# A sustainable tourism framework for managing international students at Tshwane University of Technology.

# A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM FRAMEWORK FOR MANAGING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AT TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

by

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## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis submitted for the degree Doctor of Technology, at Tshwane University of Technology, is my own original work and has not previously been submitted to any other institution of higher education. I further declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

O.J Adediran

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## ABSTRACT

South Africa has become a preferred destination by international students from African countries and beyond. However, to continue leading this tourism niche in Africa and remain in good standing globally, stakeholders at the destination (South Africa) must acknowledge the push and pull factors that determine which destination and universities international students go. A knowledge of preference for certain infrastructure, how leading countries and their universities handle the state of affairs regarding the attraction and management of international students' for optimum benefit equally need to be understood. Given the above, the objective of this study was to develop a sustainable framework for managing international students at TUT. In reaching this objective, a review of literature on the push and pull factors responsible for international students' travel away from home countries to destinations, types activities engaged in, the impact of their presence for the host and policy and incentives used in similar destinations to manage their presence and other relevant issues was explored. Also, a structured online-interview with international students across the Pretoria campuses of TUT, and, semi structured interview with selected staff of TUT at the Pretoria west campus were conducted.

Interview with international students sought for information on socio-demographic details, expenditure on academic and non-academic affairs, leisure activities engaged in, factors influential to the pre- and post-arrival at the host city and TUT, and, recommendations on how to improve international students well-being from 325 respondents. The results were analysed with descriptive statistics, T-test -analysis of variance ANOVA. Some of the findings show that international students from thirty-one countries took the survey; more than 75% are single, 54.80% are 25 years and below and, 79.30% are studying for undergraduate qualifications.

About 60% are unemployed, 50.63% have their tuition and living expenses financed by parents and, more than 74% of the respondents are willing to recommend the host city (the City of Tshwane) and TUT to friends and family as a place to reside and study respectively.

Further on the interview with international students, the three foremost factors attracting international students to South Africa – the COT as follow: availability of internationally recognised universities, improved infrastructure and opportunity to migrate to choice destinations. Also, the three leading factors influential to their selection of TUT are: quality of education, availability of intended courses, and the availability good quality educational support. Respondents recommended that the cleanliness in the COT be improved, better security arrangement that will guarantee 24hours movement across the city and an improved response to international students' complaints amongst other things for better learning experience at the TUT. Findings from the T-test analysis confirmed that there was no significance statistical difference regarding factors attracting international students to TUT by gender and qualification being pursued; no significance statistical difference regarding respondents' assessment of infrastructure in the host city by gender; but, there was a significant difference regarding respondents' assessment of infrastructure in TUT by gender and qualification being pursued.

The interview with selected TUT staff revealed that all respondents (TUT staff) overwhelmingly agreed that the presence of international students is a reliable source of revenue for TUT. Respondents will support effort at improving international students' well-being. The following were recommended for improving the well-being of international students at TUT: (i) more

quality and affordable accommodation (ii) improved human and non-human facilities in the international office to encourage efficient service support delivery to international students (iii) encourage the celebration of various international days with a view to promote cross-cultural understanding between international students and their local counterparts (iv) introduction of English language proficiency courses to improve communication and writing skills for students from non-English speaking countries and, (v) improved opportunities for international students to work as student assistants and other similar positions.

This study made significant contributions toward improving international students' management at TUT. Among other things, this study achieved the following:

- It developed a sustainable framework that considers stakeholders roles and expectations - in managing international students at TUT. This framework revolves around happenings at international students' countries of origins, destinations and global outcomes.
- It recommended further studies that could help improve on the management of international students at TUT and the COT as well as similar destinations.
- It suggested that TUT should equip the international office to be able to appropriately deal with international students' complaints, and offer excellent educational support service.
- It recommended that TUT should encourage more research studies from both the tourism and education management domains so as to be able to examine international students' acceptance of facilities in TUT in order to keep improving on service provision in this regard on a time to time basis.

- It paved the way for an appropriate management of international students' presence in South Africa. Consequently, it served as a response to few calls made for efficient management of international students' affairs.

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# CHAPTER 1

# OVERVIEW, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES

## 1.1 Introduction

Tourism is regarded as the world's largest industry (Hall, 2008:1; World Travel and Tourism Council, WTTC, 2016:3) in view of the high demand for travel, employment statistics in the industry and the amount of money it brings into a destination. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation, UNWTO (2012), the tourism industry was responsible for at least one out of every twelve jobs globally. The press release issued by UNWTO indicated that tourism generated more than USD 1.4 trillion in export earnings (equivalent to R16.24 at R11.6 to a dollar) for the year 2013 and international arrivals were at 1.087 billion for the same year (UNWTO, 2014). Similarly, remarkable earnings were recorded for 2014 as UNWTO (2015) puts international arrivals at 1.138 billion, increasing to 1.235 billion in 2016 as reported by (UNWTO, 2017a:2). In 2017, tourism delivers 10% of the world's GDP, 1 in every 10 jobs and 30% of world trade in services (UNTWO, 2017b). Despite its past and present contributions to global economic growth, more developments are expected from the tourism industry given that anticipated international arrivals could reach 1.6 billion by the year 2020 (Walker & Walker, 2011:6).

The South African tourism industry is experiencing significant growth in international visitors' arrivals and subsequently generates increase revenue for the economy. More than 1.2 million

jobs were created by the tourism industry in 2011 as reported by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2012). In 2012, South Africa recorded about 9.18 million international arrivals (Stats SA, 2013:24), this number increased considerably as Adams (2014) puts international arrivals at around 9.6 million for 2013 and 11.038 million for 2016 (Stats SA, 2017:24). Recently WWTC (2017:4) reported that tourism generated 761, 500 jobs and R127.9 billion (USD 8.7bn) in 2016. This is a remarkable progression, and if well managed, could translate to greater economic prosperity for South Africa, including all nine provinces and in particular Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (henceforth refers to as the City of Tshwane –abbreviated as COT).

This study acknowledges the various motivations for voluntary human travel under tourism as put forward by Shahrin, Mat Som and Jusoh (2014:1). However, the focus of the present study is on the international student as a component of visitors to the COT. The journey embarked on from home country to host country for the purpose of the study is crucial to the development of tourism for the host city. Thus, it requires proper administration for improving its outcomes.

Referring to international students as important visitors with many economic benefits for host countries, Huang (2008:1004) points to these international students as a unique category of tourists whose presence in a study destination is characterised by huge expenditure. Pawlak, (2013:7) attributes their presence to increase expenditure and participation in expenditure activities. The international student market is both an essential contributor to tourism and non-tourism revenue; especially when one takes into consideration some mandatory expenditure pertaining to visas/permits application for temporary stay, medical aid subscription and renewal, cost of accommodation, local

travel, entertainment, meals and other living expenses. According to Ortiz, Chang and Fang (2015), international students do not just contribute through the payment of tuition and living expenses, their presence at the destination can also create jobs or support existing ones as already witnessed in some destinations.

In light of the preceding contextualisation, the next sections present the background to the study, the motivation and the problem statement. The main objective as well as secondary objectives are set out as well as a brief explanation of the research methodology used in the study. A more detailed discussion of the methodology is presented in chapter five. Finally, clarification with regard to a number salient of concepts and terminologies are given, the scope (areas covered) of this study is explained, and a discussion of the chapter layout of the dissertation concludes this chapter.

## 1.2 Background and motivation to the study

A glance at the international student market as a tourism segment reveals the abundant prospective prosperity for host countries with good quality administrative structures for the running its affairs. This tourism niche is yielding major economic dividends for countries that acknowledge the potential it has, and subsequently manage it with sound administrative policies and tools. In short, the international students market generated more than R286bn and created several thousands of jobs in the United States of America, USA (National Association of Foreign Student Advisers NAFSA, 2015), about R45bn in revenue and supported 70 000 jobs in London alone (London First & PwC 2015:5). Furthermore, it provided more than 130 000 full-time jobs and generated over R154bn in income for the Australian economy (The Department of Education and

Training, 2015), and over R80bn in revenue while creating 81 000 jobs for Canada during 2010 (Kunin, 2012). These brief numbers of estimated revenues generated in selected countries provide a measure of clarity on the revenue potential of international students as tourists.

Non-African destinations are doing excellently as educational tourism is used to develop both the tourism and educational sectors in these countries. Ironically, African students are significantly responsible for the achievements recorded in other destinations; yet, not a single African country seems prepared to save the continent from the "embarrassment" of having to continuously watch hundreds of thousands of its citizens travelling outside the continent for study purpose year-in, year-out. An estimated 263,727 African students were studying outside the African continent in 2005 (Kishun, 2008:3). This figure has increased in view of ICEF Monitor's (2013) report that around 380 376 African students were studying in various destinations overseas during 2010. However, 66 693 students (comprising 50,360 from SADC and 16 333 from other African countries) spent time in South Africa in 2015 according to Stats SA (2016:16). This implies that around 313,683 (less 66 693 of Stats SA from 380 376 quoted by ICEF Monitor) African students travel to countries outside of the continent for study purposes.

Considering the above-mentioned figures pertaining to African students studying outside Africa (Kishun's 263 727 and the estimated 380 376), this study is also concerned with the number of Africans who might be involved in visit to family and relatives (VFR) in these countries and the attractions they offer. This may explain the absence of African countries in the ten most visited countries as at 2014 as reported by the UNWTO (2015:6). One can only hope that as long as South Africa is clamouring for greater benefits from tourism, the country must embrace all areas

of tourism she has the potential to deliver in, especially the international student market which has the potential to develop both the tourism and educational sector of a host country.

International students' presence had made a remarkable contribution to South Africa's economy. About R4bn was contributed to the South African GDP in 2008 (Aloyo & Wentzel, 2011:404). A study on international students at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University reveals that an estimated R57 000 per annum was spent per international student as at year the 2004 (Aloyo & Wentzel, 2011:392). Lately, international students' expenditure was part of the estimated R28.5bn reportedly spent annually by students of South African universities on some educational and living needs (Sebotsone, 2012). In a similar study, non-academic spending from university students in South Africa was worth around R33bn per annum (Mgnoma, 2012). The reports by Sebotsone and Mgnoma cover expenditures from both domestic and international students, thus making it difficult to ascertain what constitutes international students' actual spending. However, both studies covered of students' expenditures which included the entire body of international students attending South African universities at the time these studies were conducted.

Due to the findings pertaining to the entire students market contributing to the growth of the tourism industry and the economy at large, this study believes that international students are needed in South Africa and, more specifically, by the COT. Once they are here, and whilst providing quality education which is presumably the primary reason for them being here, there is a need to transform their presence to a boost for tourism activities in the COT as is often

expected of destinations with significant number of international students' presence (Pawlak, 2013:7).

Examining international students' arrivals in South Africa and indeed the COT's with regard to the number of attendance in both circumstances, Stats SA (2016:16) notes that 75 093 visitors arrived South Africa for study purposes in 2015. However, while citing Higher Education Information Management System HEMIS, Acha-Anyi (2016:6) states that only 6 412 international students were in the COT. Acha-Anyi considers international students in TUT and University of Pretoria only; as international students in other universities situating in the COT such as Sefako Makgatho Health Sciences University, Ga Rankuwa were not included. From the figures above (SA 75 093 and the COT 6 412) one can conclude that more than 8.5 percent of the entire body of international students in South Africa reside in the COT alone. This is a commendable achievement and but also requires improvement. The COT may be said to be vital in determining the prospect of international students' attendance to South Africa in light of the large number of international it currently accommodates. This figure represents a significant fraction of the total international students' arrivals to the country.

In light of the preceding discussion, international students' presence at all the universities situated in the COT, if met with corresponding amenities, and if adequately managed, could translate into a significant economic boost for the city's tourism activities, and could significantly expose other tourism potential as the COT is regarded as a major destinations across the world. Making quality education available and together with enabling a sound recreational environment has been described as one of the important recipes required for success in this

tourism niche. According to Lam, Ariffin and Ahmad, (2011:64), the ability of host destinations to link education and tourism industries as avenues for international exchange and learning would determine the level of success achieved. Linking the education and tourism industries may also mean improving the quality of education; bolstering the availability of desired programmes; offering international recognition of certificates from universities at the destination; and paying attention to the attractiveness of the destination, safety, the availability of leisure amenities and other tourism features.

Another important prerequisite for success in any tourism niche is stakeholders' cooperation. The fact that international students are educational visitors and also are tourists (Llewellyn-Smith & McCabe, 2008:593) do not imply processes can run properly without proper structures in place. Adequate planning along with proper outlining of stakeholders' roles in tourism as specified by Hall (2008:128) are needed for this niche to avoid situations where stakeholders' interest would suffer; thus leading to unwillingness to continue with the union by any stakeholder who feels cheated or feels that the dividends accruing do not correspond with contributions made and expectations.

The stakeholders that are principally linked with this tourism niche at the destination level are: international students, host universities and the government (ICEF, 2014b). Ankomah and Larson (2000) also put forward that governments, universities, the tourism industry and the host community are stakeholders from the destination's side. This study also argues that the local community and by extension the people therein on whose neighbourhood universities campuses and international students' residences situate be included as stakeholder. Therefore, international

students, host universities, government at the national, provincial and municipality levels and the host community (which comprises the residents and the citizens) are considered to be the major stakeholders within the destination context; consequently, the present study will deal with these as salient role-players.

The need for this study emerges from the belief that having an adequate plan for managing international students' presence in the COT would improve international students' attendance to the city, consequently leading to more activities, greater experiences (both academically and otherwise) for the international students together with their ancillary visitors. Thus, this will improve revenue for the COT and residents of host communities amongst others stakeholders within. Another issue is attending to possibly unfair distribution of roles/responsibilities and proceeds with regard to stakeholders' returns. This would address the concern that the return on investment (ROI) made in tourism is rarely equally spread among the key stakeholders (Vijayanand, 2013:1). In order to establish who needs what and who provides it, this study examines international students' perceptions about the COT and the host university - Tshwane University of Technology (TUT). In order to do so, a tourism framework for managing students' and their activities in this tourism niche was drawn up for the purpose of realising reasonable outcomes for concerned stakeholders.

This study anticipates that international students' attendance in the COT, if well managed, is a potential catalyst for attracting many would-be international students together with VFR and youth visits. Consequently, this may result in an increase in tourism and educational benefits for the COT and South Africa. Similarly, by actualising this study, the COT would appreciate the

significance of this tourism niche and therefore may encourage the national government to do same. Furthermore, the government may respond positively to future calls made for interventions to the development of tourism at all levels. Finally, regarding on motivation, the result of a previous study conducted by the researcher on the perceptions of foreign students as international tourists at a university of technology reveal that international students are responsible for encouraging visits by friends and family as also found by Engberg (2009:60). This means a boost for consumption of tourism activities in for the host city (Pawlak, 2013:7). This outcome furthermore motivated the researcher to conceive of the idea of developing a sustainable tourism framework to manage international students in the COT and subsequently to increase tourism earnings while maximising potential earnings to the COT.

### 1.3 Problem statement

In 2005, there were about 47 000 international students in South Africa. At that time, Donaldson and Gatsinzi (2005:21) conducted a study on international students as tourists in South Africa and made significant recommendations by calling for greater attention to this niche as a potential boost for the tourism market segment. These authors also indicated the need for active steps to ensure that international students are looked after as visitors, and not merely as students; and, the need for universities that already have high numbers of international students to strive to maintain them. Another study by Aloyo and Wentzel (2011:391) acknowledges the absence of a clear policy on the internationalisation of higher education which involves attracting and managing international students in South Africa; they attributed this state of affairs to limited research in this area. The present study concurs with a number of authors and acknowledges the

need for developing a framework aimed at managing international students' attendance in South Africa as well as various cities within the country such as the COT.

The number of international students in the country continues to rise year-on-year; around 47 000 in 2005 (Donaldson & Gatsinzi, 2005:21) to 60 600 in 2008 (van Wyk, 2009). Recently, about 75 093 international students were reported to be in South Africa (Stats SA, 2016:16), yet, there is a shortage of academic research into their affairs as well as an absence of a tangible framework to manage their presence in South Africa, including the COT. Consequently, in view of the rising figures of international students globally and locally, this study furthermore acknowledges a possible loss of opportunity to attract economic and intellectual gains due to the inability to maximise the benefits of international students' presence if compared with countries with documented plans, policies (Aloyo & Wentzel, 2011:404) as well as ample academic research in this regard.

The potential for destinations with an adequate plan for managing international students' presence is enormous; but this requires that a framework be put in place and that the framework is properly managed. This potential is evident in countries with policies and plans in place for attracting and retaining international students (Becker & Kolster, 2012). Considering the number of international students in South Africa therefore (75 093 in all, and around 6 412 in only two of the universities in the COT) a couple of years ago (Acha-Anyi, 2016:6) a sustainable tourism framework is required to gain the most benefits from their presence and to earn the confidence of prospective students who are likely depending on recommendations from current students. Such a framework developed for the COT would respond to the call for greater attention to

international students and will enable the host city to attend to them as visitors, as also recommended by Donaldson and Gatsinzi (2005:21). The framework would also serve as a reference in providing infrastructure and services are required to attract international students and subsequently managing their presence, amongst others.

In what is similar to the goal of this study, Acha-Anyi (2016) conducted a study on a framework for managing international students' tourism; this author's study predominantly considers international students' experiences and the benefits of their spending for the host city. However, there is a gap in our knowledge with regards to why international students select South Africa as a country and the COT as the actual study destination. There is a need to also establish whether international students are in the COT due to a lack of opportunities to study in other cities in South Africa, or whether the COT is principally the reason why they are in South Africa. Filling these gaps would help the COT to understand its real potential to attract international students, and subsequently project into what prospective international students are likely to consider when making their choice about where to go, particularly about their choices in South Africa. It would also help to determine the need for infrastructure, amenities as well as services that can be suggested for the development of a sustainable framework for managing their presence in the COT.

Furthermore, the COT would be provided with relevant recommendations needed to remain a significant destination for international students. In consideration of Van Riper and White's (2007:293) opinion that visitor managers should be mindful of visitors' needs, and investigate if these needs are met; it is hoped that the COT will consider the present study, use the findings

improve on areas found to be lacking, and introduce new things found to be significant in keeping the COT a competitive study destination.

The fact that South Africa's tourism is witnessing increase in international arrivals (see paragraph 2) does not and should not stop the country and the COT from tapping into the prosperity in educational tourism niche. The COT has the potential to attract international students - who could also attract ancillary visitors towards destinations (Taylor, Shanka & Pope, 2004:72; Engberg, 2009:60). This would be a means of selling attractions within the city. Another reason the COT must not ignore the development of educational tourism is the potential to use educational export as a tourism service for destination rejuvenation. For instance, visitors' attendance to the COT (either increasing, stagnant or decreasing) can be boosted by attracting international students who would naturally enhance domestic visitation to the numerous attractions, consequently boosting tourism spending with their presence. Robinson, Luck and Smith (2014:298) concur with the notion of continually reinvigorating tourism products and services to avoid a lengthy period of stagnation and a subsequent decline about the rate of tourists' attendance. In light of the preceding discussion, attention must be paid to this tourism niche as it is capable of changing the nature of tourism expenditures likely to be enjoyed by the COT (Pawlak, 2013:7).

This study is therefore addressing a pressing need and it is hoped that it would yield a number of benefits which include, but are not limited to: (i) positioning the COT as a destination that would continually remain inviting to prospective international students and their ever-growing market niche; (ii) boost tourism activities in the COT via international students presence and the

presence of ancillary visitors such as youth travel, VFR and inter-university related excursions, among others; (iii) improve marketability of the COT as a destination with adequate preparation for the management of international students' attendance; (iv) serve as or add to the voice(s) aiming at the inclusion of educational tourism in the South African strategic document for attracting international visitors (especially as the current document does not mention educational-related visitors); (v) create an avenue to address the deficit in educational offerings and admission-related issues for indigenous South African students; and finally (vi) provide an academic reference for future studies within related themes.

## 1.4 Research questions

Answering the following research questions are considered integral to the realisation of the primary objective of this study. These questions are:

- What are the factors responsible for international students leaving their countries of origin/residence?
- What are the factors attracting international students to TUT?
- What is the perception of international students about facilities in the COT?
- What is the perception of international students on the facilities in TUT?
- What are the recommendations by international students on areas to improve upon in the COT and TUT?
- What is the perception of TUT management about international students' presence in the institution?
- What do TUT staff recommend regarding the improvement of international students' general well-being?

## 1.5 Objectives of this study

This study is guided by a primary objective and a number of secondary objectives.

### 1.5.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to develop a sustainable tourism framework for managing international students at TUT.

### 1.5.2 Secondary objectives

For the efficient realisation of the primary objective, it is important that the following secondary objectives be met:

i. To review the literature on educational tourism and educational traveller profiling in order to gain an understanding of salient issues pertaining to international students.
ii. To review the literature on the impact of international students' presence on the host community.
iii. To examine government's role and involvement in educational tourism through a review of relevant documents such as the national educational policy on internalisation, the Tourism White Paper and tourism strategic document as well as other relevant sources.
iv. To investigate factors influencing international students' preference for TUT.
v. To examine international students' perceptions about infrastructure in the COT.
vi. To examine international students' perceptions about infrastructure at TUT.
vii. To collect recommendations from international students perceptions of areas to improve for better living and studying experiences in the COT and TUT respectively.
viii. To examine the perceptions of TUT management regarding the presence of international students in TUT.
ix. To draw conclusions and make recommendations for managing international students at TUT.

## 1.6 Significance of the study

It is hoped that the findings of the present study would initiate and improve appropriate action which is anticipated to lead to:

i. Improving the provision of amenities for international and domestic students tourism in the COT;

ii. Gaining government and other stakeholders' acceptance of the internationalisation of higher education as contributing towards sustainable development (economic, environmental and socio-cultural);

iii. Promoting attractions at the various communities currently housing the various TUT campuses across the COT to would-be international students who would, in turn, attract visits from their friends and relatives to South Africa;

iv. Improving the economic situation and standard of living for residents in areas where university campuses and residential locations are situated in light of the association between international students who populate these localities and who may increase their expenditure on tourism and non-tourism activities; and

v. Improving local education for the reason that success in this tourism niche hinges on the quality and level of infrastructure development in host countries.

## 1.7 Research methodology

Research methodology refers to the systematic planning and implementation of a research design (Babbie & Mouton, 2010:74; Nieuwenhuis, 2007:70). In other words, it entails the step-by-step sequence of activities regarding the choice of research approach considered most suitable for data collection in a research study; it also explains the how, from who, where and why regarding

the data collected. The process includes data analysis, and provides justification regarding the choice of research tools. Detail regarding information on the research methodology for this study is provided in chapter 5. However, a brief explanation of the research design, sources of data, research instrument, data collection and data analysis is presented below.

### 1.7.1 Research design

This study employs dual approaches, namely: (i) a qualitative approach through the review of the literature, and (ii) a quantitative approach with online surveys of respondents' completed questionnaires. The questionnaire was administered to international students for gathering empirical data; and semi structured interviews with selected TUT staff followed. The flow of these approaches from literature to empirical provides deep knowledge on relevant issues and themes; consequently, it facilitated the development of the questionnaire also with reference to insights gained from previous studies.

### 1.7.2 Sources of data

This study utilises two sources of data synonymous with tourism research as alluded to by Jennings (2010:70), namely (i) primary data – which includes responses obtain through administered questionnaire, and (ii) secondary data – this includes knowledge from the review of text books, journals, souvenirs, newspapers, diaries and other forms of documents (either written, or in audio or video format).

### 1.7.3 Research instrument

Before data collection phase, this study developed a research instrument for the purpose of collecting primary data from the respondents. Thereafter, it employed the use of an online questionnaire (online survey) as respondents had to complete the questionnaire. The entire process regarding the development of the questionnaire, request for ethical clearance as well as certification that the questionnaire is suitable for achieving the objective of this study will be discussed in chapter 5.

### 1.7.4 Data collection

Data was obtained from two sources. On the one hand, secondary data was obtained via review of relevant textbooks, journals and articles on issues relating to this study. Also, primary data (demographics queries, perception and assessment of infrastructure amongst other information) was collected from registered international students for the academic year 2017. Further primary data was also collected from selected TUT staff.

### 1.7.5 Data analysis

Analysis of the data was carried out by the statistician at the TUT Arcadia campus. Before data analysis, data received through Survey Monkey was imported to an excel spreadsheet and then cleaned, after that analysed with Statistical Package Social Science, SPSS.

## 1.8 Concept clarification

Salient concepts used in this study are explained below in order to provide their contextual meaning for purposes of the present study.

- **Sustainable**

  According to the definition provided online by Cambridge University Press (2017), sustainable means the ability of anything to be able to continue over a period of time. This definition clearly suits the intention of this study in that sustainability implies the ability of the outcome of this study to continually deliver outcomes that merit the various stakeholders' inputs.

- **Framework:** this is a plan that clearly maps out the various activities in a support system whilst providing an explanation of individual responsibility by way of his or her contribution to the system. This definition of a framework concurs with Tshipala (2013:18) who states that a framework is a plan with explanations of the actions to be carried out by stakeholders from the public, private sectors and community; it also predicts a possible outcome in a situation where stakeholders perform their roles efficiently.

- **International student**

  An international student is referred to as a student who pursues all or part of his/her higher education experience in a country other than his/her home country (Kishun, 2008:1). An international student is sometimes referred to as a foreign or overseas student (Huang, 2008:1008). An international student in the context of this study means one who pays the international students' fee whilst studying at a South African university; it also refers to a student who does not have permanent residential status in South Africa.

- **Educational tourism**

  This represents the tourism niche that welcomes visitors (international students) to a destination for the primary purpose of studying. The fact that this class of visitors is present at the destination for education purposes renders their movement tourism-inclined (Hall, 2008:6). Therefore, in this study, educational tourism is a form of education as a product that attracts international students as visitors to the COT as the destination under discussion.

- **Internationalisation**

  This refers to international student mobility from the country of origin or residence to a choice destination for an educational service offering at a higher institution of learning. It covers efforts aimed at globalisation education at the destination; subsequently leading to situations where education is exported from the destination to students from countries across the globe.

## 1.9 Scope of this study

Scope refers to the extent of the area or subject matter that something deals with or to which it is relevant. Turbit (2005) defines scope as "what is included in, or excluded from a project". Adopting this definition, this study combines two major sectors of the economy – tourism and education. This study did not investigate nor attempt to delve into the educational domain or evaluate issues that are professionally linked to educational experts, and therefore its findings are only related to the tourism potential and facilities therein needed to increase the educational experience of visitors arriving and those already in the COT.

## 1.10 Chapter layout

**Chapter 1: Overview of the study, problem statement and objectives**

This chapter provided an overview of this study, as well as the problem statement, objective, motivation and significance of this study. Also, this chapter introduced the research methodology and explained salient concepts used in the study.

**Chapter 2: International students**

This chapter reviews the literature on educational visitor profile, international students as foreign visitors, factors pushing them out of countries of residence/origin and factors pulling international students to prospective destinations, and their activities at study destination about tourism and non-tourism expenditures.

**Chapter 3: The impacts of international students on the host community**

This chapter focuses on the impact of international students (visitors) on the host destination. It presents a discussion on how the presence of international students can affect their various destinations sustainably (economically, environmentally and socially).

**Chapter 4: Government role in tourism development**

Government's role in tourism and in specific, educational tourism is reviewed. A review of policy for educational tourism export in selected countries is also conducted. An examination of the state of affairs regarding the practice of internationalisation of higher education in South Africa is presented, together with suggestions related to internationalisation.

**Chapter 5: Research methodology**

This chapter explains the research methodology and discusses the entire research process in detail.

**Chapter 6: Analysis and presentation of data**

This chapter presents the analysis of the first data that was statistically processed as well as the second data that was analysed via content analysis of texts therein.

**Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations**

This chapter concludes this study; recommendations are made based on the findings, as well as suggestions for relevant stakeholders. Finally, it presents a sustainable tourism framework for managing international students in Tshwane University of Technology.

# CHAPTER 2

# INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

## 2.1 Introduction

It is not enough to simply recruit international students to a destination and institutions of higher learning; it is equally important to provide the amenities that will address their needs, fulfill their expectations and enhance their overall experience. In order to achieve this, the host destination and university seeking to attain and retain opportunities herein needs to understand international students market (Bodycott, 2009:351), and have adequate knowledge of what this unique visitor require for a sound experience amongst other requirement.

An international student is referred to as someone who pursues all or part of his/her higher education experience in a country other than his/her home country (Kishun, 2008:1). International students are sometimes referred to as foreign or overseas students (Huang, 2008:1008), especially when one considers their cross-border mobility which has been considered with other international visitors by Hall (2008:6). As is the case with other international visitors, international students deserve to be provided with quality infrastructure as well as services that will make their stay in destinations worthwhile. This is necessary in view of van Riper and White's (2007:293) assertion that individuals in charge of visitor management should be conscious of visitors' needs, their desires, and investigate if these needs and desires are met.

In light of the issues highlighted above, a destination that is enthusiastic about maximising the benefits of educational tourism ought to understand the needs and requirements of this tourism niche (Mpinganjira, 2009:358), especially those factors that influence students' decision to opt for international degree and those behind a destinations' willingness to attract international students. Among the requirements believed to propel the massive demand for higher education from both international students and the host destinations' perspectives are: increased demand for internationally recognised qualifications; demand for highly skilled labour in both developed and developing countries, as well as the inclination of several countries to promote foreign collaborations aimed at improving the quality of domestic higher education (Kwaramba, 2012:1). Other reasons given by Peacock (2009:1) are: research gaps left by local students' non-participation in critical skills areas such as engineering and sciences are filled by international students; and international students' presence translate into economic gains through expenditure on tuition, living and other related expenses carried out at the destination. Upcoming study destinations such as South Africa therefore need to take these and many more motivations into consideration.

In looking for similarities between the South African situation and leading countries regarding educational tourism export administration, South Africa requires an understanding of this market in all its components. More resources should be invested in order to attract and improve benefits than what is currently the case and to be able to sustain international students' arrival to South African universities. To illustrate this, the United Kingdom (UK), despite been favourably positioned in this tourism niche, is still investing massive resources into her educational export services (Russell, 2005:65). Perhaps the UK is still aiming to attract more benefits in this

significant tourism sector that has been projected to produce close to eight million international students in just twelve years from now (ICEF Monitor, 2015).

As international students' market niche continues to grow in terms of enrollment figures, so is the economic dividend increasing for host countries as a result of students' expenditure and, by extension, expenditure from ancillary visitors such as visit from their family and friends. At the same time, academic research into international students' affairs keeps attracting researchers' interest from across the globe. Issues such as emotional well-being; socio-cultural adaptation or acculturation and language challenges of international students, amongst others issues (Chen & Chen, 2009; Li, Wang & Xiao, 2014; Telbis, Helgeson & Kingsbury, 2014; Hegarty, 2014; Kuo, 2011; Lin & Scherz, 2014), have received research attention. Also, a number of publications on tourism-related affairs about international students have continued to serve as point of reference, and, have proven to be very relevant for new studies, as is the case with the present study.

Together with the issues mentioned above, the conceptual framework for this chapter emanates from prevailing tourism-related issues associated with international students. Academic research about international students mostly examine issues such as the push and pull factors of international students, leisure activities at the destination, and clarifications on international students' status as tourists, amongst others. Tables 2.1a and 2.1b illustrate some prevailing issues about international students that have received academic attention. The purpose of these tables include: (i) to appreciate the relevance of studies listed therein especially with regard to the period of publications which is nearly two decades; yet most of these issues are still relevant

to date, and (ii) to guide the selection of issues discussed in this chapter about international students.

The discussion on international student in this chapter is structured under the following subheadings: international students as tourism visitors, international students' contributions to local tourism, factors leading to international students' decisions to travel (push factors), factors attracting international students to specific destinations (pull factors), international students' source of information about study destination, and the extent of international students' expenditures.

**Table 2.1a: Selected studies on international students**

| AUTHORS | TOPIC |
|---|---|
| Mazzarol, Kemp, and Savery (1996) | International students who choose not to study in Australia |
| Mazzarol (1998) | Critical success factors for international education marketing |
| Field (1999) | The college students market segment: a comparative study of travel behaviours of international and domestic students at a Southeastern university |
| Chen and Kerstetter (1999) | International students' image of rural Pennysylvania as a travel destination |
| Babin and Kim (2001) | International students' travel behaviour |
| Mazzarol and Soutar, (2002) | Push – pull factors influencing international student destination choice |
| Kim and Jogaratnam (2003) | Activity preferences of Asian international and domestic American university students: An alternate basis for segmentation |
| Michael, Armstrong and King (2004) | The travel behaviour of international students: The relationship between studying abroad and their choice of tourist destinations |
| Taylor, Shanka and Pope (2004) | Investigating the significance of VFR visits to international students |
| Kim, Jogaratnam and Noh (2006) | Travel decisions of students at a US university: Segmenting the international market |

**Table 2.1b: Selected studies on international students**

| AUTHORS | TOPIC |
|---|---|
| Hazen and Alberts (2006) | Visitors or immigrants? International students in the United States |
| Mpingajira and Ruginbana (2009) | Understanding International Student Mobility: What motivates African student choices? |
| Glover (2011) | International students: Linking education and travel |
| Lim, Yep and Lee (2011) | Destination choice, service quality, satisfaction, and consumerism: International students in Malaysian institutions of higher education |
| Mpingajira (2011) | Why choose South Africa? Insight from international undergraduate students |
| Chou, Roberts and Ching (2012) | A study on the international students' perception and norms in Taiwan |
| Iyanna and Abraham (2012) | A comparative cost analysis of undergraduate business degrees for international students in selected countries |
| Zeeshan, Sabbar, Bashir and Hussain (2013) | Foreign students' motivation for studying in Malaysia |
| Kavakas (2013) | Students as consumers: identifying study abroad destination choice influences for marketing purposes |
| Gardiner, King and Wilkins (2013) | The travel behaviours of international students: nationality-based constraints and opportunity |
| Hennings and Mintz (2015) | Japan's measures to attract international students and the impact of students mobility on the labour market |

Tables 2.1a and b show a number of randomly selected studies about international students from different perspectives. These include issues pertaining to international students' status as visitors in the host destination, travel motivation and decision regarding destination selection, travel behaviours within the host destination, the effect of their presence on labour force and other economic activities of the host destination, as well as expectations and assessment of services provided at destinations amongst other issues. As already mentioned, one of the purposes of this exploration is to guide the flow of discussion for this chapter. The next section deals with international students as tourism visitors.

## 2.2 International students as tourism visitors

The two types of educational-related visitors as identified by Ritchie, Carr and Cooper (2003:11) are: (i) the 'tourism first' and (ii) the 'education first' respectively. The tourism first visitors are visitors whose primary motivation is tourism; however, purposeful learning comes in as a component of what will be done during the journey. This is also known as learning while travelling. Examples include visits to cultural monuments, museums, aquariums, zoo, and places where information about destination being visited and historical objects therein are supplied to the visitors. In this instance, learning and similar educational activities become part of their travel experience, bearing in mind that tourism itself is a form of education as opined by Pawlak (2013:8).

On the other hand, the education first visitors are visitors whose primary motivation for travelling is learning. In some way, though, this category of visitor inevitably find themselves involving in tourism activities, as either part of lifestyle or as part of what they must study. For

instance, students of tourism and leisure, culture and language tend to visit places and partake in excursion travels as part of their study. Meanwhile, other students are also involved in tourism travel for non-curriculum reasons as noted by Michael, King and Armstrong (2004); Heung and Leong (2006:87) as this may be referred to as part of lifestyle.

Therefore, international students as a component of the education first group are recognised as tourists (Huang, 2008:1004). Hall (2008:6-7) concurs; this notion is illustrated in figure 2.1. Educationally motivated travel has been classified as a tourism journey for the following reasons and more: expenses carried out by international students, distance covered, time spent at the destination, and the duration of stay out of usual environment (Kak-Yom & Jogarathnam, 2002; Vickers & Bekhradnia, 2007; Gardiner, King & Wilkins, 2013:282). Figure 2.1 and Table 2.2 both depict educational-motivated travel as a tourism journey due to time and distance and purpose of the trip respectively. As demonstrated in figure 2.1, international visitors who travel for educational purposes must have crossed borders and be outside their countries of origin for not more than twelve months.

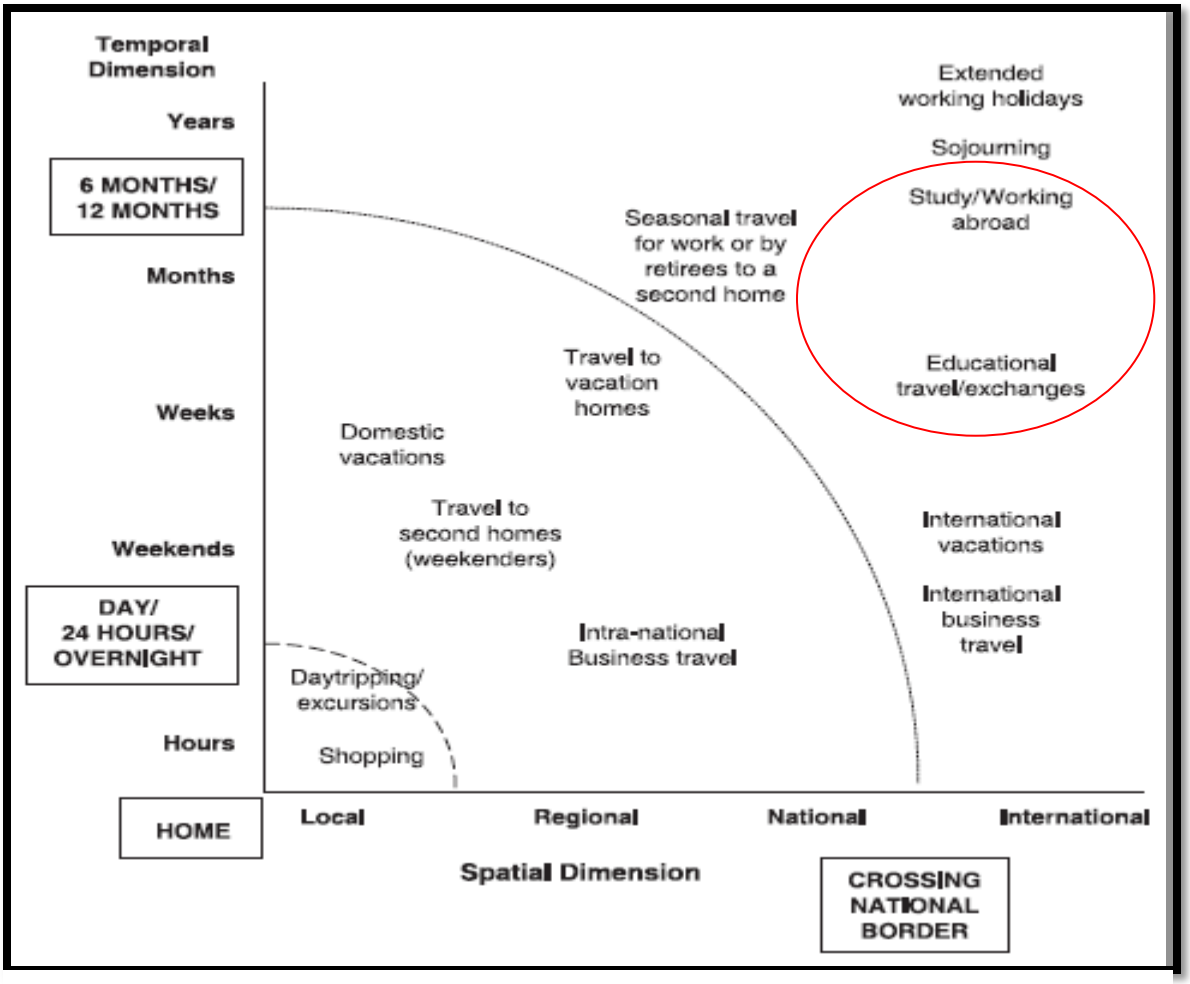



**Figure 2.1: Classification of temporary mobility in space and time**
**Source:** Hall (2005:130)

Still on the topic of visitor classification, international students with regard to the duration of stay (Glover, 2011:265) and the purpose of travelling are visitors to their various destinations. In the first instance, a visitor is someone who is undertaking a local, or an international trip to any destination outside his/her usual environment (UNWTO, 2012d). A visitor could also be recognised for participating in any of the following: (a) domestic tourism; which is performed by resident of a country in question and involves travelling from one place to another within the same country; (b) inbound tourism; this is usually performed by non-resident or international

visitor coming into the country; and (c) outbound tourism; which is observed by a resident of a country in question when he or she embarks on journey(s) outside their country of residence or origin (UNWTO, 2008:16). From the above explanations, therefore, international students obviously fall within the inbound tourism category because they are foreign nationals, but are temporarily residing in their various study destinations for a period which falls within the definition provided by tourism for international visitor.

For a traveller to be regarded as a visitor, the period of being outside usual environment must be at least twenty-four hours (Bennett & Strydom, 2005:3) or better still, an overnight stay. Since international students are habitually outside their usual environment for more than a day, they obviously qualify in this regard. However, visitors' duration of stay (also regarded as temporary mobility) outside the usual environment must not exceed twelve month at a stretch (Saayman, 2002:15-16; Hall, 2005:130) and therefore another reason why international students qualify to be called international visitors relates to long annual vacations that offer opportunity for most students to travel home or to their residential country. In addition, international students engage in tourism activities which, by extension, attract some form of expenditure (Ryan & Zhang, 2007:102). All these qualities warranted the recognition accorded to international students as tourism visitors.

In further recognition of international students' status as visitors and their trips as tourism journeys, it is important to understand that there are reasons for undertaking tourism trips (Keyser, 2009:72). That is, every visitor that engages in voluntary journey has a main purpose

for doing so, and the purpose of any trip is the reason for its occurrence (UNWTO, 2014:30). In light of this, Keyser classifies tourism trips under two significant headings: (i) personal and (ii) business/professional. As for the majority of international students, the main purpose behind their trips is education and therefore these trips were classified as personal trips as depicted in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.2: Clarification of tourism trips according to the main purpose**

| **Personal** | **Business and professional** |
|---|---|
| Personal: All purposes of tourism trips that are not classified as business and professional | Business and professional: the activities of self-employed, and employees, as long as they are not in an employer-employee relationship with a resident producer in place visited, those of investors, businessmen, etc. |
| 1.1 Holidays, leisure and recreation<br>1.2 Visiting friends and relatives<br>1.3 Education and training<br>1.4 Health and medical care<br>1.5 Religion and pilgrimages<br>1.6 Shopping<br>1.7 Transit<br>1.8 Other | It includes: attending meetings, conferences or congresses, trade fairs and exhibitions; giving lectures, concerts, shows and plays; promoting, purchasing, selling, or buying goods and services on behalf of non-resident producers (of the place visited); participating in foreign mission as diplomatic, military or international organisation personnel, except when stationed on duty in the country visited; participating in non-governmental organisation missions; participating in research; programming tourism travel, contracting travel science, working as guides or other tourism professionals for non-resident agencies; participating in sports activities; attending on-the-job training courses; being part of crews on a private mode of transport, etc. |

**Source:** Keyser (2009:72)

Subsequent reasons for recognising international students as visitors may be significant to their motive to study abroad, which are followed by the selection of specific country and universities available therein. Van der Merwe and Saayman (2008:154) refer to study or knowledge acquisition as one of the motives responsible for visitors travelling. In addition, the quest for

quality international education has been identified as one of the sources of attracting international arrivals; hence this has been included in visitors' reasons for travelling away from their usual environment with regard to time and space covered on the basis of voluntary mobility (Hall, 2008:6; United Nation World Tourism Organisation, 2008:18-21).

Furthermore, studies such as Bansal and Eiselt (2004:388-390); Yoon and Uysal (2005:46-52); Jang and Wu (2006:310-313) and Correia, Oom de Valle and Moco (2007:13-22) concur that educational-motivated journeys form part of tourism. Therefore, an international student whose primary reason for coming to South Africa is for study purposes is considered to be actively exercising the role of an international visitor and is contributing to tourism arrival in this regard. Although other activities are usually carried out apart from the quest for education while at a destination, it is fairly certain that the reason for an international student trip to the study destination is mainly aimed at education, and some revenue generated therein can be connected to tourism revenue, the discussion below outlines.

## 2.3 International students' contribution to host country's tourism industry

Globally, the estimated 7 million international students expected by 2025 (Yang, 2007:2) constitute a potential prosperity for the travel and tourism industry. Anticipated benefits from increase in the numbers of international students would most likely boost revenue generation for host destinations. On the one hand this takes place via international students' direct participation in tourism-related activities (referred to as the primary source of contributing to the host country) while on the other hand is revenue is boosted by attracting ancillary visitors; another source is domestic students who are encouraged to take to take local trips (also referred to as secondary source). Firstly, given their direct participation in tourism activities, Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe (2008:594) describe international students as distinct tourism visitors due to their unique participation in tourism-related activities; the authors refer to them as unique tourists given their outstanding expenditures and purchase of tourism services. Sirakaya, Sonmez and Choi (2001:129) affirm that international students are ready to engage in travel and tourism activities. Their participation in tourism activities remains one of the major criteria upon which some publications have classified them as tourism visitors.

The Tourism Satellite Account (TSA, 2008:27) describes that tourism activities are embedded in the tourism movements carried out by visitors in the course of their journey. Zaei and Zaei (2013:12) referred to tourism activities to include happenings in the accommodation, entertainment, transportation. Meaning, all the movements and what is done, from when visitor embarks a journey at the origin/destination as well as the entire host of activities carried out at the destination before returning to where the journey started are tourism activities. Tourism activities performed by visitors are either majorly or partly connected to the motive behind the

trip. For instance, it is conceivable that the principal reason for international students' attendance at the host destination is to study. This as a possibility was affirmed by the outcome of a similar study by Adediran (2013) wherein more than ninety three percent (93%) of the international students who that took the survey were originally in the host city for study purposes. However, their participation in other activities such as leisure, shopping for essential needs and visiting places of interests for both educational and personal reasons were part of activities in which they participated.

Therefore, international students have the tendency to visit attractions within the host country in the course of exercising a round trip. This is a similar behaviour to other international visitors who are in the host country for a different reason and for a relatively shorter period. A round trip is a complete journey from the country of origin/residence to destination and back to the country of origin/residence. While doing so and within the period not exceeding twelve months as stipulated in figure 2.1, international students are believed to contribute primarily to the tourism industry as travellers with one international inbound arrival, and as tourists for the number of places visited during a round trip stay (UNWTO, 2014:25). As discussed above, a number of activities which are not principally connected to international students' main motives for the journey may also be carried out for the duration of a round trip. In the course of exercising any activities within the host country, all the local places visited as well as money spent on all local activities are a component of domestic tourism earnings for the host country.

There is a high likelihood of international students visiting places of interest within the host country, as previously mentioned. Among their motivations to travel within the host destination

are to experience new places, relax and to get away from stress attributed with learning (Heung & Leong, 2006:87; Chen & Lu, 2010:1557); to visit friends and relatives and visit places they have read about (Ryang & Zhang, 2007:101); and to explore nature and perform other activities relating to adventure tourism (Shanka & Taylor, 2002:35). Their major inspiration to visit these places and other places not mentioned here may be connected to recommendations by family and friends who had visited similar places. Students are also reported to like taking visits to places and attractions with aquatic experiences such as beaches (Michael, Armstrong & King, 2004:62). The above-mentioned ideas are primarily linked with international students' direct activities on the domestic front and are considered as primary means of contributing to the development of the host's tourism industry regarding revenue and arrivals at local attractions.

As for international students' secondary contributions to the host country's tourism, the association between VFR and international students is significant. International students are a potential pull factor for visits from their friends and relatives to their study destination (Taylor, Shanka & Pope, 2004:72; Engberg, 2009:60), thus rendering the revenue recorded from VFR visits through international students too significant to be ignored. According to Poel, Masurel and Nijkamp (2006:219-225) the VFR market segment, which is directly linked with international students, is associated with high expenditures and brings with it dynamic economic benefits. Therefore, the impact of the now above 4.3 million international students (Tsubaya-Newell, 2018) globally in the attraction of VFR will be significant to the overall annual arrivals for the tourism industry. Also, the outcome of a previous study that examined the volume of VFR arrivals generated by international students at a Pretoria-based university of technology

indicates that about 96% of international students that participated received at least one visit from friends or relatives in at least a year of their duration of study.

Another secondary means by which international students contribute to a host nation's tourism is via increase in youth travel to the same destination (Kim, Jogaratnam & Noh, 2006:346). There is a resemblance between international students and the youth travel market (Richards and Wilson, 2005: 41; Shanka & Taylor, 2002:35). It follows that the preparation for and expectations from both groups can be explored for developing a successful marketing strategy given the similarity in travel behaviours and expenditure pattern. Regarding the international student tourism niche and its correlation with the youth travel market, it was found (as indicated above) the 4.5 million international students and the youth travel market accounted for impressive number of youth traveller. According to Wilson and Richards (2004:2), there were over 10 million youth travellers annually, and this was over a decade ago. Of this, South Africa was reported to have received about 90 000 youth travellers at some point (DTI, 2007). It seems fair to suggest that things need to change, especially now that international students' arrival to South Africa has risen to 87 439 (STATS SA, 2013:8). Both international students and the youth market are vital to tourism growth when one considers that around twenty percent of tourism journeys was made by young people of age fifteen to twenty-five (Xu, Morgan & Song, 2008:225). This is a confirmation of the significance of the youth and student travel to international tourism arrival and revenue generation thereof.

It is also the case that international students tend to undertake a number of tourism activities to express their social lifestyles. However, the volume and frequency of their participation in

tourism activities may encourage local students to engage more often in domestic tourism activities. Taking the study of Ryang and Zhang (2009) into perspective, international students were reported to visit a number of some places they have read about in the host country. In a quest to avoid being humiliated for not knowing one's country better than the visitors, local students may be encouraged to explore a number of places they have only heard about, thus improving their local travel experience. The next discussion focuses on factors leading to international students' decision to travel abroad for study purposes.

## 2.4 Factors leading to international students' decision to travel (push factors)

The push-and-pull models are usually adopted when discussing international students and reasons for their trips overseas (Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002:84; Peyton, 2005:1; Nghia 2015:3). The push factor refers to educational and non-educational-related factors that influence international students' motivation to migrate to another country (Adekalu & Oludeyi, 2013:55). The outcomes from most research studies corroborate that international students are pushed out of their home or residential countries due to the absence of all or most of the following: quality higher education, intended course or qualification, good career opportunities, adequate security, improved quality of lives and the like (Hazen & Alberts, 2006:206-208; Yang, 2007). In summary, therefore, the non-availability of the features above and other basic educational needs are responsible for students' migration away from home countries and subsequently from their continent, as the case is with African students who are studying outside the continent of Africa (Kavakas, 2013).

Studies have identified several push factors (see table 2.2); these have been attributed mostly to lack of capacity and the inability of originating countries to provide for certain amenities that are required for competitive education. The common characteristics used in describing the push factors are the unavailability of infrastructure, facilities, opportunities and policies that are expected for the provision of quality education in home countries of international students (Lim, Yap and Lee, 2011:1693; Nghia 2015:3). However, push factors are not only about shortages of infrastructure and or other facilities and services; they include motivation to exhibit self-esteem. This arises from international students' willingness to study at destinations perceived to be favourable for flaunting wealth and other possessions (Butcher & McGrath, 2004:541). Li and Bray (2007:794) corroborate that students' personal characteristics – socio economic status, age, gender, academic ability also influence the decision to go abroad.

Reviewing the phrase 'push factors' from both academic and tourism perspectives, therefore, it becomes clear that on the one hand, the push factors constitute the absence of educationally related needs of international students (Adekalu & Oludeyi, 2013:55). These include the absence of tangibles such as structural components, infrastructure, facilities, required equipment especially for practical programmes, limited opportunity to study, poor international recognition of both the local universities and qualification therein, poor internship opportunities, lack of job opportunities, and the non-availability of the desired course of study, among other things. On the other hand, tourism-related push factors comprise the absence of an enabling environment, either natural or built (Kim, Jogratnam & Noh, 2006:347) needed to support a quality study experience in students' home countries, and better opportunities for travel without a visa bottleneck. Also, stability in social and political structure is noted by Lim, Yap and Lee (2011:1693) as a

requirement for an enabling environment that would support learning. The absence of such a structure is a significant non-academic reason for the exodus of students away from their home countries. Table 2.2 summarises some push factors affecting international students.

**Table 2.3: Push factors responsible for international students' decision to travel**

| REFERENCE | PUSH FACTORS IDENTIFIED |
|---|---|
| Hung, Chung and Ho (2000) | The possibility of future migration opportunity after graduation.<br>High quality of education.<br>Lower tuition fees and cost of living at the destination. |
| Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) | The perception that study abroad is better than local study.<br>Limited chances and possibility of entering the local university.<br>The desire to understand the "West".<br>The intention to migrate in the future. |
| Chen (2007) | The volatile political atmosphere.<br>A poor educational system.<br>Poor social capital.<br>The absence of desired future career. |
| Keteku (2007) | Poor quality of education system at home.<br>Underfunding of education leading to total incapacity to deliver.<br>Protracted strikes that prolong students stay than it ought to be.<br>Political uneasiness which pushes most academics out thereby leaving the education system to suffer shortage of academic staff. |
| Lu, Movando and Qiu (2009) | Poor international ranking of the University.<br>Poor quality of teaching.<br>The desire to work or live abroad. |
| Singh (2011) | The lack of suitable opportunity at home.<br>The desire to experience another country's life and culture.<br>Positioning (moving at one education stage to be well positioned for a later stage of education or employment). |
| Nghia (2015) | Poor educational quality in home country.<br>Seeking immigration opportunities. |

**Source:** Adapted from Liu, Elston and Zhou, (2013:3)

From the selected studies in Table 2.3, the push factors mentioned are among what drives international students out of their countries to destinations that have the potential to accomplish their needs. The next discussion focuses on factors pulling international students to destinations.

## 2.5 Factors pulling international students to specific destination (pull factors)

As soon as students decide to travel to study, the next task is the selection of a destination (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002:83). At this point, students engage in screening available options as there may be more than a single destination on their lists. This justifies the relevance of query about choices of university in the questionnaire. Students use various search mechanisms to obtain information about potential destinations and subsequently to select one that provides for most of their needs. Factors motivating international students to destinations vary from one student to another (Hazen & Alberts, 2006:206); thus explaining the diverse expectations with regard to amenities they wish to be available at their destinations. While push factors are associated with the absence of educational-related features and tourism related amenities as previously indicated, pull factors are related to the availability of most of the missing features in students' home countries. Pull factors are used to attract students to specific host country (Chen, 2007:274). By making available what is lacking in international students' home countries, leading study destinations still continue to research and improve on the provision of pull factors for purposes improving the chances of being selected by potential international students.

In support of the classification earlier made that push factors constitute the absence of educational and tourism-related needs, the pull factors that relate to educational matters are educational incentives that attract international students to a particular destination (Adekalu & Oludeyi, 2013:55). These include the availability of scholarship opportunities, quality of education, intended course or programmes and the university's global standing, and the acceptability of qualifications offered. One important psychological fulfilment that international

students get from academically motivated pull factors is the belief that having a recognised international qualification is a gateway towards lucrative careers.

In light of the above, a contending destination in this market niche should have an ample supply of basic needs such as job opportunities, safety, social life, quality education, availability of scholarships for study, a multicultural environment and an array of tourism-related features that will complement learning and leisure (Wilkins, Stephens & Huisman, 2011:5; Bodycott, 2009:354).

South Africa could be a major role-player in the educational tourism niche on the African continent if it were to improve the quality of pull factors already available to suit the market demand. This is very possible given the fact that the host country has control over its pull factors (Chew, Ismael & Eam, 2010:3) and this can be used to create desire. In so doing, international students' consideration for South Africa will improve and the country might emerge among top favourites of international students (Sehoole, 2011:54). Host destinations must also be persuasive enough to earn reputable word-of-mouth recommendations from students who have already completed their studies. The overall quality of the pull factors in countries such as the USA, the UK, France, Australia, New Zealand and Canada may well be responsible for them being preferred above other destinations, especially since educational and non-educational pull factors are highly sought for by international students from all over the world.

Regarding the tourism industry itself, an important pull factor for international students are the environmental features in the host country. In this regard, Lim, Yap and Lee (2011:1693) refer

to the study environment, living environment and comfortable climate as sub-environmental features perceived to be imperative to making international students' stay worthwhile. An abundance of healthy scenery that would allow students with affluence to spend their wealth is an important factor in this regard. For this reason, Butcher and McGrath (2004:541) found that some international students made New Zealand their choice based on the availability of enough avenues and places to spend their affluence. This indicates that push factors are not only about the deficiency of facilities back home, but also an opportunity to express one's ego and show off one's affluence among peer groups.

Other factors pulling international students towards study destinations include improved immigration opportunities. This is especially true in terms of ease of access to enter destination countries after completing their studies as well as the chances of traveling elsewhere. Most of these opportunities are not readily available at students' home countries, and, for this reason, international students are often keen to go to a destination that will enhance their chances to migrate across the world. More information regarding pull factors from other studies is depicted in Table 2.4. The next discussion addresses ways in which international students search for relevant information about where to study. This will provide a deeper understanding of the most effective information medium and how best to inform international students about South Africa as a desirable destination.

**Table 2.4: Pull factors attracting students to study destinations abroad "authors own creation"**

| REFERENCE | PULL FACTORS IDENTIFIED |
|---|---|
| Kavakas (2013) | Better experience of living in another country. |
| Chew, Ismail and Eam (2010) | Affordable tuition fees charged.<br>The reputation of institutions.<br>Similar socio-cultural ideas and values. |
| Bhati and Anderson (2012) | Lower cost of living.<br>Improved safety and security. |
| Becker and Kolster (2012) | The costs of higher education and living in a country.<br>Governance/policy on higher education and institutions.<br>Safety levels within the country (crime rate, racial discrimination).<br>Level of development of internationalisation of a country e.g., number of international students, availability and their diversity.<br>Better immigration opportunities/regulations during and after study.<br>Mutual recognition of degrees/qualifications (by the host country and the domestic country.<br>Availability of financial aid, travel expenses and living costs. |
| Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) | Mutual political interests in both student's home country and destination.<br>Similarities in cultural ideals of both countries (source and host). |
| Ho, Li, Cooper and Holmes (2007) | Quality education and good rating of the educational institution.<br>Appreciable safety and attitude of host city towards international students. |
| Nghia (2015) | Socio-economic status of the host country.<br>Low tuition fees, support services.<br>Scholarship opportunities, admission criteria.<br>Availability of employment policies for international students. |

**Source:** Adapted from Liu, Elston and Zhou, (2013:3)

## 2.6 International students source for information about study destination

Following the student's intention to study abroad, the next two important steps as put forward by Mazzarol and Soutar (2002:83) involve the selection of a host country, and a preferred university. These two decisions usually involve extensive information searches to help with their choice of a country and university to be selected respectively. A significant number of research studies have focused on the push and pull factors of international students to study destinations, whereas there is a paucity of empirical research that solely focused on how and from where they (international students) gather information about any potential destination, as Reddy (2014) did. The significance of discussing this issue include finding out how international students get information about study destination, and to make appropriate recommendations on the most efficient medium for reaching out to this group of travellers, and why this medium is likely to work best.

In the process of disseminating information to prospective international students, assurance of transparency between the information distributed and the actual services to be provided to them (Hellsten, 2002:12) is important. Information reaching out to international students regarding a potential destination must be accurate and sufficient, and is essential for effective destination marketing. Also, accessibility to quality information that is available from a variety of sources (Lu, Movando & Qiu, 2009; Russell, 2005:73) will be crucial to international students in their quest for selecting both the country and the university to study.

In the past, printed materials such as prospectuses were very useful for destination marketing. Aspiring students had to write to the foreign school of their choices, wait for a response, write

again and wait for a response before finally receiving admission letter, if at all. This exercise usually takes several months because of the challenges associated with this style of communication. Today, despite the fact that prospectuses, brochures and the like are still useful, information dissemination is presently being complemented with electronic materials and other internet means of communication (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan & Ranchhod, 2008:317). The efficiency of the internet and websites in disseminating information is widely acknowledged; Phang (2012:21) reports on its success in Australia and other leading educational destinations in reaching out to international students.

At the inquiry stage, international students want to know as much as they can about a potential destination. They need information about the quality of life in the host country, immigration policy, employment opportunity, the safety of the destination, cultural linkage, geographical proximity of home country to the destination country, amongst other things (Mpinganjira, 2011:2182). Also, they need responses to a number of frequently asked questions such as the quality of the institution, recognition of the university and its certificates, the quality of sporting facilities, environmental features and the availability of financial aid and non-financial support facilities. To be able to respond to potential queries from international students and to best communicate products and services available to prospective ones, the various sources that convey basic information must be acknowledged and be adequately deployed. This is one of the reasons why a number of studies include one or more queries to address this issue during the empirical study in order to obtain respondents' actual choice(s) about the information obtained about the destination (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002:85).

International students are characteristically diverse in terms of their demographics (Min & Khoon, 2013:995). This has been linked to their various backgrounds and personalities (Ho, Li, Cooper & Holmes, 2007:52). Such diversity could have a bearing on the nature of their needs from a potential destination. While this factor could therefore impact on the means of delivering information concerning a destination to them, it therefore follows that their needs in terms of the chosen destination will tend to vary. Different channels may therefore be required to reach out to international students, even those from the same country. For instance, the result gleaned from international students from a study indicates that the majority of Indian students in a specific university in Singapore sourced for information about the destination from educational service agent (Bhati & Anderson, 2012:1711) the effectiveness of information from agents to eventually realisation of the respondents dreams affirms to the variety of sources for information about study destinations. These agents also offer advice which assist international students in complying with all the requirements for admission in their respective chosen universities. The commissioned agents as they are mostly known also recruit international students and promote universities that have a business contract with them (Choudaha & Chang, 2012).

In another study, Russel (2005:73) established that word-of-mouth and the internet are both important when reaching out to international students. Another important source of information to international students is through the study abroad-advisers. A number of international students gained information from these study advisers who also motivate them to select a specific study destination (Kavakas, 2013). This author also found that good advertising and recommendations by friends and family are indispensable with regard to how international students access information about studying in the USA.

Other relevant channels where international students receive information about a study destination are social media, the university's website, internet searches, education fairs, foreign embassies, school counsellors, scholarship agents, the education directory, newspaper advertisements, and recruitment agents, amongst others (Reddy, 2014:107). Studies have also shown that international students depend heavily on information gleaned from family and friends because such information is seen as credible as it is not motivated by profit (Lu, Movando & Qiu, 2009). International students also have confidence in the information they obtain from the school prospectus, country and university websites, exhibition stands, and relevant university bulletins (Russell, 2005:68). All the aforementioned information sources are effective in their unique ways when reaching out to international students and could be employed by aspiring destinations (Reddy, 2014:107).

## 2.7 Constituent of international students' expenditure

One of the results that explain the growth in the tourism industry includes the economic benefits thereof (Cooper *et al*., 2005:148). That is, the majority of the successes recorded today in the tourism industry are skewed towards economic proceeds. According to Vaugeois (2012:1), economic benefits are major reasons why countries offer themselves as a tourist destination. Economic benefits from international students are derived from the various expenditures by students at the destination. The significance of this expenditure on the host destination has been discussed by Kunin (2012:12). As long as international students remain at the destination, they have a number of needs that are compulsory and can only be fulfilled through spending.

Attempts to find studies that exclusively focused on the types of expenditures by international students on the internet and relevant academic journals were unsuccessful. However, a number of studies that briefly discuss international students' expenditure classified these into educational and non-educational expenditure respectively (Vickers & Bekhradnia, 2007; Kunin, 2012:6; Iyana & Abraham, 2012:148). Educational-related expenses include tuition fees, text books purchases and other academic-related costs, while non-educational expenditure comprises costs of accommodation, entertainment, food, transportation and other miscellaneous necessities required for living.

According to Payne (2009:2), international students' expenditure can be divided into two categories, namely tuition fees and living costs. Likewise, the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers, NAFSA (2013) whose responsibility includes but are not limited to assisting and advising international students studying in the USA, view international students' expenditure as comprising (i) tuition fees and (ii) living expenses. These two categories typically appear when international students' expenditure is discussed. Similarly, Iyanna and Abraham's (2012:148) refer to tuition expenses and living expenses. While tuition expenses are fairly homogeneous and are usually mandatory, living expenses differ among students. Individually, students determine what is important and they expend whatever amount is available in this regard.

Apart from tuition fees, there are a number of obligatory academic-related expenses such as one year's medical insurance, international levies, admission application fees, study permits, and textbooks, among others. For instance, all international students - irrespective of their

backgrounds - will contribute towards one year's medical aid cover from a reputable South African medical insurance company. At the time of compiling this information – July 2016, the cost for one year's medical insurance amounted to around R3900 per international student. Also, information obtained from the Department of Home Affairs' DHA International Office indicates that all international students are mandated to have at least one year's medical insurance cover before a study permit can be issued by the DHA. At Tshwane University of Technology, likewise, proof of membership issued to the student after payment to the medical service provider is required before an international student can register for his or her yearly academic activity. A correlation therefore exists between the definition of international student as a visitor with a maximum of one year's stay at country of study (Glover, 2011) and the request for a minimum of one year's medical cover by TUT before students are registered every year.

Regarding other obligatory expenditures, an international levy of R1 500 per student must be paid annually to TUT. However, it appears as if each university has the autonomy to fix its international student levy and these may differ, but what is important about this levy is the fact that it is compulsory for all students who are not South African citizens. Other obligatory expenses as at September 2017 when this study is being conducted include the procurement of study permits. Either for a fresh application or renewal of existing permits an application fee of R450 – for a single application, payable to the Department of Home Affairs (DHA) in South Africa. This payment comes after procuring other application requirements such as one year's medical aid, a radiological examination certificate and a medical examination. Also, a non-refundable handling fee of R1 350 – per application, must be paid to Visa Facilitation Service (VFS Global), the visa facilitation company that was established in June 2014.

All the academic-related expenditures listed above are mandatory, and charges are not negotiable. On the other hand, non-academic related expenditures including food and accommodation are not mandatory. Students are at liberty to make choices that match their needs and available money for such commodities. Regarding the items classified under students' non-academic expenditure, individual students need to consider items that are of the utmost importance to them and the amount of money available for this purpose. For instance, Butcher and McGrawth (2004:541) attributed pleasure-seeking expenditures with students from wealthy homes; on the other hand, students from a humble background would rather skip such expensive and opt for alternative means that suit their financial status. The following non-academic expenditures namely accommodation, transportation, will be discussed next.

Accommodation, as previously mentioned, is one of the most important compulsory needs of international students. It is so important to the extent that some universities include it in the list of services made available to international students. TUT, for instance, have hostel facilities across Pretoria. Information obtained from the office of the residence manager of one of TUT's students' residences on Park Street, Arcadia shows that a considerable number of international postgraduate students of TUT are currently occupying the TUT hostel facilities at various locations in Pretoria. Unlike local students who may have a range of options such as staying with parents, relatives and friends, and thus not requiring university accommodation at all cost, international students are in most cases compelled to find accommodation upon arrival, especially those without friends or relatives to stay with. There is provision for undergraduate students' accommodation in the Pretoria West, Ga-Rankuwa, Soshanguve, and Nelspruit

campuses respectively. In situation where universities are unable to provide accommodation to all their intakes, partnerships with private flat owners may be an option to consider.

The significance of accommodation is such that its availability and affordability influence international students to select a particular destination (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002:86). In a related study, Taylor, Shanka and Pope (2004:70) cite few categories of accommodation types that are available to international students, namely rental, owned family home, staying with friends/relatives, and home stay. Other choices of accommodation that are available to students are hostels, flats, living with parents, and living with family and friends. Expenditure on accommodation is so important that Adediran (2013:187) recommends that universities should collaborate with the host municipality to invest massively in the expansion of accommodation in order to be the main beneficiary of proceeds from this sector. This will also help to ensure that international students' accommodation needs are adequately met. The author also reports that about 48 percent of the respondents in the study spent between R1 001 to R2 000 while others spent more monthly on accommodation, thus attesting to the significance of expenses made in this regard.

There is a dearth of study solely on what international students spend on transportation at destinations. However, a few studies such as Ryan and Zhang (2009), Chen and Lu (2010) and Glover (2011) show that international students do visit places within their host destination and these require that a certain means of transportation be committed. Thus acknowledging that transportation is somewhat attached to their ability to gain access to all places of interests at the destination. International students as visitors especially in a city capital may be desirous of

accessing every nuke and cranny in the COT. This is likely even with the educational tourism niche given that quality accessibility is one of the key ingredients expected at any region aiming to compete favourably in the tourism market (Hall, 2008:200). In a previous study, Adediran (2013:122) found that, international students (used local taxi – 44.06%, and bus – 26.96% are the major means of moving around the host city. About 42.5% of the respondents spent less than R500 monthly on transportation for moving across the host city.

The next items include food, clothing, entertainment and leisure activities that are collectively examined as part of living expenditures (non-academic) incurred by international students at their study destinations. As a basis for comparison, Mngoma (2012) found that non-academic spending by university students in South African was worth around R33bn per annum. This amount comprises expenditure on food, groceries, shopping, entertainment and the like. Although this report combined expenditure from domestic and international students in South Africa, it however excluded spending on tuition and textbooks and thus the findings are relevant for the present study.

Regarding entertainment and leisure, this study acknowledges that there is no fixed behaviour or motivation with regard to the choices of leisure activities in which international students engage. International students from the same country may also differ in terms of their desires and eventual choices for leisure activities. With regard to students' expenditures on leisure, the following studies examined travel activities and their motivations by international students (Field, 1999; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Chen & Lu, 2010; Zou & Tan, 2011). Variations in the results obtained point to the diversity of students' demographic features (Kim & Jogaratnam,

2003:268; Kim, Jogaratnam & Noh, 2006:352-353; Michael, Armstrong & King, 2004:59-60). In line with this, Glover (2011:264) acknowledges the influence of diverse cultural backgrounds as having a bearing on the variation in travel habits. This may explain the inclusion of demographic queries and the possible impact this might have on the outcome of related studies. This diversity also makes the international students market very unique. This variation also means that destinations are typically required to offer a variety of leisure activities from which students can choose.

International students' presence leads to a significant expectation for improved tourism expenditure at the destination. In this regard, a commensurate increase in the consumption of tourism services is projected (Pawlak, 2013:6). In support of this expectation, Aloyo and Wentzel (2011:392) established that international students at higher institutions of learning need to boost expenditure and improve foreign revenue at the destination. Their presence constitutes a profitable market segment for the travel and tourism industry (Taylor, Shanka & Pope, 2004:66). Similarly, a number of related studies propound that international students are a boost to tourism activities. However, Sirakaya, Sonmez and Choi (2001:129) found two factors that affect students' desires for holiday and leisure activities, namely the attractiveness of a destination, and the affordability of the vacation. Both factors are perceived as advantages in terms of international students' coming to South Africa and the COT. Therefore, improved consumption of tourism activities is visible where there is significant number of international students.

Corroborating the notion that international students would engage in, and contribute towards tourism revenue, Donaldson and Gatsinzi (2005:23) establish that the international students

market is a potentially lucrative tourism market. One of the reasons for this could be attributed to the rather lengthy holiday duration characteristic of these students which, according to Llewellyn-Smith and McCabe (2008:594), contributes to more travel activities. International students also inspire friends and family to take a trip to attractions they have experienced. Wang and Davidson (2008:406) further explain that international students in Australia have impacted considerably on Australian tourism industry; so much so that even after graduation, international students' arrival continues to support tourism activities in Australia by return visits.

Taylor, Shanka and Pope (2004:68); Heung and Leong (2006:90) reported that international students visit local attractions in both Western Australia and Hong Kong respectively. Reasons suggested for these visits include to relax, to experience places they have not been before, and to view outstanding sceneries. These reasons mean that they improve the local consumption of tourism amenities. In view of the above, it is important to anticipate that as long as the atmosphere is conducive, international students will travel and explore attractions in their various countries of study.

Finally, Kim and Jogaratnam (2012:265; Acha-Anyi, 2016:8) cite a number of leisure activities performed by international students. These include touring the city; going to beaches, visiting state parks, national parks and museums; attending cultural events and participating in sporting activities, clubbing and gambling; for fun, to meet people and visit places of interest, amongst others. Table 2.5 depicts some of the findings from related studies on international students' travel and leisure activities at their study destinations. This table is intended to provide information on a number of leisure activities that could be introduced and promoted to enhance

international students' participation. From an international students' management perspective, planners of social amenities may gain insights regarding facilities that can be made available to enhance students' participations in tourism activities.

**Table 2.5: International students' travel and leisure activities at destinations**

| AUTHORS | ACTIVITIES |
|---|---|
| Babin and Kim (2001) | International students engage in personal travel, and their trips are positively affected by their perceptions of fun and safety associated with the travel destination. Also, educational benefits attached to a destinations influence international students to engage in domestic travel. |
| Michael, Armstrong and King (2004) | International students involve in holiday trips engage in visits to attractions. Factors motivating their local visits are beaches, scenic beauty, and historical importance. Students also find out about tourism destinations by word-of-mouth from friends who had already experienced these attractions. |
| Heung and Leong (2008) | The majority of the students in this study engage in travel abroad for summer holidays. A breakdown of travel activities carried out during their visits was not available, but the motivations for their trips include relaxation, visiting new places, outstanding scenery, and taking trips back home. |
| Ryan and Zhang (2009) | The majority of the students interviewed had taken more than two trips in a group of about four within country of study, and these trips were self-organised. The findings reveal that the following activities were undertaken: relaxation and fun; doing something different; go sightseeing; learning about the host country; visiting places they have read or heard about; exploring new places, and engaging in adventure tourism activities. |
| Chen and Lu (2010) | This study found that Taiwanese students in the US mostly take trips to landmarks and national parks. Other international students in this study were found to have different travel priorities. The majority of the students have travelled more than four times within the last twelve months. The most frequent reasons for taking trips were: changing routine, getting away, and self-reflection. The three most attractive types of trip destinations chosen by the students were: seeing famous sites, seeing the country, and big city shopping. None of the students in this study considered seeing wild animals as the most attractive. Students also recorded many numbers of nights away for their travel and majority chose city urban centres as their travel destination. |
| Glover (2011) | This study found that international students' travel within their study destinations has a similar pattern as that of international visitors. The popularity of individual destinations indicates that international students were more likely to visit them. |

**Source**: "Author's own creation"

## 2.8 Summary

This chapter presented a review of relevant literature on studies that had been conducted on international students on issues such as classification of educational visitors, factors leading to international students' decisions to travel, factors pulling them to specific destinations, sources of information on where to go, and their travel behaviour and expenditure within their various study destinations. After this exercise, it was discovered that, of the two types of educational visitors, international students belong to the education first category. This means that their primary motivation for being at the host destination is for study purposes. It was found that international students' presence in a country other than their home country for study purposes is due to the absence of quality social infrastructure, political uneasiness, international recognition of local qualifications, and poor job-related reasons, among other push factors. In contrast, pull factors used by host countries in attracting them include quality infrastructure, job opportunities, safety, improved social life, quality education, availability of scholarships for study, a multicultural environment, and an array of tourism-related features to complement learning and leisure.

Also, international students' expenditure relates to either educational or non-educational spending and the contributions of these pertaining to the development of host tourism have been discussed. International students were found to engage directly in activities that are classified as tourism-related and their presence attracts visits to the destination by members of family and friends (Engberg, 2009:60). Regarding the sources of information about where to study, it was established that there are numerous sources as earlier noted (cf. 2.6). The findings also revealed that the information channels that a destination can use to reach out to international students

depend on a number of reasons such as the suitability regarding targeted students, amongst other reasons. Finally, a review of international students' expenditure showed a number of exciting activities that could assist a destination in its planning.

As indicated earlier in this chapter, previous research on international students highlight the importance of demographic information, including the reasons they leave home countries and factors behind their selection of host destinations, amongst other issues. These reasons also justify the inclusion of related queries in the research instrument designed for the empirical study.

The next chapter deals with the dimensions of the impact of international students on host destinations. This is considered in view of the relevance of understanding the significance of the educational tourism niche with regard to international students' presence, and benefits and possible detriments to the host community.

# CHAPTER 3

# THE IMPACTS OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS ON THE HOST COMMUNITY

## 3.1 Introduction

Studies on the dimensions of the impacts of tourism have continued to be relevant in tourism literature. In particular, these studies explore the impact of visitors, the tourism industry and host communities among other stakeholders. The relevance of studies on the dimensions of the impacts of tourism cannot be overemphasised. This includes the call for tourism to continue impacting sustainably on the concerned stakeholders at the time, without compromising the ability of future generations to fulfil their own needs as expressed by Swarbrooke (2004:13); Elliot (2013:8); Aall (2014:2570). Concerning places where the impacts of tourism can be felt, Carneiro and Eusébio (2015:25) explain that tourism's impacts occur in three main places: (a) the generating regions of visitors; (b) the destination regions and (c) the transit regions. These three zones were listed by Hall (2008:76) as important when discussing the relationship between the various zones that enable tourism travel to and from the destination. Further explanations by Carneiro and Eusébio illustrate that a number of studies have addressed the impact of tourism on the tourists, and that more research is required to address the impact of tourism on the host destination.

In another study, Wall and Mathieson (2006:19) describe the occurrence of tourism journey with three basic elements. Firstly, they refer to the decision to travel to selected destinations and the multitude of economic, environmental and social factors affecting these decisions. Secondly, one should consider the actual stay in the destination which, by extension, includes visitors' interaction with the economic, environmental and social system of the destination. Lastly, a consequential element is listed as the result of the two preceding components and is concerned with effects on the economic, environmental and social sub-systems with which tourists are directly or indirectly in contact with. The second point made by Wall and Mathieson (2006:16) relates to the tourism impacts of visitors' presence/stay in the destination as well as associated effect that their presence usually have on the host destination.

The need for more research on the impact of tourism on host, especially on the quality of life of residents is suggested by Caneiro and Eusébio (2015:33). Furthermore, the description of 'visitors' whose activities ultimately impact on the destination is discussed by Wall and Mathieson (2006:38). In light of these, it is important to understand that these two studies essentially refer to the destination region impacts of tourism, and these relate to the behaviours and expenditures of visitors. Visitors' behaviours, in this context, refer to the various actions of the visitors while at the destination. These include how visitors move from place to place, money spent on needs, and types of interaction with the infrastructure and residents of the host community, amongst other. These and similar actions would dictate the dimensions (nature) of the impact that visitor's presence will have on the host destination (the place and people). In summary, visitors' behaviours and activities usually result in economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts on the destination.

In view of the above, the conceptual framework upon which international students' impacts are discussed in this chapter emanates from the three basic dimensions of the impacts of tourism on host destination. This concept stipulates that tourism impacts arising from the visitors' attendance would naturally affect the host destination in three basic ways: economically, environmentally and socio-culturally (Hall, 2008:29; Robinson, Luck & Smith, 2013:418). These serve as a response to a suggestion by Carneiro and Eusébio (2015:25) that the impacts of tourism on the host community need to receive more attention. Accordingly, this chapter undertakes to discuss the impacts of international students on their host community from economic, environmental and socio-cultural perspectives. The relevance of this discussion to the present study is to be able to develop a sustainable tourism framework that considers both the merits and demerits of international student's presence before drawing up a framework for the management of international students in the City of Tshwane. This chapter addresses the impacts of tourism on the host community under the following subheadings:

- dimensions of the impacts of tourism visitors on the host destination
- economics impacts of tourism
- economics impacts of international students
- environmental impacts of tourism
- environmental impacts of international students
- socio-cultural impacts of tourism
- socio-cultural impacts of international students, and
- summary of chapter.

## 3.2 Dimensions of the impacts of tourism visitors on the host destination

The dimensions of the impacts of tourism vary and depend on the numbers and nature of tourists, activities and the category of visitors being reviewed (United Nations educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation UNESCO, 2009:5). The impacts of tourism are determined by the type of tourism activities being practiced (for example adventure tourism; ecotourism; educational tourism; mass tourism and many others); the characteristics of tourists; the characteristics of tourism destinations and its communities; and the nature of the tourists-host relationship (Wall & Mathieson, 2006:38). The impacts of tourism cover all aspects of human mobility (Hall, 2008:29); and include both the positive and negative outcomes of a particular tourism niche on the visitors, the host community and the tourism industry.

Addressing the dimensions of the impacts of tourism, therefore, a plethora of tourism publications consent that the three basic approaches to the dimensions of the impacts of tourism are economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt 2005:1057; Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006:1; Hall, 2008: 28; Dabphet, 2014; Robinson, Luck & Smith, 2013:418; UNWTO, 2013:17). These three perspectives are the pillars upon which some tourism scholars have based their discussions on sustainable tourism. Furthermore, academic discussions regarding the dimensions of the impacts of tourism have resulted in more than 5 000 publications in the last two decades (Burkley, 2012) thus pointing to the significance of the dimensions of the impacts of tourism in the management of any tourism niche. Adopting some of the positive and negative dimensions of these impacts of tourism as explained by Hall (2008:29), the economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts considered to be connected to international students are discussed below.

### 3.2.1 Economic impacts of tourism

Discussions on economic impacts analysis of tourism is very broad, and are sometimes reviewed as a complete research entity as observed in the following studies (Tisdell, 1998; Stynes, 1999; McCatty & Serju, 2006; Crompton, 2010; Mir, 2010; Dwyer, Forsyth & Dwyer, 2010:213; Stynes, 2011; Chowdhury & Shahriar, 2012). While some scratched the surface of the economic impacts of tourism, others looked beyond mere discussion of the positive and negative economic impacts of tourism as issues related to costs and investment analysis (as these are sometimes integrated).

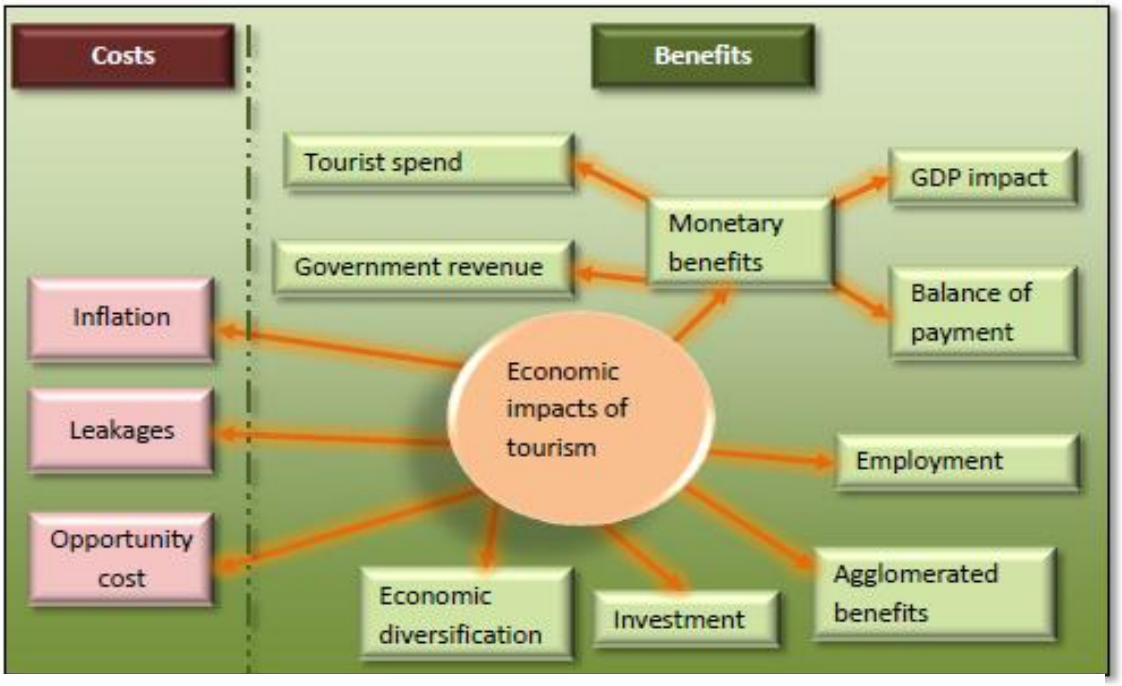
Another topic that requires academic reflection is the distinction between the economic impacts and economic benefits of tourism. Discussions on the impacts of tourism focus on the effect and changes that tourism brings to the economic, environmental and socio-cultural fabrics of the community and the people living therein. These could entail a negative or positive change. Benefits refer only to the gains that are derived from tourism. According to Dwyer, Forsyth and Dwyer (2010:213-224), economic impacts are different from economic benefits. For instance, a number negative economic impacts of tourism were expressed as the direct and indirect alterations made to the economy such as leakages and inflation, whereas the positive impacts include tourist expenditure, wealth creation for the host, infrastructure development, the development of local and foreign investment, and revenue generation (Acha-Anyi, 2016:3).

Tourism's economic benefits comprise all positive outcomes, either over the longer term or for a short duration such as short-term job creation, the attraction of foreign exchange, provision of

extra tax revenue, the creation of local jobs and business opportunities, and the diversification of the economy, among others. Economic benefits, aside from being the major motivation for countries promoting themselves as tourists' destinations (Vaugeois, 2012:1; Robinson, Luck and Smith, 2013:422), also explain the much talked-about developments in the tourism industry (Cooper *et al*., 2005:148).

Figure 3.1 sets out to present a clear picture of the economic impacts and benefits of tourism. It also contains additional information that explains the distinction between economic impacts and benefits. This figure depicts the economic impacts of tourism from costs and benefits perspectives. Costs comprise negative impacts such as inflation, leakages and opportunity costs. Opportunity costs may include decisions to invest in tourism infrastructure while other significant economic projects activities are put on hold. In most cases, tourism benefits as portrayed in figure 3.1 are reasons why countries should invest in tourism.

**Figure 3.1: Economic impacts of tourism**




**Source:** Keyser (2009:307)

The above figure categorises positive outcomes such as tourist spending, employment generation, improved foreign and local investment, and agglomerated benefits (which refer to money spent by tourists but find its way to non-tourism sectors and economic diversification) as benefits. However, inflation which makes local citizens pay more for goods and services, leakages and opportunity cost are all categorised under the costs that a destination pay for being a tourist destination.

The various approaches to the discussion on the economic impacts of tourism depend on the research focus and available data, amongst other factors (Tisdell, 1998:3). When canvassing for stakeholders' support for a particular tourism niche, for instance, a number of common issues

such as the economic benefits of tourism on income generation, employment creation, improvement of standard of living for the host, increase labour supply, development of new infrastructure facility for the host, improved destination image and other laudable gains of tourism are often discussed. However, the economic impacts of tourism are often considered either in the planning, development and marketing stages of tourism to ensure that tourism practices deliver more benefits than losses.

The investment stage of a destination that desires economic gain from tourism is usually characterised by financial investment on infrastructure. This includes the renewal of existing infrastructure or the development of new ones. Both demand significant amounts of money (Acha-Anyi (2016:3). Then, there is a need to attract economic proceeds after investment; therefore, the relevant strategies and policies to attract visitors' and improve their expenditures are put in place. In view of this, and with regard to tourism benefits, Ardahaey (2011:201) describes two key ways for a destination to increase economic benefits from tourism, namely (a) by increasing the number of visitors; and (b) by increasing the amount per visitor spending.

Visitors' spending in this context aligns with students' expenditures related to the overall items and services students pay for while at the destination. Many studies have shown significant economic benefits arising from international students' presence at the destination (Vickers and Bekhradnia, 2007; Phillimore & Koshy, 2010:1-5; NAFSA, 2012; Moloney-Egnatios, Mielke, Trinh & Young, 2014:6; Kunin, 2012:23). As already discussed in the previous chapter, students' expenditures represent the bulk of economic benefits from this unique tourism niche and, as such, have been used as one of the parameters in discussing students' economic impact.

### 3.2.2 Economic impacts of international students

Economic impacts of international students should mostly encompass financial-related gains (Sharma, 2006:155; Pawson, 2009:270-283; Stynes, 2012:1-2) arising from students' expenditure. However, since economic impacts include the costs and benefits of tourism (Keyser, 2009:307), it is sound to consider in all the possible ways in which the presence of international students would impact on the host economically. This is an expression of the direct benefits of international students' expenditures, and the trickling effects that these expenditures (i.e., academic and non-academics spending) will have on the host community at the macro and micro levels. While the macro level refers to national benefits, the micro level entails the community benefits for people that are within the municipality as well as the immediate constituency where the university and accommodation facilities provided for the students are situated.

A number of potential economic impacts of tourism on all types of mobility are presented by Hall (2008:29); some of these have been modified to suit international students' economic impacts on the host community as follows: increased expenditure on tourism and non-tourism-related goods and services; creation of employment; replacement of local labour by outside labour; increase in labour supply; increased foreign investment; diversification of economy; localised inflation and price increases; increased destination awareness; increased investor knowledge concerning the potential for investment and commercial activity in the destination; development of new infrastructure and facilities including accommodation and attractions; improved investment in infrastructure and services; increase in accessibility; and improvement of the destination's image.

#### 3.2.2.1 Increase in expenditure on tourism and non-tourism-related goods and services

Students' expenditures mainly centre on their basic needs such as tuition fees, accommodation, food, clothing, entertainment, transportation, communication and the like. These expenditures have significant impacts on the economy of the host community, and by extension, on the host nation (Kunin, 2006:12). From the analysis of a number of the impacts of students' expenditures at the destinations as expressed by (Iyanna & Abraham, 2012:148), it is clear that international students' presence translates to economic benefits for the host. International students' expenditure appears like a catalyst that increases tourism activities (Pawlak, 2013:7) and, if adequately managed, an increase in tourism activities will translate to increase in the yield of tourism and trickle down to non-tourism sectors.

Illustrating the assertion that international students' presence will lead to increase in expenditures in the host community, Taylor, Shanka and Pope (2004:72) mention that the equivalent of R17 000 was spent per family visit to international students in Western Australia during 1999. Similarly, Heung and Leong (2006:87) found that international students in Hong Kong budget between R3 500 to R15 000 for trips in 2002. In South Africa, Aloyo and Wentzel (2011:392) found that about R57 000 was spent on both academic and non-academic matters per annum by international students at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) in 2004. The outcome from a more recent study by Adediran (2013:110) notes that an impressive amount of international students who responded to the survey spent from R1 000 to R2 000 on accommodation, about R500 on transportation and between R1 000 to R2 000 on groceries every month in their various destinations within the COT. Based on the discussion above therefore,

increased expenditures can clearly be linked to international students' presence in a host community.

#### 3.2.2.2 Creation of employment

The tourism industry has been responsible for increasing job creation, both internationally and nationally. In 2011, the tourism industry directly employed over 98 million people (World Economic Forum, 2012). Tourism was also acknowledged to be responsible for one in every twelve jobs globally (UNWTO, 2012). In 2012, The Young Business Leader (2012) put employment generated by the tourism industry in South Africa to around 1.2 million. It seems clear that educational tourism via international students' arrivals must have contributed to this increased employment. The number of international students in South Africa has increased from about 64 784 in 2010 - as stated by World Education News and Review (WENR, 2012) – to as much as 87 439 in 2012 (Stats SA, 2013:8). South African Universities that provided the various educational services to these students also employed about 127 967 staff members in 2010 (South Africa.info, 2013). As international students' numbers continue to rise along with local students, universities will require more staff for efficient service delivery; and this means employment of both academic and non-academic staff.

Another area where international students' presence can be a source of employment creation for the host is through their non-academic needs. According to Gautam (2006:63), tourism provides goods and services for the customers (foreigners) and, in the process of doing so, it provides employment for the locals. It will be mandatory for the host to provide both the goods and services that are immediately required for sustaining students' needs as well as for their ancillary

visitors such as the youth market and the VFR who are constantly in touch with their loved ones on periodic visits. An increase in students' arrival is a potential for an increase in tourism and non-tourism activities which must be met with an increase in the production of goods and services. These entail especially those needs that are supplied locally, such as food (through eating in restaurants and snacks shops), accommodation, transport and communication (purchase of airtime) which all imply jobs for employees in these sectors. In short, Sebotsane (2012) correctly states that international students' presence is a source of job creation for people in the immediate host community.

#### 3.2.2.3 Replacement of local labour

Labour is an important factor of production and vital to the development of an economy. Efficient labour is also significant for both the production and service industries. High-quality human resources are, however, essential to strengthen the labour force, hence the recruitment of qualified immigrants as one of the means of dealing with possible labour shortages in Canada (Siddiq, Holterman, Nethercote, Sinclair & White, 2009:1). According to the Productivity Commission Research Report (2006:53-54), there is a significant tendency that international students will work in skilled occupations more than their local counterparts as a consequence of their more advanced qualifications. This happens mostly when local students are not committed to acquire quality education in skilled courses. The good news is that in a bid to curtail this negative impact which looks like the locals will be put out of jobs, local students tend to step up education and skills acquisition in order to be able to reclaim their positions in the labour market.

If there are opportunities, international students may take up employment after completing their studies (Dreher & Poutvaara, 2010:1) and this is becoming common practice both in developed and developing nations. At some point it could appear like temporary replacement of local labour, but, with adequate management policies and by emulating how other countries have successfully handled this trend, this move could be an appropriate step to boost the economy of host destinations and thus to ensure round-the-clock availability of quality yet inexpensive labour in a number of fields.

On the other hand, and to respond to the negative notion attached to international visitors' presence as a replacement for local labour, a study conducted in South Africa by Malaza (2011:3) reports that a good number international students usually return to their home countries upon completion of their studies, thus reducing the negative possibility that international students are in South Africa to dislodge citizens' jobs opportunity. However, granting international students' regulated number of hours to work is not an uncommon practice. Leading destinations such as the U.S.A, the UK, Australia and Canada created opportunity for international students to work (Becker & Kolster, 2012).

#### 3.2.2.4 Increase in labour supply

Tourism activities comprise a collection of producing and consuming moments (Milne & Ateljevic, 2001:386). Such producing and consuming moments for the tourism industry along with those from other industries would naturally require an increase in labour supply. This relates to international students' consideration for employment opportunities when choosing where to study in the first instance (Hazen & Alberts, 2006:205). Although an increase labour

supply is a positive impact in a situation where it is highly needed, it could be a negative impact where it is not; thus resulting in a situation where international students and the host students may be jostling for employment opportunities (Sibanda, 2008:1-4). An educated workforce is an asset for a growing economy; therefore on the one hand, attracting and retaining international students is a sure means of expanding a skilled labour force – which translates in an improved economy as it is the case in Japan (Hennings & Mintz, 2015:249). On the other hand, it has been established that the vast majority of international students return home after studies (Malaza, 2011:3); yet despite this, host countries still needs a small portion of them for increased labour supply, especially in highly skilled fields.

#### 3.2.2.5 Increased foreign investment

The continuous growth in the tourism industry is a recipe for increased investments for the tourism industry and tourism sub-sectors such as accommodation, transportation, trade and commerce. According to Gautam (2006:63), the tourism industry requires goods and services for the tourists and other consumers; and, added to this, any development in the tourism industry is related to the availability of products and services that come from both the tourism industry and other goods and services providers, by extension. Therefore, the presence of, and, increase in international students attendance would mean that the tourism industry will require more goods and services. This will also be an extension of opportunities to increase foreign investment as there will be a need to meet the increased demand for goods and services alike. This is because more international students together with ancillary visitors will increase the demands for goods and services; however, addressing these demands translates to attracting more local and international investment for tourism.

South Africa has yet to maximise the investment potential that is offered through educational tourism; even with the report that some investors have express their willingness to improve investment in the tourism sector as discussed by Africa Business Pages (2012). An increase in international student attendance will boost the opportunity to attract more investors, thus attesting to South Africa's propensity to attract foreign direct investment opportunities (FDI magazine 2002). International students' needs along with those of the ancillary visitors must be met, and this is a sound reason for an increase in local investment. However, the government should pioneer the investment train within the tourism industry as noted by Hall (2008:48) for the efficient realisation of this benefit.

#### 3.2.2.6 Diversification of the economy

When tourism achieves the projected economic benefits, the diversification of earnings to other sectors of the economy becomes necessary to enable sustainability and to encourage the growth and expansion of other sectors. The tourism industry, if effectively managed, is capable of diversifying proceeds into the entire national economy. Other sectors of the economy will benefit immensely from improved revenue from tourism. The tourism industry, using its interconnectedness with other fields – particularly commerce and trade – is believed to be actively involved in the promotion of bilateral relationships among countries (Hall, 2008:136-146). For example, tourism's singular success has propelled a relatively quiet Abu Dhabi in the 1980s to become one of the most visited commercial hubs in the world as of today. Today, there is a high patronage there because of leisure and business tourism services in the UAE. Proceeds from tourism could now augment revenue being generated from the oil industry, and both can be

diversified into other sectors of the economy for sustainability. South Africa can achieve the same and even surpass this feat by using proceeds from the tourism industry to develop other related sectors of the nation's economy, especially infrastructural development, which is another way of reinvesting back to the development of tourism at the same time as encouraging success in another sector of the economy.

### 3.2.2.7 Localised inflation and increase in prices of commodities

Inflation refers to the general increase in the cost of goods and services over a period. It is also understood as implying a reduction in spending power, leading to situations where money buys less than it used to (Marquit, 2011). Spending emanating from visitors may increase (international students' together with ancillary visitors) and likely cause prices of commodities to increase within the host locality. Such a development has been viewed as one of the causes of inflation (Pettinger, 2008). While residents may not be able to purchase goods or services when prices increase, international visitors are usually able to do so, especially those from countries with stronger currencies than that of the host currency. However, localised inflation linked to international students as visitors may be insignificant if compared with inflation from mass tourism (Vanhove, 2000:69-70; Vanhove, 2004:173). The associated preparations such as demolition and massive urban regeneration, especially in a developing country, are mostly responsible for inflationary tendencies attached to mass and mega sports tourism.

Educational tourism is to a certain extent an alternative tourism service (Weaver, 2001:8) and does not have massive inflationary impacts caused by mass tourism. The majority of the things needed by international students are almost similar to what local students need, and are readily

available unless in places where education services for local students had been neglected. There are no particular educational needs that would trigger inflation. Even where assessments of international students' leisure needs were conducted, it was reported that local and international students differ only slightly in their choices of leisure needs (Glover, 2011:264). Some of the reasons observed to be responsible for the no-inflationary impact from educational tourism are: (a) items that are purchased by students are mostly exclusive to students and the youth market, and are locally available (Sebotsane, 2012); (b) planning for educational tourism does not require the regeneration of the environment on a larger scale and the displacement of locals; and (c) the primary activities of international students are carried out in schools and universities, within the same infrastructure as required by local students, and therefore expansion of infrastructure usually entails a renewal/upgrading issue rather than the construction of new ones.

#### 3.2.2.8 Increased destination awareness

With a number of good attractions situate across the nine provinces in South Africa (see Du Plessis, 2000:2), South Africa stands a good chance of getting enhanced publicity for these attractions with the presence of international students. According to Engberg (2009:60), international students' presence will attract visitors to their host community from ancillary visitors linked with them. In another study, international students were described as ideal marketers of their study destination through word-of-mouth (Steele, 2008:24). One of the fastest means of creating public awareness, especially among the youth, is via the social media. International students and the youth alike are frequent and very active in the use of this domain for the dissemination of information, and it is hoped that discussions in such a forum will lead to an exchange of information that may relate to their study destinations and experiences therein.

#### 3.2.2.9 Increased investor knowledge concerning the potential for investment and commercial activity in the destination

South Africa has been hosting special events in sports-related economic summits. For instance, events such as the FIFA World Cup 2010 and the African Nations Cup in 2013 have exposed South Africa to the world (Frontier Market Intelligence, 2011). Likewise, the present position occupied in educational exports, especially as the number one destination for international students in Africa, an increase in international student attendance could also be used to create the additional potential for future investments. Investors are usually moving towards any destination where they can find investment opportunities.

In support of the above, the hosting of a tourism and infrastructure investment summit in South Africa which was attended by the world's leading hotel and tourism groups (Shannaa, 2011) could be used as a strategic move and be subsequently used to improve investors' knowledge about investment potential. Such a summit can be channelled to exhibit and subsequently develop the educational tourism niche. A number of educational summits to showcase some of the abundant opportunities to a prospective investor could also be packaged and made to focus on educational tourism and its prospects for an investor in South Africa. This would likely attract positive interest from stakeholders in educational tourism export.

#### 3.2.2.10 Development of new infrastructure and facilities, including accommodation and attractions

Tourism and infrastructure are interrelated (Mir, 2014:596). As improved infrastructure is known to enhance tourism activities, lack of infrastructure, on the other hand, is a recipe for the underdevelopment of tourism. In the first instance, the availability of high-quality infrastructure and facilities has been linked to a 'higher quality of life', and this is one of the factors international students consider when choosing a destination to study (Hazen & Alberts, 2006:205). Infrastructure is also used to attract more visitors, and visitors after been attracted will engage in various expenditures from which improved economic benefits will be realised. With remarkable infrastructure said to be available in South Africa (Snyman, 2007:3), international students' presence is certainly a catalyst to develop new infrastructure. Clearly, to remain relevant and to keep gaining substantial benefits from the tourism market, there is a need for a destination to develop its infrastructure (Loutfi, Moscardini & Lawler, 2000:1).

The development of the required infrastructure needed by the student market could, by extension, be a means to project the image of the destination to the admiration of other visitors apart from those motivated by educational purposes. Prosperity being experience in any tourism niche could be a means of developing the infrastructure needed in both the tourism sector and the sub-sector alike (McCatty & Serju, 2006:12). Hall (2008:200-202) emphasises the vital role played by infrastructure in destination competitiveness; the author acknowledges infrastructure as key to destination marketing.

### 3.2.2.11 Improved investment in infrastructure and services

A number of authors have established that there is a need for infrastructural improvement for the host country to cater for visitors' needs in an efficient manner. According to Copper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill (2005:247), local infrastructure must be improved to respond to demands of international visitors. Tourism infrastructure refers to capital projects, and it is required in abundance to encourage private sector participation (Sharma & Bansal, 2010:19-20). Infrastructure includes facilities such as health care, water supply, sewage, airport, shopping complex, sport complex and other commercial facilities that are provided to serve local citizens and international visitors. Goeldner and Ritchie (2006:16) add that roads, hotels, airports, restaurants and major attractions are 'superstructure' and are also necessary to meet international visitors' demands. Hall (2008:49, 57) refers to roads, sewage, power supply, railways, water supply and airport as infrastructure, and subsequently, describes their provision as the sole responsibility of the state.

Another demand for improved infrastructure is the need to equal infrastructure availability with anticipated international students together with the influx of other visitors. According to Keyser (2006:392), tourism development requires infrastructure upgrade since infrastructure degeneration may lead to service disasters. Quality service will not be delivered if existing infrastructure is unable to address visitors' demands. For instance, The Economic Times (2008) reports how Delhi in India struggles to accommodate just 50 000 international visitors due to the unavailability of hotel accommodation. This is infrastructure shortage, which is also known as insufficient carrying capacity in infrastructure, could have a bearing on the influx of visitors. Goeldner and Ritchie (2006:467) describe carrying capacity as the maximum amount of

development, utilisation, growth and change that a site can endure without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment, the community's social fabric, and the local economy, and without an unacceptable decline in the quality of experience by the visitors. The influx of international students, like other visitors, could warrant improved investment in infrastructure and services for adequate service delivery.

#### 3.2.2.12 Increase in accessibility

Accessibility is a key factor among basic components for achieving successful destination competitiveness (Hall, 2008:200). Once a destination has developed tourism amenities, marketing activities to attract visitors towards the attraction can commence. The host is compelled to provide facilities that will encourage ease of accessibility so that visitors can have exceptional experiences of the destination and be able to enjoy services offered to them (Malhotra, 2005:163-164). The presence of visitors is known to trigger tourism activities, subsequently leading to increased movement within the host destination/community. These movements will require that appropriate visitor access into a destination, and travel throughout the destination must be improved (Suanmali, 2014:3). Doing so will provide international students and the ancillary visitors with improved accessibility to even the remotest attractions.

Attractions are sometimes located in remote areas of a destination country (Mir, 2014:596). Therefore, there is a need for increased accessibility in support of increase international students' attendance to the COT to make virtually all the attractions in the city easily accessible for the visitors. The absence of good accessibility may hinder the degree of success a destination ought to record. Some of the amenities that are contained in the notion of good accessibility include

safety getting in and out of a destination, as well as the safety of visitors when they visit attractions. It also includes good roads, transport and decongestion. The absence of these may stand in the way of tourism development in any tourism niche.

The connection between having adequate facilities that will guarantee visitors' accessibility to places within the host community and international students' attendance is obvious. The influx of international students could increase international arrivals, thus a demand for improved accessibility on the one hand; on the other hand, poor accessibility remains one of the salient factors hampering tourism growth (Ivanov, 2012) hence the need to improve therein. As part of the recognition of improved accessibility to accommodate international and domestic visitors' influx to the COT, the city is currently embarking on a number of urban renewal projects such as the "Areyang Project" which was observed to be ongoing at the time of this study. According to City of Tshwane (2013:21) a number of laudable project directed at infrastructure improvement are in the making. Project of this nature – though already manifesting – it should not be directed to improve facilities alone, rather, should be aimed at opening up hidden attractions which could, in turn, promote township tourism and other remote tourism products and services; consequently creating wealth for the residents of those communities that are not accessible to tourists' and tourism activities.

#### 3.2.2.13 Improvement in the destination's image

Destination image is an important pull factor, and it is a requirement for success in any tourism destination (Prayag, 2010:1). Rajesh (2013: 68) cited Lawson and Baud Bovy's description of a destination image as "an expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations and

emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific place". International students' presence could be used to project the image of a destination (Pawlak, 2013:7) based on their experience, thus improving the chances of the destination being selected by prospective students and other categories of visitors. Also, existing students' recommendations are a potential seller of their destinations to other would-be international visitors (Wilkins & Huisman, 2011:2), in as much as the destination lives up to expectations based on existing international students' experience.

Tourism development can be better achieved with a sound destination improvement (Keyser, 2006:6). According to Michael, Armstrong and King (2004:59), tourism is synonymous with destination improvement. A destination has been described as a blend of tourism products, facilities and services that provide a complete tourism experience (Cooper *et al*., 2005:725). In this case, an overall tourism experience in terms of quality education and safety, together with good social life, may be required for the promotion of a destination to students who will relate their experiences to prospective students and other international visitors. Given this potential for publicity from existing and past students (and by extension the ancillary visitors who had visited the destination), there is a possibility of growth in a destination's image and this will furthermore enhance destination promotion for the host country.

Not all supposedly destinations are easily marketable. Sometimes, a destination may be unsuccessful in the tourism market (Awaratife, 2004:264-265). For this reason, a destination may be required to have a variety of products to enhance patronage. To have an improved patronage, a destination must consist of certain components, which include attractions, tourist facilities and services, infrastructure, transportation and hospitality (Keyser, 2004:169).

Destinations are the crucial point for tourism research; it is a place where people live as well as a product for tourists (Hall, 2008:191-192). Goeldner and Ritchie (2006: 408) describe a destination as a unit attraction that is self-sufficient to attract visitors. Self-sufficiency may also imply having ample products and being able to attract multiple visitors. Therefore, planning for, and preparation by a destination to accommodate international students and their ancillary visitors may be an ideal step towards improving the image of such a destination.

### 3.3 Environmental impacts of tourism

A number of publications have researched environmental issues; it is clear that studies on the environmental impacts of tourism are well circulated (Dixit, 2014:25). The significance of the environment is important, because the success of most tourism activities depends on a sustainable environmental well-being. Despite the quality of attention that this aspect of tourism has received, discussions on the environmental impact of tourism continue to be relevant. As a symbol of its relevance, some tourism practices have also been named after the environment as follows: ecotourism, green tourism, sustainable tourism, and alternative tourism, amongst others (Aall, 2014:2563). Furthermore, regarding the significance of the environmental impacts of tourism, an overwhelming response came out of the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in this regard. Also known as the Rio Declaration, the Earth Summit identifies the rights of people to sustainable development and their responsibilities to safeguard their environment. In a succinct summary, the Rio Declaration also established that:

- environmental protection shall constitute an integral part of the developmental process;
- people's entitlement to healthy and productive life must be in harmony with nature;

- today's development must not undermine the developmental and environmental needs of present and future generations;
- nations shall develop international laws to provide compensation for damages that activities under their control caused to areas beyond their borders;
- cooperation among nations to conserve, protect and restore the health and integrity of the earth's ecosystems are initiated, and
- approvals were given to nations to enact environmental laws, and develop national law concerning liability for the victims of pollution and related damage.

From the above, therefore, it is clear that the environmental dimension of the impacts of tourism covers the following: nature conservation, environmental protection-related matters, preservation of physical and natural environments, degradation and pollution, assessment of environmental impacts, and carrying capacity in both natural and built environments (Reynish, 2009:324-347). It also includes the destruction of natural settings and the construction of architectural structures to accommodate all forms of visitors. Other environmental impacts of tourism that are associated with increase in the number of international visitors and their activities are noise pollution, littering and congestion (Deichmann, 2002:46), loss of natural habitat, depletion of natural resources, gas pollution and traffic congestion, amongst others (Roday, Biwal & Joshi, 2009:408-410).

Tourism activities cannot take place in a vacuum, and thus, it requires the environment either as the attraction or as a constituent of services that the visitors pay for. The environment, either the natural or man-made, is an important component of any tourism product (Cooper, Fletcher,

Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2008:161-165). According to Lew, Hall and Williams (2004:450), tourism offers the environment as part of its services to guests. Rodgers (2001:18) describes the environment itself as being capable of attracting visitors. The environment is furthermore regarded as a place where people live as well as place as a product or service that visitors pay to see and enjoy (Hall, 2008:192, 195). As a result, tourism can be used to build the environment; but if poorly managed, it could destroy it. The role of tourism in conserving and preserving the natural environment was established by Bushell, Staiff and Eagles (2007:1-3) and Bushell and McCool (2007:12). These studies emphasise the positive ways in which tourism can impact the environment by embracing quality environmental management practice.

The relationship between tourism and the environment (natural and built) is a symbiotic one and has been described by Wall and Matheison (2006:161-211) as such. This means that tourism activities depend on the quality of the natural and built environment. To a large extent, the environment will determine the type of tourism activity that the visitors could engage in, and how pleasurable visitors' stay at any destination will be (Safalki 2001:14). For instance, adventure tourism activities depend greatly on a natural environment according to Tshipala and Coetzee (2012:1); likewise, the role of the built environment on the success of non-adventure tourism activities remains relevant.

The environment in its natural state refers to its original form without any attempts to beautify or make it look conform to human ideas. However, a human-made environment can be beautified with the construction of man-made architectural settings such as roads, airports, sewerages, supermarkets, hotels, schools, sporting facilities amongst other infrastructure types (Lo,

Romayah & Hui Hui, 2014:85). The natural and man-made environment can also be combined for a greater tourism experience. As a result of this symbiotic relationship between tourism and the environment, it is important to protect, enrich, manage and shape the tourism environment according to the needs of specific tourism practices to maximise and stabilise the benefits thereof.

To preserve and protect the association between tourism and the environment, an understanding of the environmental impacts of tourism activities and the classification of visitors is essential. Sharma (2006:97) discusses the impacts of tourism operations on the environment, and divides these into two segments that cover a wide range of visitor activities. Firstly, there are impacts leading to either conservation or destruction of the natural ecological system (such as green-house gasses, climate change/global warming, air and water pollution, afforestation, deforestation). Secondly, some impacts lead to the preservation and destruction of built heritage and architectural settings (constructions, urbanisation and congestion, for example). Table 3.1 further indicates the impacts of various tourism operations on the environment and, by extension, its inhabitants. These impacts occur in the context of the natural and built environments. Examining the tourism operations that are responsible for each impact in Table 3.1, one may reflect upon the possible approach that international students' presence may have on the environment.

**Table 3.1: Environmental impacts of tourism operations**

| | Tourism Operations | Impact |
|---|---|---|
| **Water** | Releases garbage and sewage into lakes, rivers, beaches | Contamination, health hazards, the destruction of aquatic plant and animal life. |
| | Release of oil from cruise ships, ferry boats, etc. | Increased levels of toxins in water bodies, contaminated seafood, etc. |
| **Atmosphere** | Increase in travel to destinations (motorcar, ship, train, aeroplanes). | Air and noise pollution, adverse impact on plant life, loss of recreation value. |
| **Vegetation** | Chopping down of trees for resort construction, thoughtless use of fire in parks and forests, vehicular traffic in parks and forests; collection of flowers, plants and fungi. | Loss of forest wealth, constant trampling of plants, conflagrations in the forested area, effects on plant life, etc. |
| **Human settlements** | Construction and expansion of hotels, shops, etc. | Displacement of people, traffic congestion, increased pollution, etc. |
| **Monuments** | Use for recreational purposes, excessive usage for sight-seeing etc. | Overcrowding, disfiguring loss to preservation, etc. |

**Source:** (Sharma, 2006:97)

### 3.3.1 Environmental impact of international students

The environmental impacts of international students have not been properly addressed as far as the search for relevant literature is concerned. However, the presence of international students together with ancillary visitors such as VFR and youth travel could be used to propose a number of possible environmental impacts of international students at their destinations. Firstly, the preparation by the host country for international students does not require too much of an environmental alteration when compared with planning that usually needs to be put in place for the likes of special events and mega sports events. For instance, there are twenty-six public universities in South Africa (University South Africa, 2018), with numerous campuses spread across the country. Likewise, international students in South Africa are spread across these universities and cities. This means that the entire body of international students in South Africa is not in one place. Therefore, having them in smaller numbers across the entire nine provinces is a pointer that international students' presence will most likely have no negative physical environmental impact on the host community.

Secondly, the various activities that students embark on at their various destinations as suggested in relevant literature shows that their presence might cause minor environmental worries, if at all. This is the case because their activities – which include local movement and tourism behaviours – have not been found to be environmentally detrimental. The next discussion addresses a number of environmental impacts that could be insignificantly attributed to international students and the attached VFR visits at their study destinations.

### 3.3.2 Congestion arising from exceeding physical carrying capacity

Congestion may occur when physical carrying capacity is exceeded (Richardson & Fluker, 2004:305-307). For instance, Brown, Turner, Hameed and Bateman (2014:9) found that there is a decline in water availability and quality as tourist demand has risen in the study area in Maldives. There is always a tendency to exceed physical carrying capacity if environmental impacts are handled with levity. Carrying capacity, in this case, refers to having a greater number of international students at a university and, by extension, in the community than what the physically provided infrastructure can cater for. Such a situation has to be verified empirically before passing judgment as to whether international students are a threat in this regard. A related example, although from another tourism niche, was how the organisers of the Common Wealth Games in 2008 struggled to accommodate about 50 000 visitors in Delhi, India (The Economics Times, 2008). One can just imagine the level of congestion that an extra 50 000 visitors will have on hotel facilities as well as other infrastructure. A similar situation may possibly emerge if one uses international students' arrival to the City of Tshwane as a scenario which, if not adequately planned for, the host city may experience a situation where the infrastructure required for making their stay worthwhile may not be sufficient.

However, except when international students engage in tourism activities, it is almost unlikely that a single environmental adversity could be linked to their presence. Unlike visitors who attend a carnival or sporting events, the mass movement of international students towards same attraction and at the same time would hardly be possible. However, an increase arrival would require improved transport facilities to their campus and for local movement. More vehicles will be on the road, and this requires increased infrastructure to avert possible congestion.

### 3.3.3 Air pollution

One of the most evident environmental impacts of tourism is air pollution. Even with the least patronised tourism niche, there is a small degree of environmental impact. Environmental impacts may occur due to the emission of carbon dioxide and other related gaseous substances from the engines of aircraft and other modes of transportation, as well as from industrial pollution (Al-Zahrani & Elhag, 2005:5; Sharma, 2006:197). Despite efforts aimed at reducing the rate of emission, the rapid growth of air travel contributes to an increase in aviation pollution. Tourism accounts for about 3.2 percent of global energy use and is responsible for about 5.3 percent of global emissions (Hall, 2008:41). These emissions usually come from air, land and sea-related transportation and the production of tourism goods and services, as depicted in Table 3.1.

However, the advancement of technological innovations has resulted in the production of low carbon and electric transportation thus drastically reducing pollution from tourists' transportation. The availability of green cars that will ensure transportation without emission of carbon gas has arrived South Africa (Department of Environmental Affairs). With such innovation, one can argue that an increase in the number of international students and their modes of transportation within the host city will cause little environmental pollution. Therefore, international students' attendance together with VFR visits will lead to a slight increase in the rate of pollution to provide for their needs. However, the estimated environmental pollution, even before the latest innovations in transportation, has been very insignificant.

### 3.3.4 Global warming/climate change resulting from increased transport activities and other related causes

Climate change refers to a prolonged alteration to climate conditions and can be related to the environmental impacts of tourism. It is described as a long-term alteration in weather conditions due to numerous natural causes and human activities such as smoking, emission of carbon gas from increased transport due to increase in travels to destinations, cutting of trees for infrastructure, and expansion of facilities, to mention a few. Among the consequences of the alteration to weather conditions is that it may make outdoor activities unpleasurable for tourists, it affects tourist's choice of destinations, as well as the duration of stay and activities pursued at the destinations, amongst other things. According to Cegnar (2007), the following are possible consequences of climate change on tourism practice:

- it distorts the desire of and necessity for people to travel in places with different climates; consequently affecting tourists demands for that destination (UNWTO, 2008b:11)
- it affects mobility, which concerns available transport means, transport safety, and convenience;
- an extreme weather condition could lead to natural disasters and these may endanger tourists more than local citizens; consequently, increasing the potential spread of vector-borne diseases;
- new destinations may appear, and some traditional destinations may lose their present appeal, or could even disappear (Kaddo, 2016:6)
- it results to people in the destination preferring to spend some time in more pleasant climates in future, or they will want to avoid oppressive weather conditions (for example, heat waves), and

- it impacts on infrastructure (roads, airports, etc.) as well as speed, convenience, and safety

Some tourist destinations have already been affected by climate change, according to Buckley (2012). Cooper and Hall (2008:359, 363) believe that climate change may not necessarily have negative impacts on the rate of visitation to destination; however, the primary causes of climate change such as environmental pollution, excessive emission of carbon dioxide into the atmosphere, tree felling and other physical degradation of the environment have always been, and will generally affect the practice of tourism in natural environmental settings.

From international students' perspective, improved transport to and from home countries which is bound to happen especially when it is time to visit home, or their residential countries, as well as numerous movements with vehicles around their study destinations, could result to increase gas emissions, thus contributing to global warming. Also, an anticipated increase in international student arrivals, together with an associated increase in VFR, may increase industrial activities which ultimately trigger more pollution.

Nonetheless, international student mobility alone may not have too great an environmental impact, although the correlation between international students and the VFR concerning air transport could be a major cause of global warming and environmental pollution (Stradas, 2010:58-59). Air travel has the most significant impact on global warming as it is responsible for about 18 percent of the energy use for global leisure travel (Gossling, 2002:298). Furthermore, student activities like smoking and driving of personal cars will contribute to

pollution cause by similar activities from local citizens and could give rise to climate change at a faster rate. This is because gas emissions from transportation and smoking have both been identified as a source of carbon dioxide to the atmosphere. Research has clearly revealed that carbon dioxide is a major cause of global warming (Grossman, 2012) and a great deal of it comes from the already described scenarios.

### 3.4 Socio-cultural impacts of tourism

The majority of the publications on the impacts of tourism focus on the economic dimensions of tourism (Hsu, 2006:1). Discussions on sustainable tourism which covers the economic, environmental and social impacts of tourism only began to appear in the 1970s, according to Hall (2008:51). Tatoglu, Erdal, Ozgur and Azakli (2000:746) state that this decade saw a number of relevant studies emerging that revealed a number of some socio-cultural impacts of tourism, consequently attesting that tourism does impact on socio-cultural contexts. According to Brunt and Courtney (1999:493), tourism's socio-cultural impacts arise from tourism activities in rural, coastal and urban settings. Brunt and Courtney subsequently describe tourism as a socio-cultural event which impacts on both the guest and host. It was also observed that the majority of literature tends to focus on the tourists' convenience despite the fact that host destinations are suffering a number of social-cultural consequences. In light of this, Murphy (1985:133) argued that tourism must consider the socio-cultural impacts it has on the host community at large.

Therefore, the socio-cultural impacts of tourism – irrespective of the type of visitors or the components of visitors' activities – need greater attention from tourism researchers. According to Wall and Mathieson (2006:220), studies on the socio-cultural consequences of tourism fall

into the following three categories: the tourists, the host and the tourists-host interrelationships. Like economic and environmental impacts, the socio-cultural impacts of tourism also comprise both positive and negative dimensions of visitors' interactions with the host community in areas such as cultural values, beliefs and behaviours, restoration or abolition of cultural heritage, as well as the promotion of peace and local pride (Khunou, 2009:296-319); furthermore, safety levels, moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremony and community institutes may also be affected (Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006:2; Jafaar, Ismael & Rasoolimanesh, 2015:6). Other socio-cultural impacts of tourism include intercultural understanding or social cohesion, international integration, the host community being exposed to new ideas through globalisation, alteration of residents' usual habits, daily routines, and social lives (Hsu, 2006:13).

If one were to determine whether a specific socio-cultural impact of tourism is positive or negative, this would depend on the perceptions of the residents of the host community and their actual assessment of the status of any transformation that tourism is bringing to their lives or otherwise (Sullivan, Schuster, Kuehn, Doble & Morais, 2009:173; Dixit, 2014:25). Another factor in this regard is that, 'what one person may see as a negative change may be seen as a progressive by another' (Robinson, Luck & Smith, 2013:424). This means that some socio-cultural impacts could be very glaringly felt, while others may require an assessment of the residents' perceptions because the individuals have different views.

Regarding the description/classification of socio-cultural impacts of tourism, Fredline, Deery and Jago (2006:1) classify these as 'real' or 'perceived'. A real impact is described as something physical that can be objectively measured and its existence must be verifiable. Examples

include: traffic congestion; improvement of social services, infrastructure, recreation and other measurable outcomes. A perceived impact, on the other hand, is a personal view of tourism influence on issues such as customs, culture and religious belief, and other hidden variables. The degree of acceptance or rejection of a perceived impact will vary according to individual interpretation; for this reason, empirical research is mostly used to determine residents' perceptions of the impact of tourism.

In this segment, the socio-cultural impacts of international students on their study destination are discussed using the third category of the consequences of the impacts of tourism (i.e., the tourist-host interrelationships) as described by Wall and Mathieson (2006:220). A number of possible in which international students' interactions can have an impact on the host community are discussed below.

### 3.4.1 Possible socio-cultural impacts caused by international students

Interactions between international students and their host environment, which by extension comprise of visitors' interacting with the 'place' and 'people', are unavoidable (Dixit, 2014:26). The interaction between visitors and the entire service areas is unavoidable in a service-oriented industry, because the consumption of services that are paid for requires visitors to be present (Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner & Gremler, 2008:299). As with other tourists, international students' interaction with local citizens may affect the societal values, community pride, beliefs and culture of the host community, province, country and the macro environment (Keyser, 2006:377). Indeed, international students' presence has been described as capable of creating a socio-cultural awareness among the locals (Tian & Said, 2011:40). This is very true, especially

in view of their long stay at the destination as well as the hours of unhindered daily interactions at their various study environments.

The above social and cultural areas of the host will be very likely affected, especially when the number of international students increases; this may even lead to a shift in the attitudes of locals and may perhaps result in the commercialisation of local culture and pollution of local traditions with a different flavour (Saayman, 2002:135). The possibility that the presence of international visitors can lead to an increase in crime and subsequently to the destruction of peace (Mirbabayev & Shagazatova, 2009) means international students as visitors cannot be disregarded.

Given that the degree of the impacts of tourism on the destination depends largely on the type of tourism that is practiced and, by extension, the activities carried out by the visitors that are involved amongst other factors (see Wall & Mathieson, 2006:171; Roday, Biwal & Joshi, 2009:412-413), the following socio-cultural impacts of tourism, adapted from Hall (2008:29) are ways in which the presence of international students could affect their host communities:

- increased local participation in destination activities and events
- strengthening community values and traditions
- weakening or loss of community values and traditions
- exposure to new ideas through globalisation and transnationalisation
- greater security presence as a result of foreseeable crime increase
- greater cross-cultural understanding, and

- a significant high possibility of misunderstandings leading to varying degrees of host/visitor hostility.

### 3.4.2 Increased local participation in destination activities and events

A number of publications present comparative studies of international and host national (domestic) students' participations in tourism activities (Field, 1999:377; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003). In particular, Enberg (2009:60) asserts that international students can increase visits to local attractions within the study destination (Engberg, 2009:60). In a related study, Glover (2011:264) compared local and international students' travel behaviours – the results demonstrate both groups would exhibit different travel patterns and that this variation is due to the diversity of their cultural backgrounds. In the US, Chen and Lu (2010) found that Taiwanese students do visit landmarks and national parks. Even as other international students in the study do have different travel priorities, this study however confirms the possibility of an increase participation in destination activities. In the context of the current study, it suffices to acknowledge that not all students maybe with disposable income; especially African students. Nonetheless, effort can be made to increase students' participation in destination activities: thus, a boom in tourism-related activities for the host community (Pawlak, 2013:7). From all these findings, therefore, one can anticipate the possibility that the presence of international students can be used to boost local students' participations' in local activities if well utilised.

### 3.4.3 Strengthening of community values and traditions

The role of local community in tourism is significant (Hall, 2008:51-59). The community is involved in tourism planning, policy formation and participation. When people in the host community fail to support tourism, it will be difficult and, in fact, almost impossible to sustain tourism in such a community (Dixit, 2014:25). In light of the brief enumerated relationship between tourism and the host community there is little doubt that the beliefs, traditions and values of the host community could be strengthened if tourism is efficiently practised. One of the ways in which the presence of international students could be used to strengthen the local community's values and traditions is via participation in local events and festivals. The presence of international students means that they are a captive audience likely to attend and celebrate local events and festivals within the host community. Community events that have over the years been primarily attended by local people would be graced with the presence of international tourists United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP, 2014a), and in this case, international students and their VFR in particular.

### 3.4.4 Weakening or loss of community values and traditions

Any form of travel, irrespective of the motive behind it, would naturally bring people in contact with each other. Therefore, the day-to-day interaction between international students and residents of the host community may result in cultural corruption or pollution, and this may also result in weakening or loss of community values (Goldsmith, 2006:1-3; Khunou, 2009:298). One of the ways in which this might occur is when local students are exposed to international students' behaviours which may clash with their culture, traditions and community values (Jafaar, Ismael & Rasoolimanesh, 2015:7).

The presence of tourists has been reported to cause a cultural alteration in the host community. To be specific, three assumptions can be made regarding the nature and the effects of changes that come with the introduction of tourism to a destinations: (a) changes are brought about by the intrusion of an external, usually super-ordinate socio-cultural system, into a weaker, receiving culture; (b) changes are generally destructive to the indigenous tradition; and (c) changes may lead to a homogeneous culture as ethnic or local identity is subsumed (Hsu, 2006:2). Given these assumptions, it seems as if local students and other residents of the host community might want to conform to tourists' expectations. Rather than remaining faithful to their own traditions, they may somewhat infuse another culture's flavour into their value systems in a bid to make it appear acceptable to their foreign colleagues, thus compromising their community values and traditions.

### 3.4.5 Exposure to new ideas through globalisation and trans-nationalisation

Often, the community and by extension the people living in it, are reasons for tourists' travel to a destination. This suggests that visitors may have travelled to experience the way of life, art and cultural artefacts of a selected community. International students are mostly young, and the tendency of being exuberant is high as the youth tend to have a propensity for exploring new ideas. The possibility exists that international students' presence could expose the host community and its residents to newly imported ideas (Hsu, 2006:2). Therefore, it is possible that some young members of host communities may cultivate negative behaviours associated with the presence of international students. An example of such negative behaviours includes: sexual exploitation, drugs and related crime like theft, and displaying attitudes that are associated with

juvenile delinquency, among other negative vices as contained in other tourism niches (UNEP, 2014b).

### 3.4.6 Greater security presence as a result of foreseeable crime increase

On the positive side, international students' presence could be the reason for improved security in the host destination, while at the same time, it could increase the crime rate. Improved security is one of the major responsibilities of the state, especially as it concerns the business of tourism. According to Hall, Timothy and Duval (2003:2), tourism's success is directly linked to the perception of a reliable and efficient security system. An increase in the number of international students at a given destination might be a sound motivation for government to improve on existing security; thus responding to an increase in population in a bid to improve visitors' as well as citizens' safety. Special attention to the safety of visitor has also been acknowledged by Mkhwanazi (2012:5) who found that security personnel are frequently deployed to tourist attraction areas in South African.

Security at the host destination therefore needs to be improved; and as noted, the government is by and largely responsible for this (Pawson, 2009:90). Government controls the entire state security and excellent security at tourist destination is one of the thirteen pillars of travel and tourism competitiveness. Hall (2008:171) concurs, referring to security as a salient ingredient to tourism planning and policy formation. The inadequacy of security arrangement may deter visitors from visiting even the most exciting destination (Reynish, 2009:58). In light of this, Jones (2010:167-183) also recognises that improved security at tourist destinations is essential; he also suggests the following measures for achieving effective security: (i) an increase in the

number of police personnel (ii) the involvement of private security companies, and (iii) improved policing equipment. Therefore, the presence of foreign visitors (international students) would naturally call for stakeholders' intervention for greater security to reduce crime and address safety-related issues.

The occurrence of crime at tourist destinations has been a problem that tourism often must deal with (Harper, 2001:1053); moreover, crime against tourists can happen at any tourism destination across the world (Holcomb & Pizam, 2006:105-111). Crime activities at tourism destinations are attributed to activities of the host community within the destination, as well the activities of the international visitors in a destination (Weaver & Lawton, 2010:245). Another dimension of this issue is that one needs to recognise that visitors may themselves be the perpetrators of criminal acts (Spapens, 2010:129); likewise, they are not exempted from being the victims of crime committed by locals (Robinson, Luck & Smith, 2014:429). For instance, during free time, international students might want to explore the destination and take a trip to visit attractions in an attempt to get to know the host environment. A lack of understanding of the terrain may, just like other visitors who come exclusively for business, events, vacation and or sightseeing, result in them being targeted by locals who know that these visitors are vulnerable.

Visitors (international students) could also contribute towards increasing the crime rate due to youthful delinquency. Among the reasons why students may be engaged in crime is youthful exuberance (Shanka & Taylor, 2002:35). Cross (2006:156) puts international students' average age in a related study at 24; this confirms the relative youthfulness of international students.

Moreover, students' adventurous nature could lead to possible involvement in unauthorised activities. Given the dimension of youthful exuberance, international students may also become involved in drug-related crime or sex-related offences – drug crime has increased in South Africa (Institute for Security Studies, 2015:42). Already in some destination, international students are perceived as a possible threat to law and order (Ishikawa, 2006:5). However, possible criminal activity from the student is likely be very low because, as students, their careers are very much at stake and most of them would not want to jeopardise possible employment opportunities and positive recommendations that may make or mar future benefits that are associated with good conduct.

### 3.4.7 Greater cross-cultural understanding

International students are individually unique in personalities and come from different cultural backgrounds (Peacock, 2009:1). For this reason, a variety of cultural behaviours will quite likely be imported to the host community, thus resulting in cross-cultural interaction with the local community. This must, however, be viewed from two perspectives; while local students may promote their own, international students could also broaden the perspectives of domestic students by increasing their appreciation of cultures other than their own (Lee, 2007). The interaction between the host and international students would equally provide an opportunity to display cultural heritage to international students. An example of this is the annual celebration of cultural days in South Africa; these need to be promoted, especially among the youth. The mere that international students desire better interaction with host national students (Choo & Singh, 2013:8) is an opportunity that could be used to promote greater cross-cultural understanding.

The above illustrations are realisable given the results from an empirical study by Bowry (2002:98-101) who found that the level of interaction between international and host national students has a tendency to promote intercultural understanding. While the author reported a mixture of good, fair and not too good responses from the respondents, the general outcome is encouraging. This type of outcome could be improved upon to promote cross-cultural understanding. However, in South Africa, the likes of Gauteng 2015 Carnival could be subsequently improved upon through efficient publicity among universities, and students in colleges must be encouraged to participate in the activities associated with this event. Socio-cultural related activities somewhat be promoted through various media, and professionals in cultural marketing must be tasked with ways of using international students to promote cross-cultural understanding.

### 3.4.8 High possibility of misunderstandings leading to varying degrees of host/visitor hostility

At the initial stage, international visitors are welcomed by the host community with a measure of excitement due to the anticipated economic benefits associated with their presence. This is true until such time when it becomes noticeable that visitors' presence is threatening the socio-cultural well-being of the host. As soon as negative implications arise, especially those that are conceived as a direct threat to the host well-being, there is a tendency for the onset of hostility and possible violence in protest against visitors' presence (Wall & Mathieson, 2006:232).

Often erroneous perceptions exist that international visitors are there to take local jobs and possibly getting an undue advantage with South African women. In an attempt to "get back" the

visitors for these perceptions, local citizens might display varying degrees of hostility which is known as xenophobia. Oloyede (2008:105) defines xenophobia as a strong fear or dislike of people from other countries. A xenophobic-related attack can jeopardise tourism (Adeleke, Omitola & Olukoya, 2008:136), because it usually results in severe damage, even loss of life of foreign nationals. If not addressed swiftly, it could damage whatever is left of foreign policy relationship enjoyed by the host country and send negative perceptions to prospective visitors regarding their safety in such a destination. Xenophobia could be a constraint towards achieving high international student enrolments (Higher Education Monitor, 2009:15) if left unchecked.

## 3.5 Summary

This chapter discussed the dimensions of the impacts of tourism with a focus on international students as visitors. Having acknowledged that the international student market offers a unique travel experience and comes with a number of impacts on the destination, it was argued that the benefits of international students' presence at the destination outweigh the disadvantages that have been linked with their presence. Economic impacts include benefits such as employment creation, improved expenditures for the host, infrastructure development, destination promotion and attraction of foreign investors among others. Possible negative perceptions of the economic impacts of international students include that their presence may be seen as stealing jobs from the host. This perception will be further clarified in the empirical section, hence the inclusion of relevant questions regarding international students' employment status, as well as their intentions on either to remain in South Africa for employment purposes or not.

Regarding the environmental impacts, the literature indicated that international students pose almost no environmental threat because it is quite difficult to directly attribute a single environmental adversity to their presence. Almost all their activities are within sustainable tourism practice based on Tshipala (2013:85) description of what constitutes sustainable tourism practice, namely improving impact management, and helping to ensure the preservation of destinations and cultures for future generations. For instance, infrastructure development to entertain international students does not necessitate major urban regeneration, which would ultimately result in the relocation of local citizens as one could experience in preparation for mega sporting events. In other words, the same social facilities meant for citizens are required for international students, and are part of factors that pull them to a destination in the first instance. Finally, regarding social-cultural impacts, international students' presence can be seen as a tool for social cohesion. The possibility of their presence resulting in an increase in criminal activities has also been addressed and found not to be a significant threat to the host community or the country itself. Given that the presence of international students at the host destination as more merits than demerits, a call for improving investment in this tourism niche is appropriate.

The next chapter discusses the role of government in tourism. The essence of this is to understand the role of government (as one of the stakeholders) in the provision of an enabling atmosphere for other stakeholders in educational tourism niche, amongst other roles.

# CHAPTER 4

# GOVERNMENT'S ROLE IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

## 4.1 Introduction

There are a number of roles that government plays in the development of tourism. These include planning; coordination, regulation, legislation and promotion of tourism. Government also stimulates tourism by providing financial incentives such as low interest loans to encourage local investors and attract foreign investment amongst other roles. Sinha (2005:70) succinctly describes the tourism industry as one that is developed and managed by government. A comprehensive explanation of some of the roles that government plays in tourism was offered by Hall (2008:164) as well as Keyser (2009:157). Furthermore, a number of authors have highlighted some significant roles that government plays in the development of tourism (see Weaver & Lawton, 2006: 99,106,214; Walker & Walker, 2011:501).

In light of the above, the conceptual framework for this chapter is predicated on an exploration of the salient role of government in tourism towards creating an enabling framework for the industry to flourish (Keyser, 2009:157). However, the creation of such a framework must be understood as comprising a number of other functions. When the tourism planning process is supported by sound policy, outstanding achievement is usually very likely (Sinha, 2005:18). Therefore, a considerable number of steps must be involved in the tourism planning process in order to make things work properly (Hall & Lew, 2009:260). Tourism planning must suit the purpose it aims to achieve; and especially when one considers the numerous niches that are

contained in tourism, it is important that the right policies are used for the right reasons in order to get the desired outcomes.

Therefore, this chapter examines educational tourism based on a review of policy and policy instruments that are in place for educational export (specifically the internationalisation of higher education) in a number of leading countries. The chapter also presents a review of relevant documents on internationalisation in the higher education sector in South Africa. The importance of this exercise to the present study entail that (i) it addresses the third objective of this study (To examine government's role and involvement in educational tourism through a review of relevant documents such as the national educational policy on internalisation, the Tourism White Paper and tourism strategic document as well as other relevant sources), and (ii) to create a framework that is based on a review of policy for the management of international students and education export in selected leading countries. Thus, the layout of this chapter can be summarised under the following sub-headings:

- government's role in tourism administration
- internationalisation of higher education in selected countries
- internationalisation of higher education in South Africa
- suggestions for good practice of internationalisation in higher education
- chapter summary

### 4.2 Government's role in tourism administration

In the administration of tourism, the government (regional or local) drives legislative-related issues, policy, the funding of tourism marketing, the protection of sensitive natural or cultural

resources, budget approval and operational services, and the provision of tax infrastructure, amongst other functions (Hall & Lew, 2009:251). To be able to deliver on these functions, a number of government agencies usually work together within a well-conceived tourism framework towards the realisation of specific tourism objectives (Hall, 2008:177-182). Concurring with this notion, Lubbe (2003:172) adds that the regulatory framework for the planning, development, implementation and management of tourism is executed by government at all the three tiers of governance. Government also collaborates with international tourism bodies such as the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) and the World Travel Tourism Council (WTTC) concerning local and international tourism affairs. In most cases, relevant departments or ministries carry out the roles of planning, enforcement and other roles already linked to the government for the purposes of ensuring compliance by tourism stakeholders (Weaver & Lawton, 2006:214).

Cooper *et al*., (2005:514) Page (2007:337; 2011:272) describe the manner in which government performs its role in tourism, noting that these roles are either implemented through direct or indirect participation. Direct participation takes place through the development of facilities and building of infrastructures that are needed for great tourism experiences. On the other hand, indirect participation involves nurturing of government agencies and organisations such as National Tourism Organisation (NTO) or National Tourism Authorities (NTA) with a view to promoting tourism activities (Weaver & Lawton, 2006:214), overseeing the needs of stakeholders, and coordinating the affairs of the national tourism industry within a well-defined framework.

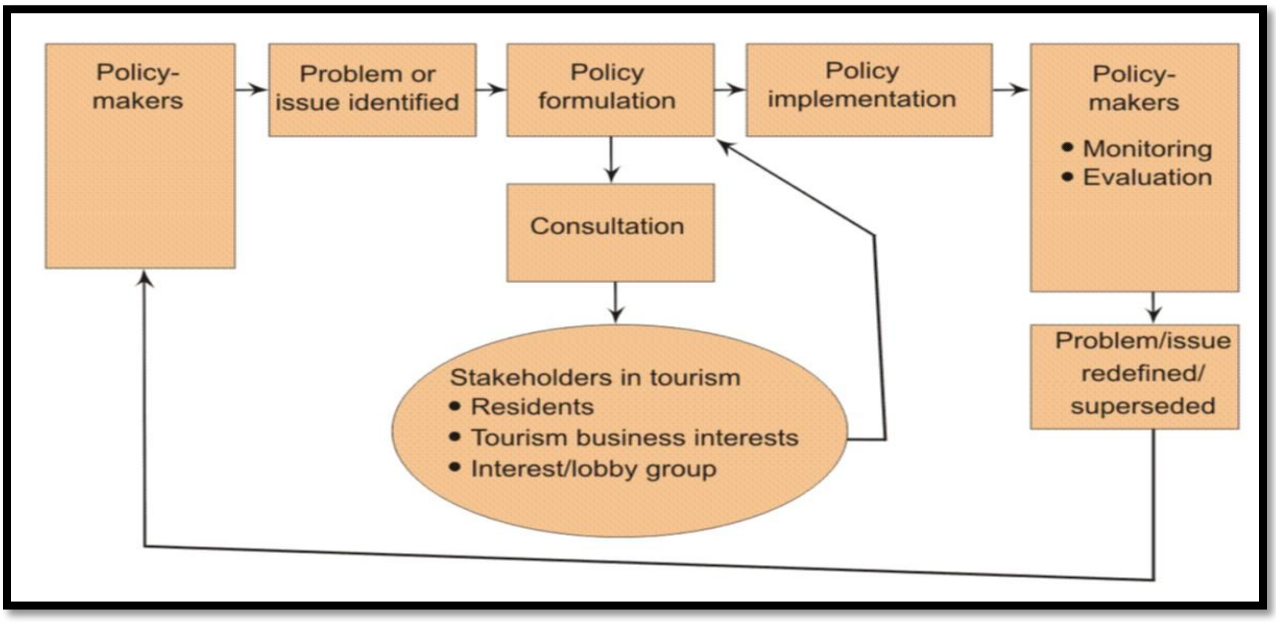
One of government's indirect roles in tourism administration is the establishment of tourism agencies in South Africa. For instance, one of the main responsibilities of the Department of Tourism includes promoting attractions within South Africa (Lubbe, 2003:218: National Tourism Sector Strategy NTSS, 2011). A number of indirect roles played by the government through tourism agencies are policy-oriented, which are basically in the form of documents (such as the National Tourism Sector Strategy document by the Department of Tourism, South Africa) designed to develop, manage and sustain tourism activities in compliance with stipulated national objectives (Inskeep, 1991:170).

To a degree, the success of a nation's tourism industry depends on the efficiency of its planning. According to Sinha (2005:18), "the starting point for the tourism planning process should be the development of a national tourism policy". Referring to efficient use of policy in support of planning as one of the ways in which a country can realise sustainable tourism dividends (i.e., economic, environmental and social); Keyser (2009:158) propounds that success in tourism emanates from a combination of policy and planning. Discussions on the tourism planning process by Sinha (2005:110); Dredge and Jenkins (2007:199) and Page (2009:442) offer clear proof that the quality of policy used in tourism planning could determine the degree of successes or failures likely to be recorded. In other words, policy as a tool can help the eventual outcome of tourism planning, particularly in those areas that government wishes to address (Hall & Jenkins, 1995:2).

In short, addressing the numerous roles that government plays in tourism, this chapter acknowledges the importance of policy and the concomitant processes such as policy

formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. These are depicted in figure 4.1. The issue of policy formulation, implementation and evaluation in tourism is very important; particularly in the face of a number of economic, environmental and political crises currently threatening the practice of tourism. To a large extent, government tends to strive towards increased regulation of tourism and tourism activities, especially with regard to issues that could undermine the rights of the host communities (Hall, 2008:165). As indicated in figure 4.1, tourism policies are not simply conceived; they are carefully put together after due consultations with all the necessary stakeholders whose inputs are required in order to protect individual interests whilst achieving collective objectives.

**Figure 4.1: Steps in the tourism policy**




**Source:** Page (2009:282)

The matter about which arms of government handles what aspect of policy in tourism depends on the structure and system of governance (i.e., presidential, parliamentary, federal and federal republic); but government at either the federal or provincial levels are typically saddled with the task of policy formation in tourism as explained by (Hall & Lew, 2009:251). Clarifying who should be in charge of policy formulation for tourism planning and administration, Edward Inskeep, a renowned tourism scholar, suggests that the government, particularly at the national level, should assume the leading role in policy formulation. The reason for Inskeep's view is that the quality of policies deployed may either build or destroy the practice of tourism in the entire country (Walker & Walker, 2011:153).

Regarding policy formulation for tourism administration, Inskeep (1991:170) feels therefore that the planning of tourism policy is a responsibility best handled by the government. Likewise, Keyser (2009:157) describes government as the appropriate body to handle policies, strategies, programmes and regulations. However, Dredge and Jenkins (2007:9) refer to the dwindling measure government dominance in tourism policy development; yet these authors do not object to the notion that only government implements tourism policy (Dredge & Jenkins, 2007:170). This leaves the government with the prerogative to implement only policies considered to be serving its interests. Essentially, government handles policy implementation from political perspective, as Hall (2008:107) states that policy planning in tourism is a political issue which can be influenced by economic, social and cultural characteristics of the host society. In other words, tourism policy development and implementation are greatly influenced by the economic, environmental and social interests and or benefits which a nation intends to realise (Mason, 2009:91).

In the build-up towards tourism policy planning formulation, stakeholders in the industry must be properly consulted (Singh, 2005:114). They should be invited to contribute their concerns to the policy to be formulated (Walker & Walker, 2011:152; Page, 2011: 282). For that reason, stakeholders' contributions would logically dictate the tone of policy formulation, as individuals would naturally lobby to have their interests protected. It follows that, through the conceptualisation of tourism policy framework, tourism stakeholders should work together towards the realisation of a common goal which should objectively addresses individual interests that is represented in such amalgamation as well as in the interest of the nation, province and municipality. An illustration to support the notion that stakeholders should work together on tourism matters is presented by Hall (2008:177-181).

Dredge and Jenkins (2007: 161) describe the adoption of policy as related to the availability of resources to pursue the desired governmental agenda, address policy issues and solve certain problems. These authors (2007:201) add that "the policy process is dependent on the unfolding of issues over time, the way these issues are processed by different interests and the influence of these interests on the politics of the decision making". Cooper *et al*. (2005:319) similarly highlight that one of the conditions upon which a policy could be adopted is the ability of the policy to potentially deliver greater economic, environmental and socio-cultural benefits expected by the various stakeholders. Both views corroborate Mason's (2009:91) position that the development and subsequent adoption of a specific policy for tourism is influenced by the economic, environmental and social expectations for which it is adopted. That is, the adoption of

policy for tourism, aside being influenced by the availability of resources, is also linked to the ability of such policy to deliver sustainable benefits whilst minimising sustainable risks.

According to Walker and Walker (2011:152) "tourism policy is a plan, strategy, and action of decision-making body calculated to achieve identified and specific goals related to tourism". This definition regards policy as a tool aimed at achieving desired results from the specific type of tourism niche intended to be used as a medium. It also highlights that certain decision-making body/bodies (i.e., government ministries and or agencies which may be owned wholly or partly by the government) are responsible for this. In support of the above notion regarding the need for policy in the delivery of key tourism objectives, Jamal and Robinson (2009:6) add that tourism is incorporated with other developmental policies and instruments to deliver key sustainable development outcomes. The authors also acknowledge the increase in stakeholders' involvement in tourism development and the significance of adequate understanding of tourism and its related components in order to inform appropriate policy formulation.

As this chapter sets out to discuss educational tourism niche and policy used in its running, it is important to keep in mind that issues pertaining to policy formulation, implementation and regulation in tourism affairs differ from country to country and depend on a number of factors such as the objectives to be achieved, the state of affairs upon which policies are conceived, and the economic, environmental and social benefits expected, amongst other things (Sinha, 2005:18). This perhaps explains the variations that can be observed in the policy/policy instruments used by various countries currently hosting international students (Becker & Kolster, 2012:16). As is the case with any tourism niche, educational-motivated mobility which pertains

to the internationalisation of higher education also functions with a number of policies that are put together to suit the anticipated outcomes for every host country. It follows that the quality and efficiency of policies being deployed are very important because these can facilitate or hinder the entire process of internationalisation of a nation's higher education (Hénard, Diamond & Roseveare, 2012:10).

These issues are supported by the director of the United Nation Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization UNESCO in Bangkok, Gwang-Jo Kim, who acknowledges that the mobility of students across international borders has given rise to concerns from policy-makers and educators alike (UNESCO, 2013). Furthermore, the significant role of policy formation was also emphasised in the report by the Australian Government Productivity Commission (2015:7) that indicated that a range of agencies and policy regulators at different levels of government is involved in the administration of policy for international students' educational services. This view highlights the role of policy and planning in the running of internationalisation at one of the best educational destinations in the world. In light of this, a review of government policy with regard to the attraction and administration of international students' in selected countries is offered below following a discussion on the internationalisation of higher education. The significance of government policy regarding administering internationalisation in selected countries hinges on the premise that policy planning in tourism is classified as an indirect role of government in tourism as mentioned above, and is thus a requirement for the smooth management of international students' presence in all destination countries.

## 4.3 Internationalisation of higher education

International students' travel for study purposes is usually discussed as part of the internationalisation of higher education. According to Chew, Ismael and Eam (2010:2), internationalisation refers to the movement of students from home country to another country that offers higher education services. A number of definitions are available for internationalisation of higher education, and the variation in these definitions may be attributed to how each study examines internationalisation (i.e., international student mobility; education service offering in universities; globalisation of higher education; the offering of joint degrees by universities in different countries; and the growth of satellite learning and online distance education, amongst others). For instance, Hénard, Diamond and Roseveare (2012:7) state that internationalisation occurs through transnational education which is sometimes delivered through off-shore campuses, joint programmes, and distance learning, amongst others. Dolby (2011:5) discusses internationalisation from study abroad perspective; the author acknowledges that internationalisation covers every aspect of higher education.

The South African White Paper for Post-school Education and Training describes internationalisation as:

> 'the cross-border movements of students and staff; international research collaboration; the offering of joint degrees by universities in different countries; the establishment of campuses by universities outside their home countries; the growth of satellite learning and online distance education, including online educational institutions; arrangements between countries for the mutual recognition of qualifications; the regional harmonisation of qualification systems; and the increasing inclusion of international, intercultural and

> global dimensions in university curricula'. It also involves an integration of international perspective into teaching/learning, research and service functions of a Higher Education Institution' (DHET, 2013:39).

Internationalisation is a product of amalgamation of many policies combed together as a strategy:

> "It involves an ongoing, future oriented, multi-dimensional, interdisciplinary, leadership-driven vision that involves many stakeholders working to change the internal dynamics of an institution, to respond and adapt appropriately to an increasingly diverse, globally-focused, ever-changing external environment" (Dolby, 2011:7).

Zerman (2014:10) lists a number of definitions for internationalisation of higher education as follows: a franchise of education programmes and degrees, and a global academic marketplace for students (Altbach & Teichler, 2001); a consistent and permanent cross border activities of international students (Teichler, 2009); the movement of people, programmes, providers, knowledge, ideas, projects and services across national boundaries (Makro, 2009:5); partnerships among universities or agreements among institutions in different countries (Walters, 2009); a globalised curricula for the international education concept (Jackson, 2008); a joint degree program between universities in different locations, language course offerings, and international research projects (Schwald, 2012); and an exchange of cultures through teaching, research, and other services (Yang, 2002). Finally, Bostrom (2010) describes internationalisation as the strategic actions aimed at creating global impacts for international programmes and student exchange.

As observed from the above, a number of relevant themes occur in the definitions of internationalisation. These include but are not limited to: international education, cross-border activities of international students, educational services across international boundaries, and international students' presence at international universities. All these themes are relevant to the present study. As a working definition, internationalisation of higher education can be defined as the cross-border mobility of international students from home countries to various study destinations for the purpose of acquiring satisfactory international educational qualification. This definition concurs with a similar view expressed by Chew, Ismael and Eam (2010:2) and the White Paper for Post Education and Training in South Africa (Department of Higher Education and Training DHET, 2013:39). The discussion on internationalisation of higher education therefore also refers to how international students are attracted from their various countries (home or residential) and a summary of policy instruments used in selected host countries to attract, sustain attendance, and subsequently promote higher education to the admiration of international students from across the world.

In light of the above, and subsequent to the submission that policies are required to run international education export efficiently (Australian Government Productivity Commission, 2015:7), internationalisation of higher education and its entire structure must therefore be supported with appropriate administrative policy (Tupakhina, 2011) because a lack of efficient administrative structure was one of the most pressing problems encountered by an European University (Zaporizhzhya National Technical University, Ukraine) in the conduct of internationalisation through failed international relations.

Underlining a well-organised internationalisation exercise is an excellently conceived and well implemented international students' recruitment plan. The recruitment of international students, according to Andrade (2006:132); Makro (2009:5); Aloyo and Wentzel (2011:392); Beine, Noel and Ragot (2013:5-6); Gopal (2014:5) takes place in light of a variety of economic and developmental benefits. These benefits, mostly financially-related, have incited an increasing number of countries to step up their efforts by developing meaningful policies that will attract, sustain and manage their educational systems with a view to achieve adequate benefits therein. A number of countries have successfully developed their higher education to the point where education has now become an export commodity for attracting international students. The governments of some of the leading countries spend large sums of money to attract international students. In return, international students' presence yields enormous financial benefits and it is subsequently responsible for tourism growth in their respective host countries. This perhaps explains why internationalisation of higher education is a serious business among leading and upcoming countries.

For instance, Meek (2013:6) ascribes Australia's achievement in internationalisation to efficient promotion and their ability to develop and implement actions that will keep increasing the flow of international students to Australia. International students who travel to Australia for educational purposes have been regarded as a tool for promoting international cooperation with sending countries in area of economic, cultural and academic enhancement. This is an indication that sound policy and planning are required to attract the most benefits from international students to developing countries such as South Africa. Therefore, it is necessary to provide an

assessment of policy and policy instruments adopted in the educational management export (internationalisation) in selected countries. This is intended to serve as template for efficient policy formulation and excellent administration of internationalisation for developing and aspiring destinations in this tourism niche.

### 4.3.1 Internationalisation of higher education in selected countries

As the landscape of internationalised higher education is rapidly evolving, new countries and universities across the globe are entering the global talent pool, consequently challenging the established position of some of the leading countries in this sphere. Competition between countries for high-quality students and a boost in the mobility of international students across the world continues to increase. Thus, it becomes important for emerging countries such as South Africa to gain a better understanding of how things are done in leading countries with respect to the formation and deployment of policy aimed at the successful internationalisation of higher education for broader benefits.

According to report the Times Higher Education (2012:4), education is now a major export for a number of countries, and the popularity of studying abroad has increased considerably over the last three decades. More countries now maximise the benefits of educational tourism through internationalisation which is yielding dividends on investment made thus far. For instance, Malaysia and Singapore have done very well with education export; both countries are still enjoying tremendous benefits of internationalisation in their higher education system (Chew, Ismael & Eam, 2010). This achievement is possible through a number of approaches such as twinning programmes, branch campuses and cross-border mobility of international students. In

fact, there is a rivalry between these two counties on who leads as the educational hub within the Asian region (Dessoff, 2012: 18-20). This is an indication of the level of success being recorded at these two destinations.

Regarding the approaches adopted for successful internationalisation in Malaysia and Singapore as mentioned above, Mazzarol and Soutar (2002:5) point towards three main approaches towards the internationalisation of higher education used by Malaysia to gain entry into the educational market. These include the first wave, second wave and third wave approaches. The first wave approach represents students who travel from a source country to Malaysia to access full-time academic programmes. The second wave approach is known as twinning agreements; it offers Malaysian universities the opportunity to enter foreign markets through licensing or management contracting modes with another university from the source country. Permission is granted for joint ventures and management agreements between local universities and foreign universities. This is also done through credit transfer protocol; it offers local students the opportunity to temporarily visit foreign universities to study a few courses out of their entire curriculum in order to qualify for a specified degree at a local university, either in their home country or residential country. The third wave approach is when an upcoming country in international education gives permission to foreign universities to establish branch campuses in line with their policy to make that country a regional hub for education service provision.

In what is similar to the third wave approach, Bitzer (2002:24) reports that about forty three (43) foreign higher education institutions from leading countries such as Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States were operating in South Africa nearly two decades ago.

Their operations were stalled by legislature, and some of the reasons given for the stoppage include exorbitant school fees, substandard practice and poor service delivery. In an attempt to salvage the future of education in South Africa, therefore, the legislative arm of government terminated the operations of foreign universities and institutions of higher learning for these reasons according to Bitzer (2004:24). Subsequent to this development, there has not been any meaningful progress for the development of internationalisation when compared with other countries. Perhaps, stalling the operations of about 43 foreign higher institutions was not the best decision in view of a report that Malaysia achieved success in increasing the presence of foreign higher institutions on her shores; meaning that Malaysia recorded success at almost the same situation that South Africa stopped internationalisation.

Subsequent to Malaysia's success, international trends in higher education show that the Asian continent is on the threshold of achieving a system that will encourage domestic students to study within Asia (Oxford University, 2015:6). Domestic students refer to students from the Asian continent. A similar situation could emerge by attracting African students to South Africa and subsequently grow South Africa's education export beyond the SADC region. The proposed local patronage in Asia relies on Malaysia and Singapore's readiness to offer quality education that is comparable to what is offered in developed countries to Asian students (Australian Government Productivity Commission, 2015:6). When this materialises fully, it will be similar to the Bologna process which has successfully provided ample opportunities for the majority of European students to enjoy quality and affordable international education in European universities.

In the South America, Brazil is favoured as the hub for education. A number of universities in Brazil are currently providing educational services for students in that region and to those from beyond. One question that comes to mind is: who takes charge of the African market? There is a vacuum and the demand for quality education on the African continent continues to grow, yet South Africa, which is seen by the majority to be well-positioned for this role, seems to be far from improving on the preparation required. Something needs to be done to this situation; otherwise African students will keep going to other continents. For instance, the current assessment of international student mobility to the UK shows that Nigeria is about to overtake India with regard to the number of postgraduate students that will be studying in the UK by 2050. It is alarming that Nigeria with fewer than 200 million citizens will be responsible for more postgraduate students' presence in the UK than India with a population of far more than one billion people. This is an indicator of the future of educational mobility and the present reality of possible neglect by African countries. It suffices to say that African countries have failed to take advantage from this tourism niche which has seen African students growing foreign economies through the presence of huge numbers of African students abroad (Kishun, 2008:3).

To attract the best international students, a number of provisions need to be fulfilled by the host country. For example, a number of pull factors (already discussed in chapter 2) must be provided as a response to some of the reasons international students leave their home countries. For this reason, leading countries such as the USA, the UK and Australia, as well as developing ones like Malaysia and Singapore are deploying a number of policies suitable to their individual objectives in the administration of internationalisation of higher education. These policies are directed at making vital pull factors such as immigration matters, employment opportunities and

financial inducement to study, amongst other incentives, readily attractive (Becker & Kolster, 2012:16).

As part of the effort of providing support for tourism through educational mobility, governments in selected host countries are constantly improving on policies aimed at making their country the top on the list for international students whose choices of where to go usually favour destinations that can fulfil most of their needs. Figures 4.1a to 4.1f presents a number of policies in place for the recruitment and management of international students in a number of selected countries. The purposes include but are not limited to: (i) establishing the importance of having sound policies in place for internationalisation, and (ii) highlighting the various policies and policy instruments in place for aspiring destinations.

**Table 4.1a: Policy for international students recruitment in the USA**

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|---|---|
| **USA** | **National policy strategy for international students recruitment**<br><br>-Has increased higher education exchanges to stimulate economic ties between the US and Muslim-majority nations such as Indonesia. A move aimed to double the number of Indonesians studying in the US.<br><br>-Has endorsed internationalisation of learning by encouraging students from other countries to study in the US, promoting study abroad by US students, facilitating the exchange of scholars and citizens at all levels of society, supporting the learning of foreign languages and knowledge of other cultures by Americans, and by enhancing the educational infrastructure for developing international competences and research.<br><br>-Has initiated special efforts aimed at encouraging international student mobility to the US from specific countries, with particular emphasis on India, Indonesia and Vietnam. This move was led by Institute of International Education (IIE).<br><br>-Is sending a number of US students to China for study, a measure aimed at fostering diplomatic ties between US-China relationships.<br><br>-Some states in the US formed a consortium with an active international student recruitment focus.<br><br>-Approximately 23 US states have passed state-level international education resolutions, which focus on promoting international student exchange and studies abroad by US students, rather than on international student recruitment to the US.<br><br>**National policy instrument for international student recruitment**<br><br>-Several scholarships available for undergraduates and postgraduates international students<br><br>-National-level higher education branding initiatives are undertaken by the US Department of State, it comprises 400 advisory centres in 134 countries.<br><br>-Student immigration procedures have been made easier and more transparent; study visa costs approximately USD 50.<br><br>-Introduction of a new J-1 Visa Exchange Visitor website with information and promotional materials to encourage incoming (non-degree-seeking) exchange students and Summer seasonal workers (the visa programme is not specific to higher education)<br><br>-International students in the US are allowed to undertake paid work on campus and study related employments are also allowed.<br><br>-International students can apply for a post-study work visa in the US for up to three years after graduation. This visa is meant for graduates in selected areas who seek temporary work in occupations as scientists, engineers, and computer programmers.<br><br>-Various universities in the US have established international branch campuses with possible objective to recruit additional international students to the US. |

**Source:** Adapted from Becker and Kolster (2012:34)

## Table 4.1b: Policy for international students recruitment in the UK

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|---|---|
| **UK** | **<u>National policy strategy for international students recruitment</u>**<br><br>The introduction of a five-year second round Prime Minister Initiative for international students (PMI2) in 2006 which has and still yielding the following:<br><br>- Has positioned the UK higher education as a strong national brand through marketing and communication<br><br>- Has introduced a special monitoring and assurance of the quality of experience which include improved student satisfaction and ratings and employment opportunities for international students in the UK.<br><br>- Has built strong international partnerships; increased the number of these international partnerships and used it as a means to attract an additional 70 000 international students to the UK higher education, and an additional 30 000 international students to UK further education.<br><br>- To double the number of countries sending more than 10 000students per year to the UK<br><br>- Has Promote market diversification and consolidation based on greater understanding of the countries UK universities operate in.<br><br>-Has identified list of viable markets for international students' recruitment and collaboration and these include: primary targets (China, Brazil, India, Mexico, Russia, South Korea, Taiwan, Thailand and Vietnam) and the secondary target (Australia, Bangladesh, Canada, Ghana, Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Turkey, the United Arab Emirates, and the US.<br><br>**<u>National policy instrument for international student recruitment</u>**<br><br>-Has set a high tuition fees target which started in 2012<br>-It would be attracting top class international students with intellectual and economic benefit as against mere increase in number that is seen to be reducing employment potential for UK citizens<br><br>-Has encouraged a competition based scholarship which is supported by the British Council and the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Commission, plus limited universities scholarship/funding opportunities for international students<br>-Would attract a number of International students that would be able to demonstrate a higher level of English-language proficiency<br><br>-Has encouraged postgraduate students at universities and government-sponsored students to bring their dependants to the UK<br>-Has amended that the time that can be spent on a student visa, a lower degree remains at three years while a five years period is for students at higher levels.<br><br>-Is offering work opportunities for international students during their studies. Students may work up to 20 hours a week on the basis of a student visa during their period of study, and up to 40 hours a week during the holiday period<br>-The British Council has dedicated Marketing funds to attract international students has been dedicated by the British Council, and the British government allocates targeted funding for a number of international student recruitment and partnership schemes with specific countries or regions<br><br>-Has set international branch campus strategies at the institutional rather than the national government level to support existing UK international branch campuses, all of these are aimed at attracting a higher number of international students, not only from the country where the campus it is located but also from the wider region<br><br>-Ensured that all recognised UK transnational higher education programmes offered abroad have been quality assured by the UK's Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education<br>-Has introduced one or two-year foundation programmes. These programmes aimed at preparing international students for entry to undergraduate and postgraduate degree programmes. A guaranteed entry offer will provided for specific degree at the university, provided that students achieve the grades required to proceed. |

**Source:** Adapted from Becker and Kolster (2012:20)

## Table 4.1c: Policy for international student recruitment in France

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|---|---|
| **FRANCE** | **National policy strategy for international students recruitment**<br><br>There is no clear publication on specific strategies yet, but the following are currently in place to promote and attract international students to France:<br><br>-The use of CampusFrance, a national organisation for the promotion of French higher education abroad, established to promote information exchange between its staffs in different parts of the world and enhance strategies to encourage<br>French-foreign student mobility and cooperation in higher education and research.<br><br>-Target recruitment countries at the moment include a wide range of countries with newly emerging markets and large potential for student populations such as: French speaking African countries, China, India, Indonesia, Thailand and Brazil.<br><br>**National policy instrument for international student recruitment**<br><br>-Tuition fees for international students are low compared with other European countries.<br>-Flexible visa requirement for international students such as online application system that has been set up to handle visa request procedures for 31 countries.<br>-International students in France are legally allowed to undertake paid work for up to 964 hours per year translating to 60% of the legal working limit.<br>-There is growth in English-taught degree programmes, due to pressures to remain attractive to international students whose mother tongue is not French.<br>-French universities offer a number of French and French-foreign dual degree programmes, in Vietnam, India, Egypt, Armenia, the United Arab Emirates and Malaysia.<br>-Improve marketing of its higher education programmes in 97 countries, 128 offices and 27 annexes.<br>-Special promotion tours for India, China, Taiwan and Indonesia, and promotion of events at international education fairs abroad.<br>-Three separate search engines that allow for a personalised search for scholarships, and a specific search engine for doctoral programmes.<br>-Promotion tours abroad to attract PhD students. This particular initiative was complemented by the launch of a French scholarship programme for Chinese PhD students in France. |

**Source:** Adapted from Becker and Kolster (2012:18)

**Table 4.1d: Policy for international student recruitment in Australia**

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|---|---|
| **AUSTRALIA** | **National policy strategy for international students recruitment**<br><br>-Australia has strategically selected to increase recruitment from China, Hong Kong, India, South Korea, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Vietnam and Singapore due to geographical proximity and prospects in possible numbers of international students<br>-Has published a special Act in 2010, this was done to ensure international students are better supported and protected in Australia<br>-Improved regulation of Australia's international education sector and maintaining of Australia's reputation as a high quality destination.<br>-A strategy to ensure a high-quality experience for international students with a view to an overall good-quality experience for international education in Australia was also published.<br><br>**National policy instrument for international student recruitment**<br>The main policy instrument used by Australia in the recruitment of international students are:<br><br>-Education counsellors are stationed at Australian embassy abroad for the purposes of building healthy education partnerships. These offices promote international students recruitment as well.<br><br>-Australian higher educational institutions offer degree programme abroad through overseas campuses. This measure is an avenue to exhibit the quality of Australian education to prospective students in overseas countries hence it may promote inflow of students to Australia.<br><br>-Numerous government scholarships for postgraduate studies, outstanding international students are provided with scholarship as well as opportunity to work whilst studying.<br><br>-As a result of global economic crisis which in turn affected international students capacity to pay for their education, more recruitment markets in additional countries were developed so as to make up for the possible deficit as a result of inability of government of existing partners to finance more students education.<br><br>-Providers of educations are required to re-register as a measure to ensure their compliance with standard regulations which is believed to be one of Australia's major strength in attracting international students. This exercise allows for a proper examination of institution capacity to provide standard educational services.<br><br>-Improvement of international students' wellbeing in terms of safety plan and other health related issue.<br><br>-A review on visa related issues, students are allowed to work for a maximum of 20 hours weekly with study visa. This gesture is seen as a measure to encourage interactions between locals, to acquire income, improve their language skills and professional expertise.<br><br>-Dependents of masters' and doctoral students are allowed to undertake full time paid-work.<br><br>-Post-study work opportunities are also allowed for international students. |

**Source:** Adapted from Becker and Kolster (2012:18)

**Table 4.1e: Policy for international students recruitment in Singapore**

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|---|---|
| **SINGAPORE** | **National policy strategy for international students recruitment**<br><br>There is no specific strategy or target market yet, but the followings were retrieved about Singapore's recruitment status:<br>- The government aimed to attract 150 000 students by the year 2015 by attracting international universities to the country thereby using their presence to develop local universities. Some top class foreign universities are already attracting international students to Singapore with their presence<br>-Promotion of Singapore higher education internationally through 'East Meets West' initiative. The following markets are target: China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Myanmar and Vietnam.<br>-Promotion of their multicultural society with safe living environment particularly for international students from the Western students based on researched that Singapore is perceived as the most "Western" of Asian countries.<br>-The educational system currently offers a wider range of career oriented curricula.<br>-Attraction of multinational companies and international organisations. Presently, there are about 7 000 multinational companies and over 60 international organisations, this is believed have improved Singapore economic status and enhance its selection by international students<br><br>**National policy instrument for international student recruitment**<br><br>-Singapore government provides financial support for international universities in its quest to continue using the presence of recognised foreign universities for attracting international students.<br>-Further attempts to maintain status as developing educational hub, the country as designed and pronounced a new educational act aimed to strengthen Singapore's international education brand.<br>No paid work opportunities for international students but there are prospects for work placed positions and post graduate employment opportunities with some of the leading organisations. International students are required to apply for training employment permit for this purpose.<br>-Lower tuition fees charged to international students when compared with what is charged in UK, USA and Australia, despite the very competitive nature of education standard in Singapore.<br>-International students' fees are subsidised as long as students agreed to work in Singapore for three years after completing their studies. |

**Source:** Adapted from: Becker and Kolster (2012:19)

**Table 4.1f: Policy for international students recruitment in Malaysia**

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|---|---|
| **MALAYSIA** | **National policy strategy for international students recruitment**<br><br>-Major and the first group of target markets are China, Indonesia and the United Arab Emirate (UAE). Reasons for targeting China are: the huge market size and language similarities while Indonesia and UAE are targeted due to socio-cultural and religious similarities<br>-Second group of target countries are: Taiwan, South Korea, Vietnam and Thailand. These countries are close neighbours and there is an increasing demand for higher education spaces by citizens of these countries. Iran, middle East and Africa are next on order of priority<br>-Four core study areas of international students' recruitment have been identified and effort is seriously in place to recruit as many students as possible through the implementation of policy<br>-Religious similarities between Malaysia and Islamic countries is been used to attract students from Islamic countries as a result of strict adherence to Islamic traditions and values expected of destinations hoping to attract Muslim students from Islamic countries<br><br>**National policy instrument for international student recruitment**<br><br>-The Malaysian government is promoting higher education locally and internationally, and also seeking international recognition of Malaysian degrees and development of foreign collaboration in the area of joint degree programmes<br>-Adjustment made to the commencement of academic calendar in all Malaysian public universities inconformity to those of the West and neighbouring Asian countries<br>-Signing of mutual degree recognition with the Chinese government, and seeking ways to Australian students to study for at least a semester in Malaysia through credit transfer. These two agreements are expected to boost students exchange among these countries<br>-Considering the issuance of license to international recruitment agencies<br>-All private universities are encouraged to recruit about 20% of their academic staff from abroad so as to increase international competitiveness of Malaysia higher education<br>-Establishment of Malaysia Education Promotion Centres in countries such as China, Indonesia, UAE and Vietnam to attract citizens and residence of those countries to Malaysia<br>-Several foreign institutions are allowed to opened branch campuses in Malaysia, this is an opportunity for international students to acquire good quality qualification in country with low living cost<br>-Government establishment of EduCity, a programme that will construct and develop a base for seven higher education institutions and will accommodate housing project for 4000 international students<br>-Easy visa application processes and hassle free immigration procedures for international students<br>-International students are allowed to work for a maximum of 20 hours a week along with their studies |

**Source:** Adapted from: Becker and Kolster (2012:18)

According to Tables 4.1a - 4.1f, each of the countries mentioned therein deployed policies as well as policy instruments that are considered suitable for the realisation of their various objectives. As previously mentioned, countries attract international students for a range of reasons considered suitable to achieving individual objectives. The word 'policy' and the phrase 'policy instruments' as used in these figures refer to the description given to actions taken as well as the tools that are used to attract, manage and sustain international students in the countries reviewed. This is similar to general tourism practice, where policy instruments that are adopted would naturally depend on the nature and availability of the resources accessible by the host government (Dredge & Jenkins, 2007:161). Table 4.1a – 4.1f also identify the various instruments under a specific policy for attracting and managing international students. That is, each of the countries mentioned presented what they have in other to achieve what they desire to in this tourism niche.

What is also clear from Tables 4.1a – 4.1f is that Malaysia and Singapore are developing in this market niche. Both countries have very little to offer with regard to job opportunities for international students as compared to the rest countries mentioned. Despite Malaysia and Singapore's shortfalls in this regard, both countries still managed to remain in competition by adopting policy tools that have seen them focusing on attracting international students from countries with similar religious as well as language orientation. This is an indicator that South Africa could also look at possible instruments that can assist in making the country more competitive. However, there must be the willingness to engage the best practice and to adopt policies that are realistic in supporting the actualisation of anticipated objectives.

To summarise the policy tools deployed in recruiting international students as discussed in Tables 4.1a – 4.1f therefore, it appears that all this information can be appropriately analysed around three main themes: (i) employment opportunities (ii) immigration opportunities and (iii) scholarship opportunities. These three themes are salient tools used to draw prospective international students towards the named countries. With regard to employment, international students along with their dependants also have opportunities to work. This coincides with one of the reasons said to be responsible for students' choices for certain countries. The hours available for them to work may have been regulated in a bid to curtail excesses and to reduce possible labour loss meant for the host citizens; thus the significance of raising issues pertaining to the nature of employment in the empirical study. Regarding improved immigration opportunities, international students together with their dependants have ample opportunities to travel to host countries and subsequently to other developed nations on the basis that they hold temporary permits. This opportunity has been clearly displayed and even improved upon as depicted in almost all the countries reviewed.

With regard to scholarship opportunities, almost all the countries mentioned provide financial aid to international students, particularly, to students following degrees in special disciplines often referred to as Science Technology Engineering and Maths (STEM). This is one of many ways in which countries attract exceptional students to their shores. As pointed out during the discussion on pull factors, scholarship opportunities are among the factors that have a bearing on students' choice of study destination. The above discussed themes, namely employment, immigration and scholarship opportunities are vital among factors pushing students out (see Table 2.3), and to be

highly competitive amongst destinations these must be abundantly available among pull factors (see Table 2.4) when positioning a nation as a study destination for international students.

### 4.3.2 Internationalisation of higher education in South Africa

South Africa is regarded as the main hub of education for the entire Southern African region; as the rainbow nation it boasts the highest numbers of highly rated international universities on the African continent (Kwaramba, 2012:8). Ironically, South Africa, the giant of Africa in this domain, is yet to openly make a pronouncement on the adoption of a specific policy in the pursuit of internationalisation of higher education system. Two separate studies by Aloyo and Wentzel (2011:391) and Kotecha (2012:3) reveal that there is no policy statement at the national level for the internationalisation of South African higher education.

Furthermore, the White Paper for Post-school Education and Training (DHET, 2013) which briefly discusses internationalisation in South Africa does not mention that a documented policy is in place. All these attest to the declaration by the International Education Association of South Africa, IEASA (2013) that there is a disconnection between internationalisation and the national Higher Education policies in South Africa. Furthermore, IEASA (2013) gave a number of tips that could be of assistance in the actualisation of national policy for the practice of a world-class internationalisation exercise. One of such was a call on all stakeholders to endorse a process that will allow for the adoption of a National Policy on Internationalisation of Higher Education in South Africa.

A further search on previous studies about educational administration to determine whether there is an existing policy at the national level for recruiting international students to South Africa indicated that there is no tangible document or policy in this regard. Searches were further conducted via educational tourism and related themes, and yet no result points to the use of international education as a means of increasing the number of arrivals to South Africa. Among the tourism-related documents that were reviewed was the National Tourism Sector Strategic (NTSS, 2011); it highlights the use of various tourism niches for attracting inbound visitors to South Africa, yet it says nothing on the recruitment of international students or visitors for educational tourism purposes given the absence of a discuss in the National Tourism Sector Strategy. The abovementioned reasons may perhaps explain the feeble state of internationalisation in South Africa's higher education. Under ideal circumstances, internationalisation of higher education is expected to cater for international students' recruitment, educational services delivery, managing the cross-border regulatory policy and international students' welfare, amongst other things.

However, in the absence of a standard policy on internationalisation of higher education, South Africa has a Code of Ethical Practice for the Provision of Educational Services to International Students. Although this document was prepared for South African institutions, and for the running of educational services to international students, it is not the most sound of policies because it does not appear as if any of the guidelines stipulated therein could be enforced, neither does it compelled that universities or higher institutions found wanting will be reprimanded for failure to abide. The Code of Ethical Practice in the Provision of Educational Services to International Students as a document does contains useful information on ethical practice for

South Africa higher institutions and information on admission, marketing and promotion of educational services (International Education Association of South Africa IEASA, 2013). It also discusses ethical practices with regard to accommodation and orientation, engagement of agents in the recruitment exercise, conditions of entry and stay, employment and health-related issues pertaining to international students.

It may well be that the absence of a concrete policy document on the internationalisation of higher education is a contributing factor to South African universities' autonomy in the attraction and subsequent admittance of international students which is usually based on their capacity to do so (Malaza, 2011:2). Ideally, international students especially for government owned universities must be attracted by means of a well-planned internationalisation structure (Libhaber & Greene, 2015:18) whilst putting the national interest at the fore front in order to achieve the national objective behind attraction of international students. Government of host countries usually get involved in matters surrounding the attraction of international visitors from the tourism point of view as earlier enumerated in the beginning of this chapter. Tsuboya-Newell (2018) draws attention to how Germany, the Netherlands and Japan efforts at increasing international students arrivals. Author's explanation indicates that efficient coordination and regulation of this exercise from the government will go a long way in realisation of goals.

Given the above, the decision to increase or reduce the number of international students ought to be a national issue and should be regulated by national policy. Also, the government is supposed to be the regulatory body that would decide the number of international students to be attracted (Chew, Ismail & Eam, 2010:2; Hennings & Mintz, 2015:241) from where and how to

accommodate them. This is one among the various ways in which government can efficiently demonstrate support for this tourism niche and monitor progress on the ground with a view to ensuring that infrastructure availability correlates with the number of visitors to be catered for. A government-issued regulatory policy is required because an internationalisation policy on higher education is usually conceived and implemented to address a number of international students' issues such as admission capacity, infrastructure delivery, quality educational service delivery, marketing and the promotion of the host country's educational system, amongst others (Australian Government Productivity Commission, 2015:6).

In addition to the discussion above on the absence of an established policy for internationalisation of higher education in South Africa, there is the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Education and Training of 1997 which is worth mentioning. This is a regional cooperation agreement meant only for Southern African students (Marko, 2009:7) and it outlines bulk of the information upon which the White Paper for Post-school Education and Training in South Africa (DHET, 2013:39) already discussed on internationalisation in South Africa. A notable benefit from the SADC protocol as expressed in the White Paper is that education for international students within the SADC region is subsidised by the South African government. It also discusses a collaborative project in educational-related affairs for students of the SADC and BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) nations. The matter of scholarships and bursaries for international students, particularly those studying for qualifications in scarce skills, is also mentioned. Interestingly, the White Paper states that it is necessary to develop a suitable policy framework for international cooperation in

post-school education and training. This attests to a lack of a concrete policy on internationalisation of higher education in South Africa.

The SADC Protocol on Education and Training (2007), therefore, appears to be aimed at promoting the internationalisation of higher education in the region; it is also premised on achievement of the following targets that are set to be achieved within 10 years of this protocol:

- reservation of a 5% space for student admissions for SADC students,
- standardisation of university admission requirements,
- the development of mechanisms for the transfer of credit within universities within the region,
- encouraging student and staff mobility and,
- ensuring that within 10 years of this protocol, SADC students and South African students should enjoy national treatment and same rights as far as accommodation and fees are concerned.

The SADC Protocol on Education and Training, as summarised above, lacks adequate policy tools for the effective recruitment and management of international students. It also falls short of the necessary ingredients with regard to catering for the welfare of international students when compared with strategy used by other countries in international educational market segment (see figure 4.1a – 4.1f). It is also not certain whether SADC students enjoy the same rights regarding accommodation and fees as highlighted in the protocol. For example, Kwaramba (2012:2) highlights that most and not all universities in South Africa have implemented same fee charged to SADC students and local students. There are, however, plenty of opportunities for a more

robust policy document that will take into consideration issues beyond regional matters that may assist in attracting more than regional benefits.

Of course, the idea behind the initiation of the SADC Protocol on Education and Training (2007) as a regional document is reasonable, and very similar to the Bologna Declaration which was signed two years after the SADC protocol. However, countries within this protocol need to do more in order to achieve the objectives behind its formation. For instance, the South African government needs to address capacity-related issues that currently hinder the enrolment of her citizens into the various public universities in the country before pursuing regional or global achievement in this regard. Possibly, things may change within the foreseeable future, because, it has been observed that the South African government as at 2012 was drafting a policy on internationalisation. One can only hope that when this policy is instituted, it will make thorough provision for, and facilitate the best conduct for the internationalisation exercise as suggested by Kwaramba (2012:).

The long-awaited policy on the internationalisation of higher education for South Africa could be a very useful tool and also possibly a strategy to strengthen economic and political relationships between South Africa and other countries (MacGregor, 2012). This anticipated achievement could be similar to what Malaysia and Singapore are experiencing in Asia, because both countries are structurally and technically ready to attract, accommodate and sustainably manage the large number of international students within that region – thus reducing the number of Asian students pursuing studies on other continents in the foreseeable future (Oxford University, 2015:6).

The amalgamation of policies on the internationalisation of higher education should be all-encompassing; it should protect and preserve local interests and be attractive to both international students and their countries (Australian Government Productivity Commission, 2015:7). It must also indicate how international students will be attracted and should set a number of targets for the future with regard to the expected number of arrivals and improvements in educational standards to meet international demands. Certainly, a sustainable and attainable structure for the internationalisation of South Africa higher education should be economically, environmentally and socio-culturally benefitting – as is expected of any tourism-related and government-supported investment (Cooper *et al.*, 2005:319). From a tourism perspective, any policy on internationalisation of higher education must therefore be capable of achieving more than simply increase the number of arrivals of international students; it ought to be deployable and sustainable for genuine tourism development in its totality as indicated by Hall (2008:45). Finally, it has to be a tool for local and regional growth and must be global in its conceptualisation in order to keep abreast of the best in the world.

In terms of higher education and institutions as service providers in South Africa, the national assembly amended the Education Act (Act 101 of 1997) in 2000 should be mentioned. This amendment quenched the operations of foreign educational institutions in South Africa at the time. This happened in spite of the recognition of the operations of the educational service providers by article 29(3) of the South African Constitution, which is predication on the notion that a number of conditions for the establishment of such institutions must be fulfilled (Bitzer, 2002:25). One may indeed wonder if the outright scrapping of their operations was the best of

decision to correct non-compliance. Perhaps a constitutional amendment in this regard could have been aimed at ensuring strict compliance and encouraging competition whilst ensuring that both foreign and local higher institutions play strictly by the rules. However, a complete stalling of their operations made it difficult to consolidate the achievements already attained. Regrettably, thirteen years after Bitzer's publication that discusses the stopping of foreign higher institutions operations, the Department of Higher Education and Training DHET is still only talking about reviewing the regulations and quality assurance of private education providers in South Africa.

The presence of foreign universities and higher institutions, had it not been stopped by the amended law, may have changed the shape of international relations between the various countries of the said foreign institutions, the countries of international students, and South Africa as the host. It could also have expanded South Africa's educational system as well as the tourism prospects of this niche. The amendment of Educational Act 101 of 1997, as reported, targeted the operations of foreign institutions in the country (Bitzer, 2000:25), but whether it protected the public's interests as envisaged by the legislative arms of government is debatable. It may, however, be seen as one of the prominent challenges standing in the way of the internationalisation of higher education in South Africa. This is a concern; if one compares the level of progress attained by Malaysia and Singapore it is clear that both countries could be compared to South Africa in terms of potential international students' attendance. Also, Malaysia has done well by utilising the presence of foreign universities, something that South Africa rejected, to position itself as a competitive hub for higher education globally.

### 4.3.3 Suggestions for improved practice of the internationalisation of higher education

The groundwork on which the application of an enabling policy on internationalisation of higher education could be attained has long been acknowledged by the Ministry of Education MOE (2001). This report reiterates the need for improved efforts, and calls for the willingness to implement appropriate policies towards accomplishing international standards of practice of internationalisation of South Africa higher education. Ideally, the formulation of a policy for the running of internationalisation of higher education should address domestic challenges whilst also attending to international opportunities. A number of domestic challenges, such as the lack of capacity to accommodate indigenous South Africans into public universities and the inequality of admission opportunities among the various ethnic tribes in South Africa, are obvious domestic issues to be addressed. However, with regard to an international perspective, the regulation of immigration laws for international students might also be hampering the practice of internationalisation. All the issues raised above are real, and are potential problems pertaining to South Africa as a study destination.

Regarding the need for improved capacity to accommodate local students, some of the efforts made in pursuit of an ideal framework for educational service delivery since the commencement of the post-apartheid era has been acknowledged; the urgent implementation of a number of the recommendations made by the various committees is supported by the present study. With regard to transformation of the higher educational sector which, in this context, includes improved higher education standards, Mouton, Louw and Strydom (2013:285) propound that the South African White Paper 3 on Higher Education has attempted to transform higher education system in the country. The authors add that the provision of accessible and quality education to

all South African remains one of the core objectives of this document. In spite of this and other efforts made so far, this issue has yet to be achieved. Structures that will guarantee fair and sustainable admission opportunities for local students should be meticulously put in place, and necessary steps should be taken to ensure sufficient capacity to accommodate the ever-growing number of South Africans into universities; only then can a boost in international students' enrolment be sustainably achieved.

With regard to improvement of international students' enrolment and enhancing their chances of studying in South Africa, Kwaramba (2012:18 - 20) highlights a number of areas that the internationalisation of higher education policy in South Africa needs to cover. Recommendations made include: the harmonisation and eventual standardisation of university entrance requirements, government to assist universities in marketing, allowing international students on study permit to work with same status as well as a reduction in the application requirements for students intending to study in South Africa, amongst others. As already mentioned, proper drafting and implementation of internationalisation policies amongst other recommendations are crucial towards addressing local issues that have a bearing on the enrolment of South Africans at public universities in the country. When addressed, this action will support the actualisation of a credible policy aimed at increasing the number of international student enrolments to South Africa as well as the efficient practice of internationalisation.

Finally, the nonexistence of a broader internationalisation policy framework for the university sector was identified as underlying factor of the negligible achievement of the internationalisation of tertiary education so far recorded (Parliamentary Monitoring Group,

2014). The Parliamentary Monitoring Group also emphasises that the development of a well-structured internationalisation policy is important for Higher Education system in South Africa. Notwithstanding its poor performance as a result of how it is been practiced, the feeble levels of internationalisation on the ground was regard as having actually contributed to South Africa's economy, particularly with benefits from international students who represented 7.5% of the total intake of South African universities.

## 4.4 Summary

This chapter reviewed the role of government in tourism, specifically the role that government plays in policy making and planning for the internationalisation of higher education. Having established that there is no policy document on internationalisation in South Africa, this chapter makes a case for the swift compilation of a sound international standard policy for the running of internationalisation of higher educational in South Africa. It should not be surprising that when South Africa finally decides to take educational export more seriously, the country could be among the best in the world in view of the achievements currently made even in the absence of meaningful policy document for administering her educational export.

As previously mentioned, internationalisation encompasses the entire range of activities surrounding the export of higher education. It includes, but is not limited to, how government and the management of universities therein will address issues relating to international student attraction, management, service delivery, education service offering in universities, globalisation of higher education, the offering of joint degrees by universities in different countries (and by extension, how to maximise their presence for the purposes of greater economic, environmental

and socio-cultural yield) as evident in the queries that were put forward to the management of TUT.

The review in this chapter also highlighted the significance of government as a major stakeholder in this tourism niche. Government's role is crucial to the success and or failure of the practice of internationalisation of higher education. Government will, in this regard, have to take a holistic approach, since the nation's education affairs cannot be left only in the hands of the private sector. Therefore, a summary of how things are done in leading countries with regard to policy is useful for an understanding of where shortcomings are and to evaluate what South Africa needs to do in order to develop an excellent practice of internationalisation. A number of policies and tools that can be used to attract the best amongst international students have been mentioned and need to be considered. Moreover, the government needs to take the education-tourism niche more seriously as it has the potential to change the face of internationalisation of the entire economic sector. Furthermore, it will improve the general tourism yield via economic benefits from more youth travel and family and friends visits that will be attracted to South Africa. Among the purposes of presenting a review of policies used for international students' recruitment in selected countries is to motivate South Africa to do things right if the country wishes to obtain maximum benefits from this tourism market niche; a niche that offers a vibrant yield for economic and intellectual benefits to the US, the UK, Australia and other leading study destinations.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology by explaining the step-by-step of activities during the conduct of the two empirical investigations used in this study. It furthermore explains reason for the choice of approach used for data collection and the methods adopted for data analysis.

# CHAPTER 5

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

## 5.1 Introduction

A number of perspectives exist regarding research methodology. For instance, Jennings (2001:33) describes a methodology as a set of guidelines for conducting research; it includes how the research gathers and analyse data/information. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:38), refer to methodology as a stage in the conduct of a research that incorporates the techniques or procedures used to gather, analyse and interpret the data collected during a research process. That is, a broad discussion on research methodology should articulate what data is collected, from whom, why and how the data were analysed (Creswell, 2014:45). As a result, it is essential for a discussion on research methodology to touch some of the essential ingredients of a study such as data collection, population, sample and how the samples are drawn.

This chapter sets out to explain the core activities that took place, how, and in some cases, why a particular decision was taken. An explanation of every action connected to the research methodology as undertaken for this study is explained under the following sections:

- research approach – this entails the choice of qualitative and quantitative approaches
- information and sources – these deal with both primary and secondary information
- sampling methodology – this explains the population, the sample frame, the sample selection method, the sample size and the drawing of the sample

- data collection – here the research instruments, ethical matters, the pilot study, and the empirical data collected are discussed
- data analysis – this deals with the choice and appropriateness of the data analysis tools used for this study.

## 5.2 The research approach

Technically, this study employed both quantitative and qualitative research approaches with regard to the empirical data that were collected and analysed. The review of literature which paved the way towards developing a sound framework that dictates what needs to be included in the empirical stage of the quantitative aspect of this study deserves recognition. The use of a qualitative approach to start information gathering was considered an appropriate choice for collecting information required to achieve some of the secondary objectives of this study, and to gain a more profound insight of the research topic and related themes, as briefly explained below. Also explained below is the justification for using quantitative and qualitative approaches.

### 5.2.1 Rationale for using quantitative and qualitative approach in a research study

A brief explanation on the concept of quantitative and qualitative research approaches will enhance an understanding of the rational for employing quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study. A quantitative research is concern with the collection and analysis of data in numeric form and usually of structured research instrument from structured interview (Jennings, 2001:130). That is, it is a research approach that embarks on measuring, calculating and performing numerical analysis to establish causal relationships between different variables and parameters and/or testing hypotheses (Unstick Me, 2015). Quantitative research emphasises

relatively large-scale and representative sets of data, and they often, falsely in our view, presented or perceived as being about the gathering of facts (Hughes, 2006).

Qualitative research approach on the other hand sees that data can be collected and analysed in as many forms (chiefly non-numeric) as possible. According to Jennings (2001: 162), data in a qualitative research can be collected with interviews (unstructured and semi-structured), participant observation, focus group, longitudinal studies, delphi techniques, case studies, documentary and so on. Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (1996:61) explain that qualitative research approach focuses on exploring and aims to achieve depth rather than breadth. Succinctly, Quantitative research is empirical research where the data are in the form of numbers, quantity or amount. While qualitative research is empirical research where the data are in quality does describing features such as colour, size, taste, expertise, reputation and other features that cannot be measured (Punch, 1998:4).

The justification for adopting both quantitative and qualitative is due to a number of reasons. For instance, Punch (2014:310) argued that, a qualitative approach can be used in the early stage to get a better understanding of the subject being studied. Other reasons supporting the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single study are (i) when quantitative and qualitative data are integrated and related (Creswell, Fetters & Ivanka, 2004:7), (ii) when a study combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, approaches, methods, concepts or language Burke & Onwuegbuzie (2005:1), (iii) when data collected in a study are both numerical and text (Bazely, 2003) and, (iv) when qualitative and quantitative data are collected and analysed (Kemper, Springfield & Teddlie, 2003). All the above mentioned rationale were vital in this

study and hence are justification for using both quantitative and qualitative approaches as explained below.

Starting with the qualitative approach, a review of relevant literature for information pertaining to international students' affairs such as factors pushing them out of countries of origin and pull factors to study destinations and activities and expenditures, academic and non-academic issues relevant to international students in host destinations were gathered. Furthermore, pertinent information on some of the roles, and government involvement in educational tourism was extracted. This assisted in compiling relevant issues with reference to previous past studies conducted within the context of this field of study.

Subsequent to the above, a quantitative approach emanating from the knowledge acquire above was used in developing an online survey for structured interview used to acquire data from international students. This approach was considered on the basis of its usefulness in obtaining information from a sample, especially as this study aims to generalise findings derived from sample size on the entire population as supported by Harwell (2011:149). Thereafter, more data concerning perceptions of TUT staff was collected by means of semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews of this kind have been regarded as both qualitative and quantitative in nature by Jennings (2001:165, 262) given that it adds some structure to the interview. This method was used in order to understand TUT's perceptions, to listen to suggestions, and to identify areas where TUT management feels international students' wellbeing needs improvement, amongst other concerns. The selected TUT personnel who participated in the interviews are those whose job descriptions revolve around international students, either by way

of direct dealings or through the development/implementation of policy used in the management of international students' academic and non-academic related affairs at TUT. They are important personnel whose opinions and understandings could be explored when the university decides to make any meaningful improvement on the affairs of international students. Discussion on the information and sources is next.

## 5.3 Information and sources

Information and sources will be discussed to demonstrate the flow of approaches from qualitative to quantitative and back to qualitative as described above. That is, information was firstly sourced from the review of literature, then from international students, and finally from the selected staff of TUT. The type of information and reasons for selecting these sources are also discussed below.

### 5.3.1 Literature review

An understanding of previous studies for the purpose of placing this study in perspective, and to gain knowledge from previous studies on international students' is presented in the review of relevant literature. This helps with the flow of the argument as well as the development of relevant questions used in the quantitative survey. Another reason for adopting a literature review as a means of data collection is due to the fact that it helps to save time and money, and it is appropriate in terms of supplying useful information from previous studies (Weaver & Lawton, 2006:391). The first of the secondary objectives of this study was achieved through extensive review of literature. The literature review for this study was based on academic journals, articles, published and unpublished documents, and a variety of relevant textbooks.

### 5.3.2 Empirical survey

The first of the two empirical surveys comprised an online questionnaire used to gather information from international students from the following point of views: demographic attributes, pre-arrival expectations, leisure activities in the COT, perceptions about facilities and services offered in the COT and TUT, loyalty/post-arrival queries, and recommendations to make TUT and the COT destination of choice for potential international students. These perspectives are crucial to the development of a framework for international students' management at TUT. Details on the contents of the survey used for collecting data from international students are provided in the discussion on questionnaire development.

The second empirical survey comprised semi-structured, face-to-face oral interviews conducted with selected staff of TUT. Questions were read from a printed interview guide and respondents were allowed to respond by giving in-depth explanation of their perceptions on the issues raised. An interview guide is a replica of questionnaire as it contains questions asked during the semi/unstructured interview. Some of the questions aimed to establish the perceptions of TUT management on international students' presence, and to establish areas where improvement can be anticipated for enhancing the experiences of international students. Responses from respondents regarding this second interview were recorded on tape, subject to permission granted by the respondents. The following section explains the sampling method used for selecting the eventual participants in the two empirical surveys.

## 5.4 Sampling method

Arriving at a sample and sampling method in a quantitative research requires that a population from which the eventual respondents will be drawn must be identified. A research population comprises of all bona fide subjects in a research study (Jennings, 2001:136). According to Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008:212), a population refers to the entire entity that the outcome of a research study relates to. This study acknowledges the above; thus, the population in this case comprises all the registered international students at TUT from the City of Tshwane-based campuses for the 2017 academic year. From the information obtained from the management of TUT through the office in charge of international students registration at TUT campuses in the City of Tshwane, it emerged that there are 1 500 registered international students for this year and at that the time data was collected. Therefore, this study adopted 1 500 as the population. The sample size, which is an appendix of the population, is discussed in the next section.

Purposive sampling technique was used for the second interviews. According to Jennings (2001:39), this is very useful in situations where the researcher already made a decision on who to select and where to conduct the work. This decision was influenced by the fact that the selected staff comprise those whose jobs descriptions involve international students either face-to-face or otherwise.

### 5.4.1 Sample size

A sample size is an inventory that represents all the eligible members of a study population (Jennings, 2001:136; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008:213). Therefore, deciding on

what should constitute an appropriate sample size for a study hinges on population characteristics (in this case, the number of people in the population) and degree of confidence (Neuman, 2011:263). Another reason that influences the size of sample concerns whether the population is known to the researcher or not otherwise. The sample size for this study was 320 considering the suitability of this figure from the population and levels of confidence (Jennings, 2001:148). What this means is, given that the total number of registered international students as at the time of this study was around 1 500 (population size for this study), and that the study has restricted prospective participants to international students in TUT Pretoria campuses only, adopting 320 as the sample size for this study. This number was deemed sufficient.

Furthermore, a total of seven staff members of TUT were selected for the second interview. These comprise well informed TUT staff with the essential information about international students and their sojourning at TUT.

### 5.4.2 Sample selection technique

The selection of sample is critical to the quality of a research outcome and the possibility of generalising findings obtained on the entire population (Punch, 2014:320). In order to achieve equal treatment for the population, this study conducted sample selection in a manner that gave all the registered international students an equal chance of participation. By means of probability sampling (which sees all bona fide and duly registered participants fairly treated), the survey was distributed to respondents through the same source and in the same manner. The survey was sent via email box to all registered international students as obtained from the international office. This approach eliminates bias in terms of respondents' selection. Respondents also enjoyed

equal privileges with regards to the source of reminding them on the submission of their responses by completing the survey.

Respondents for the second interviews were selected through a purposive sampling technique. This is due to the fact that these are personnel who are equipped with the knowledge as well as having their job description around international students' affairs. Jennings (2010:139) notes the appropriateness of the purposive sampling technique in the selection of research participants in situations where experts' opinions on issues are required.

## 5.5 Data collection

One of the important steps leading to data collection is the development of a research instrument. Therefore, the development of research instrument for this study is discussed next.

### 5.5.1 Development of research instrument

The research instrument for the first interview with international students was a structured questionnaire. As with a number of tourism studies, especially those aimed at collecting respondents' perceptions on service quality, measurement of satisfaction levels and the likes, the use of a questionnaire with Likert scale is very common (Hassan & Shahnewaz, 2014:3; Naidoo & Ramseook-Munhurrum, 2011:90; Joao, 2006:8) and very efficient. Jennings (2001:247) postulates that when preparing a research instrument for a tourism study, one should focus on the effective use of response sets such as the Likert scale, multiple choice queries, and the likes. In light of this, participants (international students) were asked to complete the online survey that comprised a variety of response sets, as discussed earlier (see annexure A).

This questionnaire was developed using five-point Likert scales, ranking scales, multiple options and open-ended questions. The questionnaire asked the following from participants: socio-demographic details, expenditure on academic and non-academic affairs, leisure activities, and factors influential in pre- and post-arrival at the host city and TUT, and recommendations for improved well-being. This questionnaire was prepared in light of knowledge gained from relevant studies on international students such as push and pull factors to study destinations (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002), needs and responses (Butcher & McGrath, 2004), behaviours as tourists (Michael, Armstrong & King, 2004) and other publications relating to international students and their destinations attributes.

Tourism studies (especially those intended to study visitors' satisfaction and expectations of certain services and infrastructure provision) require demographic information such as age, gender, nationality, marital status, educational qualification, occupation, income and a number of personal questions from respondents to determine travel patterns and purchase behaviours of tourists and their destinations. This is underlined by Hassan and Shanewaz (2014:32) who acknowledge the relevance of asking respondents questions that are personal as this assists in understanding the respondents, what they need/buy as well as behavioural patterns.

On the other hand, the interview guide, also known as compilation of questions which are normally read out to the interviewee by the researcher (Neuman, 2011:312), was used during the interviews conducted among selected TUT staff. This was designed to gather their views on issues pertaining to international students' affairs, and to establish TUT's point of view regarding

possible improvements of international students' well-being amongst others. In order to achieve this, the questionnaire for the second interview guide consisted of seven questions (see annexure B) administered to selected staff of TUT. All the questions were open-ended. This open-ended questionnaire provided respondents with the opportunity to speak freely and to express their views and experience about queries raised without being hindered. Next is a discussion on ethical issues and the pilot study. Both are steps that preceded the actual data collection exercises.

### 5.5.2 Ethics issues

Ethical issues in research hinges on the nature of the study and people directly or indirectly participating in the research. For instance, Plowright (2011:168) explains that ethical issues are usually associated with data collection and entail how participants in the study will be treated. This covers issues of confidentiality regarding the information supplied by the respondents/participants and the protection of participants of the research from all forms of injuries as well as loses of jobs, benefits or other possessions. Ethical issues also require that the rights of respondents be communicated and protected during and after a study (Israel & Hay, 2008:1-11). With regard to this study, the following ethical issues were observed:

- The rights of the participants in this study were duly communicated. Respondents were informed that participation is voluntary. For this reason, a few respondents decided to withdraw. This was respected and they were adequately thanked for their support.
- Furthermore, respondents' rights were protected by ensuring that nothing harmful happened as a result of their participation (see Israel & Hay, 2008:1-11); this was

communicated to the respondents and adhered to during and after this study. Findings from this study were not linked and cannot be linked to any of the respondents

- Finally, and prior to the commencement of the data collection phase, compliance with international standard ethics required that this study had to be approved by the TUT research ethics committee. Ethical clearance *Ref #: REC/2016/10/003(see annexure D)* was given by the TUT Research Ethics Committee.

The fulfilment and subsequent issuance of the ethical clearance for the study pave the way for the commencement of a pilot study. Next is a report on the conduct of the pilot study.

### 5.5.3 Pilot study

Prior to the actual data collection exercise, there was a need to validate the research instrument. The research instrument (questionnaire) was subjected to a pre-data collection test to ascertain the extent to which it could measure what it set out to measure, amongst other reasons. This exercise is commonly known as a pilot study and has been embraced as an integral component of quantitative studies (Jennings, 2001:253). According to van Tejlingen and Hundley (2002), a pilot study refers to a mini-version of a full-scale study, also called a 'feasibility study'. It is a specific pre-testing of the research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview schedule.

The pre-data collection phase (pilot study) helps in the following areas: (i) determines areas of the questionnaire that need refinement (Neuman, 2011:303), (ii) measures the clarity of questions in the survey, and respondents' understanding of contents and use of language therein

(Plowright, 2011:88), and (iii) examines the average time required for completing the survey, amongst other things.

Another important reason for conducting a pilot study is to establish how well the proposed statistical analysis tools could perform the functions claimed therein. This has been certified, and the suitability of the proposed statistical tools has been acknowledged by the TUT data analyst (see annexure C). Most of the reasons for conducting a pilot study have been acknowledged and the reasons for conducting a pilot study in this study align with Jennings's (2001: 152) views about motives for conducting a pilot study in a research. A brief explanation on how the pilot study was conducted for this study is presented next.

On 11th of January 2017, the research instrument (questionnaire) was mailed to twenty five randomly selected respondents who provided their email addresses for voluntary participation in this exercise. On the 14th of January 2017, twenty three responses were received. The feedback shows that the medium was effective; that respondents understood questions, and that the options provided for responses were adequate. After this, a full data collection exercise commenced on the 15th of January 2017. Details of data collection exercise are presented in the next section.

On the 26th January 2017, a similar exercise was conducted for the second interviews. Only two respondents were available and the exercise also indicated that the research instrument was adequate as no complaint was received.

### 5.5.4 Data collection

The questionnaire was mailed to international students on January 15th. Reminder messages were sent periodically; and this helps a great deal as it triggered responses every time it was sent. By the 3rd of March 2017, after which the survey had been sent to 1 500 respondents (all registered international students at the time this study was conducted), feedback from respondents were not received despite several reminder messages. A final reminder was sent that those who still wanted to respond would have to do so, since the questionnaire would be terminated after 72 hours. This mail was sent on the 9th of March 2017. Finally, by the 12th of March 2017, the data collection exercise was discontinued. At that point, 325 responses were received. This number of responses/respondents was deemed adequate in view of the population earlier mentioned.

The second data collection exercise was carried out simultaneously with the students' phase of data collection. Seven TUT staff whose jobs relate to international students in areas such as recruitment, marketing, admission and documentation, strategic planning, amongst others, were selected for this exercise. Top officers and middle managers were interviewed by means of a semi-structured questionnaire. By the 16th of March 2017, the last interview was conducted and this signalled the commencement of the data analysis phase.

## 5.6 Data analysis

Data collected from international students was analysed with the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were used to summarise the data. The following were included: t-test - analysis of variance ANOVA for analysis of

relationship between variables of interest as chronicled in the tested hypotheses, factor analysis for relevance of some important variables, and Guttman Split Half Coefficient for measuring internal consistency. Bearing in mind that the choice of data analysis tools depends on several factors (Singh, 2007:124), the reasons for choices made above are discussed after presenting the data analysis style of the second interview.

Data analysis of the second interview was done via data transcription from audio to appropriate words via the use of relevant themes to represent respondents' opinions on issues raised. Themes considered to have best described common views of respondents were used whilst questions were left in their original forms. This semi-structured interview was, as noted, structured to examine the perceptions of TUT's management regarding the presence of international students in TUT and to present suggestions for improving international students' experiences at TUT. Respondents' submissions in this regard were carefully scrutinised and are presented in frequency and percentages in the next chapter. The choice of statistical tools used for the analysis of data collected from both interviews is discussed next.

### 5.6.1 Descriptive analysis

As the term implies, descriptive analysis is used to interpret descriptive statistics/data such as the data obtained in this study. Furthermore, when a study aims to describe the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents (cf. Jennings, 2001:283), descriptive analysis is usually employed because it can elucidate quite a large volume of data in an accessible format, thus extracting the essence from a great deal of data into a fairly simple summary format (William, 2006). Therefore, for the purposes of reducing the large volumes data collected in this study, descriptive

analysis was used to present the data obtained in the quantitative interview phase of this study – this is presented in the next chapter.

### 5.6.2 T-test

One of the major differences between a Chi-Square and a t-test is the usefulness of the former in estimating categorical related variables and, of course, between two variables. However, a T-test requires "two variables in which one must be categorical and have exactly two levels, and the other a quantitative and be estimable by a mean" (Flom, 2010). Some of the hypotheses in this study were found to be suitable for estimation by using t-test. It is in light of this that the present study also considered t-test for analysis.

### 5.6.3 Factor analysis

Due to the relatively large number of variables tested both from influential factors as well as available ones pertaining to visitors' experiences, a factor analysis was carried out with a view to reduce these variables into related constructs.

### 5.6.4 Reliability of research instrument

Considering that this study combines issues and activities within the education and tourism domains, questions pertaining to the research instrument were designed to address matters of concerns in relation to the overall goal of this study. In light of this, this study employs split-half reliability test to examine the reliability of the research instrument in relation to the interviews conducted with international students. Details on the outcome of the split-half reliability test are provided in the next chapter (cf. 6.7).

### 5.6.5 Content analysis

Content analysis was used to process data collected from the second interviews (with selected TUT staff). To start with, the data was transcribed into appropriate text (phrases). Afterwards, respondents' submissions were categorised into appropriate themes. The outcome was analysed numerically and the presentation was done via frequency analysis as offered by Bengtsson (2016:10). This author also acknowledges the relevance of content analysis in analysing data for a quantitative study. The outcome will be used to enhance the results of the interviews with international students, together with the reviewed literature, with the overall aim of developing a sustainable framework for managing international students at TUT.

## 5.7 Summary

This chapter discussed the steps that have already been taken regarding the research methodology adopted for this study. As explained above, the activities that were contained in this chapter include determining the most appropriate approach and method suitable for data collection and analysis. The choices with regard to data analyses tools and what can be achieved from using them were explained. Firstly, this chapter justified the use of quantitative approach and a blend of qualitative information used in this study. For instance, the significance of reviewing relevant literature that supplied insights used in the development of the first questionnaire and structuring of the literature chapters were discussed. This chapter also explained the procedures that were followed before data from both interviews were collected. Among these were identification of the population, determining and explaining the sample size,

identification of an appropriate sampling technique, and a questionnaire was developed. The conduct of pilot study and its significance in a research study were also highlighted.

For the data analyses, the choice of research tools and their adequacy were explained. Some of the research tools used includes descriptive analysis, which implies the use of frequencies and percentages. Afterwards, a t-test was used for testing the hypotheses, and factor analysis was used for data reduction and for identification of important variables. A reliability test was performed and it established the internal consistency of the research instrument. Furthermore, data from the second interviews was analysed. Firstly, data was transcribed from audio to text. Subsequently, the large number of responses received were categorised to appropriate themes that best describe respondents' experiences. The next chapter presents the analysis of the data.

# CHAPTER 6

# ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

## 6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of the empirical study which entail the interviews conducted with international students, and the interviews with selected TUT staff. The findings are presented through descriptive statistics of data obtained from international students, research questions found to be connected with this empirical research, hypotheses, factor analysis, correlations between the factors, and reliability of the test outcomes. The remaining analysis focuses on the second interviews with selected TUT staff. These are analysed and presented with frequency.

## 6.2 International students' survey: descriptive analysis

Tables 6.1 to 6.43 provide information to elucidate the data presentation. The frequency rows represent the entire number of international students who completed the questionnaire. This includes the total number of valid respondents and missing responses for each of the items examined. The cumulative frequency represents only those who participated in the item under examination. This explains the variance in the 'total' recorded for frequency and cumulative frequency respectively. Similarly, the valid percentage and cumulative percentage scores are only applicable to 'actual numbers and 'percentages' of respondents who responded to the item being reviewed. This explains the absence of scores for the missing columns in all the descriptive tables. Also, tables 6.6, 6.7, 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10 are Likert scale-type information. The

analyses are presented to show the number of respondents for each score (N), the valid percentages for each number as well as the number of respondents who ignored each of the item (missing frequency). These tables also rank the items in each section on the basis of the total frequency received subsequently dictating the average mean score arrived at. Next follows the presentation of the descriptive analysis of the first empirical interviews (international students' responses) and the second interviews conducted with selected staff of TUT.

### 6.2.1 Descriptive analysis of demographic characteristics of respondents

The importance of studying and documenting the demographic characteristics of international students is to benefit from their present as well as project their future experiences. Tables 6.1 to 6.5 present the descriptive analysis of the demographic characteristics of international students who participated.

**Table 6.1: descriptive analysis of gender, age and marital status of respondents**

| s/n | | Section A: Demographic Information (s/n 1 – 9) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | **Gender** | **Frequency (N)** | **Valid percentage (%)** | **Cumulative frequency (n)** | **Cumulative percentage (%)** |
| | Male | 177 | 54.60 | 177 | 54.60 |
| | Female | 147 | 45.40 | 324 | 45.40 |
| | Missing | 1 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **324** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **2** | **Age group** | | | | |
| | Less or equal to 20 | 41 | 12.8 | 41 | 12.8 |
| | 21 – 25 | 135 | 42.1 | 176 | 54.8 |
| | 26 – 30 | 73 | 22.7 | 249 | 77.6 |
| | 31 – 35 | 37 | 11.5 | 286 | 89.1 |
| | 36 above | 35 | 10.9 | 321 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 4 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **321** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **3** | **Marital status** | | | | |
| | Single | 245 | 75.4 | 245 | 75.40 |
| | Married | 63 | 19.4 | 308 | 94.80 |
| | Engaged | 13 | 4.0 | 321 | 98.80 |
| | Widowed | 1 | 0.3 | 322 | 99.10 |
| | Live together | 3 | 0.9 | 325 | 100.00 |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **325** | **100.00** |

Regarding gender, Table 6.1 shows that, 54.60% of the valid responses received were male while 45.40% were female. It is obvious that more male respondents took the survey than females. Table 6.1 also shows that, 42.1% of the respondents were between the ages of 21 – 25, followed by 22.7% respondents for the age group 26-30 years of age. The age group younger than or equal to 20 comprised 12.80%; the age group between 31 and 35 made up 11.5%, and finally, the 36 and above group comprised were 10.9%. These results show that 54.90% (42.1%+ 12.8) of the respondents were 25 years or younger. This concurs with a similar study by Cross (2006:156) which set international student's average age at 24 years. Finally, the marital status section indicates that the majority of respondents were single (75.4%) whilst the rest are married

(19.40%), engaged (4.00%), live together (0.9%) and widowed (0.30%). Clearly, most of the respondents are single; this can be linked to their relative youthfulness.

**Table 6.2: Descriptive analysis on country of origin**

| 4 | Country of origin | Frequency (N) | Valid percentage (%) | Cumulative frequency (N) | Cumulative percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Angola | 14 | 4.35 | 14 | 4.35 |
| 2 | Argentina | 1 | 0.31 | 15 | 4.66 |
| 3 | Benin | 1 | 0.31 | 16 | 4.97 |
| 4 | Botswana | 14 | 4.35 | 30 | 9.32 |
| 5 | Cameroon | 8 | 2.48 | 38 | 11.80 |
| 6 | Congo Brazzaville | 1 | 0.31 | 39 | 12.11 |
| 7 | Cote d'Ivoire | 3 | 0.93 | 42 | 13.04 |
| 8 | Czech Republic | 1 | 0.31 | 43 | 13.35 |
| 9 | Democratic Republic of the Congo | 91 | 28.20 | 134 | 41.61 |
| 10 | France | 1 | 0.31 | 135 | 41.93 |
| 11 | Gabon | 19 | 5.90 | 154 | 47.80 |
| 12 | Germany | 1 | 0.31 | 155 | 48.14 |
| 13 | Ghana | 5 | 1.55 | 160 | 49.69 |
| 14 | Guinea | 1 | 0.31 | 161 | 50.00 |
| 15 | India | 1 | 0.31 | 162 | 50.31 |
| 16 | Indonesia | 2 | 0.62 | 164 | 50.93 |
| 17 | Kenya | 4 | 1.24 | 168 | 52.17 |
| 18 | Lesotho | 10 | 3.11 | 178 | 55.28 |
| 19 | Malawi | 2 | 0.62 | 180 | 55.90 |
| 20 | Mozambique | 4 | 1.24 | 184 | 57.14 |
| 21 | Namibia | 20 | 6.21 | 204 | 63.35 |
| 22 | Nigeria | 45 | 13.98 | 249 | 77.33 |
| 23 | Poland | 1 | 0.31 | 250 | 77.64 |
| 24 | Rwanda | 1 | 0.31 | 251 | 77.95 |
| 25 | Sudan | 1 | 0.31 | 252 | 78.26 |
| 26 | Tanzania | 1 | 0.31 | 253 | 78.57 |
| 27 | Togo | 1 | 0.31 | 254 | 78.88 |
| 28 | Venezuela | 1 | 0.31 | 255 | 79.19 |
| 29 | Zambia | 10 | 3.11 | 265 | 82.30 |
| 30 | Zimbabwe | 25 | 7.76 | 290 | 90.06 |
| 31 | Swaziland | 32 | 9.94 | 322 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 3 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **322** | **100.00** |

Table 6.2 presents the countries of origin of respondents. Respondents came from a total of thirty one countries. The five countries with the highest frequency of representation are the Democratic Republic of the Congo (28.20%), Nigeria (13.98%), Swaziland (9.94%), Zimbabwe (7.76%) and Namibia (6.21%). The five countries with the smallest frequencies are Cameroon at 2.48%, Ghana at 1.55%, Kenya and Mozambique jointly having 1.24%, Cote d'Ivoire at 0.93% and Indonesia and Malawi with 0.62%. Other countries, especially in Asia, Europe, and South America that are represented by 0.03% include India, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Poland, Argentina and Venezuela. This table shows a broad representation with regard to the countries of origins of international students. It also shows South Africa's dominance in terms of internationalisation of higher education within the SADC region since most of the respondents are from countries within SADC. However, representation from Asia, Europe and South America is a pointer that more international students from other parts of the world can be attracted.

**Table 6.3: Descriptive analysis of campus of study, qualification, accommodation type and person residing with**

| 5 | **Which TUT campus in the COT are you at** | **Frequency (N)** | **Valid percentage (%)** | **Cumulative frequency (N)** | **Cumulative percentage (%)** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Arcadia | 55 | 17.30 | 55 | 17.30 |
| | Skinner street (Business School) | 2 | 0.63 | 52 | 17.92 |
| | Du Toit Street (Art campus) | 9 | 2.83 | 66 | 20.75 |
| | Ga-Rankuwa | 27 | 8.49 | 93 | 29.25 |
| | Pretoria West | 193 | 60.69 | 286 | 89.94 |
| | Soshanguve | 32 | 10.06 | 318 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 7 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **318** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **6** | **Qualification studying for** | | | | |
| | National Diploma | 151 | 47.19 | 151 | 47.3 |
| | B-Tech | 102 | 31.88 | 253 | 79.3 |
| | M-Tech/MBA | 38 | 11.87 | 291 | 90.9 |
| | D-Tech | 29 | 9.06 | 319 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 5 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100** | **320** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **7** | **Type of accommodation staying at** | | | | |
| | Hotel/guest house | 11 | 3.43 | 11 | 3.43 |
| | Parent owned house/flat | 42 | 13.08 | 53 | 16.51 |
| | Private owned rental flat/house | 182 | 56.70 | 235 | 73.21 |
| | Sharing house/flat with friends | 55 | 17.13 | 290 | 90.34 |
| | TUT student residence | 31 | 9.66 | 321 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 4 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **321** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **8** | **Who are you residing with** | | | | |
| | Family member | 89 | 27.90 | 89 | 27.90 |
| | Friend(s) | 93 | 29.15 | 182 | 57.05 |
| | Husband | 19 | 5.96 | 201 | 63.01 |
| | Living alone | 76 | 23.82 | 277 | 86.83 |
| | Parent(s) | 24 | 7.52 | 301 | 94.36 |
| | Spouse | 18 | 5.64 | 319 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 6 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **319** | **100.00** |

Table 6.3 presents an analysis of the findings pertaining to the campus of study, qualification, accommodation type and persons that international students reside with. According to this table, 6.3 (question 5 - which TUT campus in the COT are you at), of the 318 valid responses herein, 60.69% are studying at the Pretoria West campus, 17.30% at Arcadia, 10.06% at Soshanguve, 8.49% at Ga-Rankuwa, 2.83% at Du Toit Street and 0.63% at the Business School. This means most of the respondents are studying at the Pretoria West campus of TUT. Also, the study generated responses from international students from all the COT-based campuses of TUT. To question 6 – namely, qualification studying for, 320 respondents responded to this question as follows: National Diploma at 47.19%, B Tech at 31.88%, M Tech at 11.87% and D Tech at 9.06%. This means that the majority (79.07%) of respondents are undergraduates whilst 20.93% are postgraduate students. Regarding the type of accommodation (question 7), a total of 321 responses were received. Of these, 56.70% live in house/flat owned by private owners, 17.13% are sharing an apartment with friends, 13.08% live in a in house/flat owned by parents, 9.66% reside in TUT students' residences and 3.48% live in hotels or guest houses. Finally, question 8 (who are you residing with), showed that of the 319 respondents, 29.15% are residing with friends, 27.90% with family members, 23.82% live alone, 7.52% live with their parents, and 5.64% live with a spouse.

### 6.2.2 Descriptive analysis of information on international students' employment status and expenditure

**Table 6.4: descriptive analysis of employment status, source of tuition, living expenditure, amount available to expend on tuition, accommodation, subsistence, entertainment and transportation.**

| **9** | **Employment status** | **Frequency** | **Valid percentage** | **Cumulative frequency** | **Cumulative percentage** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Contract/casual appointment | 15 | 4.70 | 15 | 4.70 |
| | Full-time | 71 | 22.26 | 86 | 26.96 |
| | Internship | 15 | 4.70 | 101 | 31.66 |
| | Part time | 24 | 7.52 | 125 | 39.18 |
| | Unemployed | 194 | 60.82 | 319 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 6 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **319** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| s/n | **Section B: (information on students' expenditure in the host city (s/n 10 – 17)** | | | | |
| **10** | **Who is paying your tuition fee** | | | | |
| | Government of my country/state | 33 | 10.44 | 33 | 10.44 |
| | My employer in South Africa | 5 | 1.58 | 38 | 12.03 |
| | My employer in my country | 6 | 1.90 | 44 | 13.92 |
| | My parent(s) | 160 | 50.63 | 204 | 64.56 |
| | My spouse | 3 | 0.95 | 207 | 65.51 |
| | Myself | 99 | 31.33 | 306 | 96.84 |
| | National Research Foundation (NRF) scholarship | 3 | 0.95 | 309 | 97.78 |
| | TUT scholarship | 7 | 2.22 | 316 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 9 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **316** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **11** | **Who is paying your living expenses** | | | | |
| | Government of my country/state | 28 | 8.70 | 28 | 8.70 |
| | My employer in South Africa | 2 | 0.62 | 30 | 9.32 |
| | My employer in my country | 3 | 0.93 | 33 | 10.25 |
| | My parent(s) | 163 | 50.63 | 196 | 60.87 |
| | My spouse | 5 | 1.55 | 201 | 62.42 |
| | Myself | 117 | 36.34 | 318 | 98.76 |
| | National Research Foundation (NRF) scholarship | 1 | 0.31 | 322 | 99.07 |
| | TUT scholarship | 3 | 0.93 | - | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 3 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **322** | **100.00** |

Table 6.4 shows the results from employment status, who pays for the tuition fees, and who pays for the living expenses of respondents. According to the table, of the 319 respondents who responded to question 9, the unemployed accounted for 60.82%, those who are full-time employed comprise 22.26%, and contract/casual employment and internship both accounted for 4.70. This shows that the majority of the respondents are unemployed. To question 10 (who is paying your tuition fees), 316 respondents responded to this question, and it was found that parents pay for 50.63% of respondents, 31.33% pay for themselves, the government of respondents' country/state is responsible for paying for 10.44%, and an employer from the home country comprises 1.90%. Those receiving a TUT bursary comprise 2.22%, an employer in South Africa stood at 1.58% and respondents' spouses and the National Research Foundation (NRF) scholarship both accounted for 0.95%. Finally, question 11 (who is paying your living expenses), received 322 responses: parents are responsible for 50.63%, respondents themselves comprised 36.34%, the government of their countries made up 8.70%, spouses 1.55%, employers from home countries and TUT bursaries both recorded 0.93%, and scholarships from NRF stood at 0.31%. Results from questions 10 and 11 show similarities in terms of sources of funding for tuition and living expenses, with parents, students themselves and governments of their home countries recording the first three highest frequencies. These sources of funding for questions 10 and 11 corroborate what Butcher and McGrath (2004:540) found, namely that respondents have steady sources of income for both tuition fees and living expenses. This is very encouraging for TUT and the COT in terms of revenue generation for both.

**Table 6.5: Descriptive analysis on amount available to expend yearly on tuition, monthly on accommodation, subsistence, entertainment and transportation**

| 12 | Amount available to spend yearly on tuition | Frequency | Valid percentage | Cumulative frequency | Cumulative percentage |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Less or equal to R20 000 | 102 | 32.08 | 102 | 32.08 |
| | R20 001 – R25 000 | 90 | 28.30 | 192 | 60.38 |
| | R25 001 – 30 000 | 58 | 18.24 | 250 | 78.62 |
| | R30 000 and above | 68 | 21.38 | 318 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 7 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **318** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **13** | **Amount available to spend monthly on accommodation** | | | | |
| | Less or equal to R1 000 | 42 | 13.59 | 42 | 13.59 |
| | R1 001 – R2 000 | 63 | 20.39 | 105 | 33.98 |
| | R2 001 – R3 000 | 72 | 23.30 | 177 | 57.28 |
| | R3 001 and above | 132 | 42.72 | 309 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 16 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **309** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **14** | **Amount available to spend monthly on subsistence** | | | | |
| | Less or equal toR1000 | 85 | 26.73 | 85 | 26.73 |
| | R1 001 – R2 000 | 124 | 38.99 | 209 | 65.72 |
| | R2 001 – R3 000 | 65 | 20.44 | 274 | 86.16 |
| | R3 001 and above | 44 | 13.84 | 318 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 7 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **318** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **15** | **Amount available to spend monthly on entertainment** | | | | |
| | Less or equal to R1 000 | 221 | 71.06 | 221 | 71.06 |
| | R1 001 – R2 000 | 56 | 18.01 | 277 | 89.07 |
| | R2 001 – R3 000 | 23 | 7.40 | 300 | 96.47 |
| | R3 001 and above | 11 | 3.53 | 311 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 14 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **311** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **16** | **Amount available to spend monthly on transportation** | | | | |
| | Less or equal to R1 000 | 188 | 59.12 | 188 | 59.12 |
| | R1 001 – R2 000 | 97 | 30.50 | 285 | 89.62 |
| | R2 001 – R3 000 | 21 | 6.61 | 306 | 96.23 |
| | R3001 and above | 12 | 3.77 | 318 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 7 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **318** | **100.00** |

Table 6.5 presents the findings on the amounts of money that respondents spend annually on tuition fees – (question 12), monthly on accommodation (question 13), monthly on subsistence – question 14, monthly on entertainment (question 15), and monthly on transportation – (question 16). According to this table, 318 responses were received for question 12. The findings are as follows: 32.08% have less or equal to R20 000, while 28.30% receive R20 001-R25 000; 21.38% represents R30 001 above, and 18.24% indicated R25 001-R30 000. Question 13 received 309 responses, of which R3 001 and above accounted for 42.72%, R2 001-R3 000 made up 23.30%, R1 001-R2 000 stood at 20.39% and less or equal to R1 000 comprised 13.59%. Question 14 received a total of 318 responses as follows: R1 001-R2 000 made up 38.99%, less or equal to R1 000 comprised 26.99%, R2 001-3 000 was represented by 20.44% and R3 001 and above made up 13.84%. For question 15, the breakdown of a total of 311 responses received is: less or equal to R1 000 at 59.12%, R1 001-R2 000 comprised 30.50%, R2 001-R3 000 was represented by 6.61%, and R3 001 above made up 3.77%. Finally, a total of 318 respondents responded to question 16. It was found that 59.12% have less or equal to R1 000, 30.50% have R1 001-R2 000, R2001-R3000 made up 6.61%, and R3001 above was represented by 3.77%. The results from this table show the economic implications of the amount of money available to be spent by international students. This explains the economic benefits for the host city in view of international students' attendance also highlighted by Aloyo and Wentzel (2011:392).

### 6.2.3 Analysis of pre arrival expectation (application condition and expected course duration)

The significance of having knowledge of application conditions and the course duration of international students in the COT includes but is not limited to the following:

- To establish TUT's unconditional ability to attract international students
- To establish which of the sources of hearing about TUT are most effective with a view to improving on these, and,
- To determine the expected duration that these students are likely going to be staying in order to assist in planning and maximising their presence in the COT for economic and other benefits.

The table below depicts the analysis of data collected on respondents' application conditions, duration of programmes and sources of hearing about TUT.

**Table 6.6: Descriptive analysis on queries about conditions relating to respondents' application for admission at TUT, duration of studies and sources of hearing about TUT**

| **17** | Did you submit an application for admission to another South African university apart from TUT? | **Frequency** | **Valid percentage** | **Cumulative frequency** | **Cumulative percentage** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Yes, before considering TUT as option | 64 | 20.00 | 64 | 20.00 |
| | Yes, simultaneously with my application with TUT | 72 | 22.50 | 136 | 42.50 |
| | Yes, after I had already applied with TUT | 13 | 4.06 | 149 | 46.56 |
| | No, only TUT | 171 | 53.44 | 320 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 5 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **320** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| s/n | | **Section C: Pre-arrival expectations (s/n 17 – 37)** | | | |
| **18** | **Duration of your studies** | | | | |
| | 1 – 2 year | 106 | 32.62 | 106 | 32.62 |
| | 3 – 4 year | 195 | 60.00 | 301 | 92.62 |
| | 5 – 6 year | 21 | 6.46 | 322 | 99.08 |
| | 7 year above | 3 | 0.92 | 325 | 100.00 |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **325** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **19** | **How did you hear about TUT, (Only the option that is most applicable)** | | | | |
| | Brochures | 16 | 4.95 | 16 | 4.95 |
| | Family | 92 | 28.48 | 108 | 33.43 |
| | Friends | 113 | 34.98 | 221 | 68.41 |
| | Social media | 8 | 2.48 | 229 | 70.89 |
| | Word-of-mouth | 37 | 11.46 | 266 | 82.35 |
| | TUT website | 55 | 17.03 | 321 | 99.38 |
| | University in home country | 2 | 0.62 | 323 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 2 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **323** | **100** |

Table 6.6 shows respondents' answers to question 17 – conditions related to respondents' submissions of application at TUT, question 18 – the duration of studies, and question 19 – asking how they heard about TUT. According to this table, 320 responses were received for question 17; only TUT received 53.44%, simultaneously with TUT stood at 22.50%, before

considering TUT as option at 20.00%, and after I had applied with TUT received 4.06%. These results mean that TUT attracts more than 50% of the respondents on merit and without any other condition. For question 18, a total of 325 response came through; 3-4years stood at 60.00%, 1-2year at 32.62%, 5-6years at 6.46% and 7 years and above at 0.92%. This indicates that most of the respondents will be spending 3-4 years at TUT as well as in the host city. This is a positive finding especially from a revenue generation perspective in the sense that the COT and indeed TUT will both have a stable source of revenue generation at least for the duration of students' education. For question 19, a total of 323 answers were received as follows: friends comprised 34.98%, family stood at 28.48%, the TUT website received 17.03%, word-of-mouth made up 11.46%, brochures comprised 4.95% and social media 2.48%. Clearly, the results related to family and friends (63.46%) shows it is a vital source through which potential international students obtain information about a study destination; and this corroborates findings by Movando and Qiu (2009).

### 6.2.4 Analysis of respondents' pre arrival expectation (factors influential to students' choice of the destination)

The importance of understanding pre-arrival expectation of international students in the COT and TUT comprise a number of issues, including but not limited to these:

- To compare a number of expectations with actual experience
- To understand international students' needs with a view to improving on amenities
- To understand how influential these expectations are to international students' decision to select South Africa, and the COT to be precise, and TUT as the main attraction with a view to doing more to provide acceptable services

- To use the average mean values of some of these influential factors to compare with the average mean values of respondents' actual experience of services in both the COT and TUT (cf. 6.4).

**Table 6.7: Descriptive analysis on factors influential to respondents' decision to come to South Africa**

| ***Respondents responses to factors influential to their decision to come to South Africa*** | **Not influential Score N (%)** | | **Neutral N (%)** | **Influential Score N (%)** | | **Missing frequency N** | **Mean** | **Std deviation** | **Rank** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Not at all influential** | **Not influential** | | **Mildly influential** | **Extremely influential** | | | | |
| Internationally recognised universities | 24(7.5%) | 15(4.7%) | 59(18.5%) | 92(28.8%) | 129(40.4%) | 6 | **3.90** | 1.204 | **1st** |
| Availability of adequate infrastructure for leisure and related activities | 32(10.0%) | 19(6.0%) | 65(20.4%) | 88(27.6%) | 115(36.1%) | 6 | **3.74** | 1.281 | **2nd** |
| Opportunity to migrate to choice destination | 51(16.2%) | 30(9.6%) | 93(29.6%) | 86(27.4%) | 54(17.2%) | 11 | **3.20** | 1.294 | **3rd** |
| Weather conditions | 55(17.4) | 43(13.6%) | 110(34.7%) | 67(21.1%) | 42(13.2%) | 8 | 2.99 | 1.255 | 4th |
| Proximity to my country of origin/residence | 67(21.1%) | 39(12.3%) | 105(33.0%) | 49(15.4%) | 58(18.2%) | 7 | 2.97 | 1.362 | 5th |
| Cultural diversity | 52(16.5%) | 50(15.8%) | 111(35.1%) | 74(23.4%) | 29(9.2%) | 9 | 2.93 | 1.191 | 6th |
| South Africans are peace-loving people | 73(22.9%) | 41(12.9%) | 128(40.1%) | 45(14.1%) | 32(10.0%) | 6 | 2.76 | 1.237 | 7th |
| Safety/security of lives and properties | 75(23.5) | 62(19.8%) | 95(29.8%) | 46(14.4%) | 41(12.9%) | 6 | 2.34 | 1.315 | 8th |

Table 6.7 portrays factors influential to international students' decision to come to South Africa. This section used a five-point Likert scale ranging from: 1= "*Not at all influential*" to 5= "*Extremely influential*" to test eight factors considered influential to 'international students' choice of a study destination (cf. 2.4). From the results, three items can be considered most influential since their mean scores are above 3.0; these are: availability of internationally recognised universities with 3.90, availability of adequate infrastructure for leisure at 3.74, and opportunity to migrate to the selected destination at 3.20. This outcome confirms the significance of these three highly rated items in terms of pulling international students to a destination (c.f. Table 2.4).

**Table 6.8: Descriptive analysis on factors influential to respondents' selection of TUT**

| ***Respondents responses to factors influential to their selection of TUT*** | **Not influential Score N (%)** | | **Neutral N (%)** | **Influential Score (N, %)** | | **Missing frequency N** | **Mean** | **Std deviation** | **Rank** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Not at all influential** | **Not influential** | | **Mildly influential** | **Absolutely influential** | | | | |
| Quality of education offered by TUT | 20(6.3%) | 14(4.4%) | 54(17.1%) | 112(35.4%) | 116(36.7%) | 9 | **3.92** | 1.132 | **1st** |
| Availability of my intended course/qualification of study | 33(10.4%) | 19(6.0%) | 57(18.0%) | 64(20.3%) | 143(45.3%) | 9 | **3.84** | 1.339 | **2nd** |
| Good educational support in place for international students at TUT | 44(14.1%) | 25(8.0%) | 75(24.0%) | 93(29.7%) | 76(24.3%) | 12 | **3.42** | 1.318 | **3rd** |
| Low tuition fees | 36(11.3%) | 42(13.2) | 85(26.7) | 66(20.8%) | 89(28%) | 7 | 3.41 | 1.323 | 4th |
| TUT is the only university that accepted my application | 66(21.1%) | 39(12.5%) | 70(22.4%) | 66(21.1%) | 72(23.0%) | 12 | 3.12 | 1.446 | 5th |
| Affordable cost of living in the COT | 70(22.3%) | 59(18.8%) | 102(32.5%) | 53(16.9%) | 30(9.6%) | 11 | 2.73 | 1.249 | 6th |
| Quality of sporting facilities | 110(34.9%) | 42(13.3%) | 100(31.7%) | 41(13.0%) | 22(7.0%) | 10 | 2.44 | 1.276 | 7th |
| Scholarship offered by TUT | 137(43.8%) | 32(10.2%) | 85(27.2%) | 28(8.9%) | 31(9.9%) | 12 | 2.31 | 1.367 | 8th |
| Bursary was given to me by my country/employer to study only at TUT | 173(55.6%) | 27(8.3%) | 75(24.1%) | 18(5.8%) | 18(5.8%) | 14 | 1.97 | 1.247 | 9th |

Table 6.8 presents the result on factors influential to international students' decision to select TUT. On a five-point Likert scale of 1-5 (1 = *not at all influential* to 5 = *extremely influential*), nine factors that are influential in terms of selection of a study destination/institution by international students were examined. The three most influential factors based on their high mean scores are: quality of education offered by TUT at 3.92, availability of respondents' intended courses/qualifications at 3.84 and educational support provided by TUT at 3.42. This outcome proves that international students attach a great deal of importance to quality of educational-related resources when selecting a university, and this finding concurs with similar findings indicated in the literature review (c.f. 2.5). The items that came fourth and fifth also surpass the 3.0 acceptance mean score; these are: lower tuition fees, and TUT is the only institution that accepted respondents' applications. This result also implies that respondents are likely expecting quality facilities in these five areas highlighted, and therefore, TUT management must be conscious of constantly doing well in areas such as these and many more. After all, it is a requirement for management to investigate how well it is meeting visitors' expectation as indicated by Van Riper and White (2007:293).

### 6.2.5 Assessment of respondents' intention to take up employment and the impact of friends and family visiting the COT and TUT

An assessment of respondents' intention to take up employment after completing their various programmes was conducted. This is important in view of the perspective of some South Africans that foreign nationals are here to "take their jobs". It is important, therefore, to examine the extent to which international students hope to remain in the country with a view to gaining employment in order to be able to make appropriate recommendations in this regard. Also, the

frequency and effectiveness of family and friends visiting the host country and the effect of this on the economy is very important.

**Table 6.9: Descriptive analysis on respondents' intentions to work in South Africa, assessment of visitation by family members/friends, and means of transportation within the COT.**

| s/n | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **37** | **Do you intend to work in South Africa after your studies?** | **Frequency** | **Valid Percent %** | **Cumulative frequency** | **Cumulative Percent %** |
| | Yes, by all means | 53 | 16.77 | 53 | 16.77 |
| | Yes, only if the opportunity present itself | 222 | 70.25 | 275 | 87.02 |
| | Not at all | 41 | 12.98 | 316 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 9 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **316** | **100.00** |
| s/n | **Section D: students activities (s/n 38 – 53)** | | | | |
| **38** | **Have you been visited by family member(s)/friends since the commencement of your studies?** | | | | |
| | Yes, only once | 49 | 15.65 | 49 | 15.65 |
| | Yes, two to three times | 56 | 17.89 | 105 | 33.54 |
| | Yes, four times and more | 82 | 26.20 | 187 | 59.74 |
| | Not at all | 126 | 40.26 | 313 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 12 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **313** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **39** | **When your family visits, did they travel to other parts of South Africa?** | | | | |
| | Yes, only once | 46 | 15,81 | 46 | 15.81 |
| | Yes, two to three times | 57 | 19.58 | 103 | 35.39 |
| | Yes, four times and more | 46 | 15.81 | 149 | 51.20 |
| | Not at all | 142 | 48.80 | 291 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 34 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **291** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| **40** | **Which means of local transportation do you regularly move around with within the COT?** | | | | |
| | Own car | 11 | 4.33 | 11 | 4.33 |
| | Local taxis | 224 | 88.19 | 235 | 92.52 |
| | Lift with family | 11 | 4.33 | 246 | 96.85 |
| | Lift with friends | 8 | 3.15 | 254 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 71 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **254** | **100.00** |

Table 6.9 presents the findings obtained on the following: question 37 – do you intend to work in South Africa after your studies?; question 38 – have you been visited by family and friends?; question 39 – when your family visit, did they travel to other part of South Africa?, and question 40 – what means of local transportation do you regularly used when moving about within the COT?. For question 37, a total of 316 responses were received; they include: yes, only if the opportunity presents itself (70.25%), yes, by all means at 16.77%, and not at all (12.98%). This shows that the majority of the respondents hope to work in South Africa after completing their studies only if the opportunity presents itself. Again, this is an expected outcome because the desire for better employment opportunities is a pull factor towards a study destination (Bhati & Anderson, 2012). Also, leading study destinations are known to include conditional employment opportunities as part of their strategies for attracting international students (cf. Tables 4.1a – 4.1f).

Table 6.9 also shows that question 38 received a total of 313 responses. These include: not at all (40.26%), yes, four times and more at 26.20%, yes, two to three times (17.89%) and yes, only once at 15.65%. This finding shows that a total of 59.74% (26.20 + 17.89 +15.65) of respondents had been visited by members of their family at least once. This corroborates what Taylor, Shanka and Pope (2004:72) and Engberg (2009:60) found: that the presence of international students attracts visits by their family and friends to the host destination. Question 39 received a total of 291 responses. Not at all stood at 48.80%, yes, only once and yes, four times and more both secured 15.81% and yes, two to three times received 19.58%. This indicates that 51.20% of the respondents had had member(s) from their family visit places (destination or attractions) during their visits to South Africa at least once. Again, this supports

Engberg (2009:60) and Pawlak (2013:8) that the presence of international students is a boost for visits to the destination by member(s) of their friends and family. Finally, question 40 received a total of 254 responses as follows: local taxi 88.19%, own car and lift with family friends stood at 4.33% and lift with family 3.15%. This shows that the majority of the respondents regularly move around the COT with local taxis. It follows that an increase in local activities occur in terms movement around areas where these students reside and visit (cf. also Pawlak, 2013:7) and that transport receives a significant economic contribution in the form of local taxi drivers' profits. This also addresses the issue of low pollution regarding their mobility especially as they mostly move around in the same local taxi used by residents of the COT

### 6.2.6 Students' activities in the COT

An understanding of the frequency of international students' engagement in these activities outside the COT would help understand what infrastructure needs to be developed to make the COT enjoy the benefits of those activities that frequently take them out of the host city. Table 6.10 presents respondents' responses to questions relating to activities they engaged in outside the COT.

**Table 6.10: Descriptive analysis on respondents' frequencies on reasons for travelling outside of the COT**

| ***How often respondents travel outside the COT to/for:*** | **Never in the last year N (%)** | **1-2 times in the last year N (%)** | **3-6 times in the last year N (%)** | **About once a month in the last year N (%)** | **More than once a month in the last year N (%)** | **Missing frequency (N)** | **Mean** | **Std deviation** | **Rank** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shop for personal needs such as food, clothing and household items | 152(49.5%) | 54(17.6%) | 33(10.7%) | 34(11.1%) | 34(11.1%) | 18 | **2.17** | 1.422 | **1st** |
| Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) | 116(37.8%) | 101(32.9) | 41(13.4%) | 21(6.8%) | 28(9.1%) | 18 | **2.17** | 1.258 | **1st** |
| Accompanying family members or friends to places of their interest | 125(40.3%) | 103(33.2%) | 51(15.7%) | 13(4.0%) | 18(5.5%) | 15 | **2.02** | 1.123 | **3rd** |
| Visit to tourism destinations/attractions | 137(44.3%) | 96(31.1%) | 46(14.9%) | 8(2.6%) | 22(7.1%) | 16 | 1.97 | 1.158 | 4th |
| Attend social occasions | 152(49.5%) | 86(28.0%) | 31(10.1%) | 16(5.2%) | 22(7.2%) | 18 | 1.93 | 1.204 | 4th |
| Entertainment such as night clubbing, gambling, movies and participating in or viewing sporting activities | 183(59.4%) | 64(20.8%) | 26(8.4%) | 19(6.2%) | 16(5.2%) | 17 | 1.77 | 1.159 | 5th |
| Educational related purposes | 192(61.9%) | 72(23.2%) | 24(7.7%) | 8(2.6%) | 14(4.5%) | 15 | 1.65 | 1.041 | 6th |
| Work or job interviews | 228(75.0%) | 40(13.2%) | 17(5.6%) | 8(2.6%) | 11(3.6%) | 21 | 1.47 | 0.978 | 7th |
| Seek medical consultation | 262(85.9%) | 22(7.2%) | 9(3.0%) | 5(1.6%) | 7(2.3%) | 20 | 1.27 | 0.796 | 8th |

Table 6.10 presents the results pertaining to respondents' frequencies regarding reasons for travelling outside the COT. On a Likert scale of 1-5 (*never in the last year = 1 to more than once a month in the last = 5*) the results show that all the reasons examined recorded low average mean scores. Any average mean score smaller than 3.0 indicates that the reason being examined is not that responsible for respondents travelling outside the COT frequently. Among the nine reasons that were examined, only four recorded a little higher than 2.0 average mean score. Shopping for personal needs and visiting friends and relatives jointly had 2.17 and ranked 1st jointly, accompanying family members or friends to places of their interest outside the COT received 2.02 and was ranked 3rd. Other reasons examined along with these three recorded low average mean scores smaller than 2.0. In all, Table 6.10 shows how weak the reasons examined are in making international students to travel outside the COT frequently. This could be an indication of the ability of the COT to effectively provide for a number of international students' basic needs, thus reducing movement out of the City for reasons examined.

### 6.2.7 Students' activities in the COT

An understanding of some of the activities of international students may help to make the host environment more conducive to these activities and may also highlight other activities that can attract international students. The economic implications of activities must also be borne in mind. Table 6.11 presents respondents' responses to selected questions on activities engaged in within the COT.

**Table 6.11: Descriptive analysis on respondents' frequency of engaging in recreational activities within the COT**

| ***Respondents responses to frequency of engaging in the following recreational activities within the COT*** | **Never & Scarcely Score N (%)** | | **Not sure N (%)** | **Often & frequently Score N (%)** | | **Missing frequency (N)** | **Mean** | **Std deviation** | **Rank** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Never** | **Scarcely** | | **Often** | **Frequently** | | | | |
| Shopping for personal needs | 8(2.6%) | 47(15.2%) | 25(8.1%) | 134(43.4%) | 95(30.7%) | 16 | **3.84** | 1.100 | **1st** |
| Entertainment such as going to the movies, clubbing and gambling | 94(30.6%) | 81(24.6%) | 32(10.4%) | 74(24.1%) | 26(8.5%) | 18 | 2.53 | 1.363 | 2nd |
| Visit to tourism attractions including sightseeing | 92(29.6%) | 108(34.7%) | 42(13.5%) | 57(18.3%) | 12(3.9%) | 14 | 2.32 | 1.188 | 3rd |
| Participate in sporting events | 174(56.1%) | 68(21.9%) | 25(8.1%) | 30(9.7%) | 13(4.2%) | 15 | 1.84 | 1.177 | 4th |

Table 6.11 shows the results of frequencies of respondents' engaging in recreational activities within the COT. On a Likert scale of 1-5 (*never* = 1 to frequently = 5), four items were examined. The highest is shopping for personal needs (3.84). The remaining three items (entertainment such as going to the movies, clubbing and gambling at 2.53); visits to tourism attraction including sightseeing participating in sporting events at 2.32; and, participating in sport activities (1.84) recorded mean scores smaller than 3.0 which means respondents do not really engage in those three activities. The findings show that shopping for personal needs is the recreational activity most frequently carried out by international students in the COT. The outcome of this does not align with findings from related studies which note that the presence of international students boosts visits to tourism attractions within the host city (Heung & Leong, 2006:83; Ryan & Zhang, 2007:98-99). However, shopping activities which are synonymous with tourism do increase within the COT. This buttresses Pawlak (2013:7) that the presence of international students leads to an increase in economic activities for the host city.

### 6.2.8 Assessment of facilities in the COT and TUT

Considering the significance of adequate facility in any desirable destination and the need to improve visitors' experience, it is important to explore visitors' perceptions of facilities provided for them for the purpose of making necessary adjustments. This matches van Riper and White (2007:293) submission on the importance of knowing and subsequently meeting visitors' expectation in case service provision falls below expectations. Therefore, assessing visitors' perceptions is a way of establishing whether or not their expectations regarding some facilities/services are met. Tables 6.12 and 6.13 present the outcomes of respondents assessment of facilities in the COT and TUT respectively.

**Table 6.12: Descriptive analysis on assessment of services/facilities in the COT**

| **Section E: Assessment of facilities in the COT** | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***Assessment of services/facilities in the COT by respondents*** | **Disagreement Score N (%)** | | **Do not agree nor disagree N (%)** | **Agreement Score N (%)** | | **Missing frequency (N)** | **Mean** | **Std deviation** | **Rank** |
| | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** | | | | |
| The COT boasts of quality educational facilities (such as; library, specialised laboratories and research centres) | 2(7.0%) | 14(4.6%) | 80(26.1%) | 180(58.8%) | 30(9.8%) | 19 | **3.73** | 0.726 | **1st** |
| The COT is attractive | 5(1.6%) | 24(7.8%) | 80(25.9%) | 175(56.6%) | 25(8.1%) | 16 | **3.62** | 0.808 | **2nd** |
| Commendable Wi-Fi (wireless network) services in the COT | 11(3.6%) | 29(9.4%) | 76(24.7%) | 164(53.2%) | 28(9.1%) | 17 | **3.55** | 0.914 | **3rd** |
| The COT provides quality local transport services | 15(4.9%) | 25(8.2%) | 74(24.2%) | 166(54.2%) | 26(8.5%) | 19 | 3.53 | 0.938 | 4th |
| The COT offers quality public health care services | 6(2.0%) | 17(5.5%) | 118(38.4%) | 146(47.6%) | 20(6.5%) | 18 | 3.51 | 0.781 | 5th |
| There are adequate facilities for memorable recreation experience in the COT | 6(2.0%) | 31(10.2%) | 100(32.8%) | 150(49.2%) | 18(5.9%) | 20 | 3.47 | 0.831 | 6th |
| The COT is clean | 14(4.5%) | 43(14.0%) | 83(26.9%) | 150(48.7%) | 18(5.8%) | 17 | 3.37 | 0.952 | 7th |
| The COT offers attractions of international repute | 12(3.9%) | 36(11.8%) | 115(37.7%) | 148(42.0%) | 14(4.6%) | 20 | 3.31 | 0.884 | 8th |
| Cost of living in the COT is affordable | 6(2.0%) | 64(21.1%) | 90(29.7%) | 128(42.2%) | 15(5.0%) | 22 | 3.27 | 0.917 | 9th |
| The COT offers quality night life for regular enjoyment | 12(3.9%) | 34(11.1%) | 145(47.4%) | 104(34.0%) | 11(3.6%) | 19 | 3.22 | 0.839 | 10th |
| It is safe to move freely at all times in the COT | 70(22.9%) | 85(27.8%) | 84(27.5%) | 57(18.6%) | 10(3.3%) | 19 | 2.52 | 1.131 | 11th |

Table 6.12 presents the result of respondents' perceptions of services and facilities in the COT. A five-point Likert scale (*1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree*) was used to assess eleven items. However, only the top three and the last three ranked items are highlighted in the table: the COT has quality educational facilities (3.73), the COT is attractive (3.62), and the COT has commendable Wi–Fi (3.55). The last three items are: cost of living in the COT is affordable (3.27), the COT offers quality night life for regular enjoyment (3.22), and it is safe to move around freely at all times in the COT (2.52). This result shows that out of eleven items, only one item - safe to move freely at all times scored a lesser than 3.0 average mean indicating that respondents do not agree with this item. Other items, especially the top three, are related to good condition of learning infrastructure considered extremely significant to students' decision to select a study destination (c.f. Table 2.3); Kavakas, 2013). On the whole, these results show that respondents' perceptions of ten of the eleven items examined were moderately positive.

**Table 6.13: Descriptive analysis on assessment of services/facilities in Tshwane University of Technology**

| Section F: Assessment of facilities in TUT | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***Assessment of services/facilities in TUT campuses in the COT*** | **Disagreement Score N (%)** | | **Do not agree nor disagree N (%)** | **Agreement Score in N (%)** | | **Missing frequency (N)** | **Mean** | **Std deviation** | **Rank** |
| | **Strongly disagree** | **Disagree** | | **Agree** | **Strongly agree** | | | | |
| Lecturers in TUT are approachable/helpful | 5(1.6%) | 5(1.6%) | 44(14.3%) | 192(62.5%) | 61(19.9%) | 18 | **3.97** | 0.745 | **1st** |
| TUT provides quality studying experience | 8(2.7%) | 16(5.3%) | 52(17.3%) | 187(57.5%) | 38(11.5%) | 24 | **3.77** | 0.836 | **2nd** |
| TUT provides good transport facilities | 8(2.6%) | 31(10.2%) | 79(26.1%) | 152(50.2%) | 33(10.9%) | 22 | **3.56** | 0.911 | **3rd** |
| TUT offers excellent sporting facilities | 7(2.3%) | 22(7.3%) | 117(38.9%) | 136(45.2%) | 19(6.3%) | 24 | 3.46 | 0.814 | 4th |
| TUT surroundings are attractive | 16(5.3%) | 46(15.1%) | 79(26.0%) | 141(46.4%) | 22(7.2%) | 21 | 3.35 | 0.997 | 5th |
| TUT provides quality accommodation facilities | 7(2.3%) | 29 (9.6%) | 170(56.3%) | 87(28.8%) | 9(3.0%) | 23 | 3.21 | 0.745 | 6th |
| TUT Provides quality health (clinic) services | 4(1.3%) | 30(10.0%) | 175(58.3%) | 84(28.0%) | 7(2.3%) | 25 | 3.20 | 0.699 | 7th |
| TUT offers good Wi-Fi (wireless networks) services | 20(6.5%) | 71(23.2%) | 86(28.1%) | 108(35.3%) | 21(6.9%) | 19 | 3.13 | 1.053 | 8th |
| Adequate restaurant facilities to cater for students | 37(12.1%) | 67(22.0%) | 82(26.9%) | 99(32.5%) | 20(6.6%) | 20 | 2.99 | 1.138 | 9th |
| International students complaints on educational supports are satisfactorily handled | 32(10.6%) | 55(18.2%) | 122(40.3%) | 82(27.1) | 12(4.0%) | 22 | 2.96 | 1.017 | 10th |

Table 6.13 presents the result of respondents' assessment of services and facilities in the COT on a five-point Likert scale (*1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree*). This section highlights the outcome of ten items that were examined. However, the emphasis of the discussion is on the top three and the bottom three ranked items. These are: lecturers in TUT are approachable (3.97); TUT provides a quality studying experience (3.77) and TUT provides good transport facilities at 3.56. The bottom three ranked items are: TUT offers good Wi-Fi services (3.13), adequate restaurant facilities to cater for students (2.99), and international students' complaints concerning educational support are satisfactorily handled (2.96). This result shows a reasonable acceptance of facilities offered by TUT from the respondents since only two of the ten items recorded an average mean score smaller than 3.0.

### 6.2.9 Assessment of international students' willingness to recommend the COT and TUT and their recommendations for improved living and study experience

This section examines international students' loyalty to the host city and host university respectively by assessing respondents' willingness to recommend them to friends and family. The significance of this exploration include being able to understand the level of loyalty that the COT and TUT would likely enjoy with a view to understanding how they are perceived by the current students. Accordingly, Table 6.14 presents respondents willingness to recommend the COT and TUT, and Table 6.15 presents respondents recommendations for improve experience in the COT and TUT.

**Table 6.14: Descriptive analysis on willingness to recommend the COT and TUT**

| s/n | Section A: willingness to recommend the COT and TUT to family and friends (s/n 75 – 76) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 75 | **Will you recommend TUT to family and friends as a university to study at?** | **Frequency (N)** | **Valid Percentage (%)** | **Cumulative Frequency (N)** | **Cumulative percentage (%)** |
| | Yes, unconditionally | 108 | 35.41 | 108 | 35.41 |
| | Yes, on conditions that a number of social amenities are improved upon | 119 | 39.02 | 227 | 74.43 |
| | I won't say yes and, I won't say no | 61 | 20.00 | 288 | 94.43 |
| | Not at all | 17 | 5.57 | 305 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 20 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **305** | **100.00** |
| | | | | | |
| 76 | **Will you recommend the COT to family and friends as a study destination?** | | | | |
| | Yes, unconditionally | 116 | 38.28 | 116 | 38.28 |
| | Yes, on conditions that a number of social amenities are improved upon | 109 | 35.97 | 225 | 74.25 |
| | I won't say yes and, I won't say no | 64 | 21.12 | 289 | 95.37 |
| | Not at all | 14 | 4.63 | 303 | 100.00 |
| | Missing | 22 | - | - | - |
| | **Total** | **325** | **100.00** | **303** | **100.00** |

Table 6.14 presents the responses to question 75 (will you recommend TUT to family and friends?) and question 76 (will you recommend the COT to family and friends?). Starting from the highest to lowest, question 75 recorded 305 responses as follows: yes, on condition that a number of social amenities are improved upon received 119 responses (39.02%); yes, unconditionally stood at 108 (35.41%); I won't say yes and, I won't say no at 61 (20.00%) and, not at all received 17 (5.57%). This means that 74.43% of the respondents would recommend TUT to family and friends as a university (conditionally or unconditionally). Question 76 recorded 303 responses as follows: yes, unconditionally at 116 (38.28%); yes, on conditions that a number of social amenities are improved upon at 109 (35.97%); I won't say yes and I won't say no stood at 64 (21.12%) and, not at all at 14 (4.63%). This result shows that 74.25% respondents would recommend the COT to friends and family (conditionally or unconditionally). This finding is impressive and indicates that more effort is required to get outstanding recommendations from the current international students, especially as information dissemination from current to prospective international students had been identified as vital in terms of how international students hear about study destinations (Lu, Movando & Qiu, 2009). Students' willingness to recommend both the COT and TUT is an indication of how much the current international students appreciate the quality of service and infrastructure.

**Table 6.15: Descriptive analysis on recommendations for improve experience in the COT and TUT**

| 77 | Section G: Recommendation for the COT and TUT in order to improve international students experience | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Kindly make recommendations for the COT to improve your stay** | | **Frequency (N)** | **Percent of responses (%)** | **Rank** |
| Improve cleanliness | | 236 | 24.92 | 1st |
| Improve security that would guarantee 24hours movement | | 235 | 24.84 | 2nd |
| Improve library and educational support facilities | | 173 | 18.27 | 3rd |
| Improve Wi-Fi (wireless networks) services | | 170 | 17.95 | 4th |
| Improve beautification of the surroundings | | 133 | 14.04 | 5th |
| **Total** | | | **100.00** | |
| | | | | |
| **78** | **Kindly make recommendations for TUT to improve your learning experience** | **Frequency (N)** | **Percent of responses (%)** | **Rank** |
| Improved response to international students educational and non-educational complaints | | 232 | 31.52 | 1st |
| Improved social amenities such as restaurants and for leisure | | 161 | 21.88 | 2nd |
| Provide more decent accommodation for international students within the campus environs | | 159 | 21.60 | 3rd |
| Improved the quality of teaching | | 107 | 14.54 | 4th |
| Improved library facilities | | 76 | 10.33 | 5th |
| Improved transport infrastructure | | 1 | 0.14 | 6th |
| **Total** | | - | **100.00** | - |

According to Table 6.15, 311 out of 325 participants responded to question 77. However, an overall total of 947 responses were received due to multiple response permission granted for this question which allows a respondent to choose several options. The three items with highest frequencies are: improved cleanliness of the surroundings with a frequency of 236 representing 24.92% of responses, and 75.88% of responses obtained. Second was improved security that would guarantee 24 hours' movement around the COT with 235 respondents which comprises 24.84% of responses. Third was improved library and educational support facilities with a 173 frequency, 18.27% of responses. Recommendations for improved Wi-Fi services were fourth, and improvement on beautification of the COT's' surroundings followed. This table shows the order of respondents' preference in recommending these infrastructures for development if the COT wishes to improve their experiences.

Table 6.15 also shows the responses to question 78 pertaining to recommendations for improving learning experience in TUT. Out of 325 total participants 297 answered this query and this produces 736 total responses. Details on the three items with the highest frequencies are: firstly, improved response to international students' educational and non-educational complaints where 232 represent 31.52% of responses. Secondly, improved social amenities such as restaurants and for leisure had a frequency of 161, representing 21.88% of responses. Thirdly, providing more decent accommodation for international students within the campus environs scored 159 representing 21.60% of responses. This outcome expresses respondents' preference for the items suggested for improvement in their learning experience at TUT.

### 6.2.10 Presentation of results from the interview with TUT staff

This section discusses the results of the data from the interview conducted with TUT staff. The importance of this section is to examine the perceptions of TUT management by exploring the views of selected staff on the presence of international students at TUT. Prior to the presentation of findings from this interview, details on how the data was analysed is discussed below.

After listening to the recorded audio interview repeatedly, respondents' responses were processed into appropriate themes. Long expressions from the responses obtained were summarised into short phrases. In some instances, direct quotations from a respondent were used to represent the views of other respondents who provided similar opinions. Thereafter, the outcomes were analysed numerically and presentation was done via frequencies as presented below.

**Question 1: Describe the relationship between your job and international students**

**Response:** One of the respondents comments that "I relate face-to-face with international students on series of welfare and educational related issues"; other interviewees shared similar views. Also, two of the respondents relate with international students on the basis of policy and strategic administration of their presence at TUT. All the respondents relate with international students and indicated that their jobs allow for them to provide one service or the other for international students at TUT.

**Question 2: What is your perception on TUT having 1 784 international students in 2016?**

**Response:** All seven respondents commented that it means more revenue and a source of stable cash flow for TUT. A further comment from one of the respondents is "I do not totally agree with this figure, it should be more than this".

**Question 3: What is your perception on efforts aimed at increasing the international student intake at TUT?**

**Response**: One of the respondents commented that "I welcome it and will give all I can in support of such an effort". The remaining six respondents gave similar answers and agreed to embrace such an effort.

**Question 4: How do you think an increase in the intake of international students would affect TUT?**

**Response**: All seven respondents agreed that an increased intake of international students would be a source of additional revenue which can be used by TUT for meaningful development. One of the respondents added that "The presence of more international students will expose local students to international culture, and, this will mean international recognition of South African cultures and values".

**Question 5: Do you think it is necessary to improve on issues that could enhance international students' general well-being at TUT?**

**Response**: All the respondents stated that it is necessary to do so. One of the respondents commented: "Yes, any meaningful development that could impact positively on international students' well-being is very necessary; I will always support such issue".

**Question 6: Suggest five areas you think international students' general well-being can be improved.**

**Response**: Together, the respondents made a total of nine different suggestions. Starting with the most to the least recommend, below follows the highlights of the responses:

i. Six respondents suggested meaningful improvement on the quality of accommodation for international students.

ii. Five of the seven respondents suggested improving human and non-human facilities in the international office to encourage efficient service support delivery to international students.

iii. Three respondents suggested improving on facilities in sports, academics and other areas that could improve positively on their well-being.

iv. Three respondents suggested that TUT should encourage and promote the celebration of various international days with a view to promote cross-cultural understanding between international students and their local counterparts.

v. Two respondents suggested improved scholarship opportunities.

vi. Two respondents suggested that international students' participation in Students Representative Council (SRC) and related activities should be encouraged.

vii. Two respondents suggested that TUT should begin with English language proficiency courses to assists students from non-English speaking countries.

viii. One respondent suggested that opportunities to work as student assistants should be considered if merited.

ix. One respondent suggested that international students should pay same fees as local students.

**Question 7: What is your opinion about international students bringing financial benefits for TUT?**

**Response**: All the respondents agreed that international students' presence translates into a stable financial benefit for TUT. Special recognition was given to the international levy and the prompt payment of fees.

## 6.3 Research questions

In the build-up to this study, a number of pertinent research questions were asked. Answering these questions is a step towards realising the objectives of this study and achieving its overall aim. Responses to the research questions are presented below. Research question one (1) was answered in the course of the literature chapter while research questions 2 to 7 were answered by the empirical study.

**Research Question 1:** What are the factors responsible for international students leaving their countries of origin/residence?

This question was answered in chapter two (cf. 2.4). The following factors (push factors) amongst others were highlighted as being responsible for international students leaving their countries of origin/destination to pursue their education elsewhere:

- Protracted strikes that prolong students' stay.
- Political uneasiness which push most academics out, thereby harming the education system. This also led to a state of anarchy which means that safety is compromised in home countries.
- Shortage of academic staff.
- Perception that study abroad is better than local study.
- Lack of adequate opportunities to enter local universities.
- Desire to understand and experience the "western way of life".
- Intention to migrate to greener pastures in the future.
- Non/poor availability of educational support services in home countries.
- The desire to work or live abroad.
- The desire to experience another country's life and culture.
- Better employment opportunities.
- Lack of adequate and well-paying employment opportunities at home.
- Desire to "show off" wealth at the destination.

**Research Question 2:** What are the factors attracting international students to TUT?

**Table 6.16: Percentage, mean and rank order of factors attracting international students to Tshwane University of Technology.**

| Item | Descriptions of items | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q28 | Quality of education offered by TUT | 316 | 3.92 | 1.132 |
| Q33 | Availability of my intended course of study | 316 | 3.84 | 1.339 |
| Q36 | Good educational support provided by TUT | 313 | 3.42 | 1.318 |
| Q29 | Lower tuition fees | 318 | 3.41 | 1.323 |
| Q35 | TUT is the only university that accepted my application | 313 | 3.12 | 1.446 |
| Q30 | Affordable cost of living in the COT | 314 | 2.73 | 1.249 |
| Q34 | Quality of sporting facilities | 315 | 2.44 | 1.276 |
| Q31 | Scholarship by TUT | 313 | 2.31 | 1.367 |
| Q32 | Bursary given to study only in TUT | 311 | 1.97 | 1.247 |

Table 6.16 presents the mean and rank order of the factors attracting international students to TUT. The table shows that five out of the nine items scored higher than the average mean score of 3.00 due to higher percentages from combined "influential score". These consist of items 28 (with mean score of 3.92; 72.1% influential score), item 33 (with a mean score of 3.84; 65.3% influential score), item 36 (with a mean score of 3.42; 54.0% influential score), item 29 (with a mean score of 3.41; 48.8% of influential score) and item 35 (with 3.12; 44.1% influential score). These were ranked 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th respectively. Other items scored below the average

mean of 3.00, and thus were not considered significant. It can be concluded that the most important factors attracting international students to TUT are: quality of education offered by TUT, availability of intended course of study, good educational support provided by TUT, lower tuition fees, and the fact that TUT was the only university that accepted students' applications. Interestingly, the finding concerning lower tuition fees aligns with Mazzarol, Kemp and Savoury's finding as reported in Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) that costs issues are influential to international students' selection of a host country.

**Research Question 3:** What is the perception of international students on facilities available in the COT?

**Table 6.17: percentage, mean and rank order of perception of international students on facilities available in the COT.**

| Items | Descriptions of items | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q63 | The COT boasts of quality educational facilities (such as library, specialised laboratories and research centre) | 306 | 3.73 | .726 |
| Q55 | The COT is attractive | 309 | 3.62 | .808 |
| Q62 | There is a commendable Wi-Fi (wireless network) service in the COT. | 308 | 3.55 | .914 |
| Q60 | The COT provides quality local transport services | 306 | 3.53 | .938 |
| Q61 | The COT offers quality public health care services | 307 | 3.51 | .781 |
| Q56 | There are adequate facilities for memorable recreation experience in the COT | 305 | 3.47 | .831 |
| Q54 | The COT is clean | 308 | 3.37 | .952 |
| Q59 | The COT offers attractions of international repute | 305 | 3.31 | .884 |
| Q64 | Cost of living in the COT is affordable | 303 | 3.27 | .917 |
| Q57 | The COT offers quality night life for regular enjoyment | 306 | 3.22 | .839 |
| Q58 | It is safe to move freely at all times in the COT | 306 | 2.52 | 1.131 |

Table 6.17 presents the mean and rank order of perceptions of international students on facilities available in the COT. The table shows that ten out of eleven items scored higher than the average mean of 3.00 and higher percentages of combined "agreement scores" than the rest. Ranked 1 to 10$^{th}$ in, these comprise item 63 (with a mean score of 3.73; 68.1% agreement score), item 55 (with a mean score of 3.84; 64.7% of agreement score), item 62 (with a mean score of

3.55; 62.3% of agreement score), item 60 (with a mean score of 3.53; 62.7% of agreement score), item 61 (with a mean score of 3.51; 54.1% of agreement score), item 56 (with a mean score of 3.47; 55.1% of agreement score), item 54 (with a mean score of 3.37; 54.5% of agreement score), item 59 (with a mean score of 3.31; 46.6% of agreement score), item 64 (with a mean score of 3.27; 47.2% of agreement score) and item 57 (with a mean score of 3.22; 37.6% of agreement score). The remaining item recorded a mean score smaller than 3.0, and thus was not favourably considered by international students. It can therefore be concluded that quality of education, COT being attractive, offering commendable Wi-Fi services, quality local transport services, quality public health services, adequate recreational facilities, that COT is clean, that it offers attractions of international repute, it has affordable cost of living and quality night life for regular enjoyment are well perceived by international students.

**Research Question 4:** What is the perception of international students on the facility provided by TUT?

**Table 6.18: percentage, mean and rank order of perception of international students on facilities available at Tshwane University of Technology.**

| Items | Descriptions of items | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Q67 | TUT provides good transport facilities | 307 | 3.97 | .745 |
| Q74 | TUT provides quality studying experience | 301 | 3.77 | .836 |
| Q66 | TUT provides good transport facilities | 303 | 3.56 | .911 |
| Q71 | TUT offers excellent sporting facilities | 301 | 3.46 | .814 |
| Q72 | TUT surroundings are attractive | 304 | 3.35 | .997 |
| Q65 | TUT provides quality accommodation facilities | 302 | 3.21 | .745 |
| Q73 | TUT provides quality health (clinic) services | 300 | 3.20 | .699 |
| Q69 | TUT campuses offer good Wi-Fi (wireless networks) services | 306 | 3.13 | 1.053 |
| Q70 | There are adequate restaurant facilities to cater for students | 305 | 2.99 | 1.138 |
| Q68 | International students complaints on educational supports are satisfactorily handled | 303 | 2.96 | 1.017 |

Table 6.18 presents the mean and rank order of perceptions of international students on facilities available in TUT. The table shows that eight out of ten items scored higher than the average mean of 3.00 due to higher percentage of combined "agreement score" than the rest. Ranked 1 to 8$^{th}$ in the order of listing, these comprise item 67 (with a mean score of 3.97; 82.4% agreement score), item 74 (with a mean score of 3.77; 69.0% of agreement score), item 66 (with a mean

score of 3.56; 61.1% of agreement score), item 71 (with a mean score of 3.46; 51.5% of agreement score), item 72 (with a mean score of 3.35; 53.6% of agreement score), item 65 (with a mean score of 3.21; 31.8% of agreement score), item 73 (with a mean score of 3.20; 30.3% of agreement score), and item 69 (with a mean score of 3.13; 42.2% of agreement score). The remaining items recorded scored less than 3.0, and therefore these were not favourably considered by international students. Therefore, the perceptions of international students on the following eight facilities provided by TUT lecturers are approachable, adequate library, good transportation, excellent sporting, attractive surroundings, quality accommodation, quality health (clinic) services and good Wi-Fi services are sound.

**Research Question 5:** What are the recommendations by international students on areas to improve upon for improve living and learning experiences in the COT and TUT?

This research question was answered in chapter 6, Table 6.15. The three items that recorded the highest frequencies in descending order are:

For improved living in the COT, the three most significant developments mentioned are:

- Improvement on the level of cleanliness within the COT surroundings with 24.92% of total response percentage;
- Improved security that would allow for 24 hours movement around the COT with 24.84%; and
- Improved library and relevant educational support facilities within the COT with 18.72% of total response percentage.

For improved learning experience in TUT, the three most significant developments that were recommended are:

- Improved response to international students' educational and non-educational complaints with 31.52% of the total percentage;
- Improved social amenities for leisure activities with 21.88%; and
- Providing decent accommodation within the various TUT campuses for international students with 21.60% of the total percentage.

**Research Question 6:** What is the perception of TUT management about international students presence in the institution?

With reference to section 6.2.10, question 2, all the seven respondents (100%) indicated that the presence of 1 784 international students represents steady revenue and improved cash flow for TUT. According to the respondents, international students habitually pay their fees – perhaps unlike local students. Therefore, the perception of TUT management is that international students' presence at TUT makes economic sense.

**Research Question 7:** What are suggestions from selected TUT staff for improving international students' general well-being?

Section 6.2.10 – question 6 deals with suggestions by TUT staff about areas to improve on for international students' general well-being. The suggestions are:

i. Significant development of accommodation/residential infrastructure;
ii. Genuine improvement on human and operational facilities at the international office;
iii. Improved facilities for sport and relevant extra-curricular activities;

iv. Creating awareness and allow for recognition of international days to celebrate all students;
v. Introducing English language proficiency courses to promote the experience of students from French and Portuguese-speaking countries;
vi. Improved scholarship/bursary and opportunities;
vii. Encouraging international students' participation in Student Representative Council's (SRC) activities;
viii. Improved opportunities to work in positions such as student assistants, and
ix. Matching fees with those paid by local students.

The next section examines the hypotheses formulated for this study. These hypotheses were formulated in order to examine the occurrence of any significant difference(s) in how selected and important variables are influenced on the basis of respondents' demography characteristics.

## 6.4 Results on hypotheses

In examining the hypotheses formulated for this study, a T-test, one and two-way Analysis of Variance (2-way ANOVA) was used. These hypotheses were formulated around sensitive areas of this study where outcomes are considered capable of being influenced either by respondents' gender, marital status and/or qualification enrolled for, amongst other demographic characteristics. This helped to establish whether special consideration is needed for planning and implementing policy aimed at managing international students better. Also, taking into consideration demographic characteristics' influence on push and pull factors as well as actual expectations of respondents at the destination is necessary. The following section presents a discussion on the hypotheses.

**$H0_1$:** There is no significant statistical difference on the bases of gender and qualification in terms of how some of the factors influenced respondents to select South Africa. This hypothesis was formulated to establish whether or not male and female international students require similar or different features in order to influence them to select South Africa (SA).

**Table 6:19 2-way ANOVA presenting differences in respondents concerning the factors influencing them to select SA based on gender and qualification**

| Source | Type II Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | Cal. F | Crit. F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected model | 254.107 | 7 | 36.301 | .983 | | .443 |
| Intercept | 195826.400 | 1 | 195826.400 | 5304.517 | | .000 |
| Gender | .022 | 1 | .022 | .001 | 3.84 | .980 |
| Qualification | 182.237 | 3 | 60.746 | 1.645 | 2.60 | .179 |
| Gender * qualification | 71.607 | 3 | 23.869 | .647 | 2.60 | .586 |
| Error | 11333.493 | 307 | 36.917 | | | |
| Total | 207414.000 | 315 | | | | |
| Corrected total | 11587.600 | 314 | | | | |

a. R Squared = 0.22 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)

Table 6.19 presents the two-way ANOVA results of respondents' gender and qualification with reference to factors influencing them to select SA. The table revealed that gender and qualification yielded F-values of 0.001 and 1.645 against the critical F-values of 3.84 and 2.60, at the degree of freedom 1/307 and 3/307 respectively. The table also shows the corresponding p-value of 0.980 and 0.179 for gender and qualification respectively, which are higher than the significance level of 0.05. This means that there are no statistically significant differences in the respondents' views of the factors influencing them to select SA based on gender and qualification. The interaction effects of the two independent variables (gender and qualification) also indicated that there was no statistically significant effect between gender and qualification

(Cal. F = 0.647; Crit. F = 2.60) with p-value of 0.586 which is higher than the 0.05 level of significance; hence, the hypothesis is not rejected. It can therefore be deduced that there is no significant statistical difference in how those factors influencing respondents to SA fared on the basis of gender and qualification (undergraduate and postgraduate international students). This differs from what Nghia (2015:3) found, namely that prospective international students differ significantly in the way push factors influenced their motivation to study abroad on the basis of gender and the envisaged course of study. This difference affirms the diversity of opinions with regard to international students' preferences.

**$H0_2$:** There is no significant statistical difference regarding how safety as a factor influenced respondents to SA on the basis of gender

**Table 6.20: Mean, SD and t-test results showing difference in respondents' responses on safety as influential factor to SA based on gender**

| | Gender | N | Mean | SD | df | Cal. T | Crit. T | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | 174 | 2.65 | 1.258 | | | | |
| | | | | | 316 | 1.386 | 1.96 | 0.167 |
| | Female | 144 | 2.85 | 1.374 | | | | |

Result in Table 6.20 shows that the calculated t-value of 1.386 is lesser than the critical t-value of 1.96 at 316 degree of freedom, with a corresponding p-value of 0.167 which is higher than the 0.05 level of significance. This suggests that no significant difference exists; thus, the hypothesis is not rejected. Therefore, there is no significant statistical difference regarding safety as a factor influencing respondents to SA on the basis of gender.

**$H0_3$:** There is no significant statistical difference in terms of opportunities to migrate to the selected destination as a factor influencing undergraduate and postgraduate respondents' to SA.

**Table 6.21: One-Way ANOVA showing differences in undergraduate and postgraduate respondents view of opportunity to migrate to choice of destination as a factor influencing them to SA**

| Source | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | Cal. F | Crit. F | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between group | 7.615 | 3 | 2.538 | 1.53 | 2.60 | 0.207 |
| Within group | 506.120 | 305 | 1.659 | | | |
| Total | 513.735 | 308 | | | | |

Table 6.21 presents the one-way ANOVA results of respondents' perceptions of opportunities to migrate to their choice destinations as a factor influencing them, based on qualification. The table shows that the calculated F-value of 1.53 is lesser than the critical F-value of 2.60, at the degree of freedom 3/305. The table also shows that the corresponding p-value of 0.207 is higher than the significance level of 0.05. This means that no statistically significant difference exists in the respondents' view in this regard; hence, the hypothesis is not rejected. This result suggests that opportunities to migrate to the choice destination as a factor influences undergraduate and postgraduate respondents to SA without any significant difference that would have warranted either of these categories to be specially handled.

**$H0_4$:** There is no significant statistical difference regarding internationally recognised universities as a factor influencing respondents' choice of SA on the basis of the qualification being studied

**Table 6.22: One-Way ANOVA showing differences in respondents view of internationally recognised universities as a factor influencing based on qualification**

| Source | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | Cal. F | Crit. F | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between group | 5.308 | 3 | 1.769 | 1.21 | 2.60 | 0.306 |
| Within group | 453.011 | 310 | 1.461 | | | |
| Total | 458.318 | 313 | | | | |

Table 6.22 presents the one-way ANOVA results of respondents' view of internationally recognised universities as an influential factor based on qualification. The table shows that the calculated F-value of 1.21 is lesser than the critical F-value of 2.60, at the degree of freedom 3 and 310. The table also shows that the corresponding p-value of 0.306 is higher than the significance level of 0.05. This means that no statistically significant difference exists in terms of respondents' view of internationally recognised universities as an influential factor based on qualification; hence, the hypothesis is not rejected. This suggests that international students studying for undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications are similar in terms of how internationally recognised universities influenced their motivation to select SA. Again, there is no need for special consideration for either of these groups to be handled uniquely.

**$H0_5$:** There is no significant statistical difference in factors influencing respondents to TUT on the basis of gender and qualification being pursued.

**Table 6.23: 2-way ANOVA presenting differences in respondents' view of factors influencing them to TUT based on gender and qualification**

| Source | Type II Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | Cal. F | Crit. F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected model | 501.436 | 7 | 71.634 | 1.556 | | .148 |
| Intercept | 221369.492 | 1 | 221369.492 | 4808.93 | | .000 |
| Gender | 22.297 | 1 | 22.297 | .484 | 1.245 | .487 |
| Qualification | 164.928 | 3 | 54.976 | 1.194 | 2.60 | .312 |
| Gender * qualification | 288.041 | 3 | 96.014 | 2.086 | 2.60 | .102 |
| Error | 14224.072 | 309 | 96.014 | | | |
| Total | 236095.000 | 317 | | | | |
| Corrected total | 14725.508 | 316 | | | | |

a. R Squared = .034 (Adjusted R Squared = .012)

Table 6.23 presents the two-way ANOVA results of respondents' views pertaining to factors influencing them to select TUT based on gender and qualification. The table indicates gender and qualification with calculated F-values of 0.484 and 1.645 against the critical F-values of 1.194 and 2.60, at the degree of freedom 1/317and 3/317 respectively. The table also shows the corresponding p-value of 0.487 and 0.312 for gender and qualification respectively, which are higher than the significance level of 0.05. This means that no statistically significant differences exist in the respondents' views on the factors influencing their motivation to select TUT based on gender and qualification. The interaction effects of the two independent variables (gender and qualification) also indicate that there is no statistically significant effect between gender and qualification (Cal. F = 2.086; Crit. F = 2.60) with a p-value of 0.102 which is higher than the 0.05 level of significance; hence, the hypothesis is not rejected. It can be deduced, therefore, that

there is no significant statistical difference in terms of factors influencing respondents to select TUT on the basis of gender and qualification being pursued. Consequently, TUT perhaps needs to worry less about putting unique plans in place in this regard.

**$H0_6$:** There is no significant difference in respondents' reasons for travelling within the COT on the basis of gender.

**Table 6.24:** Mean, SD and t-test showing difference in respondents' reasons for travelling within COT based on gender

| Gender | N | Mean | SD | df | Cal. T | Crit. T | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | 172 | 10.71 | 3.42 | | | | |
| | | | | 309 | 1.64 | 1.96 | 0.103 |
| Female | 139 | 10.09 | 3.24 | | | | |

Table 6.24 presents t-test results of difference in respondents' reasons for travelling within the COT on the basis of gender. The table shows that under degree of freedom (df) of 309, the calculated t-value of 1.64 is lesser than the critical t-value of 1.96 with a corresponding p-value of 0.103 which is greater than the 0.05 level of significance. This indicates that no significant difference exist, thus, the null hypothesis is retained. Therefore, there is no significant difference in respondents' reasons for travelling within COT on the basis of gender. This might be attributed to similarity in reasons among female and male students in moving around the COT. Two major categories of movement were found: (i) both females and males move around the different TUT campuses across the COT, and (ii) to places where they buy basic needs within the COT; especially that shopping had been identified as the most amongst activities carried out in the COT by international students (cf Table 6.11). Therefore, 'going out' for these two reasons (to school and to shop) are shared traits and may be responsible for the indifference observed.

After all, it has been found that international students are responsible for two types of expenditure (educational and non-educational) at their destinations.

**$H0_7$:** There is no significant difference in respondents' assessment of facilities in the COT on the basis of gender.

**Table 6.25:** Mean, SD and t-test showing difference in respondents' reasons for travelling within COT based on gender

| Gender | N | Mean | SD | df | Cal. t | Crit. T | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | 171 | 37.40 | 5.51 | | | | |
| | | | | 310 | 3.39 * | 1.96 | 0.001 |
| Female | 141 | 34.96 | 7.15 | | | | |

* Sig. $p < 0.05$

Table 6.25 presents the t-test results of difference in respondents' assessment of facilities in the COT on the basis of gender. The table shows that, under degree of freedom (df) of 309, the calculated t-value of 3.39 is higher than the critical t-value of 1.96, with a corresponding p-value of 0.001 which is lesser than the 0.05 level of significance. This indicates that a significant difference exist in respondents' assessment of infrastructures in the COT, thus, the null hypothesis is not retained. Therefore, there are significant differences in respondents' assessment of facilities in COT on the basis of gender.

**$H0_8$:** There is no significant difference in respondents' assessment of facilities in TUT on the basis of gender and qualification.

**Table 6.26:** 2-way ANOVA presenting differences in respondents' assessment of facilities in TUT based on gender and qualification.

| Source | Type II Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | Cal. F | Crit. F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Corrected model | 720.000 | 7 | 102.857 | 3.376 | | .002 |
| Intercept | 88756.414 | 1 | 88756.414 | 2912.804 | | .000 |
| Gender | 437.111 | 1 | 437.111 | 14.345* | 3.84 | .000 |
| Qualification | 366.601 | 3 | 122.200 | 4.010* | 2.60 | .008 |
| Gender * qualification | 426.745 | 3 | 142.248 | 4.668* | 2.60 | .003 |
| Error | 8928.040 | 293 | 30.471 | | | |
| Total | 338560.000 | 301 | | | | |
| Corrected total | 9648.040 | 300 | | | | |

a. R Squared = .075 (Adjusted R Squared = .053)

Table 6.26 presents the two-way ANOVA results of respondents' assessment of facilities in TUT based on gender and qualification. The table reveals gender and qualification with calculated F-values of 14.345 and 4.010 against the critical F-values of 3.84 and 2.60, at the degree of freedom 1/301 and 3/301 respectively. The table also shows the corresponding p-value of 0.000 and 0.008 for gender and qualification respectively, which are lesser than the significance level of 0.05. This means that there are significant differences in the respondents' assessment of facilities in TUT based on gender and qualification. The interaction effects of the two independent variables (gender and qualification) also indicate that there is a significant effect between gender and qualification (Cal. F = 4.67; Crit. F = 2.60) with a p-value of 0.003 which is lesser than the 0.05 level of significance; hence, the hypothesis is not retained. It can be deduced, therefore, that there are significant differences in respondents' assessment of facilities in TUT on the bases of gender and qualification. In order to determine which of the qualification

sub-variable contributed to the difference found in the hypothesis, Scheffe Post-Hoc was carried out. The result is shown in table 6.27.

**Table 6.27:** Scheffe post-hoc showing where the significant difference lies based on qualification

| **Qualification** | **N** | **Sub-set for Alpha = 0.05** | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 |
| M-Tech | 36 | 34.81 | |
| D-Tech | 26 | 34.19 | |
| National Diploma | 145 | | 32.89 |
| B-Tech | 94 | | 32.33 |
| Sig. | | .189 | .189 |

Table 6.27 shows that respondents studying for M-Tech and D-Tech had mean scores of 34.81 and 34.19 (in subset 1) respectively. Respondents enrolled for the National Diploma and B-Tech had mean scores of 32.89 and 32.33 (in subset 2) respectively. The sub-sets were grouped together because their mean difference is less than 1. However, the table shows that the mean scores of sub-set 1 are significantly higher (with mean difference of 2 and higher) than sub-set 2. This implies that postgraduate students (respondents pursuing both M-Tech and D-Tech qualifications) differ in their assessment of facilities in TUT compared to undergraduate students (respondents pursuing National Diploma and B-Tech). Therefore, postgraduate students contributed to the difference observed in Table 6.26. This may be due to postgraduate students' prior exposure to facilities elsewhere, leading to greater appreciation of facilities and services presently offered by TUT. On the other hand, undergraduates are likely interacting with facilities at the university level for the first time, and thus they do not have a basis of comparison based on prior experience.

**$H0_9$:** There is no significant difference in respondents' willingness to recommend TUT to friends' and family on the basis of gender.

**Table 6.28: Mean, SD and t-test results showing difference in respondents' willingness to recommend TUT to friend and family on the basis of gender.**

| | Gender | N | Mean | SD | Df | Cal. T | Crit. T | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | 168 | 1.87 | 0.852 | | | | |
| | | | | | 302 | 1.813 | 1.96 | .071 |
| | Female | 136 | 2.05 | 0.897 | | | | |

The results in Table 6.28 show that the calculated t-value of 1.813 is lesser than the critical t-value of 1.96 at 302 degree of freedom, with a corresponding p-value of 0.071 which is higher than the 0.05 level of significance. This implies that no significant difference exists; thus, the hypothesis is retained. Therefore, there is no significant difference in respondents' willingness to recommend TUT to friends' and family on the basis of gender. This result suggests that the there is a balance in the level of satisfaction derived from facilities and services provided by TUT for male and female respondents; consequently, a reason for the similarity in their willingness to recommend TUT to prospective students and family members alike.

**$H0_{10}$:** There is no significant difference in respondents' willingness to recommend the COT to friend and family on the basis of gender.

**Table 6.29: Mean, SD and t-test results showing difference in respondents' willingness to recommend the COT to friend and family on the basis of gender.**

| | Gender | N | Mean | SD | df | Cal. T | Crit. T | p-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | 169 | 1.82 | 0.836 | | | | |
| | | | | | 300 | 2.196* | 1.96 | .029 |
| | Female | 133 | 2.04 | 0.908 | | | | |

* Sig. $p < 0.05$

Table 6.29 shows that the calculated t-value of 2.196 is higher than the critical t-value of 1.96 at 300 degree of freedom, with a corresponding p-value of 0.029 which is lesser than the 0.05 level of significance. This implies that a significant difference exists in terms of the willingness of respondents to recommend the COT on the basis of gender; thus, the hypothesis is not retained. This result which indicates that respondents have preferences for infrastructure provision and or service delivery based on their gender needs a follow up study so as to further improve in infrastructure and service provision for international students as visitors in the COT irrespective of their genders.

## 6.5 Comparison of mean scores of influential factors and actual assessment of facilities in the COT and TUT.

The main reason for comparing respondents' mean scores on influential factors with their perceptions of facilities is to establish if the service enjoyed from these facilities matched the selected influential factors. On the basis that factors influencing visitors to destinations can be

linked to their expectations on service and amenities therein (Wong, 2013:173)**,** this section uses the mean scores on influential factors to compare respondents' perceptions of related services.

Service quality, according to Melisidou and Theocharis (2007), depends on the difference (either a plus or minus) between customers' expectations and perceptions of service received. That is, it refers to how well the service delivered meets respondents' expectations. Melisidou and Theocharis cite some distinguished scholars pertaining to service publications, including Grönroos (1984) and Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985), who notes that, "the degree of fit between customers' expectations and their perceptions of service received is regarded as service quality". Therefore, comparing how selected influential factors fared on relevant items of services using average mean scores is tantamount to comparing expectations with actual experiences; consequently, this expresses the quality of service delivered/received. In light of this, the average mean score for selected factors influential to respondents' reasons for coming to the COT and TUT is regarded as expectations, and these are tested with a concurrent assessment of amenities used. These are presented in Tables 6.30 to 6.34.

**Table 6.30: Comparison of mean scores on expectations and service received on low cost of living in the COT (item 30 vs 64)**

| Item | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Q30. Affordable cost of living in the COT? | 314 | 2.73 | 1.249 |
| Q64. Cost of living in the COT is affordable. | 303 | 3.27 | .917 |
| Valid N | 297 | | |

According to Table 6.30, item 30 had a mean value of 2.73, indicating a low expectation against item 64, perception of serviced received on affordability of cost of living in the COT with a mean score of 3.27. This indicates that respondents rated services consumed better than their expectations, and consequently, this refers to a good service quality delivered regarding affordable cost of living in the COT.

**Table 6.31: Comparison of mean scores on expectations and service received on quality of education offered by TUT (item 28 vs 74)**

| Item description | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Q28. Quality of education offered by TUT? | 316 | 3.92 | 1.132 |
| Q74. TUT provides a quality studying experience. | 301 | 3.77 | .836 |
| Valid N | 297 | | |

According to Table 6.31, item 28 (which is the respondents' expectation of the quality of education offering at TUT) had a mean value of 3.92 against item 74, which refers to facilities experienced with a mean of 3.77. This means that the quality of service received relating to

quality studying experience is lower than respondents' expectations. This finding indicates a poor quality service delivered to respondents. Considering that the quality of education offered by TUT was top ranked among the factors influential to respondents' selection of TUT (as recorded in Table 6.8), it is therefore suggested that TUT should improve on its quality of education delivery.

**Table 6.32: Comparison of mean scores of expectations and service received on educational support (item 36 vs 68).**

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Q36. Educational support offered by TUT? | 313 | 3.42 | 1.318 |
| Q68. International students' complaints about educational support are satisfactorily handled. | 303 | 2.96 | 1.017 |
| Valid N | 298 | | |

According to Table 6.32, item 36 recorded a mean of 3.42 as the mean for expectation on educational support against item 68 which had a mean score of 2.96 for service offered pertaining to educational support. This shows that the quality of service received in terms of the provision of educational support by TUT is lower than their expectations, thus pointing to a poor perception of services.

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**Table 6.33: Comparison of mean scores of expectations and assessment of service received on the level of safety in the COT (item 25 vs 58)**

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Q25. The level of safety in the COT. | 319 | 2.74 | 1.315 |
| Q58. It is safe to move freely at all times in the COT. | 306 | 2.52 | 1.131 |
| Valid N | 303 | | |

According to Table 6.33, item 25 that tested respondents' expectations of safety recorded a mean of 2.74, against 2.52 scored by item 58 which is the mean score for perceptions of safety in the COT. This means that the perceptions of the quality of service pertaining to the level of safety in the COT by the respondents are lower than their expectations.

**Table 6.34: Comparison of mean scores of influential factors and assessment of service enjoyed regarding infrastructure for leisure activities (item 21 vs 56)**

| | N | Mean | Std Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Q21. Availability of adequate infrastructure for leisure and related activities. | 319 | 3.74 | 1.281 |
| Q56. There are adequate facilities for memorable recreation experience in the COT. | 305 | 3.47 | .831 |
| Valid N | 302 | | |

According to Table 6.34, item 21 that tested expectations had mean value of 3.74 against item 56, the corresponding assessment of respondents' perceptions of the adequacy of infrastructure for leisure in the COT with a mean score of 3.47. This indicates that the quality of service

regarding the respondents' expectations regarding the availability of infrastructure of a great leisure experience is lower than their expectations. The COT needs to improve on the provision of recreational infrastructure. Next is the presentation and discussion on factor analysis.

## 6.6 Factor analysis

Factor analysis was conducted to identify which variables among item number 20 to 37; and 44 to 74 that are significant.

**Table 6.35: KMO and Bartlett's Test**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .827 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 1269.946 |
| | Df | 136 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

**Table 6.36: Total Variance Explained**

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | | Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cum % | Total | % of Variance | Cum % | Total | % of Variance | Cum % |
| 1 | 4.684 | 27.554 | 27.554 | 4.684 | 27.554 | 27.554 | 2.721 | 16.003 | 16.003 |
| 2 | 1.682 | 9.893 | 37.447 | 1.682 | 9.893 | 37.447 | 2.252 | 13.248 | 29.252 |
| 3 | 1.301 | 7.655 | 45.103 | 1.301 | 7.655 | 45.103 | 1.703 | 10.019 | 39.270 |
| 4 | 1.130 | 6.650 | 51.752 | 1.130 | 6.650 | 51.752 | 1.674 | 9.845 | 49.116 |
| 5 | 1.036 | 6.093 | 57.845 | 1.036 | 6.093 | 57.845 | 1.484 | 8.729 | 57.845 |
| 6 | .966 | 5.681 | 63.526 | | | | | | |
| 7 | .850 | 5.001 | 68.527 | | | | | | |
| 8 | .796 | 4.684 | 73.210 | | | | | | |
| 9 | .737 | 4.338 | 77.548 | | | | | | |
| 10 | .622 | 3.661 | 81.209 | | | | | | |
| 11 | .571 | 3.357 | 84.567 | | | | | | |
| 12 | .524 | 3.082 | 87.649 | | | | | | |
| 13 | .486 | 2.858 | 90.507 | | | | | | |
| 14 | .447 | 2.627 | 93.134 | | | | | | |
| 15 | .438 | 2.576 | 95.709 | | | | | | |
| 16 | .374 | 2.202 | 97.911 | | | | | | |
| 17 | .355 | 2.089 | 100.000 | | | | | | |

**Table 6.37: Rotated Component Matrix[a]**

| Item | Description | Components | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | Proximity to my country of origin/residence | .500 | | .463 | | |
| 21 | Availability of adequate infrastructure for leisure and related activities | .785 | | | | |
| 22 | Internationally recognised universities | .776 | | | | |
| 23 | There are better opportunities to migrate to choice destination | .541 | | | | |
| 24 | South Africans are peace-loving people | | .773 | | | |
| 25 | The level of safety in the COT | | .849 | | | |
| 26 | Cultural diversity | | .573 | | | |
| 27 | Good weather | | | | | .558 |
| 28 | Quality of education offered by TUT | .629 | | | | |
| 29 | Lower tuition fees | | | .785 | | |
| 30 | Affordable cost of living in the COT | | | .721 | | |
| 31 | Scholarship by TUT | | | | .837 | |
| 32 | Bursaries given to study only in TUT | | | | .815 | |
| 33 | Availability of my intended course of study | .470 | | | | -.436 |
| 34 | Quality of sporting facilities | | | | | .453 |
| 35 | TUT is the only university that accepted my application | | | | | .585 |
| 36 | Good educational support provided by TUT | .401 | .417 | | | |

Tables 6.35 to 6.37 showed data for variables 20 to 36 subjected to factor analysis using Principal Axis Factoring and Orthogonal Varimax Rotation. Table 6.35 shows that all KMO values for the individual items (>.90) were well above .5 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO) was .827, indicating that the data was sufficient for Exploratory Factor Analysis. The Bartlett's test of Sphericity $\chi^2$ (136) = 1269.946, $p < .001$ showed that there are patterned relationships between items 20 to 37. Table 6.36, using an Eigenvalue cut-off of 1.0, shows there are 5 factors that explain a cumulative variance of 27.554%. Table 6.37 depicts the factor loadings after rotation using a significant factor criterion of .4 which shows that, accordingly, item 21 (.785), 24 (.773), 29 (.785), 31 (.837) and 35 (.585) are significant variables in the model. The items indicated pertain to the availability of adequate infrastructure for leisure,

whether South Africans are peace-loving people, lower tuition fees, scholarships offered by TUT and whether TUT is the only university that accepted respondents' applications.

**Table 6.38: KMO and Bartlett's Test (ii)**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. | | .860 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 1499.594 |
| | Df | 210 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

**Table 6.39: Total Variance Explained (ii)**

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | | Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cum % | Total | % of Variance | Cum % | Total | % of Variance | Cum % |
| 1 | 5.392 | 25.675 | 25.675 | 5.392 | 25.675 | 25.675 | 2.948 | 14.040 | 14.040 |
| 2 | 1.953 | 9.298 | 34.973 | 1.953 | 9.298 | 34.973 | 2.761 | 13.145 | 27.185 |
| 3 | 1.392 | 6.630 | 41.603 | 1.392 | 6.630 | 41.603 | 1.850 | 8.810 | 35.995 |
| 4 | 1.187 | 5.652 | 47.255 | 1.187 | 5.652 | 47.255 | 1.819 | 8.660 | 44.656 |
| 5 | 1.055 | 5.025 | 52.280 | 1.055 | 5.025 | 52.280 | 1.601 | 7.625 | 52.280 |
| 6 | .995 | 4.740 | 57.021 | | | | | | |
| 7 | .910 | 4.332 | 61.353 | | | | | | |
| 8 | .770 | 3.667 | 65.020 | | | | | | |
| 9 | .769 | 3.662 | 68.682 | | | | | | |
| 10 | .731 | 3.479 | 72.161 | | | | | | |
| 11 | .710 | 3.381 | 75.542 | | | | | | |
| 12 | .691 | 3.292 | 78.834 | | | | | | |
| 13 | .633 | 3.014 | 81.848 | | | | | | |
| 14 | .599 | 2.850 | 84.698 | | | | | | |
| 15 | .560 | 2.665 | 87.363 | | | | | | |
| 16 | .538 | 2.564 | 89.927 | | | | | | |
| 17 | .499 | 2.374 | 92.301 | | | | | | |
| 18 | .476 | 2.266 | 94.567 | | | | | | |
| 19 | .412 | 1.964 | 96.531 | | | | | | |
| 20 | .392 | 1.866 | 98.397 | | | | | | |
| 21 | .337 | 1.603 | 100.000 | | | | | | |

**Table 6.40: Rotated Component Matrix[a] (ii)**

| Item | Description | Components | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 73 | TUT provides quality health (clinic) services | .680 | | | | |
| 71 | TUT offers excellent sporting facilities | .655 | | | | |
| 69 | TUT campuses offer good Wi-Fi (wireless networks) services | .633 | | | | |
| 72 | TUT surroundings are attractive | .620 | | | | |
| 70 | There are adequate restaurant facilities to cater for students | .591 | | | | |
| 74 | TUT provides a quality studying experience | .498 | | | | |
| 65 | TUT provides quality accommodation facilities | .464 | | .438 | | |
| 55 | The COT is attractive | | .816 | | | |
| 56 | There are adequate facilities for memorable recreation experience in the COT | | .699 | | | |
| 54 | The COT is clean | | .685 | | | |
| 59 | The COT offers attractions of international repute | | .569 | | | |
| 57 | The COT offers quality night life for regular enjoyment | | .477 | | | |
| 60 | The COT provides quality local transport services | | | | | |
| 62 | There is a commendable Wi-Fi (wireless network) service in the COT | | | .758 | | |
| 63 | The COT boasts of quality educational facilities (such as; library, specialised laboratories and research centres) | | | .599 | | |
| 64 | Cost of living in the COT is affordable | | | .584 | | |
| 67 | Lecturers in TUT are approachable | | | | .739 | |
| 68 | International students' complaints on educational support are satisfactorily handled | | | | .595 | |
| 66 | TUT provides good transport facilities | | | | .530 | |
| 58 | It is safe to move freely at all times in the COT | | | | | .785 |
| 61 | The COT offers quality public health care services | | | | | .410 |

Tables 6.38 to 6.40 show the data containing items 54 to 74 (assessment of infrastructure and facilities in the COT and TUT) subjected to factor analysis using Principal Axis Factoring and Orthogonal Varimax Rotation. Table 6.38 indicates that all KMO values for the individual items (> .90) were well above .5 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure (KMO) was .860, indicating that the data is sufficient for Exploratory Factor Analysis. The Bartlett's test of Sphericity $\chi^2$ (210) =

1499.594, $p < .001$ shows that there are patterned relationships between the items. In Table 6.39, using an Eigenvalue cut-off of 1.0, there are 5 factors that explain a cumulative variance of 25.675%. In Table 6.40, the factor loadings after rotation using a significant factor criterion of .4 shows that, accordingly, item 55 (.816), 58 (.785), 62 (.758), 67 (.739) and 73 (.680) are significant variables in the model. The items indicated that the COT is attractive, it is safe to move freely at all times in the COT, there is commendable Wi-Fi (wireless network) services in the COT, lecturers in TUT are approachable, and TUT provides quality health (clinic services).

The above results do not mean that other items examined are not significant. In fact, all the items that are included herein were products of empirical studies done in similar destinations that indicate that these items are recognised and reported as influential to international students' decision to travel abroad (cf. Section 2.5 and Table 2.4).

## 6.7 Reliability test of internal consistency of the questionnaire

In order to establish how well the questionnaire was able to measure what it was designed to measure consistently, Split Half Reliability was employed. Phelan and Wren (2006) indicate the appropriateness of split half internal consistency reliability; the authors describe it as having all the items of a test intended to query the knowledge split into two halves allowing for the outcomes from both halves to be compared. Justifying the use of split half reliability in this regard, Leard dissertation (2012) propounds that when a study undergoes a scenario where the measurement procedure is only completed once, split half reliability can be used. Consequently, this study employs the odd numbered versus even numbered items approach for the measurement

procedure in order to avoid possible biases that may arise if one were to simply divide the measurement procedure in two. Results and explanations are presented below.

**Table 6.41: Reliability Statistics**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Cronbach's Alpha | Part 1 | Value | 1.000 |
| | | N of Items | 1[a] |
| | Part 2 | Value | 1.000 |
| | | N of Items | 1[b] |
| | Total N of Items | | 2 |
| Correlation Between Forms | | | .436 |
| Spearman-Brown Coefficient | Equal Length | | .608 |
| | Unequal Length | | .608 |
| **Guttman Split-Half Coefficient** | | | **.607** |

According to Table 6.41, the Guttman Split Half Coefficient shows that the consistency of the research instrument stands at 0.607. This is a reasonably acceptable outcome, mainly due to the fact that the entire study combines affairs from both the tourism and education domain. Questions that asked to respondents covered multiple domains pertaining to the multidisciplinary nature of tourism as a discipline. In spite of this multiple dimension, having the consistency of the questionnaire at a higher than 60% of consistency as indicated in Table 6.40 shows a useful outcome.

To further examine the reliability of the questionnaire, especially from the perspective of individual questions, logistic regression was employed. The outcome is presented in Tables 6.42 and 6.43.

**Table 6.42: Internal consistency of individual items (20 to 37)**

| Items | Description | Alpha | Commentary on relationship |
|---|---|---|---|
| 20 | Proximity to my country of origin/residence | .561 | Moderate |
| 21 | Availability of adequate infrastructure for leisure and related activities | .002 | Very poor |
| 22 | Internationally recognised universities | .010 | Very poor |
| 23 | There are better opportunities to migrate to choice destination | .769 | Substantial |
| 24 | South Africans are peace-loving people | .739 | Substantial |
| 25 | The level of safety in the COT | .477 | Moderate |
| 26 | Cultural diversity | .998 | Very high |
| 27 | Good weather | .445 | Moderate |
| 28 | Quality of education offered by TUT | .833 | High |
| 29 | Lower tuition fees | .749 | Substantial |
| 30 | Affordable cost of living in the COT | .653 | Substantial |
| 31 | Scholarship by TUT | .755 | Substantial |
| 32 | Bursaries given to study only in TUT | .461 | Moderate |
| 33 | Availability of my intended course of study | .348 | Low |
| 34 | Quality of sporting facilities | .230 | Low |
| 35 | TUT is the only university that accepted my application | .969 | Very high |
| 36 | Educational support offered by TUT | .799 | Substantial |

**Table 6.43: Internal consistency of individual items (41 to 74)**

| Items | Description | Alpha | Commentary on relationship |
|---|---|---|---|
| 41 | Shopping for personal needs such as food, clothing and household items | .278 | Low |
| 42 | Entertainment such as nightclubbing, gambling, movies and participating in or viewing sporting activities outside the COT | .269 | Low |
| 43 | Attending social occasions | .061 | Poor |
| 44 | Exploring new tourism destinations/attractions | .955 | Very high |
| 45 | Accompanying family members or friends to places of their interest | .491 | Moderate |
| 46 | Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) | .197 | Negligible |
| 47 | Work or job interviews | .029 | Poor |
| 48 | Educational-related purposes | .034 | Poor |
| 49 | Seeking medical attention | .721 | Substantial |
| 50 | Visiting tourism attractions including sightseeing | .682 | Substantial |
| 51 | Participate in sporting events | .000 | Very poor |
| 52 | Entertainment such as going to the movies, clubbing and gambling in the COT | .952 | Very high |
| 53 | Shopping for personal needs | .378 | Low |
| 54 | The COT is clean | .304 | Low |
| 55 | The COT is attractive | .587 | Moderate |
| 56 | There are adequate recreational facilities for memorable experiences in the COT | .559 | Moderate |
| 57 | The COT offers quality night life for regular enjoyment | .919 | Very high |
| 58 | It is safe to move freely at all times in the COT | .009 | Very poor |
| 59 | The COT offers attractions of international repute | .178 | Very low |
| 60 | The COT provides quality local transport services | .060 | Poor |
| 61 | The COT offers quality public health care services | .033 | Poor |
| 62 | There is a commendable Wi-Fi (wireless network) service in the COT | .089 | Poor |
| 63 | The COT boasts of quality educational facilities (such as; library, specialised laboratories and research centres) | .332 | Low |
| 64 | Cost of living in the COT is affordable | .628 | Substantial |
| 65 | TUT provides quality accommodation facilities | .982 | Very high |
| 66 | TUT provides good transport facilities | .358 | Low |
| 67 | Lecturers in TUT are approachable | .069 | Poor |
| 68 | International students' complaints on educational supports are satisfactorily handled | .561 | Moderate |
| 69 | TUT campuses offer good Wi-Fi (wireless networks) services | .024 | Poor |
| 70 | There are adequate restaurant facilities to cater for students | .374 | Low |
| 71 | TUT offers excellent sporting facilities | .707 | Substantial |
| 72 | TUT surroundings are attractive | .744 | Substantial |
| 73 | TUT provides quality health (clinic) services | .855 | High |
| 74 | TUT provides quality studying experience | .438 | Moderate |

Tables 6.42 and 6.43 show the reliability outcomes of each variable. The outcome can be interpreted (with reference to Adesina and Nwanyanwu, 2005:103) as follows: eight out of the 51 items had "very high and high" scores due to their reliability outcome which fall between 0.81 to 1.00; eleven items had a "substantial relationship" owing to their outcomes standing between 0.61 to 8.00; nine items had a "moderate relationship" with scores ranging from 0.41 to 0.60; nine items had "low" and scores range from 0.21 to 0.40; two items had a "very low/negligible relationship" with scores from 0.00 to 0.20 and finally, twelve items were rated as having a "poor/very poor relationship" because they recorded below 0.00. The comments provided for the various reliability scores in Tables 6.42 and 6.43 explain the level of consistency which represents the chances of recording same outcome if questionnaires were re-administered. Not having higher scores does not necessarily render any of the variables herein useless.

## 6.8 Summary

This chapter presented data obtained from the two interviews (international students and selected TUT staff). Data referring to the former took place with respondents' completed questionnaires while that of the latter was obtained from semi-structured interviews where the information was converted into text where appropriate themes were established for representing the findings.

Analysis and presentation of data as regards the first interviews started with demographic information of international students. Here, it was found that more male respondents participated in that particular survey than females. Regarding the average age of these respondents, findings reveal that the average age of respondents is 24 years; this further explains why most of them are single. A combination of the youthful nature respondents and perceptions of having an opportunity to get the best with regard to economic benefits is one of the important findings here. Overall, the demographic characteristic of respondents show there is a great deal of opportunity for the COT as a host community as well as the residents to tap into. For instance, having respondents from over thirty countries shows the potential of education as a means of attracting international students to the COT.

This chapter presented the analysed data sequentially as follows: demographic characteristics of respondents, expenditure characteristics, pre-arrival expectations, factors influencing respondents' decision to travel to destinations and their perceptions of service provided at the destination. Finally, regarding the descriptive analysis, respondents' willingness to recommend the host city and the host university as well as recommendations on what to do to improve their living and study experiences were discussed. This was carried out to align with the arrangement

of these queries as they appear on the research instrument in order to make reading more comprehensible.

The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of this study.

# CHAPTER 7

# CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 7.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present conclusions and make recommendations pertaining to the data collected from primary and secondary sources. It also indicates how this study has contributed to the body of knowledge in the field. Conclusions are drawn from the literature study and the empirical research on a section by section basis. Having in mind that the main objective of this study is to develop a sustainable tourism framework for managing international students at TUT, the chapter starts by discussing the secondary objectives that supported the realisation of the main objective. This is followed by reference to the contribution of the present study, conclusions arrived at, and the realisation of the main objective. Final recommendations and recommendations for future research direction end this chapter.

- **Objective 1:** To review the literature on educational tourism and educational traveller profiling in order to gain an understanding of salient issues pertaining to international students.

This objective was realised in Chapter 2. It started with a classification of educational tourism visitors, where international students were classified as "education first" visitors (meaning that their primary motivation for travelling is education). The chapter also discussed the conditions related to educational travelling such as the distance to be covered as well as expected duration. Furthermore, the contributions of international students travel to the tourism industry were also

discussed. The push factors leading to international students' decision to leave their country of origin/residence as well as factors attracting them to specific destinations were discussed. Also, the various channels through which international students' acquire information regarding where and how to travel for study purpose were reviewed. Finally, constituents of international students' activities at similar destinations were reviewed. By doing so, more extensive knowledge and understanding of international students' was gathered. This information is important for destinations aspiring to attract and appropriately manage the international student market as mentioned (cf. 2.1)

- **Objective 2:** To review the literature on the impact of international students' presence on the host community.

This objective was realised in Chapter 3. The review on the economic impact of international students was presented under 3.2.1.1, the environmental impacts under 3.3.1 and the socio-cultural impact of international students' presence on their host destination in 3.4.1. Adaptation of the impact of visitors on host community was used when discussing a number of the likely impacts that may arise from the presence of international students at their various destinations.

- **Objective 3:** To examine government's roles and involvement in educational tourism through a review of relevant documents such as the national educational policy on internalisation, the Tourism White Paper, strategic tourism documents and other relevant sources.

This objective was realised in Chapter 4. Government's involvement in the internationalisation of education through policy formulation on immigration-related affairs was discussed under 4.3. Under 4.3.1, the various activities pertaining to the internationalisation of higher education that

are handled by the government (who is also in charge of bringing other stakeholders in the partnership together) were discussed. Significant examples regarding how educational tourism (internationalisation) is coordinated in other countries were reviewed. The findings show that government is the major role-player, and in fact, government controls the administration of tourism as discussed under 4.2. Under 4.3.1, Tables 4.1a – 4.1f express the significant role of government in the internationalisation of higher education in selected countries. Therein, issues of national interest such as immigration matter, scholarship and employment opportunities for international students and their families and the likes rest on the authority of the government who determines policies issues affecting the education and tourism sectors. From figure 4.1 therefore, it suffices to say that government is responsible for tourism's policy formulation, implementation and evaluation. This point also explains government's role in education tourism.

- **Objective 4:** To investigate factors influencing international students' preference for TUT.

This objective was realised in Chapter 6. Responses to research question 2 show that out of the nine factors examined, the following five factors were very influential to international students' preference for TUT: quality of education offered by TUT, availability of intended course of study, good educational support provided by TUT, lower tuition fees, and TUT being the only university that accepted an application (c.f. 6.2,3 and 6.2.4); these addressed objective four.

- **Objective 5:** To examine international student's perceptions about infrastructure in the COT.

This objective was realised in Chapter 6. According to Table 6.12, international students' perceptions of the infrastructure in the COT were rated above average. Of the eleven facilities examined, only one fell below the average mean score of 3.0 indicating that international students' perceptions of the examined infrastructure (services/facilities) are relatively positive.

- **Objective 6:** To examine international students' perceptions about infrastructure in TUT.

This objective was realised in Chapter 6. According to Table 6.13, out of the ten facilities examined, two recorded a below 3.0 average mean perception from international students. However, eight out of the ten facilities that comprise infrastructure examined were perceived above the average score.

- **Objective 7:** To collect recommendations from international students' perceptions of areas to improve for better living and studying experiences in the COT and TUT respectively.

This objective was also realised in Chapter 6. Table 6.15 shows the outcome of international students' recommendations for better experience in the COT and TUT respectively.

- **Objective 8:** To examine the perceptions of TUT's management regarding the presence of international students in TUT.

This objective was realised in Chapter 6, section 6.2.10, and question 2. As examined, the perceptions of the management of TUT management who were interviewed indicate that international students' presence is a source of revenue and it also means a stable cash flow for

TUT. Given that international students usually pay all their fees promptly and they do not owe, so long as TUT keeps having them, the presence of these students mean a guaranteed cash flow.

- **Objective 9:** To draw conclusions and make recommendations for managing international students' at TUT.

This objective was addressed in the present chapter. Herein, conclusions and recommendations on the management of international students at TUT will be discussed in the following sections: 7.3.2.1 to 7.3.2.8; 7.3.3 and 7.4. Next is a discussion on the contributions of this study to body of knowledge.

## 7.2 Contributions of this study to the body of knowledge in the field

This study has produced a framework that aims to manage the educational tourism niche better apart from the usual attraction of international students to the destination. With a sustainable framework in place, international students' presence can be better managed, and stakeholders' contributions and benefits can be well audited; thus improving stakeholders' willingness to be more involved in educational tourism (as mentioned under section 1.2). As a result, this study hopes to improve on the usual push and pull factors that have been a template for most of the studies on the educational tourism niche. In addition, this study hopes to be a point of reference for future research that will be conducted in this domain.

## 7.3 Conclusions

Conclusions are made from the various sources of information as follows:

- Conclusions from the literature chapters

- Conclusions from the empirical studies conducted with international students and the interviews with TUT staff.

### 7.3.1 Conclusions from the literature study

Conclusions are drawn from each of the three literature chapters in this order: conclusions on international students' profiling; conclusions on the impact of international students on their host destination; and conclusions on the role of government in educational tourism.

#### 7.3.1.1 Conclusions on international students' profiling

Of the two types of educational-related visitors, international students are described as those who are at the destination for primary purposes of studying. The duration of being outside their usual environment and the distance covered are among reasons that international students are regarded as visitors as depicted in fig 2.1. After a careful review of international students, the following conclusions are made:

- ✓ That international students are visitors who have expenditure impacts arising from their presence – a factor that was found to be responsible for increased economics activities at the destination (cf. 2.2).

- ✓ That in view of the above, international students via their engagement in both journeying and expenditures as described above, are also a major contributor to the growth of the tourism industry of the host country. They also attract additional revenue through related tourism activities carried out by family and friends (cf. 2.3).

- ✓ That the factors responsible for international students leaving their various countries of origin/residence are regarded as push factors whilst those attracting them to choice destinations are pull factors (cf. 2.4). It is vital for any country or destination hoping to attract and sustain the benefits from international students market to understand what, why and how the factors pushing international students out of their usual environment are addressed with appropriate pull factors. Finally, push factors are not limited to absence and or lack of adequate amenities in countries of origins/residences of international students; students from well-to-do backgrounds also have a desire to display affluence by either going with friends or simply going to expensive destinations.
- ✓ That all the sources through which international students gather information about potential study destination must continue to be used as the review indicates the variance with regard to preference for means of gathering information (cf. 2.6).
- ✓ That international students' expenditures are basically classified into educational (tuition) and non-educational (living) related expenditures. This study furthermore acknowledges that some of these expenditures are indisputably compulsory whilst others are optional as discussed under section 2.7.

- ✓ That international students are undeniably visitors with tourism potential in terms of visits to places of tourism inclination as expressed in Table 2.5.

#### 7.3.1.2 Conclusions on the impact of tourism on host community

Using the three (economics, environmental and socio-cultural) dimensions with which visitors' presence was found to impact on the host destination, the following conclusions are presented:

- ✓ Economically, the presence of international students would benefit the host community as follows:
  - It increases expenditure on tourism and tourism-related goods and services (cf. 3.2.1.1) as a result of the need to satisfy varying degrees of necessity.
  - It increases employment due to high demands for goods and services; subsequently resulting in a demand for an increase in personnel required for the goods and services industries around the community (cf. 3.2.2.2).
  - It increases the supply of labour due to an increase in the number of qualified people particularly due to the fact that international students can perform certain tasks for lower remuneration (cf. 3.2.2.4).
  - It increases the performance of local students in education as a result of their determination. This occurs when local students tend to step up their education and skills in order to be able to reclaim their positions in the labour market (cf. 3.2.2.3).
  - It increases investment in the following tourism sub-sectors: accommodation, transportation, and trade of goods and services that are required by international students (cf. 3.2.2.5; 3.2.2.9).
  - It increases destination awareness as a result of international students' visits to destinations as well as additional visits from their family and friends (cf. 3.2.2.8).
  - It helps with the development of infrastructure and facilities for the use of visitors, subsequently implying that locals in the community will use same infrastructure and facilities (cf. 3.2.2.10; 3.2.2.11).

- The development of infrastructure as mentioned above will also improve accessibility to attractions within the host community by international students and their ancillary visitors.
- It improves the destination's image for the host community, subsequently leading to profitable destination marketing as a result of all or most of the above listed benefits.
- It is hereby concluded that the presence of international students could lead to higher price of commodities, particularly accommodation in the host community (cf. 3.2.1.1 to 3.2.1.13).

✓ Environmental impacts likely to be recorded from international students' attendance on the host community appear extremely low (cf. 3.3.2 to 3.3.4). Considering the nature of international students' activities which are not likely going to take place at the same time and in the same place, the already mentioned environmental impact of international students entails: congestion of physical carrying capacity, air pollution and release of carbon gas due to increased activities of smokers and transportation. These were found to be very low and could be easily managed.

✓ This study further concludes that the following socio-cultural impacts are likely:

- Increased local participation in destination activities and community events (cf. 3.4.2)
- Strengthening of values and traditions (cf. 3.4.3)
- Exposing locals to new positive ideas and improved cross-cultural understanding (cf. 3.4.5; 3.4.7)
- Improvement of security in order to keep visitors safe, consequently leading to the protection of law-abiding local residents simultaneously (cf. 3.4.6).

- On a negative level, increased negative social vices as a result of imported cultures from the various international students (cf. 3.4.4).
- Increased crime either from locals who wish to take advantage of naivety of the visitors or by the visitors themselves (cf. 3.4.6).

#### 7.3.1.3 Conclusions on the roles that government must play in educational tourism

This section presents conclusions on the roles that government at all the three tiers (national, provincial and municipality government) must play, especially having considered that success in this niche lies in host country's ability to provide ample infrastructure in all spheres. Starting with the national government, this study concludes that:

- ✓ The Department of Higher Education and that of tourism are the main government agencies in charge of coordinating the affairs of educational tourism (cf. 4.3.1). Therefore, the national government must be involved in getting these two departments to articulate and come up with a robust design to manage educational tourism same way that other tourism niche markets such as sports, business, and culture to mention a few, are managed. The recommended framework (cf. figure 7.1) is significant in this regard.
- ✓ An internationally acceptable policy for the internationalisation of higher education in the country is urgently required in order to attain the deserving success in this niche (cf. 4.3.1). Such a policy would naturally consider appropriate policy instruments such as improved opportunities for internships, especially for those studying science, technology, engineering and maths (STEM). Regulated working hours, improved immigration opportunities for students and their families and more (see figures 4.1a – 4.1f) should also receive attention in the recruitment and management of international student as is the

case in comparable destinations. That is, educational tourism cannot be managed without a clear and well-articulated structure.

- ✓ Increased capacity of all public universities is more than ever required to accommodate more domestic students, leading to an increased opportunity for international students' intake (cf. 4.3.3).
- ✓ Government must support marketing to international education to support efforts by universities, given that universities have limited resources to do so (see Kwaramba, (2012:19)). This can be achieved in the same way that government is supporting other tourism niches. If not, one could well ask why a national document designed for attracting international visitors is relatively silent on international students and anything attached to this student market (see Strategic Plan 2015 – 2020). Perhaps, with government support in the marketing of educational tourism niche through a national document and the like, may increase the confidence that prospective international students and their families place on South Africa's ability to look after the students.
- ✓ Government should review the current internationalisation structure. This document is relatively regionalised (cf. 4.2.3) and lacks the potency to attract international students' outside the SADC region to an international friendly document.
- ✓ Government must consider a continuous review of policy on visa and study permit issues via extensive consultation with universities, internationals students' associations and other stakeholders for the purpose of including stakeholders opinion thus eliminating unnecessary stress and difficulties associated with the acquisition of study permits by current and potential international students as well as their friends and families (cf. 4.3.3).

Due to restrictions on how much the provincial government can be involved in policy and related national issues, this study concludes that the provincial government should:

- ✓ Develop more state-financed infrastructure that could enrich the social aspects of this tourism niche, as this will support national efforts and pull (attract) international students and ancillary visitors (cf. 3.2.2.11).
- ✓ Support the national government in the provision of security, especially in neighbourhoods, as this is important for visitors (international students) (cf. 3.4.6).
- ✓ Support the internationalisation of higher education by building state-owned universities with a view to increasing the chances of admitting more local students that may lead to more chances for international students to be admitted (cf. 4.3.3).
- ✓ Improve on educational infrastructural such as libraries, research centres and opportunities for international students to have internships at the provincial level; this effort will complement whatever the national government has in place in this regard. More so, this is part of the recommendations made by international students (cf. Table 6.15).
- ✓ Build social amenities to improve visitors' well-being; bearing in mind that the same amenities will be beneficial to national students and non-students alike. Again, the respondents made an appeal for improved amenities (cf. 6.15).

For the COT and similar government structures at the municipal level on how to contribute to the growth of educational tourism in the city, the following conclusions are made:

- ✓ The development and maintenance of infrastructure and facilities within the COT is needed. Infrastructure such as public toilets, hospitals, libraries, and consistent maintenance of environmental cleanliness and the like are required in pulling international students to a destination (cf. 2.5).
- ✓ The COT must engage in a sensitisation programme that will encourage people living in the host community to accommodate and accept international students and other visitors (ancillary) in their midst (cf. 3.4.3). Doing this will help reduce possible misunderstandings that may lead to host and visitor hostility (cf. 3.4.8).

### 7.3.2 Conclusions to empirical study (international students' interview)

Apart from conclusions and suggestions that have been made during the presentation of each variable in the previous chapter, this section provides a comprehensive discussion of conclusions drawn from the empirical study. The first of the conclusions from the sections of the questionnaire are as follows: section A (demographic characteristics of respondents); section B (respondents' expenditure at the destination); section C (pre-arrival expectations); section D (respondents' activities at the destination); section E (assessment of facilities and services at the destination) and section F (assessment of loyalty and post-arrival views). These are the descriptive aspects of the data analysis. The second phase includes conclusions drawn from the research questions, hypotheses and factor analyses.

#### 7.3.2.1 Conclusions on demographic characteristics of respondents

With regard to demographic characteristics of respondents as examined by this study, it is concluded that:

- ✓ Most international students are youthful, typically 24 years and younger (cf. Table 6.1). Students within this age group are regarded as adventurous and fun-seeking. Therefore, youth-friendly tourism services should be introduced to them.
- ✓ In conjunction with the above, the majority of the respondents are single, and this is an indicator regarding what should be introduced to them. Special products and services should be made available to them on the basis of their willingness to explore and try something new, as mentioned in the literature chapter (cf. 2.7; Table 2.5; 3.4.2).
- ✓ Extensive destination marketing of the COT and TUT should be embarked on in order to attract more students from non-SADC countries. Although the outcome of the present study was quite different from previous studies in that there are respondents from Asia, Europe and South America, TUT needs to intensify its marketing policy to increase interest and arrival from North Africa and beyond. The COT must work with the University in its efforts to increase visitors' arrivals to the city.
- ✓ The COT must come up with a plan to assist in better opportunities for internships. This is important in view of the significant role that internships play in the delivery of quality education which is an important factor that pulls students (cf. 2.5; Table 2.4).
- ✓ TUT must develop a plan that will attract more government-sponsored students from sending countries with high representation, and countries willing to double what local students are paying in order to provide improve cash flow for TUT. As observed, about 10% of the respondents' fees are paid by governments from their home countries; this is

encouraging. However, it must be sustained and improved (cf. Table 6.4). This also explains why some countries have a preference for the countries they target (cf. Table 4.1a-f).

- ✓ TUT must improve on partnerships between TUT and foreign universities in order to increase the chances of attracting more international students by disseminating information about TUT to universities in the respondents countries. Attracting only two respondents (cf. Table 6.6) through university partnerships is a cause of concern.

#### 7.3.2.2 Conclusions on respondents' expenditure at the destination

The findings reveal that respondents are active in terms of both academic and non-academic expenditure, as expected. This aligns with information gathered in the literature that international students presence increases expenditures at their destination (cf. 2.7; 3.2.2.1). For instance, Table 6.5 depicts the volume of expenditure on both academic and non-academic activities. This table shows that the source of funding for academic expenditure is stable and reliable when one considers the number of international students that are receiving funding via scholarships. However, there is no limit to expenditure benefits that a destination can derive from visitors' expenditure and thus, it is concluded that:

- ✓ International students must be enticed to engage sufficiently in tourism activities as well as other expenditures relating to activities within the COT. The present activities as depicted in Table 6.10 should be improved to a level where respondents can engage in more entertainment activities and visits to tourism sites.

#### 7.3.2.3 Conclusions on pre-arrival expectations

Having examined the outcome of respondents' perceptions on pre-arrival expectations of the respondents, the following conclusions are made:

- ✓ Given that international students usually consider what is available at both the host city and host institution in the process of making their decision (cf. 2.4; 2.5), their expectation must be adequately matched with appropriate infrastructure as outlined in the literature (cf. 2.1).
- ✓ Responses from respondents on factors influential to their decision to choose the host country/city and TUT (cf. Tables 6.7 and 6.7) do not render other items less significant. In fact, the host city and university should seriously consider all factors related to pre-arrival expectations (cf. 2.4; 2.5).

#### 7.3.2.4 Conclusions on respondents' activities at the destination

Given that the present study reported that a number activities are pursued out by the respondents is a testimony to all that have been said about international students' potential to boost tourism and non-tourism activities at the destination (cf. 2.3; 2.7). However, the conclusion here is:

- ✓ Improvements are required in terms of the volume and types of activities engaged in by respondents from this study. The COT needs to design a means to encourage more involvement in activities. A recommendation will be provided to support the realisation of this conclusion.

#### 7.3.2.5 Conclusions on respondents' assessment of facilities and services at the destination

These conclusion consider the COT as the destination and TUT as the institution. Therefore, the following conclusions are made:

- ✓ An information desk should be introduced to supply information and awareness about infrastructure, services and how these can be accessed. For instance, this study observed that none of the respondents move around within the COT via rail (cf. Table 6.9). Therefore information dissemination to international students needs to be improved in this regard, this will see them making use of some of the unused resources that are scattered across the COT.
- ✓ TUT should improve the maintenance of old infrastructure and develop new ones in order to attract a more improve ratings and perceptions of infrastructure and services. The maintenance of old and the development of new infrastructure are very important given that their absence lead to students exodus from their countries (cf. 2.3) and their role in attracting students (cf. 2.4). For instance, more than 60 percent of the respondents will not recommend the COT unless some improvements on infrastructure are carried out; the same applies to TUT (cf. Table 6.14).

#### 7.3.2.6 Conclusions on respondents' loyalty and post-arrival views

Given the likelihood that a good post-arrival perception could be interpreted as a step for the COT and TUT to becoming internationally preferred destination, this study concludes that:

- ✓ Information being passed to prospective international students must be accurate and must contain promises that can be fulfilled (cf. 2.6). Especially because information dissemination from current to prospective international students had been identified as

vital to how international students hear about study destinations, the COT and TUT should not over-promise the visitors. Over promising would lead to poor service quality and subsequently poor loyalty and willingness to recommend the COT and TUT.

#### 7.3.2.7 Conclusions regarding the outcome of the hypotheses

Given the diversity of the demographic characteristics of international students, it is important to consider how this might influence their preference for or against service, infrastructure availability and the like. And, as part of understanding visitors' needs, in order to be able to appropriately cater for these needs, it is important to make recommendations on areas where demographic characteristics may influence the outcome:

- ✓ Although this study found no significant statistical difference regarding safety as a factor influencing respondents to SA on the basis of gender, the same might not be said of prospective students who have not been to South Africa. This study recommends that TUT should conduct studies on the perceptions of prospective international students about studying in South Africa with a focus on safety in the COT. This is important in view of the frequent attacks on foreign nationals (3.4.8). Such studies will help to establish how much damage attacks on international visitors may have had on the country's image, especially from study-related visitor perspectives.
- ✓ That undergraduate and postgraduate international students desire opportunities to migrate elsewhere means that the immigration policy of South Africa must be robust enough to compete with what is available in other study destinations as described in Chapter four (cf. Table 4.1a-f), especially since the desire to migrate has been identified

as a factor pulling international students to a destination (cf. 2.5). More so, leading countries are known for their flexible immigration policies (cf. 4.3.1).

#### 7.3.2.8 Conclusions and recommendations regarding the factor exploratory analysis

Regarding the factor exploratory analysis, this study acknowledges the significance of all the factors examined either as pre- or actual experience about the destination. This is because these factors are highlighted in numerous studies that had been conducted on international students affairs globally (cf. 2.4; 2.5). And, of course, it was found that there were patterned relationship between all these factors (items 20 to 36 and 54 to 74). However, the conclusion is, that all the themes under which the factor exploratory analysis reduced data in this study, including accessibility attributes; socio-cultural attributes; financial support and incentives; quality of life attributes; tourism elements and receptiveness attributes (cf. 6.6) are salient and should at all times be considered in the efficient management of international features and other destination attributes that encourage accessibility to the host city. These should be taken into account together with other factors linked to international students' needs (cf. Tables 4.1a-f).

The recommendation is that the following factors that have been identified as being significant in the model on the basis of pull factors at the destination: availability of better infrastructure, South Africans are peace-loving people, lower tuition fees, scholarships offered by TUT, and, TUT is the only university that accepted students' application are vital must be included in the recommended model (cf. figure 7.1). In short, *all* the factors examined have been reported to be important in pulling international students to similar countries (cf. 2.5)

### 7.3.3 Conclusions on empirical study (selected TUT staff interview)

Given that this interview was conducted with people whose job descriptions concerns international students, their perceptions can be regarded as very useful due to their understanding of how things are done within and elsewhere. It is therefore concluded that the outcomes of the interview as reported in section 6.2.10 should be considered for implementation, especially those suggestions pertaining to areas that can be improved to enhance international students' well-being (cf. 6.3, research question 7). In other words, the present study recommends that:

- ✓ A plan to improve on accommodation facilities should be initiated; especially as both the international students and TUT staff have strongly recommend that accommodation issues need to be improved (cf. Table 6.15).

## 7.4 Recommendations of this study

This study made the following recommendations: (i) a sustainable tourism framework for managing international students at TUT was developed for this study (see figure 7.1); (ii) recommendations from primary and secondary sources should be taken into consideration, and (iii) recommendations for further study should be heeded.

### 7.4.1 A sustainable tourism framework for managing international students at Tshwane University of Technology

Figure 7.1 provides an illustration of a sustainable tourism framework recommended for managing international students at TUT.

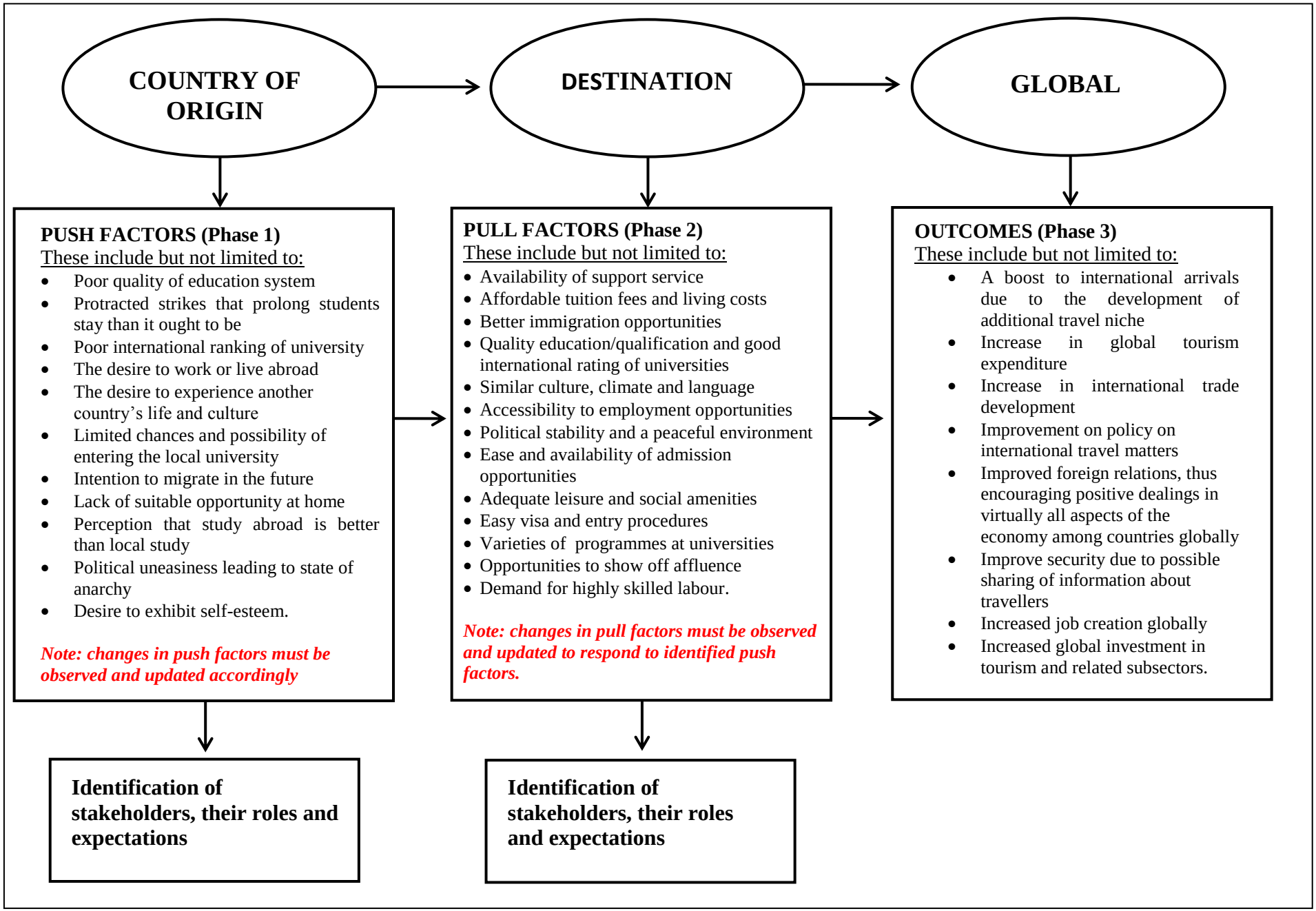


**Figure 7.1: A sustainable tourism framework for managing international students at Tshwane University of Technology**

This sustainable tourism framework recommended for the management of international students in the COT (figure 7.1) revolves around three phases. Phase I concerns the push factors and stakeholders contribution within. Phase II entails the pull factors and stakeholders' roles in these. Finally, Phase III, concerns the results/outcomes of the outcomes that are expected when phase I and phase II combine effectively. This recommended framework is comprehensive in the sense that it depicts and provides explanations of stakeholders and their roles, factors to consider in the phases, and expectations of the stakeholders from this union. Next is the discussion about the framework.

**Phase I**

This phase starts at international students' home countries (origin or residential). The starting point in this phase is the identification of possible factors influential to international students' decisions to leave their home countries (push factors), since these determine how to prepare for the appropriate pull factors. Given that there are variances in the demographic characteristics of international students and these may affect their preferences and motives for a particular matter as previously mentioned (see Li and Bray, 2007:798; Chen, 2007:79; Bodycott, 2009:351), and (cf. 2.6), this may influence factors pushing international students out of their countries. Therefore, push factors include but are not limited to the following:

**Identification of push factors**

- Poor quality of education system
- Protracted strikes that prolong students stay than it ought to be
- Poor international ranking of university
- The desire to work or live abroad

- The desire to experience another country's life and culture
- Limited chances and possibility of entering the local university
- Intention to migrate in the future
- Lack of suitable opportunity at home
- Perception that study abroad is better than local study
- Political uneasiness leading to state of anarchy
- Desire to exhibit self-esteem.

Given that there are stakeholders that should address the above-mentioned amenities/facilities/services; this verifies that stakeholders' involvement in tourism is important (cf. 1.2 and 4.2). Therefore, provision of and, the inability/inadequacy to provide these amenities and services means a particular stakeholder is doing or not doing his part. To identify who does what and how, a discussion of stakeholders' responsible in phase I of the framework follows below.

**Stakeholders' identification**: Four stakeholders that have been established for phase 1 (the push factors) in this study are:

i. **Parents/guardians**: The parents/guardians of potential international students are major sponsors of international students, as previously observed (cf. Table 6.4).

ii. **Potential international students**: Potential international students themselves may be sponsoring their educational expenses. Aside from this, they are the ones that eventually migrate from their countries of origin to the destination and subsequently go through the rigour of studying at the destination.

iii. **Governments**: Government (national, provincial and municipality) in the home countries are supposed to provide an enabling environment (cf.4.1; 4.2). Government's role also includes sponsoring international students' education via scholarship provision from the home countries (cf. Table 6.7).

iv. **Employers of potential international students**: Employers of potential international students from foreign countries have also been identified. Their roles as demonstrated in the previous chapter involve sponsorships and scholarships (cf. Table 6.4).

**Phase II**

While push factors emanate from originating countries, the pull factors are available at destination countries. Pull factors can be summarised as the availability/adequacy of the direct opposite of those push factors (cf. 2.5). Therefore, after the establishment of the pull factors one should consider push factors (cf. Table 2.4).

**Identification of pull factors**

- Availability of support for international students via scholarships and other aids
- Affordable tuition fees and living costs
- Better immigration opportunities
- Quality education/qualification and good international rating of universities
- Similar culture, climate and language
- Accessibility to employment opportunities
- Better academic support services

- Political stability and a peaceful environment
- Ease and availability of admission opportunities
- Adequate leisure and social amenities
- Easy visa and entry procedures
- Varieties of programmes at universities
- Opportunities to show off affluence (self-esteem)
- Request for highly skilled labour,

After the identification of the push factors as set out above, the next step is to identify the stakeholders, their roles and expectations. Given the outcome of the overview of stakeholders' involvement in educational tourism at the destination (cf. 1.2), the following stakeholders are very important to the success in phase II of this model.

**Stakeholders' identification**: Four stakeholders that can be identified for phase II (pull factors) are:

i. Governments
ii. Host universities
iii. The host community (as a place and as residents residing therein), and,
iv. International students.

Next follows a discussion of the roles and expectations of the above-mentioned stakeholders from the destination's point of view which is the main focus of this study.

**Governments (the COT municipality in particular)**

In tourism, government's roles include the planning, coordination, regulation, legislation, stimulation and promote tourism (cf. 4.1). Government at all levels also provides infrastructure and amenities needed for an improved experience at the destination as discussed in chapter 4 (cf. 4.1 and 4.2). As for this tourism niche, especially where the host university is a public university, government must support the development of new facilities and upgrade old ones at both the macro (the host city) and micro (within the university) environments. Most of the pull factors contained in the model pertain to the provision of infrastructure aimed at enhancing educational activities and the promotion of non-educational activities. Government provides social amenities, supports and promotes international education through strong marketing networks; it pioneers and monitors stakeholders' compliance with policy for the recruitment and retention of international students as practiced in other countries (cf. 4.3.1); and coordinates and regulates visa and related immigration matters. Government should support education financially by making available bursaries and scholarships such as those offered by the National Research Foundation (NRF). Finally, government provides security and guarantees safety of lives of properties of local and foreign investors who collaborate with the government in providing the necessary facilities.

Regarding the roles highlighted above, expectations at each of the three arms of governments include: an increase in revenue generation from educational tourism activities; availability of skilled personnel (particularly in scarce disciplines such as Sciences, Technology, Engineering and Math) (STEM); a robust bi-lateral relationship with various countries of international students; improved publicity and image branding of the destination at the macro level, increased

visitors arrival (that translates to many economic gains if well utilised); improved educational and social infrastructure for local citizens, employment generation, foreign and local investment boost, and developing the educational sector which translates into adequate intellectual development of local students.

**Host universities**

The host university has the following important roles: ensuring quality education as well as availability of vibrant programmes leading to international students' realising their desire to acquire quality education, more bursaries to cushion the financial burden and to reward exceptional students (a fact that has been corroborated in previous chapter – cf. 6.2.2); providing educational support such as short courses to encourage language proficiency for students from non-English speaking countries; providing supports by internships; providing accommodation and or assisting in securing reliable, affordable hostels upon request; providing assistance for international students to settle down and cope with culture-related issues; guaranteeing their safety; offering special programmes that will ensure international students' smooth integration with their new environment; creating a platform for uniting students from the same countries; and partnerships with local and foreign institutions and companies for improved learning and research experiences, amongst other things.

In view of the above, the following are potential expectations of the host university as a stakeholder: an increase in research outputs; international recognition and improved university ranking; increased revenue generation and steady revenue; improved international partnerships with foreign universities; improved infrastructure via government funding as well as partnerships

with foreign organisations; an increase in government funding and support; and improving facilities, among others.

**Host community**

The host community is a relevant stakeholder whose cooperation in terms of accommodating international students in their community is required for quality educational and leisure experience. The community as both a place (attraction) and as a people, must play the following roles: supporting the establishment of the university campuses within their community; accommodating the visitors, providing services in terms of productions/sales of goods and services, engaging with visitors in their day-to-day business, providing assistance; supporting international students in understanding of local culture, tradition and values; and allowing and encouraging the integration of visitors into the community and vice-versa.

With regard to expectations, the host community often expects the presence of visitors to translate into: job creation, improved income and standard of living; a direct invitation to participate in local events and special celebrations; opportunities to learn foreign cultures and exhibiting aspects of the local culture to visitors; international recognition for their community, the development of new infrastructure and repair of existing ones for the community and its people (support from the government is needed here to enhance visitors' experience); and the possible motivation for local students to improve on their academic performance.

**International students**

Some of the roles of international students include bringing economic gains via payment for educational and non-educational needs; filling research gaps left by local students in key research areas such as engineering, sciences, technology, math; and increasing manpower availability. On the other hand, international students' expectations at destinations may include but are not limited to: getting quality goods and services paid for; educational support both in cash and in kind for the realisation of their educational aspirations; a worthwhile experience in all the areas of factors that push them in the first place as well as fulfilment of promises made by destination regarding pull factors exhibited, advertised or in any way they might have been portrayed to be available.

**Phase III**

This is where the steps in phases I and II are anticipated to deliver on the desirable outcomes. That is, phase III is a product of integration between phases I and II. Phase III brings to light the efficiency of being able to combine push factors with corresponding pull factors aimed at satisfying stakeholders' expectations. Therefore, phase III emphasises the outcomes as beneficial to each of the stakeholders' and their expectations regarding contributions they have made in both phases 1 and II. This is the case because service industries (such as the education and tourism sector) must be able to match expectations with the appropriate delivery of services. This goes a long way to render acceptable services that meet expectations. In light of the above, this phase is based on the assumption that input made in phase I together with steps taken in phase II are efficient, thus leading to the anticipated outcomes in the following places: (i) country of origin; (ii) destination and (iii) global. These anticipated outcomes will be discussed next.

**Country of origin**

The outcomes below concern all stakeholders earlier mentioned from the country of origin's perspectives as follow:

**(i)** **Parents/guardians**: International students are likely to take up employment with good remuneration leading to opportunities to enhance their family's chances of getting out of financial difficulties. Furthermore, it may lead to the actualisation of their desire for special job opportunities which pushed them out of their home countries in the first instance, and consequently they may hope for higher paying job opportunity back home. It also results in fulfilment of family aspirations and reasons for sending their students to other countries. Expectations include: prompt completion of academic programme, actualisation of desired qualifications, fulfilment of self-esteem and desire to exhibit affluence; better opportunities for the family to migrate to choice destinations across the world, and many more.

**(ii)** **Governments**: The home coming of graduating international students may signify the beginning of a new dawn for their countries because countries of origin in such cases witness the arrival of skilled, intellectual and highly productive labour which may be the needed tool for helping country of origin grow from either a state of underdevelopment to developing and or more developed. This will be a direct response for countries whose government had sponsored students to a foreign destination for the purposes of acquiring skilled knowledge and for possible repatriation of such knowledge back home. Also, in cases where government is the employer and sponsor of international students as observed in this study, the above

outcomes also apply. After completing their various programmes, these international students who also doubled as government employees in variety of government parastatals go home to contribute to nation-building in their various professional capacities.

**(iii)** **Other employers:** In what is similar to benefits that accrue to governments, other employers who are in one way or another responsible for sponsoring international students' education abroad will also be rewarded with improved and highly skilled staff who will partake in realising organisational goals. Next is a discussion on how the outcome phase affects the destination.

**Destination**

The destination refers to the outcomes of all stakeholders who had contributed to the pull factors within the host country as highlighted under phase II. These are the foreseeable outcomes:

**(i)** **Governments:** At this stage, governments at are likely going to benefit in terms of: increase in visitor arrivals (subsequently leading to increased revenue generation from tourism); availability of skilled personnel; improved international standard on immigration policy; destination marketing (which leads to international recognition for destination and attractions within); improved trade collaboration with the host country and the rest of the world; and greater availability of skilled workers across the globe.

**(ii)** **Host university:** In most cases, international students are known for their ability to enrol for programmes and courses that elude local students. This gives most universities the opportunities to have a higher rate of research outputs – which increases their global rating. Universities also receive improved international recognition by recording more alumni globally. A public university that is able to graduate and enrol more foreign students has the chance of attracting increased funding locally and internationally. Finally, more support from government – especially in infrastructure development for the university – can be expected.

**(iii)** **Host community:** This refers to the place and the people in it close to the university campus and hostels that house international students. Therefore, host communities can benefit through job creation for its local residents as a result of the need to provide goods and services to the larger population within; this ultimately translates to improved economic well-being, especially for those with businesses that attract international students' patronage. Other outcomes that are likely in this regard are: automatic invitation to local festivals and events; exhibition of local cultures and heritage; cross-international marriages; international recognition for the community consequently pulling more visitors to attractions within; and the development of local amenities (which is likely, especially as government would naturally want to develop visitors' residential/recreational areas).

**(iv) International students:** Among the outcomes that are likely for international students as stakeholders at the global level are: international qualifications, improved immigration opportunities, fulfilment of international students' desires to experience a different culture; obtaining foreign degrees; and being able to secure international employment.

**Global**

Given the global migration of people for purposes knowledge-seeking and employment opportunities, the door is open for anyone with a quality education to work anywhere in the world. This means more movement across the world for both knowledge-seeking and employment purposes. Below are some globally anticipated benefits from effective management of international students' presence in any destination:

- A boost to international arrivals due to the development of additional travel niche
- Increase in global tourism expenditure
- Increase in international trade development
- Improvement on policy on international travel matters
- Improved foreign relations, thus encouraging positive dealings in virtually all aspects of the economy among countries globally
- Improve security due to possible sharing of information about travellers
- Increased job creation globally
- Increased global investment in tourism and related subsectors.

### 7.4.2 General recommendations

As a recap of, and to add to the various recommendations already made, the following recommendations are presented for the COT and TUT respectively:

**Recommendations for the COT**

As a government, the COT needs to draft a policy to explain and highlight how it will support this tourism niche. Some of the areas the COT needs to consider include:

- ✓ Supporting the national government efforts to improve security around the COT and to provide educational support infrastructure as recommended by the students (cf. Table 6.15). The city can also provide financial aid for exceptional students. This can be named after the COT; such initiatives will go a long way in image publicity and global appreciation from eventual beneficiaries and their families.
- ✓ Support TUT in building more residences around strategic locations in order to expose respondents and those visiting them to new places within the COT subsequently spreading students' expenditure across the city. Aside from the importance of accommodation and appropriately catering for international students (cf. 2.7), the interviews with international students and TUT staff both indicated there is a need to do something tangible to improve students' accommodation in TUT (cf. Table 6.15; 6.2.10, question 6).

**Recommendations for TUT**

As mentioned in this chapter, TUT being the host university is an important stakeholder with enormous responsibility towards international students in all TUT Pretoria campuses. It is

hereby recommended that TUT should develop a clear policy to attract and manage international students. The proposed policy should consider the followings:

- ✓ Equip the international office to be able to appropriately deal with international students' complaints, and offer excellent educational support service such as: information dissemination, orientation, help desk, platform to interact fellow international students, and numerous roles it is meant to be providing (cf. Table 6.15). Also, infrastructure at the various TUT campus be improved and accommodation for international students need urgent attention (cf. Table 6.15).
- ✓ Align international students' attraction along with infrastructure upgrade and compliance with national regulation. This will be in line with actions of leading countries (cf. 4.3.1).
- ✓ Attracting international students from countries other than SADC region. This can be achieved with infrastructure and being identified with the right partner (cf. Tables 4.1a-f). Doing so will position TUT as a leading international university that is recognised beyond the SADC region, and beyond the continent of Africa.
- ✓ TUT should introduce short courses to improve English language proficiency, especially for non-English speaking international students. As observed during the field exercise, most respondents in this category struggle to communicate effectively. This point was raised by a significant 28.5% of respondents during this second interview (cf. 6.2.10).
- ✓ To consider supporting research studies from both the tourism and education domains. Such studies can investigate international students' acceptance of facilities in TUT on a time to time basis. This is necessary to gage whether international students' needs are met (cf. 2.1) and to establish how TUT can do better than whatever is available at all times.

### 7.4.3 Recommendations for further studies

Further research is recommended in the following areas:

- ✓ Perceptions of prospective international students about studying in South Africa: an investigation from selected countries. This will provide insight on how prospective international students feel about South Africa on safety and related issues of concerns.
- ✓ Residents' perceptions about international students' activities around university residential areas. Such a study will provide empirically-based information on the actual impact of international students on the host communities. This can be used to buttress future research in this direction.
- ✓ Perceptions of international students who have completed their education in South Africa. The outcomes from this type of study can be used to improve the internationalisation experience in South Africa.
- ✓ Attracting international students from outside SADC countries to Tshwane University of Technology. Realising this study will help TUT break into the global market and be able to attract more students from other continents, and increase the number that can be attracted from other African countries.
- ✓ An investigation of factors responsible for visitors' non-involvement in tourism activities in the COT. Such a study aims to address the shortfall observed in respondents' involvement in tourism activities in the COT (cf. 7.3.2.4).
- ✓ Measuring stakeholders' satisfaction regarding educational tourism at TUT. This study will provide a platform for stakeholders to independently voice their feelings, acknowledge satisfaction, and, be able to register their displeasure for a reviewed framework on a time to time basis.

# ANNEXURE A

**A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM FRAMEWORK FOR MANAGING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AT TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY (RESPONDENTS SURVEY)**

**SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

1. What is your gender?

| | |
|---|---|
| Male | 1 |
| Female | 2 |

2. What is your age in years?

| | |
|---|---|
| Less/equal to 20 | 1 |
| 21 - 25 | 2 |
| 26 - 30 | 3 |
| 31 - 35 | 4 |
| 36 above | 5 |

3. What is your marital status?

| | |
|---|---|
| Single | 1 |
| Married | 2 |
| Engaged | 3 |
| Divorced | 4 |
| Widowed | 5 |
| Live together | 6 |
| Other: Specify | 7 |

4. What is your country of origin?

.....

5. Which TUT campus in the City of Tshwane are you at?

| | |
|---|---|
| Pretoria west | 1 |
| Arcadia | 2 |
| Soshanguve | 3 |
| Ga-Rankuwa | 4 |
| Du Toit (Arts Campus) | 5 |

6. What qualification are you studying for?

| | |
|---|---|
| National Diploma | 1 |
| B-Tech | 2 |
| M-Tech | 3 |
| D-Tech | 4 |
| Other: specify | 5 |

7. Which of these best describes the type of accommodation you are staying at?

| | |
|---|---|
| TUT student residence | 1 |
| Private owned rented flat/house | 2 |
| Parent owned house/flat | 3 |
| Sharing house/flat with friend(s) | 4 |
| Other: specify | 5 |

8. Who are you residing with?

| | |
|---|---|
| Husband | 1 |
| Wife | 2 |
| Family member | 3 |
| Friend(s) | 4 |
| Parent(s) | 5 |
| Living alone | 6 |
| Other: specify | 7 |

9. What is your employment status?

| | |
|---|---|
| Full time | 1 |
| Part time | 2 |
| Contract/casual appointment | 3 |
| Internship | 4 |
| Unemployed | 5 |
| Other: specify | 6 |

10. Who is paying your tuition fee?

| | |
|---|---|
| Myself | 1 |
| My parents | 2 |
| Government of my country/state | 3 |
| My employer in my country of origin | 4 |
| My employer in South Africa | 5 |
| My spouse | 6 |
| TUT | 7 |
| NRF | 8 |

11. Who is paying your living expenses?

| | |
|---|---|
| Myself | 1 |
| My parents | 2 |
| Government of my country/state | 3 |
| My employer in my country of origin | 4 |
| My employer in South Africa | 5 |
| My spouse | 6 |
| TUT bursary | 7 |
| NRF bursary | 8 |

12. Please indicate the amount available for you to spend yearly on tuition.

| | |
|---|---|
| Less/equal to R20,000 | 1 |
| R20,001 – R25,000 | 2 |
| R25,001 – R30,000 | 3 |
| R30,001 above | 4 |

Please indicate the amount available for you to spend monthly on each of the following:

(13) Accommodation?

| | |
|---|---|
| Less/equal to R1000 | 1 |
| R1001 – R2000 | 2 |
| R2001 – R3000 | 3 |
| R3001 above | 4 |

(14) Subsistence? (this includes groceries & toiletries)

| | |
|---|---|
| Less/equal to R1000 | 1 |
| R1001 – R2000 | 2 |
| R2001 – R3000 | 3 |
| R3001 above | 4 |

(15) Entertainment?

| | |
|---|---|
| Less/equal to R1000 | 1 |
| R1001 – R2000 | 2 |
| R2001 – R3000 | 3 |
| R3001 above | 4 |

(16) Transportation?

| | |
|---|---|
| Less/equal to R1000 | 1 |
| R1001 – R2000 | 2 |
| R2001 – R3000 | 3 |
| R3001 above | 4 |

## SECTION B: PRE-ARRIVAL EXPECTATION

17. Did you submit an application for admission to another South African university apart from TUT?

| | |
|---|---|
| Yes, before considering TUT as option | 1 |
| Yes, simultaneously with my application with TUT | 2 |
| Yes, after I had already applied with TUT | 3 |
| No, only TUT | 4 |

18. What is the duration of your studies?

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 – 2 year | 1 |
| 3 – 4 year | 2 |
| 5 – 6 year | 3 |
| 7 year above | 4 |
| Other: specify | 5 |

19. How did you hear about Tshwane University of Technology? (Please select only the option that is most responsible for your hearing about the TUT.

| | |
|---|---|
| Brochures | 1 |
| Family | 2 |
| Friends | 3 |
| Social media | 4 |
| Word of mouth | 5 |
| TUT website | 6 |
| University in home country | 7 |
| Other: specify | 8 |

| | Please rate the following pre-visit images of South Africa and their influence on your decision to come to South Africa. Please respond on a scale of 1 – 5 as labeled on the right side | Not at all influential | Not really influential | Neutral | Mildly influential | Absolutely influential |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20 | Proximity to my country of origin/residence | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 | Availability of adequate infrastructure for leisure and related activities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 | Internationally recognised universities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 | Better opportunity to migrate to choice destination | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | South Africans are peace loving people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 | The level of safety | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26 | Cultural diversity | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27 | Good weather | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | How influential are these factors to your selection of TUT. | Not at all influential | Not really influential | Neutral | Mildly influential | Absolutely influential |
| 28 | Quality of education offered by TUT | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29 | Lower tuition fees | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30 | affordable cost of living in the City of Tshwane | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31 | Scholarship by TUT | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32 | Bursary given to study only in TUT | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33 | Availability of my intended course of study | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34 | Quality of sporting facilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35 | TUT is the only university that accepted my application | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36 | Educational support offered by TUT | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

37. Do you intend to work in South Africa after your studies?

| | |
|---|---|
| Yes, by all means | 1 |
| Yes, only if the opportunity present itself | 2 |
| Not at all | 3 |

## SECTION C: STUDENTS' ACTIVITIES

38. Have you been visited by family member(s)/ friends since the commencement of your studies?

| | |
|---|---|
| Yes, only once | 1 |
| Yes, two to three times | 2 |
| Yes, four times and more | 3 |
| Not at all | 4 |

39. When your family visits, did they travel to other parts of South Africa?

| | |
|---|---|
| Yes, only once | 1 |
| Yes, two to three times | 2 |
| Yes, four times and more | 3 |
| Not at all | 4 |

40. What means of local transportation do you regularly move around with within the City of Tshwane?

| | |
|---|---|
| Own car | 1 |
| Tshwane Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) | 2 |
| Local taxis | 3 |
| Lift with family | 4 |
| Lift with friends | 5 |
| Metro rail | 6 |
| Motor bike | 7 |
| Bicycle | 8 |
| Other: specify | 9 |

| How often have you had to travel outside the City of Tshwane for the following reasons? Please respond on a scale of 1 – 5 as labeled on the right side | | Never in the last year | 1-2 times in the last year | 3-6 times in the last year | About once a month in the last year | More than once a month in the last year |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 41 | Shopping for personal needs such as: food, clothing and household items | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 42 | Entertainment such as: night clubbing, gambling, movies and participating in or viewing sporting activities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 43 | Attending social occasions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 44 | Exploring new tourism destinations/attractions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 45 | Accompanying family members or friends to places of their interest | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 46 | Visiting friends and relatives (VFR) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 47 | Work or job interviews | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 48 | Educational related purposes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 49 | Seeking medical attention | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| **How often do you engage in the following recreational activities within the City of Tshwane?** | | **Never** | **Scarcely** | **Not sure** | **Often** | **Frequently** |
| 50 | Visit to tourism attractions including sightseeing | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 51 | Participation in sporting events | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52 | Entertainment such as going to the movies, clubbing and gambling | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 53 | Shopping for personal needs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| **SECTION D: ASSESMENT OF FACILITIES IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE** Please indicate your experience of the following services in the City of Tshwane on a scale of 1 – 5 as labeled on the right side | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Do not agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 54. The City of Tshwane is clean | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 55. The City of Tshwane is attractive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 56. There are adequate recreational facilities for memorable experience in the City of Tshwane | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 57. The City of Tshwane offers quality night life for regular enjoyment | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 58. It is safe to move freely at all times in the City of Tshwane | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 59. The City of Tshwane offers attractions that meet international repute | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 60. The City of Tshwane provides quality local transport services | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 61. The City of Tshwane offers quality public health care services | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 62. There is a commendable Wi-Fi (wireless network) services in the City of Tshwane. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 63. The city of Tshwane boasts of quality educational facilities (such as; library, specialised laboratories and research centers) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 64. Cost of living in the City of Tshwane is affordable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| ASSESSMENT OF INFRASTRUCTURE AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN TUT<br>Please make your assessment of the following services about TUT on a scale of 1 – 5 as labeled on the right side | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Do not agree nor disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 65. TUT provides quality accommodation facilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 66. TUT provides good transport facilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 67. Lecturers in TUT are approachable | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 68. International students complaints are satisfactory handled | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 69. TUT campuses offer good Wi-Fi (wireless networks) services | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 70. There are adequate restaurant facilities to cater for students | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 71. TUT offers excellent sporting facilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 72. TUT surroundings are attractive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 73. TUT Provides quality health (clinic) services | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 74. TUT provides quality studying experience | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## SECTION E: LOYALTY / POST ARRIVAL

75. Will you recommend TUT to your family and friends as a university to study at?

| | |
|---|---|
| Yes, unconditionally | 1 |
| Yes, on conditions that a number of social amenities are improved upon | 2 |
| I won't say yes and, I won't say no | 3 |
| Not at all | 4 |

76. Will you recommend the City of Tshwane to your family and friends as a study destination?

| | |
|---|---|
| Yes, unconditionally | 1 |
| Yes, on conditions that a number of learning and social amenities are improved upon | 2 |
| I won't say yes and, I won't say no | 3 |
| Not at all | 4 |

77. Kindly make some recommendations for the City of Tshwane to improve your stay. You are allowed to select multiple options as applicable to you

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| I | Improve security presence that would guarantee 24hours movement anywhere | 1 |
| ii | Improve beautification of the surroundings | 2 |
| iii | Improve Wi-Fi (wireless networks) services | 3 |
| iv | Improve library and educational support facilities | 4 |
| v | Improve cleanliness | 5 |

78. Kindly make some recommendations for TUT to improve your learning experience? You are allowed to select multiple options as applicable to you.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| I | Improve transport infrastructure | 1 |
| ii | Improve social amenities such as restaurants and places for leisure | 2 |
| iii | Improve response to international students educational and non-educational complaints | 3 |
| iv | Provide more decent accommodation for international students within the campus environs | 4 |
| v | Improve the quality of teaching | 5 |
| vi | Improve library facilities | 6 |

**Thank you for your participation, your contribution is appreciated.**

# ANNEXURE B

**A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM FRAMEWORK FOR MANAGING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AT TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**

*Ref #: REC/2016/10/003*

**Interview Guide for Selected Staff Members of Tshwane University of Technology**

1. How would you describe the relationship between your job and international students?
2. What is your perception regarding statistics which states that TUT has more than 1500 registered international students as at February 2017?

   **Probes:** What do you think this means for TUT?
3. What is your perception on efforts aimed at increasing the number of international students in TUT?

   **Probes:** How do you think increase intake of international students will affect TUT?
4. How do you think an increase in the intake of international students would affect TUT?

5. Do you think it is necessary to improve on issues that could enhance international students' general well-being at TUT?
6. Suggest five areas you think international students' general well-being can be improved.
7. What is your opinion about international students bringing financial benefits for TUT?

In case more information is required, can I contact you?

# ANNEXURE C

Tshwane University of Technology
*We empower people*

**Directorate Research and Innovation**

To Whom It May Concern

This letter serves to certify that I reviewed Mr. Adediran Olabanji's questionnaire for his D-Tech study in Tourism. It is noted that all the variables to be used in the study are categorical in nature and hence only statistical techniques applicable to categorical data will be used for analysis. As such frequencies and percentages will be used to summarize the data and relationships between variables of interest will be assessed using the Pearson's Chi-Square Test. Cronbach's alpha will be used as a measure of internal consistency.

I believe that the data collected through the questionnaire in question will be adequate to respond to the research objectives, particularly objective 4 in the research proposal.

I trust that you will find this in order.

Regards,
P.L. Ramokolo
Assistant Statistical Analyst

# ANNEXURE D

Tshwane University of Technology
*We empower people*

## Research Ethics Committee

*The TUT Research Ethics Committee is a registered Institutional Review Board (IRB 00005968) with the US Office for Human Research Protections (IORG# 0004997) (Expires 9 Jan 2017). Also, it has Federal Wide Assurance for the Protection of Human Subjects for International Institutions (FWA 00011501) (Expires 22 Jan 2019). In South Africa it is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council (REC-160509-21).*

November 28, 2016

Ref #: REC/2016/10/003
Name: Adediran OJ
Student #: 211019557
FCRE Ref: FREC2015/FR/07/011-MS (2)

Mr OJ Adediran
C/o Prof WJL Coetzee
Department of Tourism Management
Faculty of Management Sciences

Dear Mr Adediran,

**Decision: Final Approval with a Comment**

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**Name**: Adediran OJ
**Project title**: *A sustainable tourism framework for managing international students at Tshwane University of Technology*
**Qualification**: D Tech Organisational Leadership
**Supervisor:** Prof WJL Coetzee, University of Otago, New Zealand
**Co-Supervisor:** Dr P Acha-Anyi

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Thank you for submitting the revised and outstanding project documents for ethics clearance by the Research Ethics Committee (REC), Tshwane University of Technology (TUT). In reviewing the documents, the comments and notes below are tabled for your consideration, attention and/or notification:

- **Proposal**
  - **Ethics (Section 8).** The REC took note that the Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) will be the only research site in this study.
  - **Time Schedule (Section 9).** The REC took note of the revised research time schedule. Also, the REC took note that the data collection phase has not yet commenced.

- **Information Leaflet and Informed Consent – Student Questionnaire Phase**

  - All the revisions are in order and duly noted.

- **Survey Questionnaire - Students**

  - **Section B, Item 17.** The revised Likert scale response options are in order and duly noted.
  - **Section B, Item 23.** The revised response options are in order and duly noted.
  - **Section B, Item 50, Statement iii.** The revised statement is in order and duly noted.

- **Information Leaflet and Informed Consent – Interview Phase**

  - **Informed Consent.** The content of the Information Leaflet is in order and duly noted. However, note that signed consent is required for the *Interview* phase with university staff members; implied consent is only applicable to anonymous survey questionnaires. As such, the Consent section should make provision for signed consent by the interviewees.

- **Interview Guide**

  - The Interview Guide is in order and duly noted.

The Chairperson of the Research Ethics Committee, Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), reviewed the revised project documents on November 28, 2016. **Final Approval with a Comment** is granted to the project.

The proposed research project may now continue with the proviso that:

1) The researcher/s will conduct the study according to the procedures and methods indicated in the approved proposal, particularly in terms of any undertakings and/or assurances made regarding the confidentiality of the collected data.

2) The proposal will again be submitted to the Committee for prospective ethical clearance if there are any substantial changes from the approved proposal.

3) The researcher/s will act within the parameters of any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Strict adherence to the following South African legislation, where applicable, is especially important: Protection of Personal Information Act (Act 4 of 2013), Children's Act (Act 38 of 2005) and the National Health Act (Act 61 of 2003).

4) The current ethics approval expiry date for this project is **December 31, 2018**. No research activities may continue after the ethics approval expiry date. Submission of a duly completed Research Ethics Progress Report (available at: http://www.tut.ac.za/Other/rninew/ResearchEthicsCommittees/Pages/default.aspx) will constitute an application for renewal of REC ethics approval.

*Note:*

*The reference number [top right corner of this communiqué] should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants.*

Yours sincerely,

WA HOFFMANN (Prof)
Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee
[Ref#2016=10=003=AdediranOJ]

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