was indicated as being officially responsible for IMS, the document analysis carried out did not find any written proof of this. The description of the attributions of each of the four departments was carefully analysed in order to understand how IMS was coordinated, though it did not fit into any of the departments. Thus, the description of the responsibilities of departments of UECU, do not clearly mention how UECU intervenes and manages IMS. This issue was further examined during the interview with a manager of UECU, who indicated the existence of “a specific manager within UECU who responds for IMS permanently”. The research did not provide sufficient information to analyze in a detailed

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30 Information obtained during a personal interview with a Manager of UECU at AP, July 04, 2015.
31 AP’s institutional leaflet provided by UECU.
32 AP’s institutional leaflet provided by UECU.
manner how activities are coordinated, how responsibilities are distributed, and who really manages IMS. The lack of clarity on the coordination may indicate that the functions and responsibilities linked to IMS in AP are not clearly established, that is, have not been sufficiently formalised (written) and institutionalised.

Regarding the personnel working in UECU, the information provided by UECU indicated that there are about 40 people distributed by the four departments referred to above. However, from amongst the 40 people, only two deal with the mobility of both inbound and outbound mobility (the director of UECU and a manager).

According to the manager interviewed, UECU similarly to the HEIs already discussed, has focal points in the faculties, who are usually the heads of department. However, the main role of heads of departments is only to provide students with information regarding mobility programmes. UECU generally receives information on IMS from its partners, especially from the association of international students-AIESEC, which was revealed as an important stakeholder in mobility of students in AP.

Similarly to UEM and UP, the faculties also seem to play a role in AP, although in a different way: according to the managers’ account the faculties restrict their role to informing students about existing opportunities in IMS while AISEC, which is a major partner in IMS usually deals with other aspects of exchange programmes, by arranging meetings with potential candidates and providing details on the legal requirements, visa, information on the host faculties and countries, as well as general information (cultural) on the host countries. Differently, in UEM and UP, faculties are expected not only to disseminate IMS opportunities but also to provide the central organs with data regarding inbound and outbound students.

4.2.1.4 Coordination of international mobility of students in UCM

As for UCM, scarce information was provided on how IMS is coordinated and organised within the institution. However, UCM’s institutional website was analyzed in search of the organogram and description of functions of the formal structure of UCM. The analysis of the organogram revealed that in UCM, there is not a specialised unit to coordinate IMS, as found in UEM and UP, for example. This information was later confirmed by a dean of faculty of UCM, who
affirmed that IMS has been managed at the faculty level. The same source also emphasised that mobility occurs in a lower degree in UCM, besides being restricted to only one faculty.

The scarcity of details regarding the coordination and organisation of IMS in UCM prevents an informed analysis of the configuration and operation of IMS in this HEI. However, what is clear is that it shares a characteristic of AP, in the sense that there is lack of clear information as to how IMS is coordinated. Table 19.3 provides a summary of the main findings regarding the way in which IMS is coordinated and organised in the four HEIs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEI</th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Designation</td>
<td>Cooperation Office</td>
<td>International Office</td>
<td>Relations and University Cooperation</td>
<td>No specific office deals with international mobility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of establishment</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of coordination</td>
<td>Directly subordinated to the Rector</td>
<td>Directly subordinated to the Rector</td>
<td>Directly subordinated to the Rector</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role</td>
<td>Coordination, cooperation, agreements, academic mobility</td>
<td>Coordination, cooperation, agreements, academic mobility</td>
<td>Mediation, cooperation, agreements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of staff</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of staff dealing with IMS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In conclusion, by adopting a comparative perspective between public and private HEIs in terms of structure and coordination, the following comments may arise:

- IOs acquire different designations, in at least three HEIs (UEM, UP and AP), except UCM, which does not have an international office.

- Particularly in the public HEIs studied, IOs deal with international activities jointly with national activities, both of them integrated under the umbrella of cooperation. They are
usually responsible for developing and maintaining international partnerships with foreign counterparts via bilateral and inter-institutional agreements. Formal agreements, through memoranda of understanding, are a common mechanism through which the mobility of students, teachers and staff takes place.

- The main role of IOs is to formally coordinate IMS activities at the unit level (faculties) at a central level. IOs are also responsible for disseminating information on mobility opportunities in a top-down flow. However, the faculties also play an important role by disseminating IMS opportunities, as well as by sharing information with international offices regarding data on IMS.

- In the case of the private HEIs studied here (AP and UCM), a different type of coordination seems to be in place, although the coordination of activities differs from the two public HEIs. For instance, while in AP, there is a central administration organ coordinating cooperation, outbound and inbound mobility of students is only marginally coordinated by this organ, and it is less formalised in terms of clarification of responsibilities. Rather, the office acts as a mediator between students and external partners. In UCM, it seems that there is not a specific office coordinating mobility activities at all.

- Even though public HEIs share similar characteristics, there are also distinguishing aspects, regarding the size and structure of IOs.

4.3 Strategic planning

Strategic planning was intentionally selected as an important dimension of administrative organisation given the importance of the objectives, vision, and values of an HEI. The importance of these elements relies on the fact that the establishment of the mission and vision allows the institution to define its essence, what it wants to achieve and how to achieve it, using adequate resources (Chiavenato, 1993). Following the global trends witnessed in higher education pointing to strategic planning regarding internationalisation (Knight, 1994; Knight,
2008), it is worthwhile analysing the mission and vision statements of the selected HEIs. For that purpose, mission statements of the four HEIs will be scrutinised.

4.3.1 Analysis of mission statements

The four HEIs studied were primarily requested to provide their strategic plans, operational plans or any other relevant formal institutional documents that would allow the analysis of conceptual and practical issues regarding IMS in the context of internationalisation.

The analysis of the documents above referred aimed at investigating the following aspects: to what extent internationalisation and mobility of students are part of the institutional mission and vision of the HEIs, what kind of perceptions or views are associated with internationalisation and mobility, what they mean for the HEIs, and what kind of objectives and activities are linked to the mobility of students as well as how those activities are regulated and articulated.

Strategic plans were retrieved from several sources. In the case of UEM, the strategic plan\(^{33}\) was available in printed version, which is also of public domain. Furthermore, the Operational Plan (2010-2014) and the Annual Report for 2013 produced by the Cooperation Office were two additional documents also used for document analysis. UP strategic plan, is also of public domain, although it was not available in printed version, but online.

As for AP and UCM, no strategic plans were provided, as it was claimed that these institutions do not have strategic plans developed. Nevertheless, AP provided the mission vision statements of their respective institutions. This information was later on compared with the content of the institutional website referring to the mission, vision and values. To ascribe the mission and objectives of UCM, the institutional webpage was visited, enabling the content analysis. For a matter of enriching and contrasting information, the four universities’ web pages were accessed, followed by a content review.

\(^{33}\)It is important to mention that the strategic plan in UEM was undergoing a revision at the time the study was concluded.
The key topics considered during content analysis, both of written documents as well as websites, were related to international student mobility, exchange programmes, cooperation, internationalisation and globalisation. More specifically, the aspects considered in the analysis were the following:

- Inclusion of terms in the mission/vision statement: internationalisation, regionalisation, globalisation, international student mobility and cooperation;
- Understandings of the meanings attached to internationalisation, globalisation and student mobility;
- Information regarding the role, importance and extent of IMS for the institution.

All four HEIs are nationally oriented with concerns regarding the needs of the Mozambican society. However, in terms of vision, both UP and UEM (public HEIs) state their wish to become reference universities in the regional and international context.

AP and UCM, which are private universities, do not explicitly mention in their mission statements the orientation for achieving international standards (Table 20.3). On the contrary, these private HEIs seem to embrace a more nationalistic perspective, visible through expressions in their mission statements, such as “to strengthen the patriotic feeling”, “the elimination of asymmetries in national development” (AP). In the case of UCM, expressions are used such as “national development”, “sustainable development of Mozambican society” (UCM).

### Table 20.3 Mission Statements of AP and UCM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEIs</th>
<th>Mission statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| UCM  | -To develop and disseminate scientific knowledge and culture  
      -To promote in the various fields the full and permanent quality training of citizens and professionals committed with life and sustainable development of Mozambican society and the whole word; |
| AP   | -To strengthen patriotism;  
      -To critically intervene in the analysis and debate of matters of public concern at the national and international level;  
      -To contribute to the elimination of asymmetries in national development namely through promoting access of citizens to education and training. |

Source: www.ucm.ac.mz
Looking at UEM documents (mission statement, strategic plan and annual report of GC) it can be said that internationalisation is claimed as a value to be pursued by the institution. Internationalisation is defined as the establishment of links between researchers. Thus, networks are the defining character of internationalisation, according to the vision of UEM.

Although mobility in all forms discussed in this study is not explicitly present in the UEM strategic plan, the Annual Report of 2013 produced by the GC emphasises the importance of academic mobility. According to the report, “academic mobility constitutes an important element in the set of processes of internationalisation of UEM” (p.25). This statement illustrates that academic mobility is recognised as an important dimension of internationalisation. However, the document does not further clarify what internationalisation is, the degree of its importance or why it is important.

IMS is also referred to in the strategic plan of UEM in *Strategic Objective 1 (Conceive, implement and monitor academic reform aiming at regional integration).*\(^{34}\) It asserts the need to create a new curriculum in order to harmonise it with regional patterns. This idea is strengthened in the UEM Operational Plan, in *Strategic Objective 8*, already mentioned. Thus, this document emphasises the establishment of agreements on curricular harmonization with SADC countries, to “allow the mobility of students” (p. 14).

In the case of UP, its strategic plan mentions internationalisation as a core element in the strategy of the institution. According to the plan, internationalisation reflects the need for UP to become a reference both nationally and internationally:

> The fourth axis (social intervention and internationalisation) substantiates the commitment of UP in engaging and leading the more general challenges that Mozambican society is facing at the moment and the imperative of UP to become one of the reference universities national e international (p.37).

The plan establishes the following strategies to be developed which are worth mentioning here: 1) establishing a strategy for international cooperation; 2) promoting the mobility of faculty and researchers; and 3) promoting the mobility of post-graduation students.

\(^{34}\)UEM (2008), strategic Plan 2008-2011.
With regards to internationalisation, the strategic plan in its strategic objective 19 proposes to “internationalise [sic] the academy” (p.61), in order “to improve the quality of teaching, research and service to society and postgraduate [students]”. Furthermore it also argues that internationalisation implies “…the development of foreign languages competences and stimulating the sector with human and material resources” (p.61)

For UP, mobility seems to be an important element when approaching internationalisation. As indicated by the strategic plan, mobility particularly targets faculty and post-graduate students. Although the reasons for excluding graduated students are not mentioned, some interpretations may arise, in the light of the interviews carried out. The first general assumption is that post-graduation students may greatly contribute to research. The second assumption is that generally post-graduate students are usually composed by faculty members who further their studies (especially for PhD), what will be designated for the purposes of this study as “teacher-students”.

Thus, the explicit focus on post-graduation students may implicitly reveal that UP attributes a significant degree of importance to the mobility of faculty than amongst other groups of students. The rationale behind this attitude might be related to the fact that after their training, faculty may contribute to the development of the institution, and have an impact in the academy. Furthermore, according to a manager, mobility of teacher-students is a mandatory requirement in UP. This fact partially supports the idea that UP places more emphasis on faculty mobility than on student mobility.

Furthermore, UP developed several indicators for each strategy. For instance, in what is related to student and faculty mobility, there is an intention of increasing the percentage of teachers and post-graduation students in mobility programmes in 2017 to 5% and 2% respectively (UP Strategic Plan, 2010).

On the one hand, both UEM and UP hold the international dimension as an important part of their mission statements. On the other hand, both internationalisation and mobility also seem to be an important element in institutional documents. However, neither HEIs clarify what they precisely mean by internationalisation and mobility.

In conclusion, the following observations are relevant:
The international dimension makes part of institutional mission statements of two public HEIs and internationalisation seems to be attributed high importance in the core mission of the institutions; while private HEIs, although mention the international dimension in their mission statements, seem to put more emphasis on national elements.

Terms such as internationalisation and mobility are present in some documents of both public HEIs. However, UP’s strategic plan provides more details regarding the importance of internationalisation, as well as statistical indicators for mobility. Noteworthy, the documents analysed for both HEIs do not sufficiently clarify what internationalisation and mobility mean institutionally, where no overt definition or explanation is provided to clarify how it can be understood.

As for UCM and AP, given that no further documents were provided the analysis was restricted to website content. Based on the institutional websites, it was not possible to explore how internationalisation and IMS are conceptualised or understood. Nevertheless, it is important to mention that the content found in the websites did not mention internationalisation or issues related to IMS. This is by no means an indication that internationalisation or international mobility are not relevant or even present in the strategy of the referred institutions. On the contrary, it might reflect a lower degree of formalisation or institutionalisation already noticed in the functions and responsibilities of international offices. Table 21.3 summarises the most important findings related to strategic planning of the four HEIs.

### Table 21.3 Characterisation of Strategic Planning in the Four HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Holds a formal/written strategic plan?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission/vision includes an international dimension?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic plan includes student mobility as an objective?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>As a future plan</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific goals set, regarding the increase of student mobility?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main concepts in mission/vision statements and other documents related to internationalisation and student mobility</td>
<td>Cooperation, regional integration, internationalisation</td>
<td>Cooperation, regionalisation, and international standards</td>
<td>Nationally oriented mission</td>
<td>Nationally oriented mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policies to regulate mobility</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.1 Dissemination of mobility opportunities

Information on mobility opportunities is essential to all potential candidates, so that they can be aware of existing opportunities abroad. As such, it is important to look at how the HEIs under this study disseminate this kind of information, who is involved, and which kind of channels are used.

In UEM, the dissemination of mobility opportunities is primarily the responsibility of the faculties. As the GC coordinates cooperation at the institutional level, it has privileged access to the majority of mobility opportunities for both teachers and students. Once the GC has access to such opportunities, it promotes them internally, by posting leaflets or posters in the office, for the consumption of academic community in general.

Besides that, the information is also forwarded to the faculties, which in turn advertise them. In faculties, the information on mobility opportunities is channeled to those focal points that are ultimately responsible for feeding back to the rest of the academic community. Nevertheless, the interviews revealed that some mobility opportunities are promoted not by the GC as such, but through individual teachers. They emerge as important promoters of mobility, as they have established networks with other researcher/teacher counterparts or even affiliated institutions abroad. The multiple positions of lecturers across several teaching and research networks, allow them to have privileged access to mobility opportunities. These lecturers are thus ‘champions’ of a kind, who mobilise through their social capital opportunities for their students to have access to experiences abroad, especially scholarships for master and PhD degrees.
However, a distinction ought to be made between the various beneficiaries of mobility opportunities: students, lecturers and staff. In what concerns students, the dissemination of opportunities follows the patterns already described, i.e. the information is made available via posters and leaflets displayed in the faculties. No portals or websites from the GC are used to disseminate this kind of information. However, other mechanisms are used to disseminate information related to mobility opportunities directed to teachers and staff, where the GC contacts the interested parts via e-mail and formal letters. This means that the GC uses different mechanisms for disseminating mobility opportunities, taking into account the resources available and the ability to rapidly reach potential candidates.

UP receives information on mobility opportunities firstly through GRI. Then, GRI disseminates the same information mainly to the faculties, via specific representatives, who are responsible for promoting it. According to a manager of GRI, the information is regularly sent to staff responsible for its dissemination by several means such as e-mail, printed letters, as well as in the institutional website. The information is ultimately posted in the faculties by means of posters.

In AP, the dissemination of mobility opportunities is done by several means: primarily by face to face meetings with students in class, through posters, and also over a radio station owned by AP. However, it is worthwhile noting that the main coordinator in dissemination activities within AP it is not AP as such, but external stakeholders, such as, for example AIESEC. This organisation carries out meetings with students of AP, to spread general and specific information on mobility opportunities, particularly traineeships to Portugal, Brazil and Greece. At the moment of writing, this was essentially the only programme running in AP, in such a way that it can be said that AP is a kind of mediator rather than coordinator when it comes to dissemination. Table 22.3 presents a summary of the main actors and communication channels used to promote IMS in the four HEIs.

In face of the different means for disseminating mobility opportunities, it is now pertinent to present the results of questionnaires applied to 20 students (five for each HEI), regarding the dissemination of mobility opportunities. Students were asked several questions in order to investigate the degree to which they have been exposed to information regarding mobility opportunities in their faculties, as well as to determine the interest they have in the subject.
Table 22. 3 Summary of Communication Channels for Promoting Mobility Opportunities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEI</th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main receiver of info on IMS opportunities</strong></td>
<td>GC</td>
<td>GRI</td>
<td>UECU</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focal points</strong></td>
<td>Several (deans, deputy deans, and directors of research and extension or post-graduation directors)</td>
<td>Representatives</td>
<td>Heads of department</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Means of info to focal points</strong></td>
<td>E-mail, letters, posters</td>
<td>E-mail, letters, posters</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Means of info to students</strong></td>
<td>Posters, faculty</td>
<td>Posters, website</td>
<td>Meetings, posters, radio</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the responses obtained, less than half of all students enquired claimed to have access to mobility opportunities in their faculties. In terms of HEIs, the number of students with the same responses was equivalent. When asked if they had ever applied for an opportunity abroad, only one responded positively. As for previous participation in mobility opportunities, no student has stated going abroad in the context of their studies.

Students were also asked about their willingness to participate in mobility programmes. The responses indicate that generally, almost half of the students enquired in each HEI claimed to be interested in spending time abroad.

Students were also questioned about how they are exposed to mobility opportunities, that is, how they have access to that kind of information. Their responses indicate that the main means of information used are posters, followed by teachers, who disseminate this type of information to students. Interestingly, this revelation may corroborate the idea that faculty plays an important role in spreading information regarding mobility opportunities among their students. Table 23.3 illustrates the results of students’ perceptions regarding the availability of information regarding opportunities abroad.
Table 23. 3 Exposition of Students to Information on Student Mobility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have been exposed to information on mobility opportunities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have applied for a mobility opportunity at least once</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have never studied abroad to obtain a degree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have never participated in short-term activities abroad</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show interest in participating in mobility programmes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To summarise these findings, it can be said that in general there is an indication that students participating in this study might not have been fully exposed to information regarding mobility opportunities, where few of them have ever applied for an opportunity abroad, and indeed none of them has experienced a period abroad. Less than half of these students showed an interest in participating in mobility experiences.

The reasons for not applying for mobility opportunities

Understanding the reasons why students enquired did not apply for mobility opportunities may help to understand why few of them take part in mobility schemes. When questioned about the reasons for not applying for mobility opportunities, students indicated several constraints.

In order of importance and regardless of HEIs, language barriers emerge as the central reason. This difficulty might be related to the fact that the official language in Mozambique is Portuguese, and also, that very few HEIs in Mozambique, offer graduate programmes in English. The second most cited reason was the fear of not obtaining recognition of study abroad periods and credit transfer.

Table 24.3 exposes the main reasons students alleged for not applying to mobility opportunities, by HEI. The UEM GC’s Annual Report of 2013 mentions the low participation of students regarding scholarships for opportunities abroad. An administrator of DRA in UEM believes that students simply do not apply for mobility opportunities largely because the information does not reach students properly and the channels used for promotion are not effective. In his view,
students are supposed to be attracted by the posters and read them in their faculties, but there is no guarantee that they will do that\textsuperscript{35}.

Table 24.3 Reasons Students do not Apply for Mobility Opportunities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for not applying for mobility</th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language barriers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit transfer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family commitments/ties</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same opinion was expressed by another manager of the international office in AP, though for different reasons. In the view of the manager, students in AP show little interest in participating in mobility opportunities because eventually they would not be interested in going abroad if they had professional commitments they cannot easily break, or if they have an established a family\textsuperscript{36}.

4.3.2 Support services

In terms of support services, the GC in the UEM intervenes in supporting both inbound and outbound students, although in different ways for each group of students. In what regards inbound students for instance, several types of support were mentioned during the interviews, although these are not constant procedures carried out for each and every foreign student: finding a vacancy for mobility, issuing invitation letters; visa-related issues, such as obtaining a temporary visa or the extending a visa; picking up students at the airport; assistance with buying travel tickets; housing in which the GC in coordination with the Directorate of Social Services (DSS) offers accommodation in the university hosts, or even in houses belonging to the Directorate of Logistics and Supply.

\textsuperscript{35} Personal interview with a coordinator of DRA at UEM, July 04, 2015.

\textsuperscript{36} Personal interview with a coordinator of UECU at AP, July 04, 2015.
The GC also provides general social, cultural and tourist information related to travelling in between provinces of Mozambique. For example, a manager of the GC mentioned that they provide foreign students with catalogues produced by the Ministry of Tourism containing maps and useful tourist information, expecting to provide them with useful information.

With regards to outbound students, the contribution of the GC seems to be much more restricted and is generally related to: issuing letters for obtaining visas; facilitating contact with the host institution via the counterpart cooperation office; providing access to internet; copies and printing facilities. No orientation programmes before departure were mentioned during the interviews.

It is important to note that the GC is expected to be the gateway for all the students involved in mobility, both domestic and foreign, at least formally. However, a manager from the GC affirmed that “a significant portion of foreign students usually seek the assistance of the faculties in first place. The faculties then receive foreign students and direct them to relevant departments or units, according to their concerns and needs”37.

Also, the study discovered DRA has been sought for diverse kinds of support, especially by foreign students. Orientation programmes have been also available for foreign students in order to introduce them to the campus activities as well as general procedures. Apparently, the GC is more able to provide assistance to foreign students than to domestic students sent abroad.

Nevertheless, an administrator from UEM commented on the lack of information on support services to foreign students:

> Information on courses, disciplines, accommodation, food, diet, health insurance, visa; who is going to receive them at the airport does not exist... literally, it does not exist at all[sic]. How is the student going to know that he needs to look for DRA to find that information? In a certain way DRA possesses all that information. If the student does not master UEM structure and searches for information on our website it will be very hard for him,

37 Personal interview with a coordinator of GC at UEM, July 04, 2015
because there is no explicit or clear information there (UEM-DRA Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

In UP, the information provided by the GRI indicates that outbound students are supported in several ways. For instance, GRI assists students with documentation related to visas, passports and vaccination. They are also instructed to prepare a short presentation (in Powerpoint), to be displayed in the host country, after arrival. The presentation generally contains information on Mozambique, including pictures of the local city of the student). According to a manager, this kind of presentation

*Aims at promoting the image of UP, as well as of Mozambique, abroad. Furthermore, counselling is also offered to outbound students before departure. Students are advised to maintain good behaviour in host countries, and are stimulated to carry out their activities with a focus on their research. Students are also instructed to get knowledge about the host country and host institution prior to their departure, by visiting the host institutional website. This way, they will be better prepared.* (UP-GRI Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

An important point mentioned by a manager of GRI is that after their return, the experience of outbound students is used to capitalise mobility. In that sense, practical actions are carried out to disseminate the experiences of students abroad. More specifically, Directors of Programmes disseminate experiences of students abroad, by giving presentations to other students who did not travel abroad.

In what respects inbound students managers mentioned that some support is available in UP such as: housing, through the Directorate of Social Services; visa, by issuing letters to be presented to immigration services, as well as orientation programmes. Orientation programmes include providing information on the functioning of faculties, libraries and other services within faculties. The orientation programme also helps foreign students to integrate into a new culture, by counselling them on how to behave in Mozambican settings, since sometimes foreign students are not aware of important or relevant cultural differences.
In AP, according to the sources enquired no kind of support is provided for both outbound and inbound students alike. Though, AIESEC, who generally coordinates the dissemination of information on IMS issues, is the body who assists students with several issues, for example visas. AIESEC also provides information on housing, food and other relevant information. Unfortunately, no information was obtained from UCM on what kind of support is provided for both inbound and outbound students.

As can be seen in Table 25.3, both UP and UEM provide support to both outbound as well as inbound students to different degrees. This kind of services is offered through the international offices sometimes in coordination with other departments/directorates, which illustrates that although international offices are formally responsible for the management of outbound mobility it needs the collaboration of other departments across the university. In private HEIs studied, a different pattern occurs: while in AP an external body is responsible for assisting outbound students, in UCM lack of information on the types of services provided did not allow a comparison.

Table 25.3 Support Services Provided by HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support services offered</th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
<th>AP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre departure orientation programs (outbound students)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inbound Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Statistical data on inbound and outbound mobility: what data is available?

One of the purposes of this study was to investigate which data on IMS are available in the four HEIs enquired. For that purpose, the HEIs in question were requested to provide any statistical data they could, regarding both inbound and outbound students reporting the period from 2010 to 2015. This type of data would help in providing a picture of the extent and main trends of mobility in each of the HEIs. More specifically, statistical data would offer socio-demographic
characteristics of the students involved, the main modes of mobility, as well as the geographic patterns present.

However, it is important to note that from the four HEIs, only two were able to provide some kind of statistical data, while the others were not able to provide it due to the non-existence of databases with systematic and updated records. The implication of missing data was that the exercise of presenting comprehensive, comparative data for the period 2010-2015 as well as the main socio-demographic and academic trends, proved not to be possible. For that reason, only the data provided by UEM and UP will be presented.

However, other considerations shall be made: in the case of UEM, the statistical data presented by the Cooperation Office is received mainly from the organic units (faculties and schools) and the Registration Directorate. More specifically, the organic units generally provide information on outbound students while the Academic Registration Directorate generally provides data on foreign students, since one of its attributions is to aid foreign students in the process of registration. In light of what was exposed, one of the findings of this study is that although faculties share statistical information with the GC as a central coordinating organ, in actual fact, there is neither a database keeping records of the number of students involved in either short and long-term mobility, nor a monitoring system for updating records and following students upon return.

According to a manager from the GC-UEM, there are some problems related to the statistical information provided by the faculties:

_Not all the faculties send information on mobility on a regular basis. Some faculties do not send any information at all and there is lack of clarity regarding the kind of data requested. There is also lack of a clear framework on the procedures to present and hand over the information requested by the GC...thus, the GC relies on the capacity of faculties to keep records of mobility activities, but at the same time, the GC should also clarify certain procedural aspects to facilitate communication with the faculties._ (UEM- GC Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

An administrator of the UEM reinforced the previous comment by stating that:
Regarding outbound students in exchange programmes, the rectory does not have information, or at least consistent information. This is so because things occur at the faculty level and for example an invited professor maintains a good relationship with a faculty in a foreign university and so it is decided to initiate for example exchange of three students per semester, but that information does not reach the rectory... For that reason, it is much easier to get information on incoming students than on outbound students.

(UEM- DRA Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

This means that the GC must rely on different sources of information across the HEI and has no secure means to assure the desirable reliability and accuracy of data. Taking into account the challenges discussed above, reliability of the data presented is not guaranteed. However, even if the data presented is not a good mirror of the exchanges that take place, it is certainly valuable in the sense that it gives an indication of what is occurring in the HEIs. The Annual plan of Activities of the GC in UEM presents the number of inbound and outbound mobility students in 2013, which is worthwhile examining, with due reservation.

Table 26.3 Outbound and Inbound Students in UEM, 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host countries</th>
<th>Outbound students</th>
<th>Inbound students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Korea</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>44</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 26.3, the numbers presented raise some comments, where it was noted that the number of outbound students is lower than the number of inbound students. Brazil and Italy are the host countries for this kind of mobility. As for outbound students, there are multiple origin countries, from different continents. However, the majority of students come from Tanzania, which is a neighbouring country and also a SADC member. This fact gives an indication of intra-regional mobility referred in the literature (Kishun, 2008).

In terms of duration, the most frequent mobility type amongst foreign students are: the attendance of some courses for one semester that might extend to two semesters, with scholarships funded by diverse programmes and other funding sources; and the other students who go to UEM to finish their master and PhD studies (UEM, 2014, Annual Plan of Activities 2013). Unfortunately, the statistical data presented in Table 25 does not provide information on the type of mobility in terms of duration.

As for UCM, as Table 27.3 indicates, only one student was reported as an outbound student. The number of inbound students received from abroad is equal to the number of inbound students. A rough comparison between UEM and UCM clearly indicates that UEM might present a higher number of international students.

### Table 27.3 Outbound and Inbound Students in UCM, 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host countries</th>
<th>Outbound students</th>
<th>Inbound students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: UCM, (2015)*

Although UP did not provide statistical data, the more frequent types of mobility mentioned are of short-term nature. According to a manager from the GRI, the types of mobility more frequent in UP are the following ones:

- exchange of students who spend a semester in UP and one more semester abroad;
• exchange of students for language training: foreign students from non-Portuguese speaking countries particularly from Vietnam to learn Portuguese and also domestic students (Portuguese language teachers); and

• students (teachers) who go abroad for traineeships on a mandatory basis.

Emerging issues during the interviews pointed to important questions around statistical data. The points are related to the following aspects:

• Foreign exchange students in UEM are not usually accounted as such, for the purposes of statistical records. According to a DRA manager, the reason is related to the fact that exchange students are treated as domestic students once they are enrolled in the host university. This fact hinders the records of students, as well as other relevant information on the inbound mobility.

• The fact that in UEM some mobility occurs without the knowledge of the international office corroborates the lack of records of both inbound and outbound mobility, as faculties do not always provide updated information to the international office.

• As reported previously, faculties do not report to central offices on a regular basis. This was revealed both in UEM as in UP. The consequence is that international offices are not able to compile data in a systematic and reliable manner.

• Another aspect is related to the conceptual dimension of international mobility of students, as, for some stakeholders the difference between types of mobility is not clear. For instance, a GC manager in UEM claimed that during internal discussions, participants were not clear as to whether or not to include PhD students under the label of mobile students, since in some contexts, they are treated as colleagues by faculty members, and in other cases they earn a salary in the host institution. Also, some PhD students do not really stay abroad for a continuous period, travelling several times in between for collecting data in other countries. These uncertainties may influence how students are accounted for when statistics are generated.
4.5 Perceptions on Internationalisation

Overall, the several respondent groups (managers of IOs, lecturers and students) across the four HEIs seem to be familiar with internationalisation, although students showed less familiarisation with it. The majority of participants indicated they had heard about internationalisation before. In the case of those interviewed, familiarity derives from a number of reasons: for those occupying management and leadership positions, the reasons are related to the fact that they deal with international activities within a university in connection with partner universities abroad; others are familiar with internationalisation concept via academic disciplines which deal with the topic, especially Economics, for example, while others are aware of internationalisation because the home university is intentionally and publicly advocating for it particularly at the top level.

Support staff at IOs in both public HEIs indicated a high degree of awareness of internationalisation. This fact is not surprising given that both institutions attribute relevance to internationalisation, illustrated for instance in the document analysis.

As for students, the questionnaires revealed that from the 20 students enquired, almost half (nine students) claimed to be familiar with internationalisation. When compared with the responses of other groups, students seem to be less familiar with internationalisation. It is notable that students from the UP and AP seem to be less familiar with internationalisation than those from the UEM and UCM.

As for lecturers, globally, the majority have been noted to be familiar with internationalisation of higher education. However, all lecturers of UEM responded positively, while only one in AP did so. Although the majority of respondents are familiar with the term internationalisation, understandings of it differ among the groups of respondents. All the respondents were asked to freely define internationalisation according to their views. Table 28.3 summarises the perceptions of lecturers, students and support staff of IOs, according to the questionnaires administered.

Regarding support staff, although no comparison is available between similar groups, it is noteworthy to emphasise that all support staff from the international relations office of UEM indicated being familiar with internationalisation.
Table 28.3 Meanings of Internationalisation for Students, Lecturers and Support Staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are familiar with internationalisation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceive internationalisation as academic mobility</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceive internationalisation as international cooperation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceive internationalisation as harmonisation of curricula</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staff from IOs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are familiar with internationalisation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International recognition of HEIs,</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceive internationalisation as academic mobility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceive internationalisation as international cooperation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lecturers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are familiar with internationalisation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceive internationalisation as academic mobility</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceive internationalisation as international cooperation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the whole, Table 28.3 shows a diversity of responses, regarding the definition of internationalisation. For students, the two most important definitions of internationalisation are by order of importance, namely: 1) internationalisation as academic mobility; 2) internationalisation as academic cooperation. Whereas, for support staff members at UEM, the prevailing view is of internationalisation as international recognition of HEIs, followed by academic mobility.
Regarding senior administrators interviewed, questions aimed at eliciting respondents’ perceptions of internationalisation. Generally, they expressed positive attitudes towards internationalisation.

For instance, a manager at UP defined internationalisation as

...a policy used by UP to become internationally recognised in such a way that any student, teacher or staff, may be integrated into UP. It is a process that involves several actors and involves several activities, such as mobility, joint research, exchange...it aims at responding to the challenges of globalization... it aims at ensuring that any faculty or student coming from abroad can be integrated in UP as well as any UP student going abroad can be integrated in the host institution. (UP- GRI Manager, personal interview, July 29, 2015)

The reference to policy demonstrates that this view is anchored in the idea of internationalisation being a response to globalisation, and also that internationalisation is a whole area of activities, involving several actors. This is a reference to the literature (for instance, Knight, 2008) that defines internationalisation as a set of voluntary policies aiming at responding to global pressures in higher education.

Another manager of UP conceives internationalisation as

The international cooperation, through which agreements allows different universities to exchange human resources. International cooperation is the way through which universities can use international networks to obtain gains and offer their experience to partners. Students will also have access to better resources abroad. (UP- GRI Manager, personal interview, July 29, 2015)
In UEM a manager from DRA defined internationalisation as academic mobility. According to him, internationalisation

...means, essentially, student mobility; that is, the possibility of opening doors to receive foreign students but also to create conditions for UEM students to be exposed to other academic realities...internationalisation is a process of academic mobility of students. (UEM- DRA Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

A dean at UEM understands internationalisation as

UEM being harmonised with the world, with international and regional universities, especially with the universities of Southern Africa. The courses offered by UEM should have the same standards of those offered in the region, in such a way that UEM teachers may teach in other universities and students might chose subjects in other universities. For that to happen, we have to harmonise competences and abilities. (UEM- Dean, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

This response shows that internationalisation is seen as an effort to equalise or standardise higher education, through a similar curriculum. Thus, internationalisation relies on developing regional patterns, concerning curricular issues. This view can be understood on the light of the discussion provided previously, which indicates the tendency to promote regionalisation in higher education and also intra-regional mobility in Africa.

Yet, a manager at UCM when asked to define internationalisation claimed that

Internationalisation means that universities cannot be closed organisations; they must go beyond national frontiers. So, it is a process of opening up to the world...and be capable of adapt to changes. Internationalisation is not a choice, it must happen for universities to survive. Partnerships and
collaboration are a good way to participate in international arena. If universities are able to send faculty and staff to international events, the image of the university wins a lot. (UCM- Dean, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

These discourses show that definitions of internationalisation vary between and among different stakeholders across different HEIs. Thus, no consensual views were notable, rather each participant expressed his/her view according to the position occupied, through institutional lenses and also based on prior experiences. In most times, individuals interviewed defined internationalisation in the context of their own position or department, emphasising the dimensions they are more familiar with.

4.6 Rationales for internationalisation

Questioned on the reasons that would justify the interest in internationalisation of their university, participant groups (administrators, lecturers, support staff and students) expressed their opinions on the matter. As the Table 29.3 shows, the most important motivation for lecturers is reputation and international recognition; while students pointed academic quality as a relevant aspect.

Table 29.3 Rationales for Internationalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for promoting internationalisation</th>
<th>UEM</th>
<th>UP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>UCM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lecturers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To gain reputation and international recognition</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve academic quality</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To promote intercultural understanding</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International recognition of HEIs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthen research</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support staff</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for promoting internationalisation</td>
<td>UEM</td>
<td>UP</td>
<td>AP</td>
<td>UCM</td>
</tr>
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<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>To gain reputation and international recognition</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve academic quality</td>
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<td>To promote intercultural understanding</td>
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<tr>
<td>International recognition of HEIs</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strengthen research</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To gain reputation and international recognition</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve academic quality</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To promote intercultural understanding</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International recognition of HEIs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthen research</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source*: primary data

As for the interviewed groups, responses where homogeneous among participants, taking into account their positions regardless of their institution. Thus, both administrators as well as staff from IOs cited the following three reasons in order of importance: 1) to gain reputation; 2) to improve academic quality; and 3) to provide the students with the opportunity to gain knowledge on other cultures.

The rationale for internationalisation in the context of UEM mission and vision statements is explained by a manager in the following way:

*the university has to somehow endure, not exactly dispute or enter into a competition climate or space which exists, even though we do not want to assume it...there is an international space that university might use and impose itself upon to participate in. UEM has a consolidated historical position in Mozambique, but maybe we can do much more regionally and internationally.* (UEM- DRA Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)
Furthermore, according to the same interviewee, competition is not the only motivation for UEM to embrace internationalisation, as in his view there is a much more profound reason. According to him, internationalisation should be seen not only on the light of the competition generally expressed through rankings and citation indexes, but over the impact universities, especially in Africa can have in the development of the countries.

_It is not only about international exposition, internet exposition and the number of citations, but it is something more profound, which is impact. I think that it is a very good differential in the context of debates on internationalisation that UEM and other African universities can make the difference...the interest is to impact positively in new horizons through what is produced, or intended to be produced, within university._ (UEM- DRA Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

4.7 Rationales for sending students abroad

On the matter of rationales, all the respondents in the different categories were asked about the reasons for students becoming mobile. The analysis of the discourses on the types of rationales arising from both the interviews and also the responses of the questionnaires allowed for distinguishing the top reasons mentioned. It is important to note that all the reasons pointed out by the respondents fall into the category of academic rationales mentioned by Knight (2008).

This diversity of responses did not allow the formulation of a typology of rationales for each type of group of respondents either within each institution, or across it. However, by order of importance, the respondents think that internationalisation is important because it: 1) increases institutional recognition at the international level; 2) improves quality of teaching and research; and 3) allows the establishment of strategic alliances. Strategic alliances were mentioned as an important way of establishing partnerships and particularly international agreements.

As for the rationales for promoting outbound mobility, respondents share the opinion that sending students abroad contributes to: 1) intercultural understanding; 2) broadening of access to
higher education systems considered of a higher quality than those at home or not available at home and 3) an opportunity to develop linguistic competencies.

According to Knight (2008), the motivation towards gaining international reputation as a high quality institution illustrates an attempt to attract “the brightest of the scholars, a substantial number of international students, and, of course, high-profile research and training projects” (p. 28). On the other hand, Knight (2008) also argues that a more, not so obvious reason, for pursuing an international reputation is linked to gaining competitive advantage in the market of higher education providers.

Interestingly, issues such as international awareness, intercultural learning and self-improvement were not mentioned as primary reasons for sending students abroad. This may indicate that perceptions of student mobility are anchored in a perception that mobility is an end in itself. In sum, academic rationales seem to predominate.

4.8 Obstacles to IMS

The study questioned several groups of respondents on the main obstacles involved in IMS. Following the results, the main findings will be presented with emphasis to the following: foreign languages, funding, credit transfer, infrastructures and lack of a policy to support mobility of students.

4.8.1 Funding

Funding was revealed to be a major obstacle in the opinion of interviewed participants, both at UEM as well as UP. It is important to note that public HEIs in Mozambique are largely funded by the state.

Furthermore, HEIs are required to deal with competing priorities and limited organisational infrastructure to support international activities. As such, internationalisation may sometimes take a back seat in the face of other pressing issues, especially of internal demands.
International initiatives can be costly, not just financially, but also in terms of time spent to create connections and links to potential partners…for many institutions this exercise diverts attention and resources away from pressing home-based issues (Hawawini, 2011, p. 11).

At this point it is important to mention that funding questions were addressed during interviews but they were avoided and treated as confidential matters by the HEIs. The intention was to get an idea of what share of internal funds were channeled to international mobility activities. However, the majority of interviewees were adamant to emphasise that their universities relied mainly on external partners and donors to carry out these type of activities.

4.8.2 Foreign languages

Especially for students, foreign languages, particularly English, seems to constitute a huge constraint when discussing IMS in Mozambique. On the one hand, Mozambique is a Portuguese speaking country and students who do not master the English language, reduce their chances of succeeding in opportunities abroad, particularly in degree-mobility. The majority of mobility programmes, require candidates to be proficient in the language of instruction of the host university.

Several authors (Alemu, 2014; De Witt, 2011; Knight, 2008) have discussed the predominance of English language in the internationalisation of higher education and how developing countries may be negatively affected. For instance, Alemu (2014) states that

Colonialism, globalisation and the internationalisation of higher education have made European languages – including English, French, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish – more dominant in African higher education institutions, with English becoming more prominent as a result of the internationalisation of higher education. In some African countries, there is competition between different languages for dominance in the higher education sector (p.80)

On the other hand, due to the lack of a clear policy regulating exchange mobility in the public HEIs analysed, foreign students who do not master Portuguese language are nonetheless received into several programmes, on the spirit of the reciprocity inherent to exchange programmes.
4.8.3 Credit transfer

Credit transfer was repeatedly mentioned as being a major concern when discussing the obstacles for the international mobility of students. As illustrate the following speeches, the inexistence of a reliable system of transfer of credits constitutes a barrier for students applying for mobility opportunities:

A senior administrator has emphasised that

    for many students it is complicated to have their credits recognised after return because they fear the credits they accumulated abroad will not be recognised. Thus, they become unmotivated to apply for mobility opportunities. So, it is critical to find an effective conversion system for credits accumulated abroad. (UEM- DRA Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

Another administrator in UEM said that

    ...some students face difficulties to have their credits recognised, precisely because we do not have a legal structure in place for credit recognition that is generally for exchange mobility in general, so there is a need to have a sector with professional staff oriented toward those issues. (UEM- Dean, personal interview, May 17, 2014)

On the same issue, a manager of UP noted that

    the credit transfer system is not reliable, because it lacks transparency in the students’ view...the guarantee that credits will be acknowledge upon return, will affect the decision of the student regarding whether or not to go abroad. (UEM-DRA Manager, personal interview, May 17, 2014)
4.8.4 Infrastructures

Infrastructures, especially housing, were referred as an important constraint for mobility in public HEIs. Managers of international offices of both UEM and UP repeatedly commented on the challenges of offering accommodation to foreign students. Under exchange mobility, domestic students are received by the host country with accommodation provided. Similarly, it is expected that the foreign student will also have the same conditions provided in the host HEI.

Managers referred to the fact that, due to that kind of constraint, sometimes what was supposed to be an exchange situation turns to be a unilateral type of mobility, due to the fact that because of lack of accommodation, the institution is not able to receive a student from abroad, although a domestic student is sent abroad. One of the consequences is that the nature and philosophy of exchange mobility becomes distorted, and the image of the institution is damaged, as a partner.

4.8.5 Lack of policies regulating exchange

Generally, the results showed that agreements or protocols with foreign partners are the major regulating instruments to carry out exchange mobility of students in all HEIs studied. Thus, no specific formal institutional policies or regulations were created to orientate exchange mobility. This aspect was pointed by several administrators and managers interviewed as an important obstacle to IMS.
CHAPTER V

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Coordination of international student mobility

A brief history of the establishment of international offices at UEM and UP shows that they were created in the 1990s to substitute departments upgraded to ‘international offices’, which were centrally coordinated.

However, the research showed that the four HEIs display different types of formal coordination roles in mobility. In at least three of them (UEM, UP an AP), there are specific but not specialised departments dealing with IMS. Generally, the offices take different designations, but are centrally located within the institutional structure (responding directly to the Rector). Usually, these organs deal with the management of cooperation agreements both with local as well as international partners. Because cooperation has been the framework within which mobility occurs, these organs also deal with mobility.

The study revealed that in most cases, the role of these offices is to coordinate the implementation of mobility programmes, to provide information to the unit level, and also to support services to inbound and outbound students. A variation was present in AP, where although there is a coordination organ, in practice an external partner carries out dissemination and counselling activities relevant to outbound mobility. In UCM, no formal unit is designated to cater for both inbound and outbound mobility.

These different models displayed by different HEIs with their particular characteristics, show that there is not a specific preferred formula for organising international mobility of students. Rather, each HEI finds the best model to manage mobility according to the human and material resources at their disposal. This trend is commensurate with the global trends referred in the literature (see for instance Davies, 1992; Knight, 2008; Vincent-Lacrin, 2011), which indicates a
tendency to more coordination and specialisation of issues linked to international cooperation, internationalisation and international mobility.

The research also revealed that in public HEIs especially in UEM, it seems that although the central organs are formally responsible for mobility issues, much of what happens operationally occurs with the involvement of faculties and individual lecturers. Faculties and individual lecturers play a significant role in promoting mobility of students through their active participation in international networks. Thus, a mixed method of centralised and decentralised model is present in UEM. In UP, a similar situation is present, the central organs seem to be the major players though the faculties also collaborate in the implementation of mobility activities through mainly the dissemination of mobility opportunities.

Indeed, it can be said at least for UEM that a mixed model is used to organize mobility, in the sense that the international office is not able to coordinate all mobility activities, and sometimes mobility occurs through the direct intervention of particular lecturers, who are passionate about internationalisation and promote opportunities for their students through their personal networks.

The consequences of this kind of coordination is that on the one hand, from the organisational point of view, information exchange may not flow in a systematic and coordinated manner, data on IMS might not be complete and recorded and responsibilities may become less clear and difficult to manage. On the other hand, this demonstrates a holistic approach to IMS activities in the sense that lecturers are allowed to participate in these activities by promoting opportunities abroad for their students, for the benefit of different actors within the university.

The size and structure also differs among the studied HEIs. In HEIs where formal offices deal with mobility, it was possible to note different types of organisation. In the UEM, the IO is relatively large and complex in terms of structure, and has more staff comparing with the UP, while in private HEIs only AP had a department, with even less staff than the public universities have. Finally, UCM does not have a department, and consequently no dedicated staff. It can be said that according to what has been observed public HEIs under study tend to develop more coordination and complex structures than do private ones. In general, the studied HEIs display different models of organisation, though organisational structures among public universities are similar.
The discussion will also be based on the conceptual framework of strategic analysis developed by Davies (1992). Taking into account the characteristics revealed by the research, it can be said that the four HEIs selected for this study cannot be fitted into a particular sphere within the categorisation proposed by Davies. Instead, they can be located along more than one axis.

Thus, because HEIs under study display several features of different axes, it will be more appropriate to claim that they can be classified as ranging between adopting an ad hoc/marginal and systematic marginal approaches.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low (marginal)</th>
<th>High (central)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ad hoc</strong></td>
<td><strong>Systematic</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ad hoc / marginal</strong></td>
<td><strong>Systematic/marginal</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few foreign students. Academic co-operation is based on individual initiative, internationalisation is low in the institutional mission; There are few specialised personnel for the management of international affairs and no incentives exist for engaging in co-operation.</td>
<td>International activities have a small scale, but they are well organised and coordinated. Operations are targeted; they coincide with institutional strengths and opportunities and are based on a conscious internationalization strategy. Few institutional agreements but operational, supporting procedures are clear and relevant, small number of competent staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ad hoc/central</strong></td>
<td><strong>Systematic/central</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant international activities, but not very focused. Several agreements but not operational, support services not sufficiently oriented to international effort. Ground rules change rapidly.</td>
<td>International activities are high in volume and are coherent. The international mission is explicit and guided by policies and supporting procedures; dedicated organisational structure.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For instance, in the case of UEM, although academic cooperation is part of its formal mission statement, there are not explicit procedures integrated into a strategy to conduct mobility activities, regarding several aspects such as: procedures/policies to regulate mobility issues,
keeping statistical records, regulating communication and disseminating information. On the one hand, UEM is involved with a significant number of projects and partnerships. On the other hand, there are few specialised personnel for the management of international mobility, and some of the support services for mobile students are sometimes carried out in ad hoc manner, according to the resources available.

Similarly, UP, which is other public HEI, seems to share several features of the different quadrants on the table. UP shares with UEM some identical features, such as: academic cooperation, which is also part of its mission statement, there are not explicit procedures to conduct mobility activities and there are few specialised personnel for the management of international mobility. Thus, both universities seem to be somewhere between what Rudzki (1995) also called reactive mode, and proactive mode.

Furthermore, internationalisation is seen as a goal, as something to be achieved, and not as a process as defined by Knight (2008). As such, internationalisation in public HEIs is linked to the notions of international profile and quality. This suggests HEIs are aware of the competition environment leading HEIs worldwide. Though, the interviews and textual analysis show that this competition is considered more in regional terms than at the international level.

This pattern observed in the HEIs studied was emphasised by authors such as Jowi (2012) and Kotecha (2012) who note that somehow this situation has been occurring in African countries in general. According to Jowi (2012)

> While other regions have engaged with internationalisation for some decades and made it an explicit, co-ordinated and strategically focused activity, Africa still engages with internationalisation as Africa responds to internationalisation in an ad hoc and marginalised activity with little strategic approach and limited support, leading to varied consequences (pp 50-51)

The above discussion can lead to the conclusion that the patterns observed in Mozambique are not unique; rather other parts of the world are also characterised by marginal and ad-hoc coordination of IMS. In the literature review for instance, the study carried out by Veiga et al (2006) in six Portuguese HEIs also arrived at the conclusion that they adopted ad hoc strategies.
However, any analysis on this matter, should also take into contextual factors inherent to the particular institution and the larger environment at both the national and international levels.

5.2. Strategic planning

As already established in this study, from the four HEIs analysed, the two public institutions prioritise internationalisation by mentioning it in their mission/vision statements, as well as in other institutionally relevant documents. The interviews and questionnaires also denoted how important internationalisation is for several groups across HEIs.

The documents analysed tend to emphasise several aspects of internationalisation (cooperation, regional integration, and academic mobility, international). However, internationalisation is not explained either explicitly or implicitly in terms of what it means and how to achieve it. The analysis of documents showed that internationalisation and student mobility are not clarified as concepts.

The literature review (IAU, 2014; AUCC, 2006) showed that there is a tendency for HEIs to develop policies or strategies oriented to internationalisation and IMS. De Witt (2011) asserts that “internationalisation over the years has moved from a reactive to a pro-active strategic issue, from added value to mainstream” (p. 243). Furthermore, according to the IAU “...in the absence of a clear set of goals and priorities, institutions remain in the responsive mode, dependent on others for the direction of their internationalisation process”38.

However, this study revealed that even though private universities supposedly did not have developed strategic plans, it does not impede them of carrying out student mobility activities. This may signal that although the HEIs might recognise the importance of internationalisation and student mobility, they still continue to operate mainly in a cooperative approach or by influence of external partnerships.

In face of the discussion and the literature discussed, I conclude that the four universities studied can be classified as mainly being responsive to external pressures and they are not following the trends present in other parts of the world. The universities, especially the public ones need to

38 Retrieved from www.iau-aiu.net
develop a more systematic framework to deal with fragmented activities across faculties and departments as well as to establish a process for improving implementation and increase institutional credibility.

5.3. Rationales

As indicated by Knight (2008), the rationales for internationalisation of higher education, which indicate why an institution wishes to promote it, differ according to countries, institutions and even across different individuals. The study showed a diversity of rationales within institution and among groups of respondents. However, from a global perspective academic rationales emerged as the most relevant type of justification for embracing internationalisation.

Although rationales may vary, the literature (see for instance Fernandez, 2011; Teferra & Knight, 2008) indicates that academic reasons are the major rationale in Africa for promoting internationalisation in higher education. Thus, the results follow a general tendency in Africa given the similar context. As Adamu (sd) emphasises:

It is not surprising to see academic as the principal rationale for internationalization [sic] looking at the major areas of intervention for revitalization and further development of higher education in Africa which includes enhancing institutional capacity, promoting academic mobility, improving quality assurance mechanism, strengthening research capacity, and improving access to ICT facilities (Adamu, sd, p. 5. APUD, Shabani, 2008).

Internationalisation seems to be mainly driven by the desire to enhance international standards and quality by both the UP and UEM. The reason may be linked to the increasing number of HEIs, both private and public in Mozambique, with which they have to compete at the national and regional level.

However, as the document analysis showed, internationalisation may also imply economic dimensions. For instance, the UEM equates internationalisation as a framework with the capturing of additional funding and partnerships. This fact might be related to internal resource capabilities, which are a common constraint, not only in Mozambique, but in other parts of the world, especially in Africa. Also, the emphasis on international recognition shows that HEIs are
aware of the international competition. Thus, these rationales reflect both national goals as well as the will to compete globally and, above all, regionally.
6. CONCLUSION

The research explored how four Mozambican universities (UEM, UP, AP and UCM) are dealing with international mobility of students, both from programme as well as organisational dimensions. In this quest, special attention was given to the following aspects: 1) academic programmes; 2) administrative organisation of IMS and services to support IMS; and 3) perceptions of different institutional stakeholders over the phenomenon of mobility of students.

The objectives of the study were: 1) to investigate what kind of statistical data on international mobility of students is available in the four HEIs; 2) to explore what organisational and structural configurations are in place to accommodate international mobility of students: distribution of functions and responsibilities, policies and support services offered to inbound and outbound students; and 3) to probe on the views and arguments of different stakeholders about internationalisation and international mobility of students.

The theoretical framework supporting the discussion of these issues derives from two fronts: on the one hand, the concepts of internationalisation and globalisation of/in higher education provide the contextual comprehension of IMS, whereas the operational level was guided by the models developed by Davies (1992) and Knight (1994).

A multiple case study design was adopted in this study. Four case studies were selected, two of which being public old and large universities, and two private, relatively smaller and more recently established institutions. The approach adopted was a comparative one.

The most relevant findings show that all four HEIs, regardless of their historical and social characteristics, share the same challenges: simultaneously serving national needs and at the same time keeping pace with external demands imposed by the increasing effects of globalisation. However, the ways the four HEIs manage to respond to these challenges in what respects student mobility, differs. This difference becomes more visible if the distinction between public and private is considered. The results of the study revealed that UEM and UP, both public HEIs share more similarities than they do with the two other private universities, the UCM and AP.
Given the analytical model developed by Davies (1992), the following conclusion can be drawn, whereas general picture of public HEIs (UEM and UP) indicates they share similar characteristics, and thus, that they can be classified as being partially located in both marginal ad-hoc and systematic/marginal approaches. In UEM, the strategy tends to become central, while implementation is *ad hoc*. In UP, the strategy seems to be central while implementation is also *ad hoc*. The results showed that both HEIs have no formal internationalisation policies or indeed student mobility regulations, although in terms of organisation, these HEIs possess international offices where international student mobility is centrally coordinated. In terms of staff, there is relatively few specialised staff employed to attend to both inbound as outbound students.

Regarding the importance of student mobility, in both public HEIs, the results revealed that although international mobility of students has been a traditional practice and the majority of participants consider it as an important activity, the mobility of lecturers seems to be considered a more important issue, in terms of organisation, strategic planning and funding.

In relation to private universities (UCM and AP) the characteristics of student mobility organisation and degree of institutionalisation make it possible to conclude that under the analytical model used, their approach can be described as marginal ad-hoc. Another point is that there is an indication that there is low mobility of students, while mobility of lecturers is more prominent.

Although the analytical model provides a framework by means of which to understand the way in which HEIs deal with IMS, considerations should not exclude other factors intervening in the process, especially internal and external constraints. Internal constraints are related, for example, to financial issues challenging all HEIs.

In relation to meanings and perceptions, the results indicate that they are not homogeneous. Rather, meanings are significantly shaped by personal, professional and institutional contexts. Thus, the role and viewpoints of different stakeholders shape their understanding of IMS. However, meanings, rationales, and motivations are similar, while implementation strategies differ according to institutional capacity, commitment, and organisational models.
Internationalisation is apparently driven by academic as well as economic rationales. Competition as well as cooperation seems to guide internationalisation and international mobility in the institutions analysed, with emphasis on public universities.

The study has intended to present statistical data of international mobility of students in the four HEIs, in order to provide a general picture. However, the lack of consistent and reliable data impeded this exercise. The results revealed that generally, HEIs face difficulties in keeping records, and also face challenges in collecting and monitoring outbound and inbound students.

Concerning the obstacles to student mobility, lack of funding, mastery of foreign languages, deficient infrastructures as well as system of credit transfer were the major issues of concern.

6.1 LIMITATIONS

There are several limitations in this study, namely:

- The first limitation is related to the number of HEIs covered by the study, given that there are currently more than 49 HEIs in Mozambique, of which only four were selected for this study. Due to time constraints and resource limitations, only four HEIs were selected.

- The second limitation is related to the generalisation of results. The research does not intend to make generalisations for all Mozambican HEIs, given its exploratory and qualitative nature.

- A third limitation on the field was related to the lack of statistical data related to the inbound and outbound mobility of students in the four HIEs studied. The lack of systematic and concise data hindered a comprehensive discussion of the topic.

- Some of the informants, such as faculty deans, showed willingness to participate in the study, but were not actually interviewed, reportedly due to time as well as other constraints.
7. REFERENCES


Mpinganjira, M. (2011). The state of academic mobility in SADC. In P. Kotecha (Ed). Building regional higher education capacity through academic mobility. SARUA.


8. APPENDIX 1

8.1 Appendix 1- Interview guide for Administrators/Deans

1) Perceptions on internationalisation

- In your opinion, what does internationalisation of the university stands for?
- What are the reasons for internationalisation?
- What is the importance of internationalisation for your university?
- What are the main characteristics of internationalisation in your university?

2) Attitudes and opinions towards the international mobility of students

- Does your faculty usually send students abroad?
- Does your faculty usually receive foreign students?
- What are the benefits of sending your students abroad?
- What is the value of receiving foreign students in your campus?
- To what extent does your faculty promote the international mobility of students?
- Can you mention the main obstacles to the international mobility of students in your university?

3) Policies and regulations of internationalisation

- Has your university developed a formal policy to regulate internationalisation?
- Has your university established formal rules to regulate international mobility of students?
- What are the formal principles regulating international mobility of students in your faculty?
- How does your faculty promote information regarding mobility opportunities to students?

4) Coordination of international mobility of students

- In your faculty who is responsible for coordinating the international mobility of students?
8.2 Appendix 1- Interview guide for Managers of International Relations Offices

a) History of the international office

- Can you tell me about the establishment and evolution of the international office?

b) Structure and function of the international office

- What are the main responsibilities of the international office?
- What is the organizational structure of the international office?
- How many people work in the international office?
- What are their functions?
- What is the role of the office regarding the international mobility of students?
- What kind of support services does the office provides to both inbound and outbound students?

d) Perceptions on internationalisation

- In your opinion, what does internationalisation of the university stands for?
- What are the reasons for internationalisation?
- What is the importance of internationalisation for your university?

e) Policies and regulations of international mobility of students

- Do you have knowledge of any formal policy regulating internationalisation in your university?
- Has your university established formal rules to regulate international mobility of students?
- What are the formal principles regulating international mobility of students?

f) Coordination of international mobility of students

- How is international mobility coordinated in your university?

g) Quantitative data on international mobility of students

- Can you provide quantitative data on both inbound and outbound students?
8.3 Appendix 1- Questionnaire for students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Social and demographic profile</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name: ..........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age: ...... years                Gender: ☐ Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of birth:.................................Nationality:...............................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Academic background</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Please provide the following information:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of your higher education institution:..........................................................</td>
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<tr>
<td>Course you are currently enrolled:.................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of frequency: Year 1 ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 2 ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 3 ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 4 ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree (eg, honours, master) :.................................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. In which regime do you currently study?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ) Day classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( ) Night classes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Perceptions on internationalisation and international mobility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you ever heard about internationalisation of the university?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. What do you think internationalisation means?

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3. In your opinion, what are the benefits of travelling abroad to study?

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4. To what extent do you think the presence of foreign students in your campus might benefit you? ............................................................................................................................................................................................
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5. Please, indicate your opinions regarding the following aspects, by choosing the applicable options

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Studying abroad helps to expand academic and cultural background</th>
<th>Totally disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Totally agree</th>
<th>I am not sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

( ) Yes  ( ) No
Having foreign students in our campus is advantageous
My faculty stimulates students to apply for opportunities abroad
Studying abroad helps to improve foreign languages
I am eager to study abroad

4. Exposure to information on international mobility opportunities

1. Do you generally have access to information on opportunities to study abroad in your university? (eg, scholarships, exchange, trainsheeps, conferences, research.)?

( ) Yes
( ) No

2. If you have access to information on study abroad opportunities, how do you have access to that information? Please choose all the applicable options.

☐ Brochures, flyers and notices posted in my faculty/campus
☐ Lecturers promote mobility opportunities for us
☐ Through classmates and/or friends
Through faculty/university website

I usually approach the faculty to look for information

Other forms of access, please state them

How do you evaluate the access to information on study abroad opportunities for students provided by your faculty? (Please consider 1= very accessible; 2 accessible =; 3= somehow accessible; 4 difficult to access; 5= not accessible)

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Degree of accessibility to information on study abroad opportunities

5. Application for study abroad opportunities

1. Have you ever applied to any study abroad opportunity announced by your faculty/university? (Please select all the applicable options.)

- [ ] Scholarships
- [ ] Exchange
- [ ] Research
- [ ] Conferences and seminars
- [ ] Foreign language training

2. If you have applied for an opportunity other than those mentioned, please mention it

............................................

3. How frequently do you apply for study abroad opportunities announced by your faculty?
4. Have you ever been selected to study abroad in your faculty after an application?

☐ Yes
☐ No

5. If so, please mention the country of destination, the duration of your stay and the objective of your stay,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of destination</th>
<th>Duration of stay</th>
<th>Type of activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>

6. If you never had the chance to study abroad would you be interested in doing so? Why?

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8.4 Appendix 1- Questionnaire for lecturers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Social and demographic profile</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name: ..........................................................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age: ...... Gender: ......</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of birth: .........................Nationality: .........................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Professional information</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Please provide the following information:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic background: ..................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years as lecturer in the institution: ..................</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Besides teaching, do you exert any other functions in this institution?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If so, please mention extra functions exerted: ........................................</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Perceptions on internationalisation and international mobility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Are you familiar with the concept of internationalisation of the university?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. What do you think internationalisation means?
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4. In your opinion, what would be the benefits of internationalisation to your university?
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4. In your opinion, what are the benefits of your students travelling abroad to study?
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5. To what extent do you think the presence of foreign students in your campus might benefit the institution?
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6. Classify the degree of importance you think that your institution attributes to the international mobility of students

□ Not important

□ Important

□ Very important
4. SECTION A: Social and demographic profile

1. Name: ..........................................................................................................................

2. Gender:

   □ Male
   □ Female

3. Age: ____ years.

II. ACADEMIC BACKGROUND

1. Last degree obtained

...........................................................................................................................................

III. CURRENT PROFESSIONAL SITUATION

1. What is your current position in the cooperation office?

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2. When (year) did you start exerting your current function in the cooperation office?

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3. Can you please describe your daily responsibilities in the cooperation office?

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SECTION B: INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

1.1 As an officer of the cooperation office do you have opportunity to participate in international activities abroad regularly?

☐ Yes
☐ No

1.2 If you responded affirmatively to question 1.1, please select in the table below the top three types of activity you engage with when going abroad through the cooperation office. *Please rate the most important with 1- the second most important with 2- and the third most important with 3.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of activity</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exchange</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training courses on academic mobility</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Training courses on intercultural competencies/abilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seminars, conferences and meetings</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

SECTION D: Perceptions on the internationalisation and international mobility of students

1. Have you ever heard about internationalisation of the university?

☐ Yes
☐ No
2. In your opinion, what does internationalisation mean?

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3. In your opinion, what are the benefits of students travelling abroad to study?
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6. Classify the degree of importance you think that your institution attributes to the international mobility of students

☐ Not important
☐ Important
☐ Very important

10. Please, answer the following questions by selecting the applicable response (Yes or No).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sending our students abroad is beneficial to UEM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving foreign students can benefit domestic students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel comfortable dealing with foreign students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have established regular contact with counterparts abroad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We carry out regular sessions for sharing information regarding international mobility of students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>