



Chapter 3

Scope of Partnerships Between Universities in Japan and South Africa: The South African Perspective

C.C. Wolhuter 

*Comparative and International Education Professor
North-West University
South Africa
Charl.Wolhuter@nwu.ac.za*

T.S. Mashau 

*University of Venda
South Africa
Takalani.Mashau@univen.ac.za*

Takayoshi Maki 

*International Education Development Program
Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences
Hiroshima University
Japan
maki@hiroshima-u.ac.jp*

3.1 Introduction

Universities are increasingly dotting the global education landscape. It has not always been so. The oldest university in the world is barely a millennium old. Most universities have been recently established—decades ago rather than centuries. In the sub-Saharan region, for example, excluding the historically White South African universities, right down

to the 1950s, there were but three universities in this vast region: Makerere University in East Africa, Fourah Bay College in West Africa and the University of Fort Hare in South Africa. With the advent of independence during the second half of the twentieth century, the governments of the newly independent African states founded national universities as one of the priorities in their establishment of a new state and nation. In the 1990s, the number of universities began to increase as new public universities were created, and more so, as private universities mushroomed. These universities face many challenges. They are part of a global network of universities but need to facilitate activity between themselves and other global universities to enable knowledge exchange, for their own benefit, but also for the benefit of universities outside of Africa. It is here where partnerships between universities come into the picture.

The aim of this volume is to explore the scope for partnership between Japanese and South African universities. This chapter provides the frame within which to read and understand the ensuing chapters of the volume. The chapter commences with a portrayal of global higher education in the past thirty years. A renewed internationalisation drive is explained as one dimension of global higher education. One mode of such internationalisation is forging partnerships between universities. The case of uneven and, in many instances, unique trajectory of internationalisation at South African universities is then reconstructed. Japan is then represented as a candidate for partnering to complement the current uneven pattern of internationalisation at South African universities.

3.2 The Current Phase of Global Higher Education Evolution

A signature feature of the present era in human history is the worldwide higher education expansion. It is a basic theorem in the scholarly field of Comparative and International Education that education systems are shaped by societal forces.

Typically, these are specified as geography, demography, level of scientific and technological development, social system, economy, political system and religion, life and world philosophy. Consequently, education systems can only be understood from these societal forces (Harris & Jones 2018). Similarly, the global higher education evolution has been driven by a number of societal drivers, and to fully comprehend this revolution, these societal drivers need to be surveyed first. Finally, the main dimensions constituting this revolution will be discussed as well as the revolution itself.

3.2.1 The Societal Drivers of the Global Higher Education Revolution

There are at least nine interrelated societal forces driving the global higher education revolution, namely demographic dynamics, growing economic affluence, the emergence of knowledge economies, the neo-liberal economic revolution, the information, communication and transport technology (ICT) revolution, the formation of multicultural societies, democratisation, individualisation and the rise of the Creed of Human Rights.

In recent decades, the world has been the scene of a demographic explosion. Each year, 81 million people are added to the total global population. Most of this growth is taking place in Global South countries. The result of this population explosion is that each year the demand for higher education is bigger. Another demographic trend is that the global population is becoming an increasingly mobile population. The number of international migrants in the world (i.e., those residing in a country other than their birth country) grows at a rate of 2.4% per year (Institute National d'Etudes Demographiques 2020). Besides international mobility, the short-term and distance mobility of daily travel has increased in recent times.

At least three forceful economic trends are currently fuelling the global higher education revolution. Since 1990, the world has entered one of the most sustained and strongest

phases of economic growth in history. In the ten-year period from 2005–2015, the annual global economic output has more than doubled, from US\$29.6 trillion to US\$78.3 trillion (World Bank 2016). This rise has continued to reach US\$ 84.4 trillion in 2018 and US\$101 trillion in 2022 (World Bank 2023). This upswing has brought higher education to an affordable level for more people.

A second economic trend is the emergence of knowledge economies. A knowledge economy is an economy where the production and consumption of new knowledge become the driving axis of the economy. In such an economy, an even higher value is attached to higher education than in any of the preceding phases.

Besides the economic upswing since 1990, a third economic trend has been the neo-liberal economic revolution. This revolution is characterised by a state's diminished role, not only in the economy but also in other sectors of society, such as transport, health services, and — important for its effect on higher education— education, giving the forces of the free market free reign (see Davies & Bansel 2007).

The ICT revolution has created an instant 24-hour global information network, comprising free access to and widespread use of the personal computer, Internet, fax machine and mobile telephone. In the higher education sector, this revolution has made higher education accessible to larger numbers of people, particularly by expanding distance education programmes. This revolution has also made possible the more mobile global population, referred to above. Societies have become diverse and multicultural, replacing the more homogenous societies of past times.

Concomitant with the economic upswing and neo-liberal economic revolution, a process of democratisation has taken place in large parts of the world since 1990. The process of democratisation, together with the emergence of the Creed of Human Rights as a new global moral order and the empowerment that the ICT revolution brought to individuals, all have given impetus to another trend in modern society:

individualisation. By emphasising the importance of the self, more and more people lay claim to access higher education.

3.2.2 Dimensions of the Global Higher Education Revolution

The above-identified societal drivers have, in concert, given rise to a global higher education revolution. Manifest features of this global higher education revolution are: massification, competition and differentiation, changing funding patterns, changing relations with government and industry, a call for relevance, the rise of Mode II knowledge, exceptional growth in distance education, internationalisation, managerialism, a new student profile and a changed academic profession.

Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley (2009) single out massification as the prime feature of this global higher education revolution. Globally, higher education enrolments have grown from 67.8 million in 1990 (when the global higher education revolution commenced) to 253.3 million in 2020 (UNESCO 2023)—a more than threefold increase. Even after factoring in global population growth, the global aggregate gross higher education enrolment ratios more than doubled (in fact, also almost tripled) from 14% in 1990 to 40% in 2020 (World Bank 2023).

The rapid expansion in the current context has resulted in two, apparently opposite trends. Firstly, in the competitive globalised world, virtually every higher education institution aspires to become a world-class university. However, at the same time, the second trend means the proliferation of universities has necessitated differentiation, different kinds of institutions, each seeking a particular niche.

The unchecked expansion of higher education, especially within the context of the neo- education expansion project, became unfashionable and outright unsustainable. Funding patterns changed as the costs of higher education shifted from government to the direction of the clientele, i.e., industry and students. The extreme end of this trend is the growth of private universities. Today, 33% of higher education enrollments worldwide are in private universities (UNESCO 2022).

In many parts of the world, the national treasury remains the single largest source of finance for universities. True to the creed of neo-liberal economics, governments then demand more say in universities. This constitutes a radical change from the autonomy and freedom from government interference that universities (at least in the Western world) were guaranteed until a generation ago. It is not only university-government relations that have changed. Industries, in return for their financial commitment to universities, demand a say in universities, representing another force undermining the autonomy of universities.

Consequently, curricula and programmes are structured to be more relevant to the needs of industry. The tenets of the neo-liberal economic revolution, such as performance measurement, efficiency and accountability, manifest themselves in the management style of universities, thus establishing a totally new professional environment for the academic profession.

The ICT revolution gave particular momentum to the distance higher education sector. The economic affluence, ICT revolution and global isomorphism created by democratisation, the Creed of Human Rights and the neo-liberal economic revolution all serve as catalysts for the increased internationalisation of higher education, including the internationalisation of students, faculty and curricula (see Kamyab & Raby 2023) (this will be elaborated on in the next section).

Introducing principles from the neo-liberal economic revolution into the university, such as the profit motive, performance appraisal, performativity, efficiency, quality control and the like, has spurred a strong trend of managerialism in the university, unknown even a single generation ago. The student profile also changed, from the rather docile, submissive student of a generation ago, coming to university to learn from the professor to a more demanding student (now known as a 'client').

3.2.3 Critical Assessment of the Global Higher Education Revolution

The global higher education revolution constitutes a commendable, heartening achievement of humanity in the past decades, in so far as it has expanded access to higher education to those who did not have the privilege previously. But while the global higher education revolution serves as a benevolent force in society (especially since the value of higher education is destined to increase even more within the context of emerging knowledge economics and the approaching Fourth Industrial Revolution), the revolution also has its share of discontents and problematic aspects that should be noted in any balanced assessment.

The first problem is the growing number of unemployed graduates, representing a waste of both public and private resources, feelings of personal failure and a source of socio-political turmoil. In South Africa, the unemployment rate among young graduates under 24 years of age—while substantially lower than the unemployment rate among those with fewer qualifications—is growing, reaching 31% in the first quarter of 2019 (Statistics SA 2019). Over 3 million graduates in South Africa are unemployed (Solomons 2021:1). It is not simply a matter of an economy not strong enough to absorb the growing output of graduates, but also the vexing problem of aligning the worlds of education and work in the sense of ensuring universities provide the kind of education and skills required by the economy. The second problem is resolving the issue of who should pay for the ever-rising bill of higher education. Strong arguments exist for and against expecting each of the constituencies of government, students, parents and industry to pay (see Wolhuter 2023a).

Two essential features of the university (at least in its historically evolved form) are autonomy and the pursuit of academic excellence. The global higher education revolution poses a serious threat to both of these. The increased control that both government and industry claim in the affairs of universities violates or at least diminishes institutional

autonomy. The culture of managerialism from government and institutional management likewise erodes the autonomy and academic freedom of academics. The profit motive supplants the quest for truth and excellence as *summum bonum* in academe. The denudation of academic autonomy and freedom is objectionable because academic autonomy is a *sine qua non* not only for the pursuit of truth as the highest ideal of the university, but also for the university to fulfil its indispensable role in exercising societal critique, acting as the conscience of society (see Kratou & Laasko 2021; Sawahel 2021).

Finally, the pressures of the neo-liberal economic revolution and the parameters these laid down for the global higher education revolution mean a neglect of the function of the university with regard to the preservation, transmittance and development of the cultural wealth of humanity (Wolhuter & Jacobs 2021:298). This does not mean impoverishing the richness and quality of human life, but it has wider adverse consequences. For example, the lack of attention and resources to developing dictionaries will negatively affect scholarly development as science and scholarly writing depend on precise word choice and careful language use.

3.3 Part of the Global Higher Education Revolution is a More Vigorous Pursuit of Internationalisation

As was indicated earlier, one feature of the global higher education revolution is the enhanced or more vigorous pursuit of internationalisation.

In higher education scholarship, Jane Knight's (1996, updated 2003) definition of internationalisation is commonly taken as a working definition. Knight (2003) defines the internationalisation of higher education as "integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education". Knight's (1996) taxonomy includes political, economic, academic and cultural rationales.

Scope of Partnerships

Political reasons for nations or governments to internationalise universities can range from pursuing high places on global university rankings to giving faculty and students exposure to and interaction with the best universities in the world to improve the competitiveness of its population (see Kamyab & Raby 2023).

Economic reasons for pursuing internationalisation include not only developing a country's human capital base but also, for many countries, the advantages of attracting international students and the investments they bring, including direct contributions like student fees and indirect costs such as accommodation, food and clothes. According to the United States of America's (USA) Department of Commerce, international students contributed US\$45 billion in 2018 (IIE 2021). The A\$38.4 million generated annually by international students in Australia means that after ore and fossil fuels, international students are Australia's third largest source of foreign income (World's Top Exports 2021). Australia is also the third major exporter of international education after the USA and the United Kingdom (UK). From 2014-2015, international education has supported over 130,000 jobs in Australia (Ng & Nyland 2018:53).

Academic rationales include the advantages of academic cross-fertilisation and the need to combat academic parochialism (see Wolhuter 1994).

The internationalisation drive of universities has, however, not been exempted from its discontents. A body of critical literature has emerged taking aim at the kind of internationalisation manifest at universities, with Canadian scholar Sharon Stein being the most renowned author. This criticism revolves around the structure of power relations in a globalised world. Internationalisation (at least in its present form) is then deemed to represent nothing but a vehicle of Global North universities pursuing their own interests (see Asare, Mitchell & Rose 2022; Marginson 2023; Stein 2019; Yang 2014). Even efforts at South-South partnerships between universities have not been spared criticism as serving to

reinforce existing asymmetrical power relations in the world (see Ress 2018).

One way universities are pursuing internationalisation is by forging international partnerships with universities abroad (Saito & Kim 2019:48). Within the context of the global higher education revolution (with its unabating expansion of higher education) and globalisation (including global competition between nations and the ease of internationalisation made possible by the information and communication technology revolution), this forging of international partnerships of universities has grown impressively in recent years (see Barber, Donnelly & Rizvi 2013; Clark & Wilson 2017).

3.4 South African Universities' Interesting, Uneven History of Internationalisation

Higher education in South Africa, as was typical in any colonial set-up, was late to start and slow to develop. The first rudiments of a university appeared on the South African landscape only in the second half of the nineteenth century. During the first phase, until the mid-twentieth century, the umbilical cord with universities in the UK and Netherlands figured strongly. These links also defined the internationalisation aspect of South African universities. Then, from about 1960-1990, as a gesture of opposition to South Africa's policies of segregation, the international community subjected South Africa to a salvo of international sanctions and isolation measures across trade, economics, politics, diplomacy, education, culture and sports. These included an academic boycott which entailed refusals to

- travel to South Africa or invite South Africans abroad,
- publish South African manuscripts internationally,
- collaborate with South African scholars,
- provide access to information (e.g., books, computer software),
- let South African academics participate at international conferences and

Scope of Partnerships

- give South African academics access to certain institutions abroad (Harricombe & Lancaster 1995:30).

Given this historical background of South African higher education, higher education policies focused on domestic imperatives, on both national and institutional levels, at the commencement of the new socio-political dispensation after 1994. The main imperatives were increasing access to higher education and equalising higher education. However, in policy documents, the yearning for and appreciation of the value of internationalisation are evident.

The 1997 White Paper on Higher Education Transformation (RSA 1997a) was the first major policy document on higher education released by the government which took over in 1994. While this white paper concentrated on the domestic issues mentioned above, it also noted that higher education and scholarship in South Africa had become very closed and inward-looking, cut off from the international scholarly community. Breaking out of this isolation was going to be a challenge. Similarly, the need for universities to be internationally competitive and the need for international student mobility can be read in the document.

Building on the 1997 White Paper, the ensuing Higher Education Act (Act 101 of 1997) was also very much focused on domestic issues in the South African higher education project (RSA 1997b). The term 'international' is mentioned only once in the Act, stating that institutions of higher education should be up to international standards.

Then, in 2019, the Ministry of Higher Education released a Policy Paper on the Internationalisation of Higher Education. This Paper states that internationalisation should be pursued so that international communication, cross-cultural learning and global citizenship education will be promoted (RSA 2019a:17). Furthermore, the goals of the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa are spelt out as follows:

- to position the higher education system to be competitive in a globalised world;

Partnership Between Universities in Japan and South Africa

3.3.2.2. to advance the quality of higher education;

- to enhance intellectual diversity – nationally and regionally – in teaching and learning, research, and community engagement aspects of higher education;
- to benefit society and enhance opportunities for higher education to contribute to the public good; and
- to contribute towards the development of scholars and scholarship capable of addressing global challenges.

(RSA 2019a:20)

The policy document further states that this internationalisation drive should take place within the parameters of the principles of academic autonomy and complementarity (between South African and international partner institutions) (RSA 2019a:22–23).

Meanwhile, years prior to 2019, at institutional level, the yearning expressed in the above-mentioned series of documents was repeated. Universities have formulated idealistic mission statements, focusing on the role of their institutions in national development and societal reconstruction (see Wolhuter 2023b).

While South African universities and scholars have seized the opportunities which presented themselves after the international boycott was lifted in the early 1990s, and with South Africa becoming the focus of global interest and optimism, the CAP (Changing Academic Profession) International Survey of the Academic Profession reported low levels of internationalisation: the percentage of the profession who obtained their highest degrees in South Africa remains over 90% and publications in international journals and books remain low (see Wolhuter 2015). These may be related to:

- The peripheral geographical location of South Africa, far from the international centre of the scholarly world in Western Europe and North America (and East Asia) and
- The difficulty in developing research productivity at South African universities due to the historical mission of universities as teaching institutions and the heavy

teaching demands (in terms of teaching loads and students entering the university system academically ill-prepared for the rigours of university study) (see Wolhuter 2015).

As far as international student mobility is concerned, statistics released by the South African Ministry of Higher Education and Training report in 2016, there were 69,381 international students studying at South African universities (RSA 2019b:31). However, this constitutes a mere 7% of the student corps at South African universities. Furthermore, 66.1% of these students hail from other Southern African countries. Regarding outbound international students, these numbered only 9,130 (2018 figure, UNESCO 2021). This is grossly disproportionate to the number of inbound international students, and while hard statistics are not available, it can safely be assumed that these are mostly students from universities in the Global North. Such outbound mobility is the first step in such students joining the brain drain from South Africa to the Global North—a grave problem all over sub-Saharan Africa. Putting the inbound and outbound pattern in one equation, it appears as if South Africa is a regional (second-order Global South) core as far as inbound student mobility is concerned. Thus, inbound and outbound student mobility in South Africa do not speak of growing the global mix to promote academic excellence and competitiveness—the stated and expected goals of internationalisation.

To summarise, a number of lacunae are present in the current internationalisation of South African universities project. Few faculty can boast higher degrees from universities abroad, much less so from top international universities. Internationalisation efforts have not succeeded in giving South African academe a boost towards impressive levels of research output. The number of international students is low. International student mobility does not speak of a global mix: inbound mobility is, to a large extent, an illustration of South Africa being a regional hub for Southern Africa, but outbound mobility still exhibits patterns of North American and Western European hegemony. Furthermore, given the

low higher education enrolment levels in South Africa, there is scope for increasing South Africa's outbound international student mobility. It is against this context that the candidature of Japan as an unutilised potential international partner for South African universities presents itself.

3.5 Scope of Partnership Between Private and Public Universities

In South Africa, government resistance against the opening of private higher education institutions is rife (see James 2023), despite the Higher Education Act making provision for such institutions. However, despite resistance, according to the Department of Higher Education's Register of Private Higher Education Institutions, at the time of writing (December 2023) there are 138 registered private higher education institutions in South Africa (RSA 2023). However, most of these institutions are small when measured in terms of enrolments. Only 7.7% of all higher education enrolments in South Africa are in the private higher education sector (UNESCO 2023). While at least some of these institutions do commendable work, in as far as they register well on international rankings (see Wolhuter & Diedericks 2024), they are excluded from the government's funding systems (National Student Funding Aid Scheme (NSFAS) and Lushaka) and financial incentives for research production. That means to forge external links and stimulate research along that line, partnering with public and private universities in Japan seems like an attractive opportunity. In Japan, 50% of higher education students are enrolled in private higher education institutions (Badran, Baydoun & Hillman 2019).

3.6 The Candidature of Japan as Partner for Internationalisation by South African Universities

This chapter has surveyed the global higher education revolution as one of the features of the contemporary world, the reasons for this revolution and its achievements and

discontents. The internationalisation of universities as part of this revolution and the rationale for this internationalisation were discussed. The specific form that the global higher education revolution, and its facet of internationalisation, takes on in South Africa, as shaped by the contours of the South African contextual ecology, were touched upon. It can be concluded that there are indeed strong exigencies for South African universities to look anew and to drive with new vigour an internationalisation drive. In the ensuing chapters of this book, the candidature of Japan as a partner for the internationalisation of South African universities will be explored.

References

- Altbach PG, Reisberg L & Rumbley LE. 2009. *Trends in Global Higher Education: Tracking an Academic Revolution*. Paris: UNESCO. <https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004406155>
- Asare S, Mitchell R & Rose P. 2022. How Equitable are South-North Partnerships in Education Research? Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 52(4):654–673. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2020.1811638>
- Badran A, Baydoun E & Hillman JR. 2019. Introduction. In: A Badran, E Baydoun & JR Hillman (eds). *Major Challenges Facing Higher Education in the Arab World: Quality Assurance and Relevance*. Cham: Springer, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-03774-1_1
- Barber M, Donnelly K & Rizvi S. 2013. *An Avalanche is Coming: Higher Education and the Revolution Ahead*. London: Institute for Public Policy Research.
- Clark CH & Wilson BP. 2017. The Potential for University Collaboration and Online Learning to Internationalise Geography Education. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 41(4):488–505. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03098265.2017.1337087>

Partnership Between Universities in Japan and South Africa

- Davies B & Bansel P. 2007. Neoliberalism and Education. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 20(3):247–259. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09518390701281751>
- Harricombe LJ & Lancaster FW. 1995. *Out in the Cold: Academic Boycotts and the Isolation of South Africa*. Arlington, VA: Information Resources Press.
- Harris A & Jones M. 2018. Why Context Matters: A Comparative Perspective on Education Reform and Policy Implementation. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*, 17(3):195–207. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10671-018-9231-9>
- Institute of International Education (IIE). 2021. Economic Impact of International Students. <https://www.iie.org/Research-and-Insights/Open-Doors/Economic-Impact-of-International-Students> [2 December 2021].
- Institute National d'Etudes Demographiques. 2020. World Migration Patterns. https://www.ined.fr/en/everything_about_population/demographic-facts-sheets/focus-on/migration-worldwide/ [6 April 2020].
- James A. 2023. Private HE Providers are 'Sitting on Periphery' of Society *University World News Africa Edition*, 25 May. <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20230523040715560> [5 January 2024].
- Kamyab S & Raby RL (eds). 2023. *Unintended Consequences of Internationalization in Higher Education: International Comparative Perspectives on the Impacts on Policy and Practice*. New York, NY: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003189916>
- Knight J. 1996. Internationalisation: From Concept to Strategies. In: *Proceedings of the Second Annual Conference of the David C. Larn Institute for East West Studies, Institutional Strategies for the Internationalisation of Higher Education*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Baptist University, 123–126.

Scope of Partnerships

- Knight J. 2003. Updating the Definition of Internationalization. *International Higher Education*, (33):2-3. <https://doi.org/10.6017/ihe.2003.33.7391>
- Kratou H & Laakso L. 2021. The Impact of Academic Freedom on Democracy in Africa. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 58(4):809-826. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2021.1988080>
- Marginson S. 2023. Geopolitical Narcissism has No Place in HE Partnerships. *University World News*, 2 December. <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20231129120746580> [9 December 2023].
- Ng J & Nyland B. 2018. Critical Examination of Internationalisation: A Case Study of a Collaboration Between an Australian and a Chinese University. *European Journal of Higher Education*, 8(1):52-66. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568235.2017.1388186>
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (Department of Education). 1997a. *Education White Paper 3 - A Programme for Higher Education Transformation*. <https://www.justice.gov.za/commissions/feeshet/docs/1997-WhitePaper-HE-Transformation.pdf> [5 March 2021].
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (Department of Education). 1997b. *Higher Education Act, Act 101 of 1997*. https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/201409/a101-97.pdf [5 March 2021].
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (Department of Higher Education and Training). 2019a. Policy Framework for Internationalisation of Higher Education in South Africa <https://www.dhet.gov.za/Policy%20and%20Development%20Support/Policy%20Framework%20for%20Internationalisation%20of%20Higher%20Education%20in%20South%20Africa.pdf> [5 March 2021].
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (Department of Higher Education and Training). 2019b. *Post School Education and Training Monitor: Macro Indicators and Trends*. <https://www.dhet.gov.za> [26 March 2024].

Partnership Between Universities in Japan and South Africa

- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (Department of Higher Education and Training). 2023. *Register of Private Higher Education Institutions*. <https://www.dhet.gov.za/SitePages/DocRegisters.aspx> [10 December 2023].
- Ress S. 2018. Race as a Political Issue in Brazilian South-South Cooperation in Higher Education. *Comparative Education Review*, 62(3):409–428. <https://doi.org/10.1086/698307>
- Saito K & Kim S. 2019. Internationalization of Japanese Higher Education: Effective Organization of Internationally Cooperative Higher Education Programs. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, 9(1):47–63. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18870/hlrc.v9i1.441>
- Sawahel W. 2021. Academic Freedom has ‘Robust Impact’ on Democracy in Africa. *University World News Africa Edition*, 18 November. <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20211117185953316> [19 November 2021].
- Solomons T. 2021. Over 3 Million Graduates Unemployed. *Pretoria News*, 25 November: 1.
- Statistics SA. 2019. *Youth Graduate Unemployment Rate Increases in Q1: 2019*. <https://bit.ly/4dzjXr3> [18 November 2021].
- Stein S. 2019. Critical Internationalization Studies at an Impasse: Making Space for Complexity, Uncertainty, and Complicity in a Time of Global Challenges. *Studies in Higher Education*, 46(9):1771–1784. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2019.1704722>
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). 2022. *Private Education has Grown Faster in South Asia Than Any Other Region in the World*. <https://world-education-blog.org/2022/11/02/private-education-has-grown-faster-in-south-asia-than-any-other-region-in-the-world/> [18 November 2023].
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). 2023. *Statistics*. <http://data.uis.unesco.org> [16 November 2023].

Scope of Partnerships

- Wolhuter CC. 1994. Vergelykende Perspektief op Vergelykende Opvoedkunde in Suid-Afrika [Comparative Perspective on Comparative Education in South Africa]. *Suid-Afrikaanse Tydskrif vir Opvoedkunde*, 14(3):155-158.
- Wolhuter CC. 2015. 1994: New Academic Profession for a New South Africa. *Studies in Higher Education*, 40(8):1377-1391. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1060712>
- Wolhuter CC. 2023a. Internationalization of Higher Education in South Africa: Unintended Consequences Brought from Contextual Contours. In: S Kamyab & RL Raby (eds). *Unintended Outcomes of Internationalization in Higher Education: Comparative International Perspectives on the Impacts of Policy and Practice*. New York, NY: Routledge, 283-297. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003189916-19>
- Wolhuter CC. 2023b. The Issue of Funding Higher Education: Global Patterns Compared to the South African Case. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 37(8):24-40. <https://doi.org/10.20853/37-6-5955>
- Wolhuter CC & Diedericks M. 2024. Die Imperatief vir Reikwydte en Diepte van Christelike Hoër Onderwys in die Wêreld van Vandag [The Imperative of Extent and Depth of Christian Higher Education in the World of Today]. *Tydskrif vir Christelike Wetenskap*. Forthcoming.
- Wolhuter CC & Jacobs L. 2021. The COVID-19 Pandemic: Streamlining or Capsizing the Global Higher Education Revolution. *Perspectives in Education* 39(1):291-303. <https://doi.org/10.18820/2519593X/pie.v39.i1.18>
- World Bank. 2016. *World Development Indicators*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World Bank. 2023. *World Development Indicators 2023*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- World's Top Exports. 2021. *Australia's Top Ten Exports*. <https://www.worldstopexports.com/australias-top-10-exports/> [2 December 2021].

Partnership Between Universities in Japan and South Africa

Yang R. 2014. Going Global: Contemporary International Networking in Chinese Mainland Universities. *Chinese Education and Society*, 47(1):27-43. <https://doi.org/10.2753/CED1061-1932470102>