This literature review on equity in African tertiary education has been produced as a background note for the overall World Bank “Equity of access and success in tertiary education” study.
Background and Rationale

Tertiary education is a key factor in a nation’s effort to develop a highly skilled workforce for competing in the global economy. There are important private and public benefits to participating in tertiary education. Higher salaries, better employment opportunities, increased savings, and upward mobility are some of the private economic benefits obtained by taking part in tertiary education. A tertiary education graduate also obtains non-economic benefits including, a better quality of life, improved health, and greater opportunities for the future.

Given the extensive social and private benefits that result from tertiary education, access and inclusion are essential for achieving social justice and ensuring the realization of the full potential of all young people. First, in the interest of fairness, every individual must be given an equal chance to partake in tertiary education and its benefits irrespective of income and other social characteristics including gender, ethnicity, and language. Second, there is a strong efficiency argument in favor of equity promotion. A talented but low-income student who is denied entry into tertiary education represents a loss of human capital for society. The lack of opportunities for access and success in tertiary education will lead to under- or un-developed human resources.

Vertical and horizontal dimensions of equity are equally deserving of further analysis, particularly as these issues impact different systems depending on their level of educational development. The vertical dimension follows the experience of students through the various stages of their tertiary education career, from enrollment to degree completion. This is the most obvious dimension of an expansionary system, and the most studied one, though retention and completion garner less attention than the admission stage. The horizontal dimension becomes more significant as systems expand into a large range of different institutions, often extending academic ‘tracking’ from secondary education into tertiary. This ‘tracking’ or ‘streaming’ of students becomes an increasingly powerful tool of inequity, as equity concern encompass not simply how many students attend tertiary education, but what kind of institution they attend and what labor market opportunities various degrees then offer to graduates.

Gender inequality in tertiary education also persists in many parts of the developing world, particularly in the countries of the Middle East, sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. Even in the few countries where gender parity has been achieved in tertiary education, “gender streaming” of women toward specific types of non-university institutions and/or toward specific disciplines leading to low-paying occupations can be observed. Female over-representation persists in teaching institutes, nursing schools, and secretarial schools. Women are commonly over-represented in the humanities, while yet most often underrepresented in subject areas such as agriculture, medicine, business, science and engineering programs. Women are also underrepresented in leadership roles in tertiary education institutions.

There are both non-monetary and monetary barriers to entry into tertiary education. Academic ability, information access, motivation, inflexibility of university admission processes, and family environment and others forms of cultural capital are some of the
non-monetary reasons that have been recognized as important factors in explaining poor participation of low-income individuals in tertiary education. There are also three monetary barriers to tertiary education: the cost-benefit barrier, the cash-constraint or liquidity barrier and the internalized liquidity constraint or the debt aversion barrier. The cost-benefit barrier occurs when an individual decides that the costs of attending university (including tuition and living expenses as well as opportunity costs of not working during the duration of the course) outweigh the returns to their education. Liquidity barriers refer to a student’s inability to gather the necessary resources to pursue tertiary education after having decided that the benefits do outweigh the costs. And, the debt aversion constraint occurs when a student values the benefits of tertiary education to its costs, can borrow to access to sufficient financial resources, but, regardless of these factors, chooses not to matriculate because the financial resources available to him/her include loans. All three of these monetary barriers are contributing to rising inequity in tertiary education participation.

**Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of this review of the literature are to document the significance and consequences of disparities in tertiary education opportunities, to investigate the results and lessons of efforts to expand access to tertiary education and improve the chances of success for under-privileged youths, and to offer concrete recommendations for effective policies directed toward the ideals of widening participation. The emphasis will be on gauging the scope of inequities in accessing and completing tertiary education in the Africa (AFR) region, understanding the determinants of inequities, and analyzing the effectiveness of equity promotion policies pursued in the region, both non-monetary and financial. An important aspect of this work is to help focus subsequent research on the wide range of issues—some national in focus, others subject specific—that will refine the findings of this study as specifically as possible.

**Key Terms:**

- **Investment** (returns to investment in education);
- **capital** (human, social, cultural, knowledge);
- **educational financing** (student loans, student borrowing, self-);
- **equity** (economic, social, cultural, power, gender, racial/ethnic, linguistic);
- **financing** (micro, macro);
- **poverty reduction**;
- **justice** (economic, global, social);
- **inclusive**, and,
- **broadening participation** (also, **widening participation**).
LITERATURE REVIEW ON EQUITY AND ACCESS TO TERTIARY EDUCATION IN THE AFRICA REGION

Introduction

Equity and access are much contested terms due to the varied conceptual perceptions that often see the other as insufficiently describing the observed or experienced situation. While a hyperbolic statement, it would be provocatively sane (my term) to toss the assertion that there are as many perceptions of equity and of access as there are schools of thought. One thing that the literature lacks is a thorough conceptual framework of the use of these terms in individual articles. For a guide on establishing a conceptual framework, I humbly refer interested readers to the tool developed by Cossa (2008). In the book, Cossa suggests that a conceptual analysis and the consequent development of a framework require that concepts’ key questions be asked; noteworthy is the fact that questions pertain to property and dimensions are often bypassed since they require a very careful look into the concept. I propose that these questions be considered closely when dealing with equity and access since each context requires a different set of properties of access and equity as well as their dimensions—it is erroneous to assume that the Africa region, as well as the so called developing world, is simultaneously monolithic and homogeneous in context.

Conceptual framework is not the only arena of contestation; theory is another arena of contestation. In regards to theory, most of the foundational literature on equity and access come from an economic standpoint, limiting the evaluation of human experience with educational equity and access to financial capital-based measurements such as the common measure of returns on investment (Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2004). This measuring education in terms of economic benefit could be a result of the conceptualization and theorization of higher education, and education in general, as a means towards upward mobility of states and individuals. For instance, the World Bank report Accelerating Catch Up claims that the development of tertiary level skills is essential for the development of needed human capital. Historically, even non-capitalist nations of post-colonial Africa adopted this stance, to some extent, by framing the educational agendas in terms of the benefits they bring both to the individual and to social and economic progress. For example, Assié-Lumumba (2008) notes that,

The public university in Africa was conceived as ontologically imbedded in the developmental state. There was a genuine belief that it would play a critical role in promoting socio-economic development... the post-colonial state declared

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education “the priority of all priorities” as it was considered an investment for the state’s development projects.

These development projects were tied to economic positioning of African independent states in the global economic arena—defined by the ever-changing vogue-based Western conceptions of development such as sub-developed, developing, under developed, third world, etc.. Africa’s conception of development and her reasoning in advocating for investment in education are bound to these Western conceptions since colonialism. Assié-Lumumba (2008) further notes that,

Universities at the time of the respective independence of African countries were public. In the immediate post-colonial period, there were only very few exceptions. Access to a public university was considered not a privilege but a right toward the highest and most desirable educational achievement and a prerequisite for socioeconomic attainment. In the context of building the new public administration and embryonic industrial sector, the State was the main employer and could unequivocally deliver on the promise of employment for the educationally qualified citizenry. Logically education offered in the public university was fully funded by public money and managed by public administration. It was considered at the service of the greater society.

Mugo (1999), in explaining the important role of education in a nation’s development and without directly challenging the conceptions and theories of development adopted by post-colonial Africa, notes that earlier conceptualizations and theorizations have also existed in traditional African societies.

In a lot of African societies, culture and education have always occupied a very central place in the formation of the individual, his or her socialization and overall progress of collective group… learning and culturalization were considered continuing processes that took place from birth until death with the family unit, extended family, the village and the entire community participating… suffice to say that in zamani3 Africa, as in materialist conception, education and culture are conceived as being crucial to development.

The qualifier of education as a right is central to arguments towards policies concerned with equity and access. When education is seen as a privilege there is the underlying foundation that access to education is contingent on intellectual competition, and eventual merit based on individual performance, or on individual economic ability to afford it—therefore, those who have access to education are deserving individuals. When education is seen as a right there is the underlying foundation that the ultimate qualification is to be of the human race; even education as a “right” confined to individuals of a specific nation is a privilege since it rules out all outsiders by giving access only to a select minority in the human race who happen to be in that given territory. Ultimately, privileges are based on selectivity and qualifications while rights are universal; nonetheless, the universalism

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3 In KiSwahili Zamani means ages ago or ancient times.
of rights has been confined to certain groups’ consensual parameters. This same reasoning should inform policies on gender, racial (color), ethnic, socio-economic, and other dimensions of equity and access; however, they are often trampled by dominant political conceptualizations of individual countries.

It is without surprise that, notwithstanding the developments in human rights discourse and the various developments on discourses pertaining to human equity and access in general, the arena of human rights is still loaded with controversies. The human rights declaration differentiates the levels of access to education between the elementary, the technical and professional, and the higher education sectors—that is, it gradually moves from universal access to meritocracy-based “universal” access. Article 27 states,

(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

Studies on equity and access often use terms such as investment (returns to investment in education); capital (human, social, cultural, knowledge), educational financing (student loans, student borrowing, cost-sharing, self-), equity (economic, social, cultural, power, gender, racial/ethnic, linguistic); financing (micro, macro); poverty reduction; justice (economic, global, social); inclusion; and the like. Some of these terms are tied to a functionalist perception of education, which presuppose that education transforms individuals into assets (functional individuals) that contribute towards the economic development of a nation. On the other hand, these individuals are seen as commodities invested into the system and generating, in turn, economic benefits for the nation (higher level benefits) and for themselves (lower level benefits). However, it is noteworthy that I am not in anyway suggesting that there is a moral value, i.e., good or bad, to this argument. This is only to say that when capital defines the educational experience of individuals, there is the underlying assumption that such individuals are a means to the end of bringing economic worth to a society and to themselves.

Feinberg and Soltis (1998) argue that compulsory education assures a replacement of older, dysfunctional habits, attitudes, and loyalties by newer, more functional ones. In adding to their argument, I argue that such education is an attempt to guarantee that individuals are transformed as functional entities that have internalized the values, attitudes, and beliefs of the society imposing them. While access is important to functionalists, it is selective access that dominates their conceptualization since society only functions well if there are differences in rewards (that is based on merit), therefore differences in our rewarding of the work done by various groups of people—genitors, carpenters, medical doctors, scientists, etc.—on the basis of the quality of contribution such professions make to society. This too is critical to our discussions of equity and

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access, since groups of people are slotted into (different slots of) the functionalist machine in order to perpetuate the ongoing differentiation, in the name of complimentarity, which is believed to bring about progress in a given society. One of the problems with this assertion is that the differentiation is tied to historically established role-differentiations that are exploitative in nature—whether stated covertly or overtly, certain people are not naturally inclined to undertake certain professions, be it on the basis of their gender, intellectual ability, race (color), ethnicity, religion, physical ability, or any other categorization that makes them distinctly inferior to the mainstream group.

Moreover, the current literature is characterized by modern manifestations of the modernization theory. As it is with development, there is the assumption that African societies need to be modernized and that equitable access and participation in education is the vehicle to bring about a modernized Africa. Such modernization has undergone metamorphosis as the concept re-invents itself in the West. During colonialism, the modern African individual had to master the language and, to some extent, the cultural etiquette of the master; today, a modern African individual must be equipped with proficiency in English and skills in technology. The latter has brought the ICT revolution to the African continent and equity and access are now defined, more and more, on the basis of individual’s access to technologically-driven skills. Assié-Lumumba (2008) warns us to keep in sight that,

Education is the process through which technical skills and values are provided to the present and future generations of a society, based on internal needs carefully identified. One of the dangers in technology is to reduce knowledge to technical and piecemeal delivery. Indeed, critical knowledge must be carefully conceived, delivered, and monitored as part of the national system.

Fundamentally, equity and access should not only be evaluated by superficial means such as access to schools or technology, but should delve deeper into the nature of the knowledge being transferred by the schools attended, their overt and covert curriculum, and the technology being used. In my estimate, one of the most significant issue to affect [higher] education since its inception is culture. Education in Africa can be better understood from the framework of historical precedents leading to the European settlement in the African soil and such precedents include the legacy of cultures deriving from Europe and the consequent formation of an African mainstream culture.

Culture is one of the most difficult concepts to define. Some definitions have emerged over the years and there is no conclusive definition as to what constitutes its full nature. Geertz defines culture as “a historically transmitted pattern of meanings embodied in symbols, a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which men communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge about and attitudes toward life.” Goodenough posits that culture is “the way in which people have organized their experience of their phenomenal world so as to give it structure as a system of cause and effect relationships, that is the prepositions and beliefs by which they explain events

and design tactics for accomplishing their purposes;” further, Goodenough asserts that culture consists of standards for what is reality, what can be perceived as reality, how one feels about such, what to do about it, and how to go about it.

As argued herein, culture constitutes the core of the development of higher education. According to Perko, the school is a center of cultural conflict, not much for the students as it is for those concerned with curricula. I concur that in education the dominant culture gets transferred and the conflict is reflective of whose culture should be transferred at a given moment in the history of education. Perko posits, “We teach what the powerful say ought to be taught.” The existence of a dominant culture is reflected in the institutions they create and institutions of higher education have not been exempt from the influence of those who created them. Even in the history of higher education in the United States, a country that has become a model for many nations seeking to improve their education, this has been evidenced in the creation and consequent success of institutions such as Harvard, Princeton, Yale, William and Mary, etc. The success of these institutions was contingent upon their continual reflection of the mainstream culture that created them and the shift in value-orientation of the mainstream group presupposed a shift in the values of the institutions.

The definition of culture encompasses religion, a major component of culture that shaped education, in general. Religion played a major part in fostering the establishment of denominational schools and later causing the divide of various societies into secular and religious, which was reflected in higher education by the choice of some schools to embody the spirit of secularism while other schools retained their religious character and affiliation. Without the understanding of Anglicanism, Catholicism, Puritanism, Quakerism, and revivalism or the great awakenings there can be no clear understanding of major ideological, philosophical, and value shifts in the cultures reflected in higher education. From the beginning of higher education ministers and clergy taught in these institutions and later civil society leaders began to have a say in what was taught. It was in this shift from clerical leadership to lay leadership that self-made men influenced and shaped higher education life and purpose. Issues of equity and access are also tied to ideological and philosophical streams that define the values reflected by the educational system.

While one may argue that many African traditions of higher education spring from Catholicism, the protestant ethics that drive American higher education have become a major force in current trends that characterize African higher education—for instance, the capitalist-driven approach to educational funding is evidence of such a shift. These cultural-religious values are still evident in African higher education institutions and at odds with traditional ones. Students graduating from African higher education institutions are bound to have to confront traditional African cultural-religious values of those who, conscientiously or unconscientiously, resist assimilation. The case of Mozambique, included in this study, reflects this struggle.

8 Notes from a lecture delivered by Fr. Michael Perko at Loyola University Chicago (2003)
The question of whose culture (therefore, whose knowledge) gets transferred constitutes a key factor in higher education and discrimination of students is contingent upon whether these students have embraced (or are willing to embrace) the culture of the institution and that of the educational system, or not. Those who are not, are consequently banned from, or alienated by, the system. In my estimation, culture is the most significant single issue to affect higher education and those concerned with equity and access must pay attention to determinants of student access and equity that are tied to culture. A deep understanding of the nuanced conceptual issues tied to cultural context is foundational to evaluate conceptualizations and theorizations of equity and access—to assume that one context fits all is erroneous and may cause more damage than good.

Notwithstanding the contextual complexity of the manifestation of these concepts, the context of the United States and South African Education show that some level of comparative analysis of their manifestation is possible. Epstein (1992) discusses the complexity of interaction between education and society in light of the paradoxes therein, in the United States, and presents important paradoxes found in American Democracy. Some major paradoxes identified and discussed in his work *Social Paradoxes of American Education* are (a) centralized control within a decentralized system, (b) mass education versus a quality education, (c) equality of education and equality of educational opportunity, and (d) the paradoxes within culture-related issues such as promotion of diversity in an assimilative system of education. For this report, more closely relevant paradoxes are those concerned with equality of educational opportunity and culture—particularly as manifested within the relationship between blacks and whites in the United States and South Africa.

Major sources of educational policies such as *The Coleman report* (Coleman 1966) present paradoxes on the issue of achievement and equality of educational opportunity across several social divides. Democracy presupposes individual rights of all citizens of a nation regardless of their culture, creed, color, gender or sexual orientation. This right extends to living wherever one wishes and also extends to rights of access to schooling, employment, health, wealth, etc.; however, the rights of individuals do not always necessitate equal opportunity to enjoy such rights. This is an issue that has taken front stage, for decades, in educational debates in the United States and has taken the form of different sub-issues (e.g., standardized testing, outcome-based education, tracking, etc.). Incidentally the issue of paradoxes that exist in the USA is not unique to it. In post Apartheid South Africa, there are similar paradoxes necessitating a similar amount of attention and the South African debates have borrowed from the historical debates in the United States. See for instance, the position taken by Van der Berg (2001) who argues that the post-Apartheid government’s emphasis on fiscal shift, to outset the imbalance caused by the Apartheid government, was ineffective due to its emphasis on the wrong aspect of equity—equity in educational resource allocation instead of equitable educational outcome.

In the USA and South Africa the commonalities are that, due to historical reasons of Apartheid and Slavery, there has been relational and political tension between blacks and
whites. Both Slavery and Apartheid created major gaps between the two groups and have inhibited blacks from a right to the same quality of education as whites. Under Apartheid, South Africa invented a system termed Bantu education which catered for blacks by training them to occupy low-income jobs and attaining limited social chances; while in the USA, Slavery and the *separate but equal policy* had created similar systems aimed at giving limited education to blacks and limiting their social chances. In both countries blacks did not have the opportunity of enjoying upward mobility under any given circumstances and those blacks that at least perceived themselves as having reached some sort of upward mobility were not anywhere close to belonging to a middle class.

With the abolition of slavery and Apartheid and the implementations of democracy in both countries, it was constitutionally a right of all citizens to participate, actively and without discrimination, in national life. The paradoxes emerge in the complexity of democratic rhetoric and the intricacies of reality. Although blacks and whites have been given constitutional leeway to participate fully and equally in national life, it has transpired that there are issues needing to be addressed such as (a) whether blacks and whites have the same opportunities to execute their rights, (b) whether blacks have the right to express their uniqueness, and (c) in view of the cultural differences and the multiplicity of cultures in democratic South Africa and United States, whose culture gains prominence in, and is transferred through, the educational system? These are real issues and have generated heated discussions in both countries.

It is hard, if not impossible for policy makers, to propose a solution that would end the paradoxes of individual rights and equality of educational opportunity in these two democratic nations. In the USA, the Coleman report promoted the right of low-income children to attend socio-economically and racially integrated schools on the basis that low-income black students that attended racially integrated schools displayed higher achievement than low-income black students that attended poor black schools (Coleman 1966). This is problematic in itself because it presupposes that achievement is measured by means of integration to a culture and social environment that is considered the standard of measurement of what is good for a society or what produces adequate knowledge to attain what is good.

To an extent, I concur with Freire’s argument that there is a type of education that aims at perpetuating a state of domination of one group over another because schools are a vehicle of cultural and ideological transfer and the methods used to ‘educate’ are reflections of the agendas of the system of education; therefore, the measure of achievement depends very much on what is held as the ethic of a particular society, and in this case it is the protestant ethic of the American society, not the combination of different ethics representative of all cultural groups, that promotes preparation of citizens to become employable and employability depends on whether one is culturally apt and adequately trained to generate capital for the nation. This necessitates that low-income black students be bused to middle and high-income areas and trained to behave like middle and high-income citizens, concretely white America, in order to fit in the system or else they automatically become recipients of government welfare. To advocate busing of students from middle and high-income areas to low income areas in order to make
them understand the social injustices in this democratic nation is out of the question to
the mainstream population. This is a clear paradox in the USA.

In South Africa the paradox of opportunities for blacks and whites and what is known as
achievement is found in the fact that black students, who have been historically
disadvantaged, have to acquire the culture of a new South Africa that promotes multi-
culturalism yet such culture is manifested in European ethics. In spite of the affirmative
action, this leap from seclusion in township and homeland (Bantustans, as they were
called by the Apartheid regime) culture has disadvantaged blacks in the process of
integration and favored whites, i.e., whites, in the new South Africa, have no need to
adjust in order to achieve in school or attain employability. The democratic system
implemented in South Africa calls for integrated schools, yet the culture of the schools is
still European. One may argue that there has been integration of indigenous languages in
the curriculum and black teachers, but this is insignificant compared to the elements of
European and Afrikaans culture still present and promoted in the schools. Also, the
perception that white is good has caused a move of blacks into the former white schools
and neighborhoods, and the opposite has not happened at all–whites do not move into
former black schools or neighborhoods.

If a democratic society advocates for equality of rights and equality of educational
opportunity, then it should follow that such right be extended to improving the conditions
of formally black and low-income areas and schools, to make them desirable to every
citizen just like the formally white suburbs and white schools are desirable to most, if not
all. While equity efforts seem to be in place, ultimate equity is often seen as utopia in
both countries. If paradoxes such as the one(s) outlined herein did not exist, then critiques
such as Epstein, Ogbu, Harris, Gonzalez, Mandela, Mbeki, Wa Thiong’o, etc., would be
labeled lunatics for creating abstract constructs and claim to be analyzing social reality.
Although I selected race and equality of educational opportunity as the primary issue in
comparing the United States and South Africa, I acknowledge the existence of many
more paradoxes in these two countries as well as the complexity, and even subtlety, of
these paradoxes. No system of government is without its paradoxes; therefore no system
of education is without them either. The amazing thing is that reality does not exist in a
vacuum and in isolation, and what we have in today’s society, as subtle as it often
manifests itself, is only understood in a historical context.

Acknowledging the limitations in the research on access and equity, caused by the often
superficial examination of the nature of equity and access, the aim of this report is to:

- Conduct a state-of-the-art literature review of the forms, scope and determinants
  of disparities in tertiary education, in the AFR region, including acknowledging
  the pervasive disparities at primary and secondary education levels that underpin
  inequities in tertiary education access.
- Focus attention most particularly on the following in the AFR region:
  - basic research on equity and tertiary education
  - ‘coding’ the literature review to provide key terms and issues
identifying the evolution of equity issues and themes over time, to ‘map’ the field in a way that informs subsequent studies

- examining and analyzing the monetary and non-monetary barriers to equity/access
- exploring and analyzing equity efforts that have and have not worked

- Utilize publications (books, journals, e-journals, working papers, and the like) as well as any other primary source materials available from scholars, government agencies, and other legitimate sources to inform the report produced.

The report is organized around the objectives outlined in the rationale for this project found in the introduction: (a) to document the significance and consequences of disparities in tertiary education opportunities; (b) to investigate the results and lessons of efforts to expand access to tertiary education and improve the chances of success for under-privileged youths; and, (c) to offer concrete recommendations for effective policies directed toward the ideals of widening participation. The report has a comprehensive case study on access and equity in Mozambique, short case studies on Ghana and Tanzania; and, introduces several possible case studies of countries where equity promotion initiatives have taken place and where more information is available. The report also provides analytical examinations of the literature to assist in the development of future work related to issues of equity and access to tertiary education.

**Objective 1: to document the significance and consequences of disparities in tertiary education opportunities.**

1. Disparities in Participation

**Women’s Representation**

The 2003/04 EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO 2004) claims that, in general, Sub-Saharan Africa has low enrolment rates and strong gender disparities and inequalities. For instance, in tertiary education, the GPI indicates a disparity of .40 percent in favor of males and enrolment rate is at 2.5 percent. This means that women are less represented than men, i.e., fewer than five women to ten men, and the report also claims that the few women who have access to tertiary education are confined to what is traditionally rendered as “feminine fields,” such as social sciences, humanities, services, and health-related areas of study; in turn, this disparity of access to tertiary education combined with the confined access extends to disparity in employment opportunities. However, the report makes a contradictory assumption by attributing the disparity in fields of access to women’s choice—this is contradictory because if women were entering these fields by choice, then there would be no reason to “protest” it as disparity;

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10 GPI means Gender Parity Index. Ratio of female to male value of a given indicator. GPI=1 indicates parity between sexes; 0≤GPI≤1 indicates a disparity in favor of boys; GPI>1 indicates a disparity in favor of girls.
while some women may choose such fields (for whatever reason), others may not know about alternative careers for women or may be restricted by other factors such as policy and socialization (as alluded in the report). On the bright side, GPIs in favor of women are found in Lesotho (1.76), Mauritius (1.36), Namibia (1.24), and South Africa (1.23). This, nonetheless, is only a beam of hope in the struggle for equity of access and participation.

**Access and Participation**

Bloom, Canning, and Chan (2006) report that, in general, Africa continues to struggle with the issue of very low access and participation in tertiary education—for instance, Malawi is unable to provide proper channels that link tertiary education to employment, thus unemployment of the few tertiary graduates is high;\(^{11}\) Mauritania has a high graduate unemployment rate;\(^{12}\) and, Mozambique’s high cost of tertiary education results in less than three percent of graduates holding public administration positions.\(^{13}\) These authors argue that the World Bank’s lack of emphasis on tertiary education has led to the absence or to only a brief mention of this sector in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) of most African countries with exception of Mozambique, Mauritius, Ghana, and Ethiopia.

**Enrolment Ratio**

Bloom et. al. show that Sub-Saharan Africa, in particular, lags behind in enrolment ratio to the extent that its ratio in 2003/04 was at the same range of other developing regions 40 years ago; moreover, enrolment rate growth has been slow, the gap by which it lags behind other regions has increased rapidly, and gender disparities remain wide. A summary of the PRSPs in Bloom et. al. (2006: Appendix A. Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper Summaries) shows that the following countries have clear identified equity and access as major concerns in their tertiary education sector or identified a policy-driven plan for equity and access in tertiary education:

- **Benin**—Higher education goals include improving working conditions and student living conditions, and strengthening the quality of higher education and research. The latter includes strengthening tertiary education and promoting research, introducing undergraduate programs and more relevant professional education programs, and helping disadvantaged groups (minorities, low-income families).
- **Central African Republic**—Emphasis on broad access to vocational training.
- **Gambia**—Improve access to higher education.
- **Ghana**—Notes difficulty in gaining university entry at the undergraduate level.
- **Guinea**—Improving access to technical education for girls.
- **Malawi**—Reserve 30 per cent of university places for girls; introduce scholarship schemes for girls and needy students; expand university places from 3526 to 6824.

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• Niger—Increase the proportion of enrollments in technical and vocational training schools from 8 per cent of secondary school graduates in 2001 to 20 per cent in 2005 and 50 per cent in 2015.
• Senegal—Create training centers aimed at women.
• Uganda—Increase tertiary enrollment from 25,000 in 2000 to 50,000 in 2003.

Access, Equity and Returns to Investment

According to te Velde (2005), disparities in tertiary education opportunities are partly due to the increasing tendency of international education providers to set up centers in developing countries. While stating that such international enterprises may help the spread of best practices and international business standards, te Velde argues that consequences range from inequitable access to education, as in the case of South Africa—citing Akoojee and McGrath (2003)—and the increase of private provision of education, as witnessed in Southern Africa.

Clancy & Goastellec (2007) claim that one can learn about differences and commonalities between countries by engaging in a comparative analysis of definitions of access and equity and the subsequent evolving of policies. They claim that the overall trend is characterized by giving priority to “inherited merit” in the admission process through a committal to formal equality, towards the application of some modes of affirmative action for selected underrepresented groups.” This convergence, they argue, is “accompanied by a growing appreciation of the complexity of social identities and complemented by significant national specificity in respect of the social categories which are used to define social diversity.” Clancy & Goastellec acknowledge the difficulty of finding appropriate comparative measures of participation and propose the alternative of developing a Higher Education Index to facilitate cross-country comparisons.

Furthermore, they make a distinction between the issue of expanding participation and widening access to higher education to previously under-represented groups and claim the latter to be their concern—such concern is articulated in the following two interrelated questions: how are access and equity defined, nationally and globally; and, how are access and equity measured nationally and globally?

Bollag (2003) argues that effective development of tertiary education requires that public investments be made within a policy framework that promotes high quality training and research, engages training programs that are adjusted to country’s needs, and promotes equity, among different income groups, in terms of benefits from public education spending.

Mbuyi (2003) blames the international development community to have encouraged African governments’ relative neglect of higher education. In particular, Mbuyi highlights the fact the role of The World Bank—an entity that exercises significant influence over developing country governments—in influencing developing countries with the belief (and consequent efforts) that primary and secondary schooling are more important than tertiary education for poverty reduction. Mbuyi notes that,
this belief stemmed from two important considerations: first, repeated studies appeared to show that the returns to investments in primary and secondary education were higher than those to higher education, and second, that equity considerations favored a strong emphasis on widespread access to basis (sic) education. From 1985 to 1989, 17 per cent of the Bank’s worldwide education-sector spending was on higher education. But from 1995 to 1999, the proportion allotted to higher education declined to just 7 per cent, as the focus shifted to primary education in the wake of the Jomtien World Education Conference in 1990.

Africa Higher Education Collaborative (AHEC: 2008) argues in favor of a need to increase equity and access in higher education in Africa. Its position is founded on the premise that “increased access to quality higher education increases the capacity of the African continent to create future prosperity, improve public health, advance sustainability, and much more.” AHEC presents the following challenge for addressing the issue of equity and access in tertiary education in Africa:

The result is a pressing need for high quality research on higher education equity and access on the African continent and beyond; for identifying viable and practical policy solutions that address the sources of inequality; for designing financial mechanisms and funding options to improve access; and for improving delivery systems of education in a effort to alleviate the most serious inequities in the quality of higher education.

Returns to Investment on Women

In Zimbabwe, the establishment of the Women’s University in Africa (WUA) is evidence of an attempt to respond to disparities in access due to gender. Another noteworthy effort towards gender equity was the international conference (April 28-May 1, 1998), organized to commemorate the 40th anniversary of the Economic Commission for Africa, under the theme “African Women and Economic Development: Investigating in Our Future” with the aim to engage in dialogue to:

- Share experience on how public policies should equalize opportunities between women and men and redirect resources to those investments in which women's participation would bring about the highest social returns;
- Draw strategic lessons from on-going efforts to implement the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action;
- Identify and share "good practices" in strategies and programme modalities for country level implementation of actions recommended by the conference;

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15 Although there is no website or resources pointing to this university save some brief citations, I thought it worth noting here since any effort towards equitable participation merits attention. For details on the university, see http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m0KTL/is_2_16/ai_n18615755/
• Forge partnerships for post-conference development and implementation of the recommended action and programmes.

The conference, therefore, accommodated the following themes: (a) Developing African Economies—The Role of Women; (b) Achieving Good Governance: The Essential Participation of Women; (c) African Women and the Information Age: A New Window of Opportunity; and, (d) Creating Opportunities for Africa's New Generation. The conference resulted in the production of a booklet that provided numerous recommendations based on discussions of different thematic groups. Relevant to tertiary education, the group meeting under the sub-theme “Changing Formal and Informal Education and School Programmes for the Promotion of Gender Equality” identified the following strategic action and interventions and identified institutions and bodies that have the capacity to carry out/undertake the strategic action:

- For the achievement of gender equality in education, political will and commitment of governments are needed to facilitate the creation of policies such as affirmative action to increase access of girls at the tertiary level and increase education budget.

- Governments, in collaboration with ministries of education, should review the curriculum with a view to incorporating life skills, sexual and reproductive health information, as well as human rights and peace education; improve teacher training to include sensitization on gender issues; provide guidelines on how to handle gender issues in schools; enhance school facilities with science equipment, laboratories and sanitary facilities specific for girls' needs; develop teaching and learning materials which are gender sensitive.

- Communities should mobilize and ensure the participation of youth in gender-sensitive youth programmes. Parents and communities should be sensitized to ensure that the socialization process of both girls and boys creates a sense of equality and co-operation. The school should be the core of the community action and activities to avoid alienation and ensure integration.

- The media (electronic, print and community-based media) should ensure that effective programmes are disseminated and the debate on girls' education is sustained. Governments and the media should promote advocacy and social marketing campaigns at national level for different audiences, including policy makers to ensure their full participation and support.

- Governments should link labour-saving activities such as provision of water points, health centres, grinding mills and child care centres with education programmes and institute measures that reduce household burdens and poverty, such as bursary schemes for needy girls. It should also create institutions to care for teenage mothers and ensure their acquisition of like skills.

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o The Ministries of education, in collaboration with those of finance and planning should develop indicators for monitoring and evaluating programmes at periodic intervals. To do this effectively, ministries should set up a task force which would establish strategic priorities as related to the unique situation of each country, develop targets and a budget which can be used for mobilizing funds.

o Partnership should be established with all agencies and organization that are concerned with girls' education and youth programmes: (a) at the country level—media, NGOs, communities, governments and indigenous organizations; (b) United Nations agencies such as United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), ECA and OAU; (c) bilateral organizations such as the French Co-operation, Italian Co-operation and international NGOs; (d) parents/teachers: e.g. teachers' associations and unions; (e) financial and private sector: Employers to give information on the job market and provide internships; (f) trade unions; (g) the international community, given the interest it has shown in the conferences on women's education; (h) regional NGOs such as Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) which should network with other NGOs and international agencies to exchange information and avoid duplication of effort.

Objective 2: to investigate the results and lessons of efforts to expand access to tertiary education and improve the chances of success for under-privileged youths.

2. Broadening Participation

Educational Expansion

National efforts to expand tertiary education intersect with global expansion of tertiary education. According to Altbach and Knight (2006), demand for, and access to, higher education by youth has increased dramatically due to mass education. This demand is evident in countries enrolling under 20 percent of young people, such as India, China, and most of Africa. Albach and Knight note that access can take forms like branch campuses, franchise foreign academic programs or degrees, or independent institutions based on foreign academic models. They further claim that “International higher education will provide substantial access in some countries and will be a “niche market” in others... today’s emerging programs and practices must assure that international higher education benefits the public, and not simply be a profit center.”

Ntshoe (2003) argues that the external influence of global competitiveness is to blame for the lack of improvement of social equity, social justice, and social development through

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the accelerated expansion of, and increased access to, higher education. This is also reflective of the fact that “the current policies of institutional mergers and incorporations is driven by demands to make the higher education sector efficient and does not seem to sufficiently address historical inequities in higher education.” Ntshoe manifests disappointment with the participation rate in higher education in South Africa for not having improved as was hoped due to internal factors such as HIV/AIDS pandemic, the declining number of matriculants, and the lack of effective governance and management in some institutions.

**Affirmative Action Policies**

According to Mbuyi (2003), Affirmative Action policies have been the focus of efforts to achieve gender equity—for instance, several countries (e.g., Ghana, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe) have lowered the cut-off points for admission of female candidates. As a result, between 1990 and 1999, female enrollments in Ghana grew by six percent and at Makerere University, in Uganda, grew by seven percent; between 1997 and 1997, the University of Dar Es Salaam, in Tanzania, witnessed an increase from 19 percent to 27 percent, in female enrolment. Mbuyi notes two other developments that contribute to the increase in female enrolments: the introduction of bridging courses to help women make the leap from secondary to tertiary education and the establishment of gender units to conduct research on female education and equity (e.g., Makerere University).\(^{18}\)

Carrol (2005) administered a survey on students at Makerere University, which compared the socioeconomic status of students admitted under the Private Entry Scheme (PES) to those admitted under the government scholarship scheme.\(^{19}\) The results of the survey suggested that the PES has entrenched, rather than increased, existing inequities in participation at the university.

**Educational Financing**

In their analysis of higher education financing in Kenya, Munene & Otieno (2007) claim the following:

> The policy of providing financial aid to all students may not necessarily lead to equity if the poor encounter other barriers to access such as poor examination performance due to poor quality schools or lack of financial resources for high school. Inspite (sic) of the supposed regressive nature of this financing arrangement, studies have documented that, on the whole, it prevented higher education in Kenya largely becoming an elite privilege (Hughes 1989, 1994; Hughes and Mwiria 1990; Migot-Adholla 1985). While family backgrounds of


\(^{19}\) This scheme allowed the university to raise revenues by admitting students who pay tuition and fees.
university graduates were still disproportionately weighted in favor of the rich, overall they reflected the characteristics of the Kenyan population.

Gender Mainstreaming

An important development is the Tool Kit for Mainstreaming Gender in higher education in Africa produced by the Association of African Universities (AAU 2006). The tool provides nine modules that covers topics such as basic facts about gender, forming policies and strategies, gender sensitization of tertiary institutions, mainstreaming gender in the curriculum, research and gender sensitivity research methods, faculty and support programs, student access and retention, gender violence and sexual harassment, disaggregated data, and resource mobilization for gender equity.

3. Broadening Participation in Ghana and Tanzania

A team of researchers from the University of Sussex (United Kingdom), University of Dar Es Salaam (Tanzania), and the University of Cape Coast (Ghana) are currently engaged in a research project concerned with widening participation in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania and have generated a series of reports, based on these case studies, and publications on the issue (Morley, Leach, Lugg, Lihamba, Opare, Bhalalusesa, Ford, Egbenya, and Mwaipopo: March 2007; Morley et. al.: May 2007; Morley et. al.: August 2007; & Morley et. al.: August 2008). Other studies conducted by the team at the University of Sussex are Morley & Lugg (2008a); Morley & Lugg (2008b); Morley & Lugg (2009); and Morley, Leach, & Lugg (2009). The team claims that,

The project aims to explore factors that facilitate or impede participation in higher education. This will involve examination of policy frameworks and codes of practice for widening participation of under-represented groups in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania. It will also include evaluating the success of widening participation initiatives via scrutiny of statistical data and interviews with key staff, policy-makers and community advocates and life-history narrative research with students from ‘non-traditional’ backgrounds.

Policies

For instance, according to Morley et. al. (March 2007), the Government of Ghana has allocated quotas in order to widen participation to include ‘non-traditional’ students, i.e., mature students, people in full-time employment, the disabled, poor and female students, and students from rural and deprived schools. They report that government policy regarding admissions aims at a 50-50 enrolment for males and females and that the “Joint Admissions Board of the University of Cape Coast has directed that the percentage of female enrolment should not fall below 35 percent of total enrolment.”

Policies addressed in the Morley et. al. project include:
The Musoma Resolution (1978): Another key process worth mentioning is the Musoma Resolution (1978) that in fact preceded the Women and Gender Development Policy as one of the first affirmative action policies that resulted in the increase of female enrolments in higher education. Through this resolution females were exempted from the two year compulsory work period that their male colleagues had to adhere to after secondary education in order to be able to enter the university directly from secondary schools. UDSM for the first time managed to enroll a large number of female students.

Cost-Sharing in Higher Education Policy (1988): Up to 1988 education was free, except students were bonded to government services for five years and given government bursaries. Due to the government’s inability to sustain the financing of free public higher education in addition to all of the other pressing public needs, cost-sharing in higher institutions of learning was introduced in 1988 and a directive subsequently made in 1992 to institute its operation (Ishengoma, 2004).

Education and Training Policy (ETP) (1995): The 1995 ETP Policy (currently under review) guides the provision of education in Tanzania mainland. The major thrust is in the areas of increasing enrolments, quality improvements, equitable access and expansion and optimum utilisation of available resources (URT, 1995). The ETP stresses liberalisation in education – i.e. opening up of education from public to private providers, and expansion of higher education, as well as cost-sharing and continued international cooperation. The policy also proposes greater financial contributions from parents (cost-sharing), students (loans) and institutions (sale of services) to curb over-reliance on state funding.

Higher Education Policy of Tanzania (1999): A comprehensive Higher Education Policy (currently under review) was developed in 1999 to guide the provision of higher education in the country. The policy addresses issues of expansion of student enrolment, increasing social demand for higher education and regulation, and accreditation of higher education institutions which are increasing as a result of liberalisation of the provision of higher education. The policy places considerable emphasis on cost effectiveness, efficiency, relevance of curricula, equity and access to education (URT, 1999).

The Women and Gender Development Policy (2000): As a response to internal and external pressures for gender equality policies, the Tanzanian government formulated the Women in Development Policy in 1992, re-named the Women and Gender Development Policy in 2000. The policy calls for removal of barriers that hinder women’s access to education and training to the limits of their abilities. This policy and its predecessor have been instrumental in influencing processes such as the following: (a) addressing gender mainstreaming in development, including the establishment of gender desks in ministries and organisations; (b) removing barriers to education and training; and, (c) introducing scholarships for higher education through the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, specifically for women.

The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) (2005): The latest strategy document is popularly known as ‘MKUKUTA’ the Kiswahili acronym
from the translation of the NSGRP (URT, 2005a)… in addition to outlining the government’s strategies to ensure equitable access to quality primary and secondary education for boys and girls and universal literacy among women and men, the strategy also stresses the expansion of higher, technical and vocational education. The national strategy has three broad clusters of targets. Cluster II focuses on the ‘Improvement of quality of life and social well-being’ by enhancing the life situations of the poorest and most vulnerable groups in society. One of its aims is stipulated as reducing inequalities in education outcomes across geographic, income, age, gender and other groups (Goal 5.3.2.1 of NSGPR, 2005) (URT, 2005a: 42).

**Gender Mainstreaming and Equity**

Mukangara (2007) conducted a study on Information Management System (IMS) for gender mainstreaming and presents the findings of a survey on information needs of the Gender Development Programme Committee (GDPC) of the University of Dar Es Salaam. Mukangara concludes that “GDPC generates a lot of information on its activities such as gender based research opportunities, undergraduate female scholarships and gender sensitization workshops… but there is no organized vertical and horizontal system of information flow” and recommends “the establishment of GDPC’s information dissemination mechanism, including developing databases on GDPC activities, creation of a website, establishing a documentation unit and transforming GDPC to a full fledged Gender Centre.”

Dunne & Sayed (2002) argue that to increase women’s participation in higher education, in Africa, does not presuppose equity because such participation has been mainly in the humanities and social sciences. Onsongo (2009) provides an analysis of the outcomes of affirmative action policies pertaining to improving access for women in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. Onsongo claims that “there are limitations and weaknesses inherent in the piecemeal strategies that focus only on the point of admission to university;” thus, concludes that affirmative action, in these three countries, does not enhance access and gender equity in higher education.

Bunyi (2003) unveils the following three dimensions to the problem of low enrolments for female students: overall low enrolments; even lower enrolments at higher degree levels and in science, mathematics and technology (SMT) subjects. In addition, Bunyi lists the following constraints to women’s enrollment in tertiary institutions: (a) inadequate qualified female candidates to join tertiary institutions; (b) insufficient places in TE (Tertiary Education) institutions; (c) women unfriendly TE environments; (d) insufficient female role models; (e) socio-cultural values, beliefs and practices that militate against the education of girls; and, (f) high rates of unemployment of both male and female TE graduates. This work provides snapshots of developments in some African countries such as Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe. Bunyi discusses the interventions that have been put in place to ameliorate these constraints and increase women’s enrollments in TE, describes the procedures used in implementing the various interventions and assess the efficacy of the different interventions, and makes the following recommendations on what could be done to increase women’s enrollments:
• Finding ways to implement (temporary) Affirmative Action policies in such a way as to minimize the backlash on female students.
• Expansion of tertiary places should be pursued through private provision, self-sponsored programmes in public institutions, and diverse course offerings including flexible scheduling and innovative delivery methods such as by use of ICTs.
• Combating Sexual Harassment to ensure that female students and staff study and work in an environment that allows them to grow and succeed.

Participation and Educational Quality

The World Bank report Accelerating Catch-Up (World Bank 2008) presents a counter to the argument of tertiary education expansion, and even of widening participation, in favor of higher education quality. While this argument presents a friendly view towards access of diverse students to tertiary education, it seems to undermine the current context of tertiary education in Africa. For instance the authors argue that “a diversified system provides increased access to students with different educational backgrounds and abilities by providing a wider range of choices and pedagogical orientations” and that “…it facilitates social mobility by offering multiple entry points to tertiary education and various options for successful students to advance to higher levels of study.” Both these views are plausible, but (for instance) ranges of choices by background presents the problem of marginalized students’ access to fields historically dominated by mainstream populations whose backgrounds make them suitable candidates.

4. Mozambique: Two Rationales for Educational Access and Equity

In the Chissano administration, human resource development and consequent focus on women was a result of a purely economic reason rather than an immediate moral reason. Economists argued that women receive higher returns to their schooling investments.

In the Machel administration, human resource development and the focus on women resulted primarily from the administration’s belief that women should be emancipated because they had been victims of exploitation for many years.

Social Democracy and Participation


Machel (1970), in a social reproduction theory fashion, recognized that:

[s]ociety aims at securing their survival by…transmitting the sum of its knowledge and experience. However, because society exists in its structures, it’s obvious that its survival demands the permanence of its structures, no matter how
It is in this context that the transmitted education, when reflecting the concrete form of society presents itself as its (society’s) justification and justification of its economic structures, social habits, ethical concepts, art; in summary, of the society’s culture.\(^\text{21}\) (pp. 8–9)

The Machel administration adopted Marxism-Leninism as a politico-economic theory, and this in turn informed its policy of universal education and political socialization. Machel denounced both the traditional and the colonial forms of education as paralyzing and oppressive, respectively, and often used metaphorical language to depict the depth of his administration’s aversion to these forms of education (Machel, 1970, pp. 9–10). Literary devices such as metaphor were also descriptive of positive socialization, to correct the evils of traditional and colonial socialization, during the revolution. Machel believed that colonial education sought to depersonify the Mozambican citizen by “creating him unto his [colonist] image and likeness” (p. 10). In response, revolutionary education seeks to create um homem novo (a new man) and the mission of the teachers is to socialize their students into the revolutionary mentality. Machel stressed that teachers must behave like a doctor “who before approaching the patient in the theater disinfects and sterilizes him/herself in order not to infect the patient” (p. 13). For Machel, the process of sterilization and disinfecting is only possible by means of socializing the teacher through political meetings and reeducation. This constant emphasis on decolonizing the mind of the teacher and socializing the masses through education was a core player that prompted the establishment of universal education in Mozambique. It is essential, though, for one to understand this selection of language, values, and strategies by looking at the underlying reason—the theory behind the revolutionary goals of the Machel administration.

Historically, Marxism has undergone a series of transformations from foundational Marxian economic postulates to Leninist political postulates. Gilpin (1987) argued that Marxism characterized capitalism as the private ownership of the means of production and the existence of wage labor. Marxists believe that capitalism is driven by capitalists striving for profits and capital accumulation in a competitive market economy. They argue that labor has been dispossessed and has become a commodity that is subject to the price mechanism.

Gilpin (1987, p. 38) posited that Lenin converted Marxism from essentially a theory of domestic economy to a theory of international political relations among capitalist states. Also, Lenin argued that capitalism had escaped the three laws of motion—those once identified by Marx as inevitable economic laws—but instead of eradicating them he added a fourth law that read as follows, “as capitalist economies mature, as capital accumulates, and as profit rates fall, the capitalist economies are compelled to seize colonies and create dependencies to serve as markets, investment outlets, and sources of food and raw materials” (p. 39). This fourth law is essential in studying the case of postcolonial countries.

\(^{21}\) My translation from Portuguese.
The main postulates of Marx and Lenin (Gilpin, 1987) are justified in Mozambique’s independence by the language and the political goal of the Machel administration. In the area of education, for example, the new administration rejected both the traditional (indigenous) system of education and the colonial system. Following Marx and Engel, as well as Lenin, the administration utilized dialectical interpretation of Mozambique’s history by identifying the battle between the new (individualistically oriented) and the old (traditional and superstitious) systems. Machel believed that both systems were detrimental to the nation and he acknowledged the necessity of science and technology. He asserted that in order to establish the bases of a prosperous and advanced economy it is imperative that science defeats superstition.

One may say that the core enemy in Machel’s battle against colonialism could not be defeated only by means of arms. The promotion of Superstition in traditional societies, and the misuse of science by turning it into a weapon of exploration of the masses in the colonial administration, was identified in Machel’s speech as the core enemy of independent Mozambique (Machel, 1970). Because arms were unable to win the ideological battle and the new government often feared sabotage of the economy, education was promoted as the means to eradicate the ideological enemy (“Samora Machel,” 1975). The Machel administration viewed education as a means to create a society in which everyone, indiscriminately, shares in serving the people and in production of goods and services; respects manual labor, initiative, and a sense of responsibility; and consequently participates in the economic development of the new nation. Education was imperative to reach these and other related aims and Mozambique placed an emphasis on universal education within its borders (Munslow, 1985). Machel stated the following:

We want to create conditions such that in this generation, disease, hunger, poverty, illiteracy and ignorance should begin to vanish forever from our country. Just as we emerged victorious from the struggle against colonialism, just as we smashed the racist aggregation of the illegal Smith-Muzorewa regime, so we shall also emerge victorious from this battle, because once again we shall be able to bring together the energy and intelligence of the entire people for peace, progress, prosperity and plenty. It is a task of us all to organize society so that we can conquer underdevelopment. (Munslow, 1985, p. 141)

The means adopted by Machel, as evidenced in his speech and other supporting material, is based on Marxist premises that a dominated majority in society is at odds with those who possess the means of production. Mozambique’s enemy was not only the Portuguese regime, but also other capitalist regimes that advocated for a domination of one people over another and promoted underdevelopment and dependence in the so called third world. Because the colonial system of education had produced a massive number of uneducated adults in Mozambique, mostly proletariat and indigenous farmers, the remedy relied on waging war against illiteracy. Even before the independence, FRELIMO already boasted a high rate of literacy and believed that the elimination of illiteracy
would be the key for political socialization and the economic development of the country (Machel, 1970).  

The literature suggests that the Machel administration adopted the policy of universal education because it upheld Marxist-Leninist values of an egalitarian society. These values fostered a perception of education as a vehicle for development and political socialization. Education provided a means to inculcate in citizens a *nova mentalidade* (new mentality) by means of a new form of socialization that formed *uma consciência política revolucionária* (a revolutionary political consciousness) in Mozambicans. It was imperative that education was provided free of charge for all so that the masses could benefit equally and so that distributive justice, equality of opportunity, and equity could be attained in order to develop the new nation.

### Liberal Democracy and Participation

**The Chissano Administration (1986–2005)**

According to Hanlon (1991), Mozambique’s transition from a basic socialist economy to an open-market economy began during the latter years of the Machel administration (1986) when the administration implemented the *Plano de Reabitação económica* (PRE). Joaquim Chissano became president of Mozambique in 1986, after the death of Machel, and it was under his leadership that FRELIMO changed its system of government, from Socialist to Democratic, and opened the country’s doors even wider to both the WB-IMF and to multinational corporations. The change of the country’s name, from *República Popular de Moçambique* to *República de Moçambique*, and the privatization of the economic sector were some of the evidences that a new system of governance was operating in the new Mozambique.

Hanlon (1991) described the situation of Mozambique in the last years of Machel and the beginnings of Chissano to be a road to structural adjustment. Although the Machel administration initiated talks with the West and began a process of modification in its Socialist policies, it was during the Chissano administration that the IMF and WB began open dialogue with the Mozambican government. These dialogues led to an adoption of a liberal theory of economics as a means to restore Mozambique’s deteriorating economy of the 1980s. By the end of the 1980s, the PRE had “failed” and the administration was looking for a new system that would succeed in fostering development in the country (Hanlon, 1991).

I analyze the Chissano Administration within the theoretical framework of liberalism. According to Gilpin (1987, p. 27), liberalism may be defined as a doctrine and set of principles for organizing and managing a market economy in order to achieve maximum

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22 At independence, under the colonial administration, adult literacy was less than 15%; and, due to the literacy campaigns initiated in the preindependence *zonas libertadas* (liberated zones), under FRELIMO’s control in the north of Mozambique, by 1980 the number of qualified school leavers had increased fourfold in both primary and secondary education (Hanlon, 1991).

23 *Plano de Reabitação económica* (Economic Rehabilitation Programme).
efficiency, economic growth, and individual welfare. An important aspect identified by Gilpin is that liberals see no necessary connection between the process of economic growth and political developments such as war and imperialism; these political evils affect and may be affected by economic activities, but they are essentially caused by political and not by economic factors.

With Gilpin’s definition in mind, one can better understand the course of the negotiations between Mozambique and the IMF/World Bank in the 1980s and the consequent adoption of liberalism as a means to escape underdevelopment (Hanlon, 1991). However, here I analyze the “Plano Estratégico de Educação, 1999–2003: Combater a Exclusão, Renovar a Escola” in light of the rights-based liberal theory adopted by the Chissano administration. According to Gilpin (1987), liberalism ranges “from those giving priority to equality and tending toward social democracy and state interventionism to achieve this objective, to those stressing liberty and noninterventionism at the expense of social equality” (p. 27). My analysis hinges on the framework of liberalism that gives priority to equality and tends toward social democracy and state interventionism to achieve its objective. In a critique and reconstruction of liberalism, Johnston (1994) outlined three premises of liberalism: only individuals count, all individuals count equally, and all individuals count as agents.

The Ministry of Education of Mozambique (MINED) compiled the strategic plan document with the aim of advancing education in Mozambique, yet there is a predominance of economic-related language. The context of the document is set within an economic framework, which is characterized by terms such as fiscal, expenditure, macroeconomic, economic growth, economic development, and poverty reduction. In establishing the rationale for the strategic plan, two reasons were presented and both were linked to economic aspects: to respond to the exigencies of the Mozambican economy and to respond to the pressures and opportunities from a more integrative and competitive global economy—this latter response is immediately called for within the Southern African context under the auspices of the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Thus, from the rationale, it is clear that Mozambican education is a means to effectively respond to such economic factors. It is contingent on this rationale that the three main objectives were formulated: (a) to increase access to educational opportunity in all levels of education, (b) to maintain and ameliorate the quality of education, and (c) to develop an institutional and financial board that will sustain Mozambican schools and pupils in the future.

In the section entitled “Estabilização, Crescimento e Apoio aos sectores Sociais” (MINED, 1998, pp. 2–3), there are contradictions regarding MINED’s strategy. On one hand, there is recognition that the adoption of a structural adjustment program and macroeconomy stabilization are not generating positive results; on the other hand, the

25 Johnston (1994) argued that the underlying principle in Rightsbased liberalism presupposes that “a set of political and social arrangements is justified to the extent to which it protects the rights of individuals, including their right to transfer rights to others, provided that they do not violate the rights of others” (p. 40).
government plans to pursue the same economic strategies to reduce further the levels of poverty. This contradiction reflects either the manifestation of hope in spite of the measurable results or a manifestation of dependency on development theorists’ call for change of strategy.

In the Chissano administration, MINED’s focus on human resource development and consequent focus on women was a result of a purely economic reason rather than an immediate moral reason. Economists (e.g., Psacharopoulus & Patrinos, 2002) argued that women receive higher returns to their schooling investments; however, during the Machel administration human resource development and the focus on women resulted primarily from the administration’s belief that women should be emancipated because they had been victims of exploitation for many years. Thus, in 1975 (Machel, 1978; “Constituição da República,” 1975), the Machel administration ruled as illegal the practices of polygamy and lobola. In chapter 5 of the MINED document, “Opções Políticas” (MINED, 1998, pp. 15–27), MINED asserted that the implementation of universal access to primary education is fundamental for the government’s development strategy. MINED gave four reasons for this assertion: (a) poverty reduction; (b) human resource development; (c) equity in the educational system; and (d) the effective exercise of citizenship because an informed population with a critical mind is essential to protect democratic institutions.

The document highlighted and ranks two objectives among many, and states that the central objective is that of universal access to education for all children and the ultimate objective is to support the national development strategy adopted by the government by building an educational system—one which provides Mozambican citizens with knowledge and skills necessary for sustenance, accelerates economic growth, and strengthens institutions of a democratic society. This is a reflection of how education in the Chissano administration is seen as both a vehicle for economic development and political socialization. The title of the document “…Combater a Exclusão, Renovar a Escola” suggests that universalism is important and so is renovation of the school system, and one can only deduce that renovation is from the political socialization promoted during the Machel administration since the new school system is to eradicate the socialist mentality to a liberal democratic one.

Conclusion and Implications

The Machel administration adopted the policy of universal education because it upheld Marxist-Leninist values of an egalitarian society, which fostered a perception of education as a vehicle for development and political socialization. The Chissano administration adopted the policy of universal education because of the influence of the Education For All movement and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child.

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26 From the Southern African Nguni languages (Xi Rhonga, Shangaan, Zulu, etc.). In this study, it refers to what is commonly labeled as bride-price.
My proposition is that the Machel administration adopted the policy because of the political values it held, which perceived universal education as a vehicle for development and political socialization. In contrast, the Chissano administration adopted the policy because of the influence of the Education For All (EFA) movement and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, which also perceive universal education as a vehicle for economic development and political socialization.

The findings supported the proposition. The findings were that the Machel administration adopted the policy of universal education because it upheld Marxist-Leninist values of an egalitarian society, which fostered a perception of education as a vehicle for development and political socialization; the Chissano administration adopted the policy of universal education because of the influence of the Education For All movement and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. Both the EFA and the Charter are binding documents for member states and this binding nature is revealed in the first article of the Charter as follows:27

Article 1: Obligation of States Parties

1. Member States of the Organization of African Unity Parties to the present Charter shall recognize the rights, freedoms and duties enshrined in this Charter and shall undertake to the necessary steps, in accordance with their Constitutional processes and with the provisions of the present Charter, to adopt such legislative or other measures as may be necessary to give effect to the provisions of this Charter.
2. Nothing in this Charter shall affect any provisions that are more conducive to the realization of the rights and welfare of the child contained in the law of a State Party or in any other international Convention or agreement in force in that State.
3. Any custom, tradition, or cultural or religious practice that is inconsistent with the rights, duties, and obligations contained in the present Charter shall to the extent of such inconsistency be discouraged.

From the EFA movement, we can derive that its contractual nature serves as an influencing factor for the adoption of the policy of universal education by the Chissano administration. One clause proposes that:

[g]overnments and all other EFA partners must work together to ensure basic education of quality for all, regardless of gender, wealth, location, language or ethnic origin. Successful education programmes require: (1) healthy, well-nourished and motivated students; (2) well-trained teachers and active learning techniques; (3) adequate facilities and learning materials; (4) a relevant curriculum that can be taught and learned in a local language and builds upon the knowledge and experience of the teachers and learners; (5) an environment that not only encourages learning but is welcoming, gender-sensitive, healthy and safe; (6) a clear definition and accurate assessment of learning outcomes, including knowledge, skills, attitudes and, values; (7) participatory governance

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and management; and (8) respect for and engagement with local communities and cultures. (UNESCO, 2001, n.p.)

It follows from the literature and the findings that the Machel administration envisioned the formation of an economically developed egalitarian society and saw in free universal education a vehicle suitable to foster development and egalitarian values through political socialization. On the other hand, the Chissano administration envisioned the formation of a meritocratic and an economically stratified society in which universal education was no longer free for all but for some. In the Chissano administration, national and international partners are called upon to subsidize the education of the poor. It is worth noting, however, that the rhetoric of MINED’s universal education policy is characterized by a merger of (a) the legacy left by the Machel administration, which could lead one to assume that this happened because some members of the Chissano administration are a result of the political socialization during the Machel administration; (b) the new emerging paradigms within the human rights; and (c) the intricacies of a market economy and globalization.

POST MACHEL AND CHISSANO: THE STATUS OF ACCESS AND EQUITY

Access and equity are still unresolved issues in the recent administration, i.e., Guebuza administration. For instance, based on statistics provided by the Instituto Nacional de Estatística (2005),28 the gender gap is still wide and more efforts to reduce it are needed.30 Table 1 shows that men had higher enrollment numbers than women in almost all areas of study, in both public and private universities, in the 2005 and 2006 academic years. Exceptions were registered in 2006, within private universities, which show higher enrollment numbers for men in education (at a ratio of 365:165); natural sciences (320:101); and, engineering, industry, and construction (1038:370). Women had higher enrollment numbers in arts and humanities (237:181 in 2005 and 80:45 in 2006); social sciences, management, and law (3354:3202 in 2005 and 3964:3667 in 2006); health and welfare (247:107 in 2005 and 279:133 in 2006); and, services31 (93:59 in 2006). While the table suggests that women have more access to higher education within the private sector, the difference in the number of enrolments in engineering, industry, and construction shows the highest disparity of access between women and men. Also noteworthy is the fact that arts and humanities registered a considerable decline in enrolments for both men and women.

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28 INE
30 Note: I have selected these two years as illustrations to the data available. Other available data and publications are available online at http://www.ine.gov.mz/publicacoes/publicacoes_pag.
31 No numbers were entered for 2005.
Table 1: Enrollments by Gender and Area of Study, 2005 & 2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Study</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/Engineering</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td>1622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature/Humanities</td>
<td>902</td>
<td>1821</td>
<td>2723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences, Law</td>
<td>1726</td>
<td>4142</td>
<td>5868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine/Health</td>
<td>694</td>
<td>2853</td>
<td>3547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering, Industry</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>2098</td>
<td>3542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture/Fish</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>792</td>
<td>1071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service/Health &amp; Welfare</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>1115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture/Engineering</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>615</td>
<td>775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-total</td>
<td>4935</td>
<td>13298</td>
<td>18183</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Study</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/Engineering</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literature/Humanities</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences, Law</td>
<td>3305</td>
<td>3292</td>
<td>6597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine/Health</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering, Industry</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>412</td>
<td>546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture/Fish</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>406</td>
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<tr>
<td>Service/Health &amp; Welfare</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture/Engineering</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-total</td>
<td>4441</td>
<td>4994</td>
<td>9435</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exceptions were noted in 2005 when more women graduated (45:19) in a health and welfare degree in public universities; more women graduated (383:310) in a social sciences, management, and law degree in private universities; and, in 2006, when more women graduated (13:4) with a health and welfare degree in private universities. The largest gap in graduation rates between men and women was in engineering, industry, and construction (270:34) in public schools in 2006. Other considerable gaps were in the field of services (66:17) in public universities in 2006; engineering, industry, and construction (25:3) in private universities in 2005; engineering, industry, and construction (44:21) in private universities in 2006; services (31:12) in private universities in 2006; and, agriculture (73:26) in private universities in 2006.
Objective 3: to offer concrete recommendations for effective policies directed toward the ideals of widening participation.

Recommendations

Arguing for contextual considerations in projects seeking broadening participation in ICTs, Assié-Lumumba argues that,

One instrument that has been used to lure African countries to accept external control is technology, specifically the Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). Given Africans’ dire need to increase possibilities for access to higher education enrollment, and satisfy the persistent demand, the option of ICTs tends to be presented as a panacea.

Based on the literature and personal experience with broadening participation projects, I urge policy makers and practitioners to be aware that the following recommendations are not exhaustive and to take contextual considerations into account when attempting to implement the following recommendations:

- Use a “low-hanging fruit” approach to recruitment.
Consider providing professional development to local area high school teachers. [To prepare students who have been left out]

Connect with high schools to establish a recruitment strategy.

Work with university’s existing programs, if any, to leverage conduits into local high schools and school districts, if these do not already exist.

Create a committee that focuses on diversity issues or charge an existing undergraduate committee progressing on diversity.

**Plan for diversity efforts to be sustained.** Sustaining the supports that have been established requires a plan to be enacted that may include formalizing the director’s position and officially involving more faculty members (i.e., clearly establishing service credit for participation).

Develop a purposeful targeted Advertising/Marketing Campaign.

Develop retention plan

Continue to encourage all stakeholders (faculty, students, and administration) to participate in decision-making mechanisms about equitable participation in higher education. This requires that students be validated as equal, or at least indispensable, partners.

**Demythologize STEM.** Some STEM disciplines are often portrayed, directly or indirectly, as disciplines for the economic and intellectual elite. Although many poor males may access these fields in developing countries, there is still a sense that these fields are only for a certain type of people—for example, those who possess a higher intellectual, physical, and sexual dispositions.

Help students to enter fields to which they are traditionally marginalized by creating pathways to non-traditional fields through interdisciplinary participation.

To better recommend students’ involvement in interdisciplinary work (an inevitable rout in today’s world), it is essential that faculty learn about potential interdisciplinary subject-based connections and engage in interdisciplinary work. Students who are unlikely to participate in certain subject areas, traditionally, would most likely be exposed to those areas through interdisciplinary engagement/initiative.

- Help students to make knowledge connection between courses
- Encourage faculty members to participate in interdisciplinary workshops in order to be better prepared to equip an interdisciplinary generation of academics and professionals

When introducing diversity efforts, while making an intentional focus on non-traditional students (those unable to participate), the university should continue to emphasize the academic interest and intellectual propensity of students as a primary criterion.

Mobilize students, faculty, and administrators to become word-of-mouth advertising agents of subject areas that do not traditionally attract certain populations (specially, women). For instance, it should not be assumed that only women should sustain the university’s effort; males can become a good vehicle to recruit women to STEM fields where women are not participating.
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APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

Africa Higher Education Collaborative (AHEC):
Improving equity and access to Higher Education in Africa
http://www.cies.org/Programs/AHEC/

What is the AHEC?

The purpose of the program is to identify strategies for increasing equity and access to higher education in Africa. This is no small task and it is an extremely important one. The Collaborative seeks to accomplish this task by serving as a think tank and source of information for policy makers, practitioners and the interested public. AHEC is a project of the Council for International Exchange of Scholars (CIES), a division of the Institute of International Education (IIE). The IIE MENA regional office has partnered with CIES to provide logistical support. The AHEC program is sponsored by the Ford Foundation office in Egypt.

Why is AHEC such an important program?

The need to increase equity and access to higher education is critically important to Africa. Increased access to quality higher education increases the capacity of the African continent to create a future prosperity, improve public health, advance sustainability, and much more. Yet higher education systems everywhere are over-extended and under-resourced and are trying to respond to massive demand worldwide.

The result is a pressing need for high quality research on higher education equity and access on the African continent and beyond; for identifying viable and practical policy solutions that address the sources of inequality; for designing financial mechanisms and funding options to improve access; and for improving delivery systems of education in a effort to alleviate the most serious inequities in the quality of higher education.

Why a collaborative?

Because a group of scholars collaborating across countries and academic disciplines has the potential to find better solutions than any one individual scholar. There is tremendous power in comparing ideas, in sharing information and in testing solutions by deliberating what works, where and how.

The AHEC process will allow participants to develop new ways of thinking and working collaboratively on issues central to the development of equitable and accessible higher education opportunities across the African continent. Participants will be able to create a network of information and expertise that will advance solutions and provide invaluable guidance to policy makers, practitioners and the public at large.
How does AHEC work?

The initial meeting of the Collaborative was held in Cairo, from February 9 to 12, 2008. The purpose of this first meeting was to provide participants with the opportunity to get to know other scholar participants from Egypt, Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa, to form working groups that address relevant sub-sets of issues relevant to the topic of improving equity and access to higher education in Africa, to set goals for the work of the collaborative and its working groups, and to meet resource persons, guest speakers and CIES staff who form the support network to AHEC project. Each working group selected one of its members as group coordinator to facilitate the collaboration among participating scholars.

Each participant brought his/her own academic discipline, background, experience and aspirations. Higher education itself is an important research field that has much to offer. At the same time, the opportunity to engage with participating scholars face to face also began the important process of information sharing and of adding new perspectives to individual work of the participating scholars. The continued collaboration among scholars will be facilitated by the four working group coordinators and through the AHEC website.

A second meeting is planned for October 2008 in Johannesburg, South Africa. The final meeting of the AHEC program will take place in Nairobi, Kenya, in the spring of 2009.
APPENDIX B

RELEVANT ABSTRACTS

Restructuring as a Panacea for the Sustainable Development of the Nigerian University System
M Olalekan Arikewuyo. Higher Education Policy. Houndmills: Jun 2009. Vol. 22, Iss. 2; pg. 245

The Nigerian university system, in spite of its astronomical growth in size, has been beset by a barrage of problems, which are threatening its ability to perform the traditional roles of teaching, research and services. Such problems as highlighted in this paper include: unplanned expansion leading to proliferation of both private and public universities; deterioration of physical facilities; student unrest; inability to absorb all qualified candidates; under funding; industrial unrest, occasioned by incessant strikes by academic and non-academic staff and brain drain, to mention a few. Since the emergence of the Fourth Republic in 1999, various stakeholders in the education sector have been expressing concern on the need to reposition the university system in Nigeria. This paper therefore proposes restructuring in the areas of staffing vis-à-vis the population of academic and non-academic staff, pattern of funding and admission procedures, as it affects the relevance of the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board; the quality of teaching and learning in the universities; checking the proliferation of public and private universities and finally the formal training of university administrators, as some of the panacea that are imperative for the sustainable development of university education in Nigeria.

Evidence of Returns to Schooling in Africa from Household Surveys: Monitoring and Restructuring the Market for Education

Wage differentials by education of men and women are examined from several recent African household surveys to document empirical regularities in private wage returns to schooling. In contrast to the common description which states that returns are highest at primary school levels and decrease at secondary and post-secondary levels, these surveys imply private returns in six countries are highest at the secondary and post-secondary levels and generally as high for women as they are for men, though women are less likely to enrol at these higher levels of schooling, with the exception of South Africa. Thus, the large public subsidies for post-secondary education in Africa do not appear needed to motivate students to enrol and those who have in the past enrolled in these levels of education are shown to have been drawn disproportionately from the most educated families. More efficient management of higher education in Africa could be encouraged, if the children of well-educated parents were to pay the public costs of their schooling and these tuition revenues were used to expand higher education and finance fellowships for only the children of the poor, who on average face relatively low returns in Africa on their basic education and have the greatest difficulty borrowing to finance their attendance in school.
The political economy of access and equitable allocation of resources to higher education.

Accelerated expansion of and increased access to higher education (HE) have been widely supported as a response to the social, political and economic imperatives in many countries. Increased access to and equitable allocation of resources to HE in developing countries have been advocated to accommodate the new kind of student entering HE, to increase access for previously under-represented groups, and to make HE responsive to the changing conditions affected by globalisation. This paper examines demands to accelerate expansion of and increase access to HE for blacks and to make the HE sector competitive, cost-effective and efficient in the changing conditions in post-apartheid South Africa. It argues that the popularised, accelerated expansion of and increased access to HE have not significantly improved the achievement of social equity, social justice and social development because of the external influence of global competitiveness. It argues further that the current policy of institutional mergers and incorporations is driven by demands to make the HE sector efficient and does not seem to sufficiently address historical inequities in higher education. It concludes that the participation rate in HE in South Africa has not improved as was hoped, because of internal factors including the scourge of HIV/AIDS, the declining number of matriculants enrolling into higher education and the lack of effective governance and management in some Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs). [Copyright 2003 Elsevier]

Globalisation and higher education funding policy shifts in Kenya.

This paper identifies, examines and discusses higher education funding policy shifts that have taken place in Kenya. The paper argues that even though Kenya's higher education funding policy shifts, from free higher education to cost-sharing, and privatisation and commercialisation, are (to a greater extent) products of the country's encounter with globalisation, local social, political and economic dynamics have been of equally significant influence. Thus, the country's higher education funding policies have been products of a convergence of both the dynamics of globalisation and local contextual imperatives. Furthermore, the point is made that the shift from free higher education to cost-sharing, and privatisation and commercialisation, was symptomatic of a global transition from a development paradigm that was predominantly based on Keynesianism to a neo-liberal paradigm that privileges mean expenditure on social services (such as higher education) and the market logic.

Trends suggest that business practices and private sector ideas and values are increasingly permeating public funded higher education institutions world-wide. The impact of business practices and values on higher education policy and practice is discernible in the growing dominance of global privatisation, quasi-marketisation and new managerialism in the higher education sector. However, reactions of different role players and responses of higher learning institutions to these external demands have varied according to local conditions and institutional types. This article contributes to the debate on the increasing permeation of business practices and private sector ideas and values on higher education in South Africa after apartheid using the case study of the University of Pretoria. It begins with the review of debates on higher education on this topic in general, and then moves on to analyse these debates in South Africa using the resource dependence theory and structuralism as conceptual frames. It argues that: (i) the increasing marketisation and quasi-marketisation in higher education and training could be attributed to the influence of neo-liberalism and new managerialism; (ii) changes in higher education provision, policy and practice in South Africa need to be understood in terms of marketisation and quasi-marketisation rather than in terms of privatisation; (iii) although the influence of these external forces is unlikely to be reversed, provision, policies and practices must be tempered by imperatives of redress and equity in South Africa; and (iv) the case study of the University of Pretoria reported here is used as an example of the extent to which institutions are becoming entrepreneurial.

A NOTE ON BANTU EDUCATION, 1953 TO 1970.

In 1954 Hendrik Verwoerd, one of the main architects of the apartheid system, said that blacks ought not to be trained above certain “forms of labour”. These words, often quoted out of context, are commonly interpreted as based on a view of black inferiority and as designed to keep blacks in a position of servitude. This note argues that other considerations should also be taken into account, including the need for providing appropriate labour on a mass basis in an industrialising society and for establishing control over urbanised black youths.

An equity perspective on access to, enrolment in and finance of tertiary education.

Failure to achieve equitable access to university studies has contributed to turning the focus to the funding of higher education systems. This paper aims to review critically the literature assessing the effectiveness of existing financing schemes and changes in them as a means for reducing the prevalent under-representation of students from a socially disadvantaged background. While the theoretical literature fails to be consensual with respect to the equity effects of student funding schemes, empirical studies remain scarce and inconclusive due to the lack of harmonized data that comprehensively describe the
social make-up of higher education attendees. For reasons of space, references are kept at a minimum but can be found elsewhere.

**Chapter 6: Financing higher education.**

America's *higher education* system is among the best in the world but there are, nevertheless, areas for improvement. In particular, there appear to be substantial financial barriers to *higher education* despite large government expenditures aimed at promoting *access*. Policy makers have proposed addressing these barriers by increasing student grants. However, grants are fiscally costly, they have unattractive efficiency and equity implications and research does not show them to be effective. Income tax concessions and state government subsidies suffer from similar problems. In contrast, international best practice seems to be converging on student loans with repayments that vary according to income. Income-contingent loans facilitate *access* to college at low fiscal cost and without the inefficiency and *inequities* that accompany grants, subsidies or tax concessions. At the same time, they do not discourage risk-averse or uninformed students in the way that conventional loans do. The United States has an income-contingent loan programme that should be expanded. While the design of repayments could be improved, the main problem with this programme is that lending limits are too low. *Higher* limits, especially for unsubsidised direct loans, would benefit students and promote *access* at little cost to the government. Were a good system of loans in place, then less cost-effective means of promoting *access*, such as grants and tax concessions, should be cut back.

**Reviews of National Policies for Education**

Gives a brief overview of regional issues and the history of education in South Africa and describes the development of education in the country over the past 15 years. It presents an analysis of the education system, identifying key directions for the reinforcement of the reforms in light of the challenges encountered by officials, communities, enterprises, educators, parents and students under very dynamic conditions. It concludes with a set of key recommendations concerning the structure of the system and its labour market relevance; access and equity; financing; governance and management; internationalisation; and research, development and innovation.

**PART ONE: COUNTRY BACKGROUND REPORT--SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION**
Chapter 1. Introduction
Chapter 2. Education in South Africa - An Overview
Chapter 3. The Components (Sectors) of the Education System
- Early Childhood Development
- Schools (Grades 1 to 12)
- Further Education and Training Colleges
- Adult Basic Education and Training
Access and Equity

There has been strong growth in student enrolment in recent years, and the government aims to see 50% of young people aged 18-24 entering tertiary education by 2012. This chapter considers whether all groups have equal access and opportunities to enter and graduate from the system.

South Africa: Distance Higher Education Policies For Access, Social Equity, Quality, And Social And Economic Responsiveness In A Context Of The Diversity Of Provision By Saleem Badat. Distance Education, Volume 26, Issue 2 August 2005, pages 183 – 204

The principal concern of this paper is the implication of the increasing diversity of higher education provision in South Africa for equity of access and opportunity for historically disadvantaged social groups, high-quality provision, and social and economic responsiveness in distance higher education. This diversity is signalled by a variety of modes of delivery and learning/teaching methods, and the use of various terms to depict these. The article addresses this concern through an engagement with critical distance higher education policy issues, such as institutional differentiation and roles, the institutional location of distance education provision, the development of expertise and resources, the financing of distance provision and its quality assurance, and the monitoring and evaluation of the performance of distance education providers. In the course of this engagement the article also addresses a number of key themes that recur across the various policy documents produced during the past decade of democracy in South Africa.
Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges: Implications Of Recent Developments For Access And Equity, Cost And Funding, Quality And Capacity Building

OECD Publication

This chapter provides an analysis of the main educational policy issues raised by cross-border education and points to some emerging issues. The first section shows the possible importance of cross-border post-secondary education for expanding access to post-secondary education, while also stressing possible equity issues.

**Resource Shifts in South African Schools After the Political Transition.**

Although racial data are no longer available, this article uses a 1997 dataset to compare education spending with the pre-democracy situation. The new government emphasised fiscal resource shifts to eliminate spending discrimination rather than changing educational outcomes. Fiscal resource shifts in education and increased education spending were concentrated in formerly black schools. At the geographic level, non-metropolitan regions gained massively. Yet, as qualified teachers remain scarce in poorer schools, fiscal inequalities have remained, also among black schools. In addition, private resources have considerably supplemented the resources of affluent schools. The large spending shift was mainly a fiscal one (higher teacher salaries in poor schools), although real resource shifts (in pupil/teacher ratios) were not insubstantial. However, poor matriculation results indicate that additional resources, whether fiscal or real, were poorly translated into improved educational outcomes. As equity in education should be measured by equitable educational outcomes rather than equity in educational resource allocation, much work remains to be done.

**Intergenerational Education Mobility Of Black And White South Africans.**

Using the October Household Surveys, we found that the intergenerational education mobility of whites is higher than that of blacks. Among blacks, females have a higher intergenerational education mobility than males, while the poorest have the lowest intergenerational education mobility. The lower education mobility of blacks than that of whites indicate that factors such as access to the credit market, as well as the availability and quality of schools, are important determinants of educational attainment. Interestingly, the cross section estimates of black intergenerational education mobility do not differ from those obtained by using pseudopanel data, which control for unobserved community effects.

**Digital Divide: A Discursive Move Away from the Real Inequities.**
Within the context of the telecommunications policy environment in the United States during the 1990s, the Department of Commerce's Falling Through the Net reports can be read as a 7-year ideological project to legitimize U.S. government's deregulatory policies. This article analyzes the “digital divide” as rhetorical trope in a neoliberal ideology, which placed responsibility for social and economic success in the emerging global information economy at the level of the individual and not the system, effectively foreclosing on any class-based analyses of the problems associated with the transition from a Keynesian welfare state and industrial economy to a neoliberal and globalized information economy. Unpacking the discursive significance of the “digital divide,” with special focus on public libraries and projects of the Gates Foundation, illuminates how it foreclosed on the possibility of alternative problem definitions by making the problem a technical and administrative one rather than an issue of historic class struggle. The article draws on open-source projects in developing countries to offer an alternate frame for formulating policies for equitable access to information and communication technologies (ICTs).

The Impact Of Apartheid On Women's Education In South Africa.
By Unterhalter, Elaine. Review of African Political Economy; Sep90, Vol. 17 Issue 48, p66

Explores some of the contradictory aspects of women's education under apartheid in South Africa. Inadequacy of women's education for blacks despite expansion in the provision of education for both blacks and whites; Disparities in spending between black and white education; Effects of segregation and authoritarian centralization on women's education.

Social Attributes, Equity And Higher Educative Path. Microeconometric Study Of A Discrete Choice Model With Logistic Regression.

Developed countries are subjected to many social inequalities of which access at various stages of schooling is one of the most important. Regarded as more equitable in this context, is one education system which will less make dependent the results on individuals of their social origin. While taking Boudon's model as a starting point, the study seeks to determine, using logistic modelling, factors determining the university path. The analysis shows that if the continuation of studies depends on multiple factors, the role of the social origin is not negligible. The results join those of Peraita and Sanchez (1998) concerning Spain and Sawkins (2002) concerning Scotland. However, the various estimates show that it is primarily at the university end of the course that the role of the social factors takes place. Thus, the results would be more in favour of Boudon's model at the beginning of the course, against Bourdieu's, after.

Abolishing School Fees in Malawi: The Impact on Education Access and Equity.
In 1994, the newly elected Government in Malawi abolished primary school fees. Using household survey data from 1990/91 and 1997/98, this paper assesses the impact this major policy change, combined with increased Government spending on education, has had on access to schooling by the poor. This paper shows that enrolment rates have increased dramatically over the 1990s, at both the primary and secondary levels, and that crucially these gains have been greatest for the poor. In order to sustain and build-on these gains the paper suggests cutting back on the informal 'contributions' that are widely prevalent in primary school and improving the allocation of secondary school funding. Furthermore, the focus of policy reform, particularly at primary level, should shift towards raising the quality of education. Finally the paper argues that careful advance planning and piloting of the reform in selected areas are useful strategies that other countries considering abolishing primary school fees could take to cope with the associated surge in enrolments.

A Model of the Southern African-Type Economy.
Porter, Richard C. American Economic Review; Dec78, Vol. 68 Issue 5, p743

The purpose of this article is to give a broad, stylized picture of how Southern African economies work, of the behavior of the economic actors, of the constraints to and goals of white policy and of the conflicts and inefficiencies of resource allocation. The model is heuristic, that is, aimed primarily at understanding rather than empirical application. It is sufficiently removed from an exact replica of the economy of South Africa or Rhodesia that it is more appropriately labeled the Southern African-type economy. The basis of such an economy is a market economy where market constraints and policy parameters are determined by whites and for whites. Despite this dominance, there are many restrictions on the feasible range of white policy, and there are fundamental conflicts between different white groups and their goals. Despite near complete power to fix white wage rates well above black wage rates and to preclude employers from hiring blacks to replace more costly whites, white policymakers cannot fully exercise their power lest they generate politically unacceptable levels of white unemployment.

Private Monies, Public Universities: Implications for Access And University Behavior. A study of Makerere University
By Carrol, Bidemi. Stanford University. 2005. AAT 3171774

In the early 1990s, Makerere University introduced the Private Entry Scheme (PES)--a scheme that allowed the university to raise revenues by admitting students who pay tuition and fees. This reform is part of a growing trend towards privatization in higher education. The dissertation explores two broad implications of the PES--the first is the implication for access and the second, the implication for university behavior. To do so it asks three questions. First, has the PES increased inequities in participation at Makerere? Using survey data of students at Makerere, I compare the socioeconomic status of students admitted under the PES to those admitted under the government scholarship
scheme. The analyses suggest that the PES has entrenched, rather than increased, existing inequities in participation at the university. Second, how has the financial environment of the university changed as a result of the PES? Using financial records of the university and selected faculties within the university, the analyses show that the PES has become an important source of revenue for the university. Furthermore, due to the success of the PES, international funding agencies have also increased their support to the university. On the other hand, government funding has stayed relatively constant throughout the last decade. The extent of privatization differs among faculties within the university as some faculties have been able to admit large numbers of fee-paying students. Furthermore, because new resource allocation procedures allow faculties to retain a portion of the revenues generated, some faculties have much higher revenues than others.

Third, how has the PES shaped relations within the university? Using data from interviews of Makerere University staff, the analyses concludes that the PES has led to increased differentiation among faculties and has created conflict within the university. I show that there is conflict between high- and low-revenue faculties and between central administration and academics over the ownership and control of the revenues generated from the PES. I also find that major aspects of academic work such as decisions on the curriculum, quality of teaching, and research have been reshaped by the process of privatization.

**Transformation and Equity: Women and Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa.**

This paper critically examines women's participation in higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Specifically it considers two dimensions of their participation: namely, the fields of study in which females are enrolled and the staff composition of higher education institutions. We argue from an equity perspective that, while the participation rate of women in higher education has increased, this has been in particular field of study (mainly humanities and social sciences). We further argue that there are still few women at senior levels in higher education institutions, given an overall increase in gross participation rates. This suggests a need for more proactive and positive strategies to effect greater equity in higher education.

**Breaking Higher Education's Iron Triangle: Access, Cost, and Quality**

The requirements for a model that could allow higher education to expand rapidly in the developing world are that it be readily scalable (wide access), academically credible (high quality) and affordable (low cost). This could be achieved by building higher education networks around credible examination systems run by national or independent bodies or established institutions and then encouraging a market of support providers to aid in development. In this article, the authors opine that the aims of wide access, high quality, and low cost are not achievable, even in principle, with traditional models of higher education based on classroom teaching in campus communities. They suggest a
more rigorous and ongoing relationship than this. Perceptions of quality are changing, and the growing emphasis on outcomes and standards heralds the possibility of a model of higher education that could achieve the ministerial aims—one that centers on examinations and allows students to choose different ways of preparing for them. Although this type of system has a long history, contemporary technologies such as eLearning and open educational resources promise to make it even more cost-effective today.

**Affirmative Action, Gender Equity and University Admissions—Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania**  

The article examines the outcomes of affirmative action policies aimed at improving access for women students to university education in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. Different interpretations of affirmative action are found in the three countries. These include lower entry scores, remedial pre-university programmes and financial assistance. There are limitations and weaknesses inherent in the piecemeal strategies that focus only on the point of admission to university. Thus affirmative action as currently applied does not enhance access and gender equity in university education. A multifaceted approach to developing gender equality in universities would require various strategies to support one another in order to enhance access and gender equity in university education in the three countries.


Information Management System (IMS) is an essential tool in supporting the provision of information needed for planning and decision making in any organization. Proper IMS facilitates the smooth flow of information both vertical and horizontal. This paper presents the findings of a survey on information needs of the Gender Development Programme Committee (GDPC) of the University of Dar es Salaam that was carried out with a view to developing appropriate Information Management System. A total of 180 respondents were involved in this study, comprising of students, faculty members, administrative staff and the Senior University Management. Interview, questionnaire, in-depth interview and focus group discussions were the main data collection methods. The study revealed that GDPC generates a lot of information on its activities such as gender based research opportunities, undergraduate female scholarships and gender sensitization workshops. Information on these activities is highly needed by the stakeholders but there is no organized vertical and horizontal system of information flow. The study recommends the establishment of GDPC’s information dissemination mechanism, including developing databases on GDPC activities, creation of a website, establishing a documentation unit and transforming GDPC to a full fledged Gender Centre.

**Promoting Access, Quality and Capacity-Building in African Higher Education**  
The Strategic Planning Experience at Eduardo Mondlane University
During the 1990’s, strategic institutional reforms were introduced at Mozambique’s Eduardo Mondlane University. These reforms were intended to expand access to higher education, improve the quality of university teaching and research, and strengthen capacities for institutional planning, program implementation, performance monitoring and output evaluation. This report analyzes the efforts made in carrying out the reforms, takes into consideration the historical and political background, and presents the problems and prospects under which the planning process evolved.
APPENDIX C

Additional Resources

**Articles on higher education and access and equity (International/Not Necessarily Africa) from AHEC**


http://ideas.repec.org/p/rif/dpaper/1098.html


From Equity to Efficiency: Access to higher education in South Africa. By Chrissie Boughey. http://ahh.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/2/1/65

[FROM THE ABOVE SOURCE I FOUND THE FOLLOWING AND ENDED UP IN THE NIGERIA AND SUB-SUHARIAN… LINK]
[Note: There are many sources on this site]

Higher Education Access and Equity of Ethnic Minorities in China. By Zhiyong Zhu
http://www.hku.hk/cerc/HEBAN/HEBAN3-ppt/Zhu-Zhiyong.ppt

Gender Equity in Commonwealth Higher Education: Emerging Themes in Nigeria, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Uganda. By Chandra Gunawardena
http://www.col.org/pcf3/Papers/PDFs/Gunawardena_Chandra_etal.pdf

Link to a number of articles on international access and equity:
http://www.bc.edu/bc_org/avp/soe/cihe/inhea/pubs_theme/Access_and_Equity.htm

Participation in Higher Education: Equity and Access - Are Equity-Based Scholarships an Answer? By Buly Cardac

Transformation tensions in higher education: equity, efficiency, and development. By Cloete, Nico; Moja, Teboho
http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1G1-138998315.html

The various Resources from (links) in the World Council of Comparative Education
http://www.wcces.net/links/index.html#AcademicResourcesAndDatabases

WIGSAT (Women and Global Science and Technology)—bibliography, reports, and publications
http://www.wigsat.org/node/21
http://www.wigsat.org/node/11