HEART
HEALTH & EDUCATION ADVICE & RESOURCE TEAM

Helpdesk Report: Higher Education Reform

Date: 17th January 2014

Query: Produce a short report which provides an overview of the governance of higher education and sector reform in selected DFID focus countries: Kenya, South Africa, Rwanda, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Tanzania, and Mozambique

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Content

1. Overview

Formal research and evaluations were not readily available for most of the countries in this report so it draws on a variety of sources which may not be viewed as strong evidence.

The report covers seven countries for each country there is a profile outlining how higher education is organised and drawing together the key points on reform. This is followed in each case by an annotated bibliography of resources on higher education reform.

2. Kenya Higher Education Profile

Government departments responsible for oversight

A Permanent Secretary in the Office of the Prime Minister is in charge of performance contracting. In the Ministry of Education there are two officers designated to be in charge of performance contracting (Varghese, 2013).

The Commission for University Education (CUE) is a public service and sole regulatory agency for planning and coordinating the growth and expansion of university education in

Kenya. The Commission is a specialised government agency whose parent Ministry is the Ministry of Higher Education, Science & Technology.

Arrangements in place for financing, including both HEIs and students
Costs are shared between the government and users. A student loan programme is in place which uses means testing so that it reaches those that need it most. A dual track tuition and pay lower fees. The other students are self-sponsored and pay a significantly larger amount (ICHEFP, 2009).

Costs are shared between the government and users. A student loan programme is in place which uses means testing so that it reaches those that need it most. A dual track tuition policy is in place where a small number of high performing students gain merit-based entry and pay lower fees (module I). The other students (module II) are self-sponsored and pay a significantly larger amount (ICHEFP), 2009.

Revenue diversification strategies include: establishment of units for income generation, institution of overhead charges, and the introduction of the dual track programs in 1998.

Although the 1980s and 90s saw the emergence of some private institutions, the provision of university education continues to be monopolised by the public sector and the contribution of private institutions in expanding access to higher education is still minimal. As of 2009, the private sector claims less than 20 percent of the overall undergraduate enrollment.

Arrangements in place for quality assurance
The government have quarterly monitoring and then semi-annual and annual evaluations of the results (Varghese, 2013).

CUE is involved in monitoring university programmes.

Main categories of HEIs which are active
The CUE recognise the following categories:
- Public Universities. Established through Acts of Parliament.
- Public University Constituent Colleges. Established by a Legal Order upon satisfying set minimum standards by the CUE.
- Chartered Private Universities. Universities that have met the set standards for full university accreditation status.
- Private Universities with Letter of Interim Authority (LIA). With LIA from CUE these universities receive guidance and direction to continue developing resources and facilities towards full university accreditation (Award of Charter) status.

There appears to be a clear distinction between public and private higher education institutions (HEIs).

Regulation/legislation setting out operating rules for private HEIs

The Universities Act requires private universities to keep financial records and provide annual financial statements. They must also ensure an annual audit and provide the board of trustees a certified copy of the report.

Higher education reforms since the mid-1990's
The main higher education reforms since the mid-1990's in Kenya have been 1) Introduction of a dual track tuition policy in 1998; and 2) The Universities Act 2012.

The tuition fee policy change was motivated by the lack of government funding and the need to create more revenue from tuition fees.

The new Universities Act was introduced in 2012 to streamline and improve the management of university affairs.

Resources/ references
Commission for Higher Education Kenya (2008) Handbook on Processes for Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Kenya
http://www.cue.or.ke/downloads/category/1-general?download=38:handbook-on-processes-for-quality-assurance-in-higher-education-in-kenya

Commission for University Education
http://www.cue.or.ke/

The International Comparative Higher Education and Finance Project (ICHEFP). Higher Education Finance and Cost Sharing Profiles: Kenya. 2009
http://gse.buffalo.edu/org/inthigheredfinance/files/Country_Profiles/Africa/Kenya.pdf

The Universities Act, No. 42 of 2012
http://www.uonbi.ac.ke/sites/default/files/The%20Universities%20Act%202012_0.pdf

Varghese, N.V. (2013). Governance reforms in higher education: A study of selected countries in Africa. IIEP Theme Paper
http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/News_And_Events/pdf/2013/Governance_reforms_in_HE_paper_PF.pdf

3. Resources on higher education reform in Kenya

Governance reforms in higher education: A study of selected countries in Africa
Varghese, N.V. (2013) IIEP Theme Paper
http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/News_And_Events/pdf/2013/Governance_reforms_in_HE_paper_PF.pdf

In Kenya, as a follow-up to the public service reforms of the 1990s, the government introduced results-based management (RBM) as the basic approach to governance and management of public institutions. The performance contract (PC) was one of the important elements in this reform. A PC is a negotiated agreement between the government and public institutions focusing on their performance and outcomes. The PC provides the managerial and operational autonomy to public institutions. The PC is based on performance criteria or the tenets of good corporate governance, and each performance criteria has selected performance indicators to measure the progress made. In a typical PC, performance indicators and targets for each criterion are represented in a matrix and form a part of the contract.

With regards to government structure, at the national level, a Permanent Secretary position was created in the Office of the Prime Minister to be in charge of performance contracting. In the Ministry of Higher Education, two officers were designated to be in charge of performance contracting. At the university level: a) an ad-hoc committee chaired by the DVC (administration and finance) was created and mandated to develop university corporate strategic plans and performance contracts with the ministry; b) a full-time PC secretariat was created under the Office of the DVC (Administration and Finance), with some of the colleges; c) an ad-hoc ISO Steering Committee under the Office of the Vice-Chancellor, with ad-hoc committees at the college level; d) DVC in charge of research, production and extension; and e) DVC in charge of student affairs to improve service delivery.

With the introduction of PCs, institutional governance and management has been shared among the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, the University Councils,

and the performance contracting secretariat. The buffer institution, (Commission for Higher Education, CHE) did not have much role. However, the new Universities Act, 2012 gives the Commission for University Education (CUE) a supervisory role over all universities.

In Nairobi University, the management style has become more transparent, accountable, participatory and inclusive with better scope for the unions to negotiate for better terms. Kenya introduced competitive hiring of senior managers. For example, the Secretary in charge of higher education is hired competitively. Similarly, staff recruitment and promotions are based on the evaluation of their performance. The staff in ministries need to attend specific courses at the Kenya Institute of Management before they may be considered for promotion. The competitive hiring of all top managers helped minimize political interference.

In Kenya, the monitoring and evaluation procedures were strengthened. They introduced a quarterly monitoring and semi-annual and annual evaluations of the results. However, there is criticism that the department in charge of Performance Contracting very often did not find funds and time to analyze the quarterly reports from the institutions or check the actual performance on the ground. Such defaults did not happen in universities such as the University of Nairobi. The systematic monitoring seems to have improved performance both at the individual and university levels.

In Kenya, the reforms helped introduce an automated accounting system, zero-based budgeting, and better financial management. Some of these efforts led to the generation of operational surplus in the university. Prior to the reforms on university autonomy, the acute shortage of funds almost led to the total collapse of the university system leading to a decline in research output and quality of teaching in AAU.

Challenges, Lessons and Opportunities. The Inter-university Council for East Africa
Nyaigotti-Chacha, C., Reforming Higher Education in Kenya, 2004
http://www.international.ac.uk/media/4000/reforming_he.pdf

This paper describes the history and expansion of Higher Education in Kenya. The main reform since the mid-1990's is the establishment of the Commission for Higher Education, in 1995 under the provisions of the Universities Act, with some of the following major functions:
   a) to promote the objectives of university education namely the development, processing, storage and dissemination of knowledge for the benefit of mankind;
   b) to advise the minister on the establishment of public universities; To accredit universities;
   c) to coordinate the long term planning, staff development, scholarship and physical development of university education;
   d) to promote national unity and identity in universities;
   e) to liaise with government departments and public and private sectors of the economy in matters relating to overall national manpower development and requirements;
   f) to cooperate with government in the planned development of university education
   g) to examine and approve proposals for courses of study and course regulations submitted to it by private universities
   h) To receive and consider applications from persons seeking to establish private universities in Kenya and make recommendations thereon to the minister.

Some criticisms have been made regarding the operations of this organisation:
   • Accreditation has been the main function focussed on because of the mushrooming or private universities.
   • CHE was expected to play an active role in the planning, development, budgetary matters and maintaining quality education. The politicisation of planning and development of university education seems to have effectively denied the Commission this particular role.

- Government action in decision making also made it difficult for CHE to play an active role in public university budgetary matters. In practice, after the establishment of CHE, public universities continued to argue their individual budgetary submissions with the treasury, liaising with each other and collectively through the committee of vice-chancellors.
- CHE statutory requirement to make regulations in respect of admission of persons seeking to enrol in universities and provide central admissions service to public universities, as well as the maintenance of standards for courses and examinations, were rendered inoperative through the creation by the vice-chancellors of the Joint Admissions Board (JAB).

In 1998 the dual track tuition policy was introduced. This is described in ICHEFP below.

The rapid expansion of university education has led to a number of challenges. According to UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education (1998), low funding from the exchequer, increased enrolment, limited access compared to the population level, increased enrolment without commensurate improvement in available facilities, gender inequality, and a low research capacity, are some of the problems facing universities in the region. These problems have led to fears that quality of education is in a downward trend in most of these universities.

Higher Education Finance and Cost Sharing Profiles: Kenya
The International Comparative Higher Education and Finance Project (ICHEFP), 2009
http://gse.buffalo.edu/org/inthigheredfinance/files/Country_Profiles/Africa/Kenya.pdf

While very modest tuition fees were introduced in public universities in Kenya in 1991, the generated resources were insufficient given the severely limited number of students. Therefore, a dual track tuition policy was introduced in 1998 via the self-sponsored, or Module II, programs. Dual track tuition policies are characterised by a highly restricted, "merit-based" entry to free or, as in the case of Kenya, very low cost higher education, with other applicants not so admitted permitted entry on a fee-paying basis. In Kenya, the module I students pay tuition fees of Ksh 16,000 (US$542), while the module II students pay about Ksh 150,000 (US$5,081) and considerably more in some disciplines such as medicine.

Students who attain the prescribed cut off point (COP) on their Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) examinations are admitted into the regular state supported programs by the Joints Admissions Board (JAB), a non-statutory body made up of the Vice Chancellors, Deputy Vice Chancellors, Principals and Deans of the public universities and representatives from the Ministry of Education. In principle, KCSE holders with C+ and above qualify for public university admission; however, this cut off point depends on total public university student capacity. Therefore, the JAB sets the entry cut off for government-sponsored students from year to year. If a greater proportion of the students have high passes in a particular year, the cut off will be higher and vice versa. In the summer of 2009, the JAB announced that it would lower the entry grade and increase the number of government sponsored students to 20,000.

Module II students gain entry to universities on the basis of different criteria that vary from university to university. At the very initial stages of the module II programs, candidates had to be Form Four school leavers who met the minimum entry requirement of C+ but could not meet the entry cut off point for government sponsorship. In an attempt to increase the number of self- sponsored students, various institutions made admission conditions more flexible and accepted students from different academic backgrounds including holders of A level certificates, Kenya Advanced Certificate of Education (KACE) from the old 7-4-2-3 system, P1 holders, diploma holders, and certificate holders from other governmentally-recognized institutions.

Far-reaching reform as new universities law is enacted
Nganga, G (2013) University World News
http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130122145646505

A news item:

Kenya has enacted higher education reforms aimed at streamlining and improving the management of university affairs. The Universities Act 2012, finally signed into law by President Mwai Kibaki this month, introduces far-reaching changes.

Public universities, which were previously governed by specific acts of parliament, have been brought under the same law as private institutions. The act makes null and void all existing charters and letters of interim authority, which were previously required by institutions before they could operate.

The Universities Act 2012, which was first published in 2009 but faced heated opposition on a number of fronts, establishes several new bodies and restructures existing ones to aid the management of higher education.

For instance the Joint Admissions Board (JAB), which selects students for 'regular' state-funded programmes, is being replaced by a new body called the Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service.

This agency will pick students to join private and public universities alike and will draw membership from both sectors.

Previously, private universities had no representation in JAB – an issue that has been a bone of contention for years. Private universities missed out on top students, whom JAB directed to Kenya's seven public universities.

The Commission for Higher Education, the body that regulates private universities, will be replaced by the Commission for University Education (CUE). Previously self-regulating public universities will be brought under the new commission's watch.

This agency will be closely involved in monitoring university programmes and accrediting new courses. Previously, public universities relied on their senates to approve courses while private institutions had to seek the green light from the Commission for Higher Education.

Under the new law, foreign universities will be required to submit proof of accreditation from their home countries before they are allowed to offer courses in Kenya.

For local institutions, the accreditation agency will require core courses to be declared before starting operations, and accreditation will revolve around the core courses.

Public universities will also be subjected to quality assurance overseen by the commission – a role previously prevented by university acts.

In an effort to introduce professionalism in the recruitment of university chancellors, such officers will now be picked by the university community and alumni. This brings to an end an era in which university leaders were appointed by the president of Kenya.

Funding changes

The new law changes the way universities are funded and how lecturers are paid. It will eventually see state subsidies to public universities being based on the courses they offer rather than on student numbers.

The new legislation also sets up a Universities Fund, which will be the government agency handling all money allocated to universities by parliament or through donations, investments or endowments.

There is also a provision requiring a team to be established to review the salaries of university staff, to ensure uniformity. The committee, whose members will be appointed by the higher education minister, will among other things investigate lecturer salaries and collective bargaining agreements.

Lecturer pay has been a highly controversial issue. Academics have been angered by the government's decision to double the student intake in the absence of increased staff, pay and infrastructure.

Last week, lecturers at Kenya's 18 public universities and colleges said they would down tools, after the government failed to implement the 2010-12 collective bargaining agreement signed last year.

Low pay is being blamed for an exodus of lecturers from Kenyan universities, not only to Europe and North America but also to neighbouring countries such as Botswana, Uganda, Tanzania and Rwanda, where academics are paid better and handle lower numbers of students per class.

New law generally welcomed

The push for new legislation came against a backdrop of dissatisfaction over Kenyan universities' continued lack of competitiveness in the global arena and their poor performance in international rankings.

The latest Webometrics survey, which ranks universities according to their web presence, showed that Kenya's top institutions had slipped several places, indicating that they have been slow to take up new technologies.

Educationists have hailed the legislation as the single strongest weapon in a government arsenal of action aimed at strengthening a higher education sector that is mired in quality concerns and a biting admissions crisis.

Over the past few years, the reputation of higher education has deteriorated dramatically due to the mushrooming of bogus private institutions and a surge in student numbers, which has not been matched by a rise in teaching staff.

The lecturers' lobby group, the University Academic Staff Union, says there are some 9,000 lecturers in public and private universities in Kenya. The number stood at 7,000 five years ago, meaning that only 2,000 lecturers have been added to the system during this period.

Meanwhile student numbers have doubled, from around 91,541 to 180,000, according to Kenya's *Economic Survey 2012*.

As the country improved access to primary and secondary education, by making primary school free in 2003 and subsidising secondary schooling from 2008, the number of students qualified for and seeking university education soared.

"We need strict regulations in the higher education sector, and that is why we are welcoming the new law to bring order," said James Tuitoek, vice-chancellor of Egerton University, one of Kenya's public universities.

The law has, for example, introduced a US$117,600 fine against any university caught offering an unaccredited course. Institutions' administrators also face a jail sentence of up to three years for the same offence.

Kenya has been gradually rolling in reforms to revamp higher education system under the National Strategy for University Education, to be implemented by 2015.

It will see funding upped to enable more students to enrol in the coming years, easing the pressure that has been piling up on existing universities.

The new strategy also promotes the creation of new campuses in rural areas, and universities, which are currently clustered in urban areas, spreading their wings into rural areas to offer locally appropriate courses such as dry-land farming, tourism and hospitality, marine sciences and environmental resources.

Laws of Kenya, The Universities Bill, 2012
http://www.strathmore.edu/pdf/universities-bill-2012.pdf

A Bill for an ACT of Parliament to provide for the development of university education, the establishment, accreditation and governance of universities, the establishment of the Commission for University Education, University Funding Board and the Kenya University Admissions Board; the repeal of certain laws, and for connected purposes.

The Universities Bill 2012 ensures that all public and private universities will be governed under one law.

The Impact of the Commission of Higher Education and Government Reforms on Kenyan Universities
Kitawi, K.A. (undated) *Journal of the World Universities Forum*, Volume 2, Issue 5, pp.101-108.
http://wuj.cgpublisher.com/product/pub.173/prod.181

The purpose of the study was to provide an analytical framework for understanding the effect of changes induced by CHE and the Government of Kenya on Kenyan universities. The results should help inform and reform the extent to which CHE and the Government should shape the direction of these universities towards responsiveness to university-market needs and sustainability. The researcher opted for the quantitative and qualitative design approach. The estimated population of universities in Kenya is 23 universities, with seven of these being public universities. Check-lists were used to get data about the selected universities. These questions in the check lists were administered selectively on data collected earlier this year and latest statistics that were available online. The conclusions derived were that the structure, process and boundaries have been influenced by government reforms, though in varying degrees. A glaring emphasis was research activities. In addition, it has affected the external and internal linkages of universities with other stakeholders.

Unfortunately we were unable to access this article to provide further details for this report.

4. South Africa Higher Education Profile

Government departments responsible for oversight
The Ministry of Higher Education and Training is responsible for higher education across the country as a whole, while each of the nine provinces has its own education department (SouthAfrica.info).

The Council on Higher Education (CHE) was appointed in June 1998 and provides informed, strategic advice on higher education issues to the minister of education. CHE is also responsible for maintaining quality assurance within higher education and training, including program accreditation, institutional audits, program evaluation, and quality promotion.

The Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC) is a permanent sub-committee of the CHE and is responsible for promoting quality assurance in higher education, monitoring the quality assurance mechanisms of higher education institutions, and accrediting programs of higher education.

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) is comprised of 29 members appointed by the ministers of education and labour. The members are identified as national stakeholders in the education and employment sectors. SAQA accredits all higher education degrees and qualifications based on the guidelines and criteria laid out in the National Qualifications Framework (NQF).

Arrangements in place for financing, including both HEIs and students

In South Africa public funding of higher education decreased from 0.86% of GDP in 1986 to only 0.66% in 2006. Due to the decrease in state appropriations, student tuition fees had to be increased to compensate for this loss of income (de Villers, 2007).

The National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) was established in 1999 to make higher education possible for financially disadvantaged students through loans and concessions, such as not charging interest on student loans until 12 months after a student has graduated. Although subsidised by the state, the universities are autonomous, reporting to their own councils rather than government.

According to Higher Education in Context (2008), public funding of higher education has increased in recent years and universities have received a major funding boost from government to refurbish buildings, construct new facilities, upgrade equipment and libraries, improve outputs and produce more science, engineering and technology graduates.

In terms of state allocations, funding is linked to national policy goals and to the performance of universities. Direct funding allocations to universities are based on research graduates and publication outputs, teaching outputs weighted by qualification level, student numbers weighted by study fields and course levels and ad hoc or infrastructural funding for institutions that have high numbers of poor students or are small institutions (Higher Education in Context, 2008).

Arrangements in place for quality assurance
There is a Higher Education Quality Committee. It is a permanent statutory committee and part of the Council on Higher Education. It was formally enacted in the Higher Education Act in 1997 (Oosthuizen, 2010)

The Higher Education Act of 1997 assigns responsibility for quality assurance in higher education in South Africa to the Council on Higher Education (CHE). This responsibility is discharged through its permanent sub-committee, the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC). The mandate of the HEQC includes quality promotion, institutional audit and programme accreditation. As part of the task of building an effective national quality assurance system, the HEQC has also included capacity development and training as a critical component of its programme of activities (HEQC, 2004).

HEQC conduct audits based on self-evaluation by institutions of their performance against a range of criteria, and external peer assessment. A new higher education qualifications

framework came into effect in 2008 and is aimed at strengthening the quality assurance system and laying the foundation for credit accumulation and transfer, which was hindered by separate qualifications structures for universities and universities of technology (Higher Education in Context. 2008).

Main categories of HEIs which are active
Public Universities (Traditional universities; comprehensive universities; and universities of technology) and Private colleges and universities.

Higher Education in Context (2008) describes three types of public institution: 'traditional' research-focused universities, universities of technology, and 'comprehensive' universities that combine academic and vocationally oriented education.

Higher education reforms since the mid-1990's
An Education White Paper in 1997 set out initiatives for the transformation of higher education into a single-coordinated system to broaden the social base in terms of race, class, gender and age. The structure and culture of the previous system was seen to be well suited to accommodate the varying backgrounds, needs, interests and abilities of the student body of the future, to enable them to realise their potential, and contribute the necessary range and quality of knowledge, insight, skill and capability to the development and reconstruction of the country.

The Ministry recognised one of the main obstacles to implementation was the lack of capacity, both systemic and institutional. Higher education institutions need to build institutional capacity, especially in strategic planning and information management.

ICHEFP (2006) report significant progress in achieving the White Paper's goal of ensuring that the composition of the student body progressively reflects the realities of broader society.

Institutions in South Africa Council on Higher Education (2006) found changing of funding sources with decreased government funding associated with increased the student/lecturer ration and increased the number of qualifications awarded.

Between 2004 and 2005 the higher education sector was restructured which involved mergers and the launch of the Higher Education South Africa (HESA). HESA are mandated to facilitate the development of informed public policy on higher education and to encourage cooperation among universities and government, industry and other sectors of society in South Africa. The aim, according to the department of education, was to establish institutions better capable of meeting job market demands, equalising access and sustaining student growth.

Arnolds et al. (2013) investigated staff negativity around the mergers and found perceptions about merger. They found goal success are significantly related to the organisational commitment and job performance intentions of employees, organisational commitment levels are average and should be increased, perceptions about workload fairness are significantly related to the organisational commitment of employees, and employees have experienced an increased workload.

Resources/ references

Arnolds, C.A., Stofile, R.N., Lilah, R. 2013. **Assessing the outcomes of the higher education mergers in South Africa: Implications for strategic management** AOSIS OpenJournals
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http://www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/publications/HE_Monitor_Mar2006_Full_0.pdf

National Qualifications Framework
http://www.nqf.org.za/

SouthAfrica.info
http://southafrica.info/

South African Qualifications Authority
http://www.saqa.org.za/

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5. Resources on higher education reform in South Africa

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Education White Paper 3: A Programme for the Transformation of Higher Education
Department of Education, 1997.
http://www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/publications/White_Paper3.pdf

This White Paper outlines a comprehensive set of initiatives for the transformation of higher education through the development of a single co-ordinated system with new planning, governing and funding arrangements. Higher education has several related purposes. In the context of present-day South Africa, they must contribute to and support the process of societal transformation outlined in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), with its compelling vision of people-driven development leading to the building of a better quality of life for all.

One policy challenge is for higher education to provide education and training to develop the skills and innovations necessary for national development and successful participation in the global economy. In addition, higher education has to be internally restructured to face the challenge of globalisation, in particular, the breaking down of national and institutional boundaries which remove the spatial and geographic barriers to access.

Higher education must be planned, governed and funded as a single national co-ordinated system, in order to overcome the fragmentation, inequality and inefficiency which are the legacy of the past, and successfully address the present and future challenges of reconstruction and development. This is a fundamental point of policy on which all stockholders in the higher education system are agreed.

A key feature of a single co-ordinated system will be the broadening of the social base of the higher education system in terms of race, class, gender and age. The system will cater for a considerably more diverse body of learners than at present. They will become increasingly representative, at all levels of the system and in all programmes, of the racial and gender composition of the South African population. Access for disabled learners will increase. The system will open its doors, in the spirit of lifelong learning, to workers and professionals in pursuit of multiskilling and reskilling, and adult learners whose access to higher education had been thwarted in the past.

The structure and culture of the present system are not well suited to accommodate the varying backgrounds, needs, interests and abilities of the student body of the future, to enable them to realise their potential, and contribute the necessary range and quality of knowledge, insight, skill and capability to the development and reconstruction of our country.

The most significant conceptual change is that the single co-ordinated system will be premised on a programme-based definition of higher education which:
- recognises that higher education takes place in a multiplicity of institutions and sites of learning, using a variety of methods, and attracting an increasingly diverse body of learners
- is fully compatible with all the functions and integral components of higher education, which include learning and teaching, scholarship and research, community development and extension services.

National Plan for Higher Education
Ministry of Education, 2001
http://sun025.sun.ac.za/portal/page/portal/Administrative_Divisions/INB/Home/Documentation/Documentation_National/National%20Plan%20for%20Higher%20Education%20in%20South%20Africa.pdf

This National Plan outlines the framework and mechanisms for implementing and realising the policy goals of the White Paper (above). It is far-reaching and visionary in its attempt to deal with the transformation of the higher education system as a whole. It is not aimed solely at addressing the crises in some parts of the system, although these must be overcome. It will impact on every institution, as the institutional landscape of higher education is a product of the geo-political imagination of apartheid planners. As indicated in the Education Ministers Call to Action in July 1999, "it is vital that the mission and location of higher education institutions be re-examined with reference to both the strategic plan for the sector, and the educational needs of local communities and the nation at large".

Sections cover:
- Producing the graduates needed for social and economic development in South Africa
- Achieving equity in the South African Higher Education System
- Achieving diversity in the South African Higher Education System
- Sustaining and promoting research
- Restructuring the institutional landscape of the higher education system

In conclusion: the Ministry recognises that one of the main obstacles to implementation is the lack of capacity, both systemic and institutional. The Ministry acknowledges that the capacity

of the Department would have to be substantially increased.

The Ministry is equally concerned to encourage higher education institutions to build institutional capacity, especially in strategic planning and information management. The paucity of such skills was indicated in the shortcomings highlighted in the institutional three-year "rolling" plans that were submitted in 1998 and 1999. It is further confirmed by the continued difficulties that most, if not all higher education institutions have in submitting the data required, both as part of the South African Post-Secondary Education (SAPSE) information system, as well as the new higher education management system which came into operation in April 2000.

The Ministry also recognises that the successful implementation of the National Plan is dependent on securing adequate funding both for the various investigations required, as well as for institutional restructuring and re-engineering, in particular, for redress purposes. In this regard, the Ministry is concerned that the higher education expenditure as a percentage of GDP has dropped in the last few years.

The Restructuring of the Higher Education System in South Africa
National Working Group (NWG), 2001
 http://www.dhet.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=gXuNDxNwPo8%3D&tabid=411&mid=1369

This report represents the NWG's recommendations to the Minister of Education on appropriate arrangements for consolidating the provision of higher education on a regional basis through establishing new institutional and organisational forms, including reducing the number of higher education institutions.

The NWG's recommendations are two-fold. The first relates to a number of general issues which cut across all regions. The second is a set of proposals and recommendations for the consolidation of higher education provision on a regional basis through establishing new institutional and organisational forms, including a reduction in the number of higher education institutions from 36 to 21 through mergers.

Higher Education Finance and Cost-Sharing in South Africa
The International Comparative Higher Education and Finance Project (ICHEFP). 2006.
http://gse.buffalo.edu/org/inthigheredfinance/files/Country_Profiles/Africa/Kenya.pdfhttp://gse.buffalo.edu/org/inthigheredfinance/files/Country_Profiles/Africa/South_Africa.pdf

Since 1997 there has been a significant progress in achieving the White Paper's goal of ensuring that the composition of the student body progressively reflects the realities of broader society (White Paper, 1997). For example, the enrolment of black students increased from 249,000 (53 percent) in 1993 to 414,000 (71 percent) in 1999 to over 550,000 (74 percent) in 2004 of the total head count enrolments. The increase of African students over the years has been as a result of the increasing demand of higher education as well as a response to policy pressure. The participation of female students has also increased steadily over the years from 42 percent in 1990 to 53 percent in 2000. Despite these impressive enrolment figures, overall participation in higher education continues to be characterised by gross inequalities.

The government and its appointed agencies, such as the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) and the Tertiary Education Fund for South Africa (TEFSA), dominate higher education finance in South Africa. The private sector also plays a significant, though limited, role in financing higher education. Government financing of higher education is guided by the principles of shared costs, equity and redress, and development. The principle of shared costs states that other than in a few specialised colleges, because of the envisaged higher private returns, the government and students and/or their parents must share the costs of higher education. However, in colleges and other higher education institutions that

produce "pure public goods', the government is responsible for all financing.

The Impact of Changing Funding Sources on Higher Education
Institutions in South Africa Council on Higher Education. (2006). Higher Education Monitor. No. 4.
http://www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/publications/HE_Monitor_Mar2006_Full_0.pdf

Key findings include:
- Relative government funding of Higher Education has decreased significantly since 1999.
- It was difficult to analyse money streams as financial statements of some of the institutions were incomplete.
- It was clear that tuition fee income had to increase to compensate for lack of government funds.
- The overall student/lecturer ratio increased as a result of funding changes.
- The number of qualifications awarded has increased.

South African Higher Education: Facts and Figures
Higher Education in Context. 2008. IEASA
http://www.ieasa.studysa.org/resources/Study_SA/Facts_Figures_section.pdf

A specific goal of the National Plan for Higher Education (2001) was to increase participation in higher education to 20% for the 18-24 age cohort. Expanding student numbers and improving access to higher education for disadvantaged black people were seen as key to overcoming apartheid inequalities, creating a stable society, and producing the high level skills needed to drive economic growth. Universities were required to enrol many more students of all race groups and build a student body that more accurately reflected South Africa's demographic make-up. The expansion and transformation of the South African student population has been nothing less than astounding. In 1993 nearly half of all students were white, 40% were black African, 6% were mixed race and 7% were Indian: by 2005 the portion of white students had shrunk to 25% and the black African share had grown to 61%.

To increase access and success, most universities have devised alternative admission processes that select educationally disadvantaged students on the basis of their academic potential rather than their performance in national school-leaving exams.

The restructuring of South African higher education: Rocky roads from policy formulation to institutional mergers, 2001-2004
Barnes, T., Baijnath, N. and Sattar, K. (eds). 2009. Unisa Press
http://www.unisa.ac.za/Default.asp?Cmd=ViewContent&ContentID=23530&P_XSLFile=unisa/mobi3.xsl
Full book not available online

The fact that South Africa supported 36 higher education institutions before 1994 was among the most obvious manifestations of the cancerous social engineering of apartheid. Ever since the passage of the infamous Extension of Universities Act of 1959, which enforced racial segregation on university admissions and staffing, a veritable plethora of institutions were either built or reshaped to accommodate specific racial and language groups. Noteworthy is that all these institutions were managed and professionally staffed overwhelmingly by white males. In addition, these universities and technikons sat at the apex of an even larger post-secondary educational edifice, as the apartheid state also supported a range of education, agriculture, police and technical colleges.

In terms of finances and as a continuing reminder of the institutionalisation of apartheid, these higher education institutions were an enormous burden for the new state after 1994.

Numerous studies inquired into and illuminated the funding, programme and resource inequalities from which they were constituted and maintained. The privileged institutions had a full range of disciplinary offerings, tailor-made funding, alumni with large, willing chequebooks, and easy access to third-stream research and development funding. The historically disadvantaged institutions, on the other hand, were either distorted, usually somewhat flawed versions of the privileged institutions, or were small but dedicated and creative outposts of cramped development, where a great deal was done with relatively little funding or autonomy.

The legacy of these inequalities manifested in many different ways, not least of which was the dearth of black professionals and scholars. In 2002, it was announced that some of the 36 institutions would be merged with others in an effort to mitigate the inequities of higher education and the financial drag that these had imposed on the entire system for a protracted period.

This book is the result of a three-year research project undertaken in 2002 by the Centre for the Study of Higher Education (CSHE) at the University of the Western Cape (UWC). Supported by the Carnegie Foundation, the aim was to study the processes that were put into gear when the new South African government decided in 2001–2002 on a major and far-reaching initiative to address the legacy of "the geopolitical imagination of the apartheid planners" in higher education.

The SAHEMS project was focused on studying the higher education mergers as they happened, and from the inside. Because the decision to merge the institutions was so large-scale and contested, the aim of the study was to gather descriptive information on the institutions and the change processes. In addition, an assessment was made around whether or not the mergers were helping the sector in these years, towards the lofty goals of the 2001 National Plan for Education. Specifically, would the mergers advance the causes of equity and of increasing student access to higher education?

In this innovative attempt to get under the skin of what was clearly the most major intervention in South African higher education since 1959, two key elements formed the backbone of the research; a set of site-based observers on each campus, and regular key informant interviewing at each case study site. A key feature of the study is that the main researchers, all institutional insiders, represent strong diversity in training and perspectives.

The study also covers a diverse range of institutions. Case studies reveal the experiences of merging institutions, which highlight the potential for the "potent force of different institutional cultures colliding with the merger process" to influence the process and outcomes.

Higher Education South Africa (HESA)
http://www.hesa.org.za/about-hesa

The restructuring of the higher education sector, which took place between 2004 and 2005, initiated the launch of HESA. The restructuring process – which involved mergers and the creation of new institutional types called comprehensive universities – resulted in the reduction of institutions of higher education from 36 to 23.

Assessing the outcomes of the higher education mergers in South Africa: Implications for strategic management
Arnolds, C.A., Stofile, R.N., Lilah, R. 2013. AOSIS OpenJournals
http://www.actacommercii.co.za/index.php/acta/article/viewFile/175/172

The objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between perceived merger outcomes, employee organisational commitment and employee job performance in South African higher education institutions.

High levels of negativity towards the mergers have initially been reported. The unbundling of certain mergers has been mooted. The outcomes of these mergers must therefore be evaluated.

A total of 329 questionnaires were collected from academic and non-academic staff at three comprehensive universities. Descriptive statistics were calculated and multiple regression analysis was conducted.

The empirical results show, amongst other things, that (1) perceptions about merger goal success are significantly related to the organisational commitment and job performance intentions of employees, (2) organisational commitment levels are average and should be increased, (3) perceptions about workload fairness are significantly related to the organisational commitment of employees, and (4) employees have experienced an increased workload.

The study emphasises the necessity of the continual management of merger goal successes, workload distributions, and administration processes and resources (especially an empowered staff) in the pursuit of stable educational environments in these institutions.

Managers of higher education institutions should pursue prudent strategic financial spending and continuously manage the job performance intent and organisational commitment of their staff members. If this is not done, positive perceptions of merger successes could decrease. Such a situation could perpetuate unstable conditions at already affected merged institutions and even cause stable ones to deteriorate.

Governance reforms in higher education: A study of selected countries in Africa
Varghese, N.V. (2013) IIEP Theme Paper
http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/News_And_Events/pdf/2013/Governance_reforms_in_HE_paper_PF.pdf

In South Africa, the reforms of 2003 in planning and funding helped steer the higher education system to respond to national development needs. The new funding/planning framework replaced the South African Post-Secondary Education (SAPSE) funding model. The new framework indicated the mechanisms for the distribution of government grants to individual institutions, in accordance with: a) national planning and policy priorities; b) the quantum of funds made available in the national higher education budget; and c) the approved plans of individual institutions. The new framework has had considerable influence in steering institutions of higher education to achieve the intended national goals. A basic feature of the New Funding Framework was that it linked the resource allocations to national planning and institutional plans. The planning/funding link made the framework essentially a goal-directed mechanism for the distribution of government grants to institutions in accordance with national policy and planning priorities.

In South Africa, performance-based funding framework and the need for adherence to the agreed enrolment and output targets required universities to put in place closer monitoring mechanisms to ensure that the institution delivers on the agreed targets. The reforms also resulted in the establishment of the Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS). Used as a planning tool, to monitor enrolments and as a mechanism for the distribution of subsidies to institutions. As such, institutions were forced to use software and planning tools that were the same as those used by the department to facilitate the easy compliance and monitoring of plans. The major effect of the use of HEMIS was that it brought about stability and predictability in the system.

The reforms in South Africa brought stability and predictability in the higher education system. The new funding and enrolment planning policies helped the government to shape and size the system of higher education in the country. Institutions such as the University of Pretoria adopted the national enrolment planning and funding frameworks to plan and manage their operations at the institutional level. Over the past decade, the disadvantaged groups were beneficiaries of the expansion of university institutions. For example, the review of the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) which indicated that, between 1999 and 2009, the NSFAS had been able to provide financial aid to 650,000 (disadvantaged) students. Unfortunately, while the objective of access was achieved, there is less agreement on whether or not success was realized. Between 2000 and 2010, a large number of NAFAS-sponsored students failed to graduate (the graduation rate among them was only 19 per cent). And more importantly, nearly 48 per cent of the students dropped out. It seems the race-wise enrolment rates did not change substantially while this programme was being implemented.

Closer examination of the effects of the reforms indicate that they were, in most instances, helpful to improve the governance and operational efficiency of the institutions. The reforms also helped to reduce reliance on the state for funds. However, there is less agreement on the effects of the reforms on the quality of services provided and on equity in access and success.

Institutions of Higher Education in South Africa after the Mergers
Sedgwick, R. 2004. World Education News and Reviews
http://www.wes.org/ewenr/04may/feature.htm
News item:

The higher education sector is currently being transformed through a series of mergers and incorporations aimed at collapsing 36 universities and *technikons*(polytechnics) into 22 institutions. As a result, there are now three types of public higher education institutions in South Africa: traditional universities, universities of technology and comprehensive universities.

According to the Department of Education, the objective of the restructuring is to establish institutions that are better capable of meeting current job market demands, equalizing access and sustaining student growth.

The merger process is being carried out in two phases: many institutions were merged or incorporated with other institutions on January 1st, 2004, while the second phase is scheduled for January of 2005.

Technikons offered post-secondary programs leading to diplomas and certificates until the promulgation of the Technikon Act of 1993 that authorized them to offer degrees. Under the recent reforms, all the old *technikons*, except for three, were merged with other *technikons* or universities to constitute the new universities of technology and comprehensive universities. Comprehensive universities are a new type of institution resulting from the merger of *technikons* with traditional universities. These institutions offer programs and degrees in the traditional arts and science disciplines as well as those that are offered by *technikons*/universities of technology.

The objectives of this particular type of merger are:
• To strengthen research in vocational, *technikon*-type programs.
• To give students a wider range of programs with different entry requirements and to increase access to technical education throughout the country especially in rural areas where there is currently little provision.
• To facilitate student mobility between programs and to remove the barriers to further education.

Although public higher education accounts for the lion's share of student enrolments in South Africa, a private sector has emerged in the last ten years. The 1997 Higher Education Act contains provisions that allow private institutions to offer degree programs for the first time provided they are registered with the South African Council on Higher Education (CHE) and accredited by the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC). Following the country's first democratic elections in 1994, this sector expanded rapidly to meet the growing demand for higher education while the public education sector struggled to reform itself in the post-apartheid era. With the ending of sanctions, a number of foreign-based educational providers entered the market to take advantage of the growing demand for higher education.
The 1997 Higher Education Act contains provisions that allow private institutions to offer degree programs for the first time provided they are registered with the South African Council on Higher Education (CHE) and accredited by the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC).

By 2000 there were four main types of institutions providing private higher education in South Africa: foreign institutions; colleges offering tuition-based distance learning courses; private technical and vocational institutions; lifelong learning centers set up by private companies to train their staff.

A recent review conducted nationwide resulted in 14 institutions out of 58 being approved.

Higher Education Act 101 of 1997
http://www.che.ac.za/sites/default/files/publications/Higher_Education_Act.pdf

Act:
To regulate higher education; to provide for the establishment, composition and functions of a Council on Higher Education; to provide for the establishment, governance and funding of public higher education institutions; to provide for the appointment and functions of an independent assessor; to provide for the registration of private higher education institutions; to provide for quality assurance and quality promotion in higher education; to provide for transitional arrangements and the repeal of certain laws; and to provide for matters connected therewith.

Summary of Higher Education Act, no. 101 of 1997 (With Amendments)
http://ossafrica.com/esst/index.php?title=Summary_of_Higher_Education_Act%2C_no._101_of_1997_(With_Amendments)

Governance in Higher Education in South Africa: A transformation and development perspective
The Fouth Pan Commonwealth Forum on Open Learning
http://pcf4.dec.uwi.edu/viewpaper.php?id=74&print=1
not formally published

This article analyses the National Plan expectations and reviews how the Higher Education landscape has changed over the last 3 years. Three comprehensive, merged institutions are used to compare the pre-merger and post merger outcomes in terms of the National Plan (2001) desired outcomes.

The article finds that the policy process has not been matched in terms of implementation outcomes such as enrolments and qualifications completed.

6. Rwanda Higher Education Profile

Government departments responsible for oversight

There is a minister in charge of higher education based at the Ministry of Education. This minister approves accreditation applications based on a report made by the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE).

The 2005 law governing higher education, article 3, states that: The organisation of Higher Education, including the definition of the accreditation systems and procedures, the categorisation of the teaching staff and research bodies, the inspection of Higher Education and the advisory services on the creation of higher learning institutions, their closure, opening, merging or dissolution, is determined by the NCHE which is established by a specific law (Government of Rwanda, 2005). However, this article is not included in the 2013 law (Government of Rwanda, 2013).

From the National Council for Higher Education website:
The NCHE is an independent Government Agency. The Higher Education Council is responsible for ensuring the structure, organisation and functioning of higher education institutions and monitoring and evaluating the quality and standard of provision and ensuring the quality enhancement of teaching and research. It advises the Minister in charge of Higher Education on all matters relating to the accreditation of higher education institutions. One of the key responsibilities of the NCHE is to act as a regulatory agency.

The Higher Education Council, as a regulatory agency, advises the Minister in charge of Higher Education on issuing operating agreements to private sector higher education institutions. From August 2007 up to now, the Council carried out different reviews following applications for programs approval and operating agreements. A process involving peer review of the applications by trained teams of academic and other senior staff from both private and public sector higher education institutions was used to evaluate the applications.

Arrangements in place for financing, including both HEIs and students

In 2007, 23.8% of the annual expenditure on education ($ 175.7 m) went on higher education (Uyttersprot, 2008, p12).

The Student Financing Agency for Rwanda implements and manages student financing schemes. (Their website www.sfar.gov.rw is currently unavailable). The agency is supported by the Association of African Higher Education Financing Agencies (AAHEFA).

A student loan recovery scheme was launched late 2007 (Uyttersprot, 2008). The new system introduces merit-based grants and merit- and means-based loans. Loans are recovered through employer deduction.

Arrangements in place for quality assurance
The NCHE are involved in quality assurance. The Government of Rwanda (2013) law states: The Government shall be responsible for ensuring quality. Arrangements are unclear.

Main categories of HEIs which are active
These are public and private. All public universities were recently merged, leading to one public university with six colleges. There are 12 private institutions.

The law governing higher education (Government of Rwanda, 2013), article 3, defines 3 types of institutions: 1) Public institutions of higher learning; 2) Government subsidised institutions of higher learning; and 3) Private institutions of Higher Learning.

The Government is responsible for organisation, functioning and management of public institutions of higher learning to ensure the quality of education. Government subsidised institutions of higher learning are managed in accordance with the agreement between the Government and its private partners.

The government subsidised institutions seem to be a mix of public and private.

Regulation/legislation setting out operating rules for private HEIs
The Code of Practice for Operating Private Higher Education Systems (National Council for Higher Education, 2007) outlines rules on:
- A Legal Framework
- The Legal Status of Private Providers
- Cancellation of Registration
- Certificate of Registration
- Licence to Operate
- Quality Assurance
- Academic Records

Law passed on 2005 states that: a private higher learning institution shall be established as a non-profit - making organisation (Government of Rwanda, 2005). This is not stated in the 2013 law (Government of Rwanda, 2013).

Higher education reforms since the mid-1990's

The university system was rebuilt after the genocide in 1994 (Obura, 2003). A major reform is currently underway which unifies all public universities into one university – The University of Rwanda - with six separate colleges. The Government state that the purpose of this is to raise the quality of education. There is a 2-year transition period allowing the new institution to efficiently transition from the existing seven public higher learning institutions.

Courses at public institutions are also being shortened from 4 years to 3. One news article suggests this might be in response to the flexible programmes that private institutions are offering (Rwirahira, 2013).

Resources/ references

Association of Higher Education Financing Agencies (AAHEFA)
http://www.aahefa.org/

Law Nº 27/2013 of the 24/05/2005 Governing the Organisation and Functioning of Higher Education
Government of Rwanda, 2013, Official Gazzette of the Republic of Rwanda
http://www.hec.gov.rw/IMG/pdf/Higher_Education_Law_29.05.2013_1_.pdf

Government of Rwanda, 2005, Official Gazzette of the Republic of Rwanda
Law Nº 20/2005 of the 20/10/2005 Governing the Organisation and Functioning of Higher Education
http://www.hec.gov.rw/IMG/pdf/law_of_higher_education.pdf

National Council for Higher Education Council
http://www.hec.gov.rw/

Code of Practice for Operating Private Higher Education Systems National Council for Higher Education, 2007.
http://www.hec.gov.rw/IMG/pdf/CODE_OF_PRACTICE_FOR_OPERARTING_PRIVATE_HIGHER_EDUCATION_INSTITUTIONS-2.pdf

Obura, A. 2003. **Never again: educational reconstruction in Rwanda** IIEP.
http://www.unesco.org/iiep/PDF/pubs/Rwanda_Neveragain.pdf

Rwirahira, R. November 2013. **Mixed reactions greet reforms in higher education sector.** Rwanda Today.
http://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/Rwanda/News/Mixed-reactions-greet-reforms-in-higher-education-sector-/-/1433218/2056760/-/w4txarz/-/index.html

Student Financing Agency for Rwanda
www.sfar.gov.rw Website unavailable at time of writing

Uyttersprot, I. 2008. **Financing education in developing countries: New modalities, new approaches Examples from Rwanda**. UNESCO/IIEP
http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Research_Challenges_and_Trends/pdf/symposium/Uttersprot.pdf

The University of Rwanda to be fully operational starting with the 2013/2014 academic year – Minister of Education
Official Website of the Government of Rwanda, March 2013
http://www.gov.rw/The-University-of-Rwanda-to-be-fully-operational-starting-with-the-2013-2014-academic-year-Minister-of-Education

The Minister of Education, Dr Vicent Biruta, in a press briefing yesterday has stated the one university project is set to be fully operational starting with the next academic year 2013/2014 that starts in September.

This means that all students joining public universities next academic year will be admitted under one university 'The University of Rwanda'.

According to Minister Biruta, the launch of the University of Rwanda will be a significant step in harmonizing higher learning institutions. "Running state-owned higher institutions under one institute will allow us to improve the quality of education since they will combine their resources and will be branded as one "world-class" higher learning Rwandan institution," said Dr. Biruta.

However, he also mentioned that setting up the University of Rwanda will be a process since all the institutions have to be merged and integrate into a single system. The integration process could take up to two years.

Currently, a task force to fast track the establishment of University of Rwanda is in place and was tasked to make sure that the university will be operational in five months time.

The University of Rwanda will have six specialised colleges—Agriculture and Veterinary science, Medicine and Health sciences, Education, Open and Distance Learning, Business and Economics, Science and Technology, Arts and Social Sciences.

Interview: Education minister explains University of Rwanda implementation timeline
Kimenyi, F. 2013. The New Times.
http://www.newtimes.co.rw/news/index.php?a=69856&i=15461

This interview gives some details of how the One University Project is being carried out.

Mixed reactions greet reforms in higher education sector
Rwirahira, R. November 2013. Rwanda Today.

The country's education sector is currently undergoing transformation that has seen all universities merged into one and degree programmes last three years instead of four. Students are upbeat about the reforms, which will allow them complete their degree programme within three years.

Universities are facing competition from private ones, which run flexible programmes, to allow working students to continue with their education. The student said that private universities such as Mount Kenya University and Adventist University of Central Africa have rolled out friendly programmes, which are likely to exert pressure on public universities if the reforms are not implemented with speed.

Never again: educational reconstruction in Rwanda
Obura, A. 2003. IIEP
http://www.unesco.org/iiep/PDF/pubs/Rwanda_Neveragain.pdf

The National University of Rwanda had been specifically targeted by the perpetrators of the genocide. The death toll among the staff was 153; 106 disappeared; 800 fled.

A major policy in the wake of the genocide was to replenish and expand skilled manpower at the highest levels. High priority was therefore given to tertiary institutions with a large proportion of the national education budget.

The paper goes on to describe the development of public and private universities in Rwanda since 1994. It concludes: the development of the tertiary sector was driven by the determination of the Government of Rwanda. External partners offered funding initially, institution by institution, rather than in accordance with an overall plan. Considerable funds were spent on bursaries to all first-year students for full-time residential one-year language courses – instead of devising a less costly option such as vouchers to students in private-sector language schools as a pre-requisite for a place in the university.

A critical missing element: critical thinking at Rwanda's public universities and the implications for higher education reform
http://eprints.ioe.ac.uk/17882/ (abstract only freely available)

In the years since the genocide, the Government of Rwanda has contributed significant financial resources to the re-establishment and development of its public higher education sector. This investment has largely been justified in terms of the contribution of university graduates to the country's vision of becoming a service-based knowledge economy, capable of reducing its reliance on foreign aid and technical assistance. Implicit in this vision for the future is an assumption that a university education will help students to improve in their ability to think critically about problems and to use evidence when making decisions.

This study empirically investigated this assumption by administering a version of the Collegiate Learning Assessment – a performance-task-based test of critical thinking, adapted for use in Rwanda – to a random sample of 220 students enrolled at three of Rwanda's most prestigious public institutions. Assessment results were supplemented with in-depth case studies at two of the institutions involved in the study. Results of the study suggest that Rwandan students are not significantly improving in their critical thinking ability during their time at university. Critical thinking ability in Rwanda seems to be largely influenced by the academic experiences provided within university Faculties, as the use of innovative classroom practices appears to have a positive impact on the cultivation of critical thinking skills. However, results indicate that such practices cannot be assumed, as faculty motivation and understanding of pedagogical innovations can significantly affect their effective

implementation. The international community has largely focused its higher education reform efforts on improvements in institutional efficiency, but the results of this study indicate that student learning outcomes cannot be ignored. Without similar support for initiatives that seek to improve pedagogy, regional revitalisation efforts are unlikely to have a substantial effect on development objectives.

8. Ethiopia Higher Education Profile

Government departments responsible for oversight

The Ministry of Education is the federal institution mandated for oversight and regulatory provisions in the education sector. The quality, relevance and meeting of standards by all higher education institutions (both public and private) are regulated by the Ministry. Public institutions have boards as their highest governing body, with the senate as the highest academic body and the presidents as the top executives at institutional level (Yizengaw, 2003).

Higher Education in Ethiopia includes undergraduate degrees for three, four or more years and postgraduate Masters and PhD programmes. National higher education statistics are derived from information collected from 35 government higher education institutions (31 owned by MoE plus Ethiopian Civil Service University, Defense University College, Telecommunication & Information Technology College, Kotebe College of Teachers Education) and accredited non-government higher education institutions (Ministry of Education, 2012). Figure 1 shows higher education enrolments stratified by government and non-government institutions.
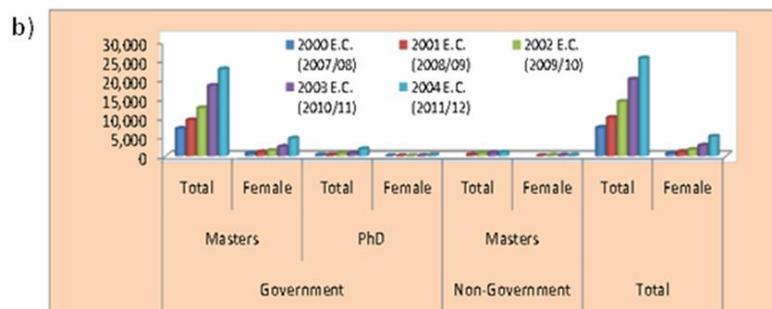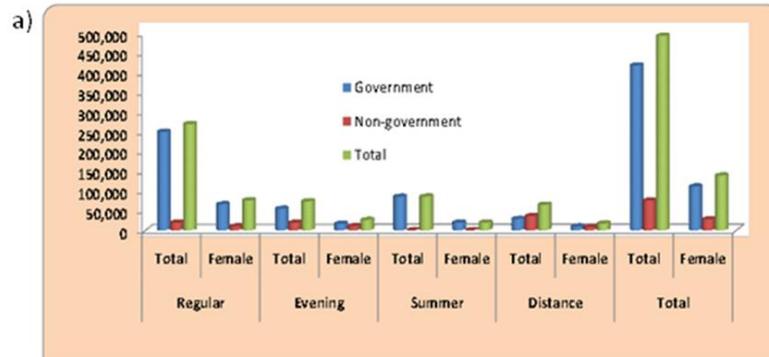
Figure 1. Numbers in undergraduate (a) and post-graduate (b) education in Ethiopia, stratified by type of higher education institution. **Source:** Ethiopia Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2004 E.C 2011/2012.

Other mechanisms of oversight

In addition to the Ministry of Education, The Higher Education Strategy Centre is an autonomous organ with its own legal personality, accountable to the Ministry of Education, to assist in the formulation of policy and give strategic direction to reforms in the higher education sector. The Centre receives its annual budget from the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development of Ethiopia. Some operational and capital investments (procurement of goods, staff training and exposure visits) are covered with the support from the NUFFIC project and the World Bank Post Secondary Education Project. Some studies are also supported by the Education Pool Fund administered by the UNDP (Higher Education Strategic Centre, MOE, 2011).

Arrangements in place for financing, including both HEIs and students

Public higher education institutions in Ethiopia are solely dependent on the government budget (Yizengaw, 2003). However, government funding is inadequate to serve the entire higher education sector (Unesco, 2012). As a strategy to diversify financial resources, as well as meeting community services, the government is encouraging income generation activities such as short courses, contract research, consultancy services, farm activities and production services (Yizengaw, 2003).

To assist long term initiatives and wide range involvement in income generation, the higher education reform stipulates autonomy in the utilisation of generated income from diversified sources. Incentives in the form of government matching funds are also included as a positive element. With such incentives and conducive environments, public higher education institutions are expected to generate income covering not less than 20% of their total recurrent expenditure in the coming few years (Yizengaw, 2003). This switch from fully subsidised higher education to a cost recovery scheme is not expected to return funds to the government for several years (Reisburg and Rumbley, 2010). As noted earlier, the government still depends on overseas aid to fill the higher education funding gap (Higher Education Strategic Centre, MOE, 2011; Reisburg and Rumbley, 2010).

Since 1994, the government has allowed private and non-government organisations to invest and provide education and training, including higher education. The private providers are encouraged to complement public institutions as a means of managing costs of expanding higher education enrolments, increasing the diversity of training programs, and broadening social participation in higher education. The policy and regulatory framework of the government avoids disincentives such as tuition fee controls, includes an incentives package (tax holiday/exemptions, land provisions, removing procedural impediments, etc.) and mechanisms for accreditation, oversight and evaluation (Yizengaw, 2003).

Student financing

A significant number of students (about 54% of total enrolment in 2003/04) are enrolled in fee-paying programs in public and private institutions. In order to collect revenue from the fee paying programmes, Ethiopia has chosen a modified model of the Australian type Graduate Tax. By strengthening the tax collection and information system, recovery from graduate tax can represent over 20% of recurrent budget in a decade or so (Gyimah-Brempong and Ondiege, 2011; Yizengaw, 2006).

Arrangements in place for quality assurance

The Higher Education Law clearly shows objectives and expectations, accountability and autonomy of higher education institutions, how they generate internal income, how quality and relevance of programs will be evaluated internally and externally. The law provides for the establishment of a higher education strategic institute (EHESI) with a mission of developing visions, strategic directions, analyzing policies and strategies, and advising the government so that higher education in Ethiopia can deliver better. The law also provides for the establishment of a Quality and Relevance Assurance Agency (QRAA) to develop standards of quality and relevance, evaluate programs and institutions, and advise the Ministry on issues of accreditation and recognition (Yizengaw, 2003).

Quality challenges

While difficult to measure, quality has cause for concern. The rapid growth of the higher education sector has triggered concern that expansion has taken placed at the expense of quality (Semela, 2011).

Quality is also constrained by infrastructure. During the past two years, the country has suffered from regular rolling blackouts, and few universities have generators to keep technical infrastructure operational during power cuts. The construction of classroom space, expansion of library collections, addition of computer labs, and the development of electronic networks lag behind enrolment expansion. International agencies are helping the government to develop new facilities and infrastructure. However, these efforts are largely uncoordinated and will take time (Resiburg and Rumbley, 2010).

Main categories of HEIs which are active

Ethiopia has government and non-government HEIs. Government HEIs include Teacher Training colleges, Defence colleges, Civil Service training colleges and Telecommunication and Information Colleges (Ministry of Education, 2012).

There are 26 regional teacher education colleges and approximately 60 accredited private post-secondary institutions (only one recognised as a university) (Reiburg and Rumbley, 2010).

Regulation/legislation setting out operating rules for private HEIs

Ethiopia has aggressively pursued private higher educational institutions since 1990. There are currently over 60 private tertiary educational institutions, enrolling about 17 percent of students. These institutions are either operated as foreign branches of well-established European, American, or other OECD universities or for-profit independent private institutions. Most of these institutions are small and provide programs in one or two areas of concentration—mostly in business, nursing, and ICT—where market demand is very strong and highly related to labour market needs (Gyimah-Brempong and Ondiege, 2011)

Higher education reforms since the mid-1990's

In Ethiopia, the higher education proclamation of 2003 (No.351/2003) grants autonomy to higher education institutions. Autonomy is granted in the administration of personnel, finances, internal organization, and in establishing linkages with internal and international organisations, etc. The reforms also led to the introduction of a block grant system, enrolment-based budgeting, and the introduction of cost-sharing. Changes in the higher education governance system included a shift from the collegial model to the managerial model, the creation of buffer organisations and the introduction of an outcome-based strategic plan (BPR).The proclamation also allowed establishment of private higher education institutions in Ethiopia. (Reisburg and Rumbley, 2010).

Before 2003, all higher education institutions, except Addis Ababa University and Haramaya University, were governed directly by a department in the MOE. Today each university has its own board established by the government proclamation making it autonomous from the direct interference of the Ministry of Education (Varghese, 2013)

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Reforming Higher Education: Access, Equity, and Financing in Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa, and Tunisia
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Yizengaw, T. 2006, The Ethiopian Journal of Higher Education Vol. 3 No. 2.

Governance reforms in higher education: A study of selected countries in Africa
Varghese, N., V., 2013, Theme paper, International Institute for educational planning in collaboration with University of Nairobi, Kenya, Policy Forum on governance reforms in higher education in Africa.
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9. Resources higher education on reform in Ethiopia

Transformations in Higher Education: Experiences with Reform and Expansion in Ethiopian Higher Education System
Yizengaw, T. 2003. Keynote paper for: Improving Tertiary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Things That Work!
http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTAFRREGTOPTEIA/Resources/teshome_keynote.pdf

This Keynote paper was prepared by the Ministry of Education and discusses Higher Education reforms between 1994 and 2003. It makes reference to important framework documents that have been prepared by the Ministry of Education and discusses the provision of private and public higher education.

Prior to 1994, little but critically scrutinised academic autonomy was practiced by higher education institutions. Administrative and financial autonomies have been given to institutions only recently with the new higher education law. With universities being public institutions but seeking to free themselves from certain common orientation and guidelines, it has become increasingly difficult for the regulatory body (the Ministry) to monitor and supervise the institutions under its purview.

The Ethiopian higher education reform process has followed at least three essential phases: a phase of policy and strategy adoption ultimately aimed at redefining the legal framework, a phase of rehabilitation and expansion of the facilities, and a phase of improvement and revitalization of the system. The first phase involved the issuance of the Education and Training Policy, Agriculture Development Led Industrialization Strategy, Economic Policy, various economic and social policies and strategies, Education Sector Development Plans, and other relevant white papers of the government. The second and third phases basically refer to the actual expansion of the sector and the reform issues necessary to maintain quality and relevance within the expanding higher education system.

The Education and Training Policy has been the major framework for reform and transformation. The policy has stressed issues of quality and relevance in educational programs; quality of teaching staff and facilities; improvement of learning process towards a focus on students; improvement of management and leadership; introduction of financial diversification, including income generation and cost-sharing by students; and improvement in the system of evaluation, monitoring, autonomy and accountability. On the basis of a 20-year strategic direction concept produced by government, a sector development program for education was initiated and prepared in 1997. Donors, partners and relevant stakeholders were involved in the preparation and endorsement of the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) which had activities spanning over five years, ending in 2002. The second ESDP has also been prepared for the period 2003-2005.

Higher education is a major component of the sector development programs. A December 1998 framework document on capacity building in Ethiopia was developed into a policy paper entitled "Capacity Building Strategy and Programs". The capacity building strategy defines capacity as involving human resource development, creating and strengthening institutions, and establishing effective working systems, as well as ensuring that there is a strong mechanism in place to address these simultaneously. The strategy clearly emphasises the creation of a "capacity for capacity building." This focuses on establishing and strengthening the training, studies and research arm. In relation to higher education, it has identified improvement of quality, strengthening the financial system and efficiency, and expanding equitable access as areas for policy consideration and direction. The Ethiopian Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (ESDPRP) paper has also given clear directions and roles to higher education in Ethiopia.

Higher Education Strategic Centre
Ministry of Education, 2011, Ethiopia
http://www.moe.gov.et/english/information/pages/HESC.aspx

This website details the functions and remit of the Higher Education Strategic Centre, which has responsibility for formulating reform strategy and policy. It is overseen by a Board of Administrators which is chaired by the Minister for Education.

The mandates of the HESC, provided by the Higher Education Proclamation are:
1. To guide the development, reform and restructuring of the Ethiopian higher education sector;
2. To advise on the national higher education reform plan and strategy, and to formulate higher education development strategies that are in line with the development plans of the Government;
3. To formulate strategies to enable higher education to address the development needs of the country;
4. To formulate strategies compatible with domestic and international developments;
5. To conduct studies and prepare project proposals on policies and practices in higher education;

The strategic issues for the HESC are:
1. The need to reinforce and consolidate the HESC's institutional capacity:
   - To reform governance and management of the HESC
   - To reinforce human resources, facilities and infrastructure
   - To create networks: develop linkages and partnerships at local and international level

2. The need to provide policy and strategy options to relevant stakeholders in order to reform and develop Ethiopia's higher education system:
   - To improve governance and management, and reinforce human resources at higher education institutions and at the Ministry of Education.
   - To develop strategies to enhance equitable access to higher education
   - To design strategies to improve quality and relevance
   - To enhance research development at higher education institutions
   - To propose cross-cutting measures addressing highly relevant social issues such as gender, HIV/AIDS and special needs In higher education

Higher Education Policy Reform in Ethiopia: The Representation of the Problem of Gender Inequality
Molla, T., 2013, *Higher Education Policy*; **26,** 193–215. doi:10.1057/hep.2012.25; published online 2 October 2012
http://www.palgrave-journals.com/hep/journal/v26/n2/abs/hep201225a.html

The higher education (HE) subsystem in Ethiopia has passed through a series of policy reforms in the last 10 years. Key reform areas ranged from improving quality and relevance of programmes to promoting equality in access to and success in HE. Despite the effort underway, gender inequality has remained a critical challenge in the subsystem. This makes it imperative to question the way in which the problem of gender inequality is framed in the equity policies and strategies put in place. This paper reports on the analysis of two policy documents from the Government of Ethiopia. Drawing on Carlo Bacchi's 'what is the problem represented to be' approach to critical policy analysis, the study reveals the inherent limitations in how the problem of gender inequality is understood and framed. The findings show that gender inequality has largely been equated with disparity in enrolment, and the policies are silent on structural impediments that underlie the problem. The drawbacks of the gender equity policy instruments are partly linked with the neoliberal policy elements endorsed in the reforms.

Governance reforms in higher education: A study of selected countries in Africa
Varghese, N.V, 2013, Theme paper, International Institute for Educational Planning in collaboration with University of Nairobi, Kenya: Policy Forum on governance reforms in higher education in Africa

http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/News_And_Events/pdf/2013/Governance_reforms_in_HE_paper_PF.pdf

This paper examines trends in higher education reform in Africa, using several countries, including Ethiopia as case studies.

Financial reform:
In Ethiopia, the line-item budget-based resource transfer was replaced by the block grants system. This has many implications for the governance and management of universities. In Kenya, the reforms helped introduce an automated accounting system, zero-based budgeting, and better financial management. Some of these efforts led to the generation of operational surplus in the university. Prior to the reforms on university autonomy, the acute shortage of funds almost led to the total collapse of the university system leading to a decline in research output and quality of teaching in Addis Ababa University.

Effect of reforms:
In Ethiopia, the senior management feel that the changes brought about by granting autonomy point in the positive direction in many respects. With autonomy the financial procedures have changed. The allocations from government have come directly from the Ministry of Economic Development and Finance (MOFED) to the university, and that the government control has reduced. The involvement of the government on Addis Ababa University affairs is merely supervisory and not administrative or managerial. However, whether these changes have improved the financial situation or managerial efficiency is not very clear. There is criticism raised against the BPR which was one of the basic elements of the reform. Many in the university community feel that the reforms based on BPR led to a paradigm shift from academic competence to operational competence, leading to the vocationalization of curriculum. The administrative staff, too, expressed a very negative opinion about BPR and its implementation. Even those who supported the BPR felt that it was a badly implemented idea. In other words, the autonomy gained by the university may not have contributed to improve the institutional effectiveness, as was expected by the reform. It needs to be mentioned that an assessment of reforms in Addis Ababa University in 2011 by the Reform Council was very critical of the changes and their implementation.

Reforming Higher Education: Access, Equity, and Financing in Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa, and Tunisia
Gyimah-Brempong, K., Ondiege, P., 2011, The Africa Competitiveness Report 2011,World Economic Forum, the World Bank and the African Development Bank
http://www3.weforum.org/tools/afcr2011/pdf/Chap_2_1_Reforming_Higher_Education.pdf

This chapter discusses HE reforms in terms of access, equity and financing using 5 countries as case studies.

Entrepreneurship education:
Ethiopia sees entrepreneurship as a way out of high unemployment rates and abject poverty. There are no degree programs or specific set of courses systematically devoted to entrepreneurship education at the country's universities. However, there appears to be a number of programs at vocational and technical training schools designed to develop skills. Several private universities that focus on providing business courses have been established in recent years, but no Ethiopian university has a program with strong industry linkages

Financial reforms:
The essence of the graduate tax is that payment for the cost of education is deferred until after graduation. While loan schemes have been implemented in all the five countries, evidence suggests that loan repayment remains a challenge

A third source of revenue for university financing is internally generated funds. These are mainly from tuition fees for part-time studies, certificate courses, ICT courses, distance education, and other market-driven courses. For example, in Ethiopia, while full-time students in public tertiary educational institutions pay no tuition fees, all part-time students in these institutions pay modest tuition fees. In addition to these fees, universities also generate modest revenues from contract research and other services that they provide to private businesses and the community as a whole. The amounts of income generated from this source differ not only across countries but also across institutions in the same country.

University-industry linkages (UILs):
In Ethiopia, the National Science and Technology Policy (NSTP) of 1993 mandated tertiary educational institutions to help build, generate, select, upgrade, and disseminate appropriate technology for the development of Ethiopia. The NSTP was not mandated to encourage or facilitate UILs, and, as a result, it has not been successful in UILs. However, some individual faculty members and groups have made attempts at forging university-industry relationships. For example, the technology faculty of Addis Ababa University formed the Technology Faculty Industry Linkage (TFIL) in 2000 to foster collaboration between the engineering faculty and industry. This effort failed for lack of funding. There were attempts to replace TFIL with the Higher Education Industry Resources Integration Center (HEIRIC), funded by industry and the Chamber of Commerce. HEIRIC also failed for lack of funding and general support. Overall, UILs in Ethiopia have not succeeded partly because of the over-concentration of UIL activities in Addis Ababa, with no linkages to different regions and enterprises, and partly because of a lack of interest from researchers, a lack of skills, and a lack of funding.

Cost Sharing in the Ethiopian Higher Education System: The Need, Implications and Future Directions
Yizengaw, T. 2006, The Ethiopian Journal of Higher Education Vol. 3 No. 2.

This paper discusses the financial reforms of the HE sector, and changes needed to ensure quality assurance.

Only about 1.5 percent of the age cohort is currently participating in higher education in Ethiopia. This is the major source of the critical shortage of educated and skilled human resources. The five-year (2005-2010) education sector development program (MOE, 2005) indicates that the higher education system in Ethiopia should be moving towards increasing participation to over 5 percent. However, covering the full tuition and food and room cost for such a small proportion of the age cohort from the taxpayers' money is neither feasible nor an appropriate and equitable distribution of resources. The increasing need for more public investment to expand access, for redress in terms of inequitable taxpayer subsidies and the desire to diversify revenue necessitates the introduction of cost sharing. Cost sharing mobilizes alternative non-governmental sources to supplement revenue, ensures equitable use of public resources, and facilitates the expansion of the sector opening up more opportunities. It also makes students responsible citizens and customers having a profound effect on improving the management and academic efficiency of higher education institutions. Ethiopia has chosen a modified model of the Australian type of student loan. This model, the graduate tax, is simpler and more manageable than other systems such as the mortgage type loan. The graduate tax scheme, as implemented in Ethiopia, ensures equitable access to students of any background, as there is no need to stipulate income of parents to arrive at the repayment amounts. Some policy and implementation issues need to be given serious consideration. Immediate removal of all subsidies to food and room need to be effected. Appropriate tuition fees and costs should be calculated in each program and institution. There is a need to provide each and every citizen a tax identification number (TIN) and decentralization of tax collection. Management information systems in higher education institutions and the tax collecting authorities have to be updated, harmonized and shared. A

credible and transparent mechanism by which extra revenue would be dedicated to higher education for improvements of academic quality need to be put in place.

Breakneck Expansion and Quality Assurance in Ethiopian Higher Education: Ideological Rationales and Economic Impediments
Tesfaye Semela, T., 2011, *Higher Education Policy* **24,** 399–425. doi:10.1057/hep.2011.11
http://www.palgrave-journals.com/hep/journal/v24/n3/abs/hep201111a.html

The rapid quantitative growth of higher education in Ethiopia has triggered considerable concern for quality. The present paper analyses why expanding the higher education subsector took precedence over quality against the backdrop of the current Ethiopian political discourse. This article argues that the growing public demand due to globalization and the changed local realities, the ideology of social inclusion and distributive justice, and poverty reduction rationales are the main forces driving the unprecedented growth. Further, the study examines the current state of quality assurance at system and institutional levels and their potency to maintain the equilibrium between quantitative growth and quality enhancement based on data obtained through interviews, analysis of relevant policy documents, and government statistics. Finally, ways of redressing existing quality gaps in the higher education subsector are discussed.

10. Nigeria Higher Education profile

Government departments responsible for oversight

Higher Education is the third category of the education system in Nigeria, comprising collectively the Colleges of Education, the Polytechnics and the Universities. Competent Bodies are recognised by law and charged with the responsibilities of issuing approvals for the commencement of higher education institutions and also for the accreditation and re-accreditation of academic programmes run by such higher education institutions (UNESCO).

There are 40 federal universities, 38 state universities, and 51 private universities (National Universities Commission, 2013).

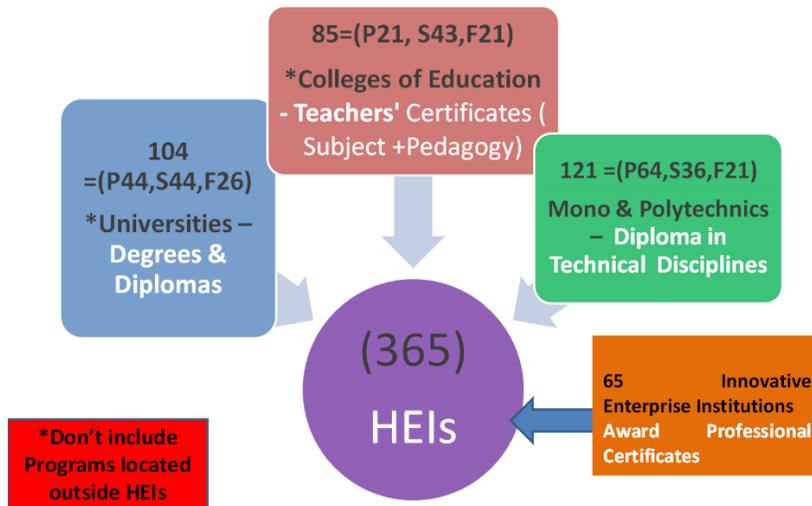# HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS (HEIs)

Figure 1. Structure and number of HEIs in Nigeria. Source: Shu'ara, 2010

The Federal Ministry of Education (FME) is responsible for defining and shaping the structure of the education system in Nigeria (UNESCO). There are four regulatory agencies that oversee HEIs: the National Universities Commission, the National Commission for Colleges of Education, the National Board for Technical Education and the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (Figure 2) (Shu'ara, 2010).

HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS (HEIs)
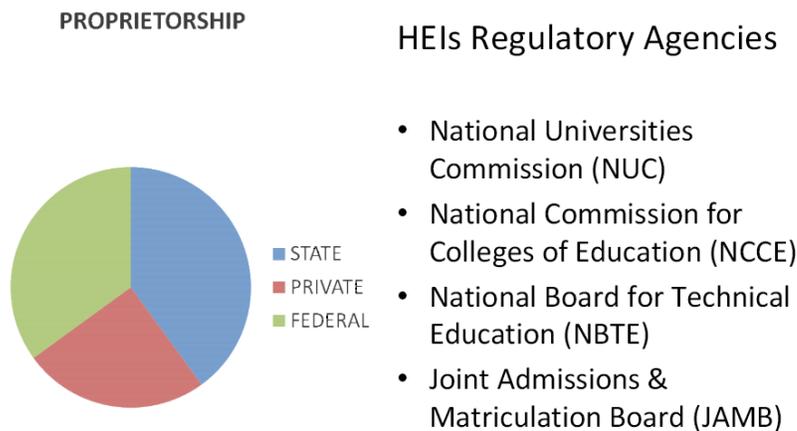
Figure 2. HEI Regulatory Agencies, Nigeria. Source: Shu'ara, 2010.

The National Universities Commission (NUC) is a parastatal under the Federal Ministry of Education (FME). The main functions of the Commission are outlined as follows:

i. Granting approval for all academic programmes run in Nigerian universities;
ii. Granting approval for the establishment of all higher educational institutions offering degree programmes in Nigerian universities;

iii. Ensure quality assurance of all academic programmes offered in Nigerian universities; and
iv. Channel for all external support to the Nigerian universities.

Arrangements in place for financing, including both HEIs and students

Public HEIs have the following sources of funding:
- First Level
  - Appropriation from Government, Regular & Special Intervention - Education Trust Fund, NDDC, PTDF, IDAs,
- Second level
  - Internally Generated Revenue (fees, other sundry charges. (largely under – reported)
- Third Level
  - Donations, Endowments, etc. (not much due to economic downturn) (Shu'ara, 2010).

Federal (and some state) HEIs are not permitted to charge tuition fees to students. (Bamiro, 2012).

Arrangements in place for quality assurance

The Federal Ministry of Education (FME) through its department of tertiary education oversees three bodies: National Universities Commission, National Commission for Colleges of Education and the National Board for Technical Education

The National Commission for Colleges of Education creates minimum requirements that must be met by all Colleges of Education, and accredits all courses once every five years.

(UNESCO; National Universities Commission; Shu'ara, 2010; National Commission for Colleges of Education; National Board for Technical Education)

Regulation/legislation setting out operating rules for private HEIs

The National Board for Technical Education maintains guidelines for the establishment of a private Polytechnic, which include the provision of a Master plan and an Academic plan that must be approved by the board (National Board for Technical Education)

Main categories of HEIs which are active

Active categories of HEI are: Colleges of Education, the Polytechnics and the Universities.

Higher education reforms since the mid-1990's

Federal Government reforms in higher education include resuscitation of National Open University of Nigeria, introduction of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) for teaching, learning and research; Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME), Post UTME screening and Teachers Registration Council. The Federal Government also stipulated that Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) would be the minimum teaching qualification and encouraged all teachers to be professionally qualified. Granting of license to some college of education and polytechnics for award of degree was also a reform on higher education in Nigeria (Abdul Kareem and Fasasi, 2009).

The UNESCO-TVE Revitalisation Project has the aim of reforming Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) to better meet the socio-economic needs of Nigeria. Phase I was implemented 2001-2004, and Phase II began implementation in 2008 (UNESCO-TVE).

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Reforms in Higher Education in Nigeria and the challenges of globalisation
Abdul Kareem, A., Y., and Fasasi, Y., A., 2009.
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11. Resources on higher education reform in Nigeria

UNESCO-Nigeria TVE Project Phase II
UNESCO,NBTE, 2009.
http://www.unesco-nigeriatve.org/

This project has the aim of reforming Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) in Nigeria.

The main objective of the project, in its first phase (implemented 2001-2004), was to support the Federal and States education authorities in their efforts to revitalise, reform and expand TVE to meet the present and future needs for rapid socio-economic development of the nation. In addition the Project was expected to:

(a) Support the training and development of TVE managers, technical teachers and other technical personnel;

(b) Review and update TVE curricula and prepare curricula for new disciplines and for other target groups;

(c) Introduce Information and Communication Technology (ICT) education in all aspects of Technical and Vocation Education and Training (TVET); and,

(d) Support the identification and preparation of feasibility studies and project documents for further projects to strengthen the development of TVET in Nigeria.

The goal of the Project, "Support for Revitalising Technical and Vocational Education in Nigeria – Phase II" (implementation 2008-onwards), was to assist Government, specifically, the FME and the NBTE, in their efforts to further strengthen the TVET system as part of the human resource and manpower development to meet present and future needs for rapid socio-economic development of the nation. In particular, the main objectives of the Project are:

1. The enhancement of continuing TVET staff development system.
2. The improvement of the quality of content of TVE; and
3. The strengthening linkages of non-formal with formal TVET to enhance employment opportunities of unskilled and illiterate youth.

Higher Education in Nigeria: A Status Report

Saint, W., Hartnett, T., A., Strassner, E., 2003, *Higher Education Policy* **16,** 259–281. doi:10.1057/palgrave.hep.8300021
http://www.palgrave-journals.com/hep/journal/v16/n3/abs/8300021a.html

The government of Nigeria recently initiated higher education policy reforms intended to bring its university system more in line with international good practices. The reforms promote increased institutional autonomy, greater system differentiation, strengthened governance, and mechanisms for quality assurance. They seek to create a more flexible and responsive system of university teaching and research that, over time, will contribute increasingly to national innovation capacities, productivity gains, and economic growth. This paper reports on the current status of higher education in Nigeria and reviews the country's new policy initiatives in this context. The discussion gives particular attention to issues of access, teaching/learning, finance, and governance/management.

Unfortunately we were unable to access the full text of this report.

Reforms in Higher Education in Nigeria and the challenges of globalisation

Abdul Kareem, A., Y., and Fasasi, Y., A., 2009.
https://www.unilorin.edu.ng/publications/abdulkareemay/Reforms_in_higher_education_in_nigeria_and_the_challenges_of_globalisation.pdf

This paper examines the relevance of the reforms which were introduced on higher education in Nigeria. Higher education has witnessed series of reforms which are meant to improve the system and enhance its capability to produce competent personnel for national development. However, many graduates from tertiary institutions are not competent enough to meet the demand of labour market. Reforms introduced so far seem ineffective because adequate consideration has not been given to the needs of Nigerians in addressing the challenges posed by globalization to the education system. Some of the reforms were implemented without considering their impacts on other units, levels and types of education. The reforms could be more relevant if environmental challenges and opportunities are considered before initiation and implementation. It is therefore recommended that reforms should emanate from the needs of the society. It is also recommended that funds, facilities and personnel should be made available for successful implementation of reforms.

Global Trends in Higher Education Reform: What Lessons for Nigeria?

Adesina, J., O. 2006, JHEA/RESA; 4:1, 1–23
http://www.codesria.org/IMG/pdf/01-ADESINA.pdf

The crisis that engulfed the higher education sector in many developing countries from the mid-1970s in many ways epitomised a much wider socio-economic and political crisis. In much of Africa the balance of payment crisis compounded an uneasy relationship between the rulers and academia. However, addressing the crisis in the 1980s was defined by the emergent neo-liberal mindset. It was also an ideological posture that saw the academy as a domain of a 'leftist leisure class' that needed market discipline. Education as a public good was replaced by a commodity logic. The impact of the neo-liberal orthodoxy on the higher education sector, however, varied widely across counties. In countries whose education policy came under the direct control of the Bretton Woods institutions, the orthodoxy drove policy as close to its ideological posturing as possible. In many developing countries commodification of access has impacted harshly on research activities in the higher education sector, reversing earlier achievements at endogeneity.

In some countries, including Nigeria, the persistent anti-intellectualism of those in power has intensified the broader crisis. In this paper, I argue that this contrasts sharply with the domestic experience of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries in their higher education sectors and the public commitment to research and development. What lessons are there for higher education reform in Nigeria? Firstly, in spite of the neo-liberal claims, successful countries show strong commitment to education as a public good and tend to invest heavily in their higher education sector, especially in endogenous research and development. The second point is that experiments with the commodity approach in both its provisioning of skilled human resources and internal relations have proved to be counter-productive. Thirdly, in situations of prolonged decline and decay, what needs rebuilding is more than just the infrastructure but also the ethos and ethics of academia

12. Tanzania Higher Education Profile

Government departments responsible for oversight

The Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) is mandated for formulation, monitoring and evaluation of the implementation policies, teachers' training, registration of schools, inspection of education services and infrastructure, library services and education press services (MoEVT).

MoEVT oversees three branches of post-secondary education: Technical and Vocational Training Division; Teacher Education and the Higher Education Division. Each Division has the following broad functions:

1. To provide inputs in developing, monitoring, evaluating and reviewing implementation of policies, guidelines and standards;
2. To oversee and coordinate the provision and delivery of Higher Education both internally and externally;
3. To develop, monitor and evaluate the implementation of Higher Education development programmes and projects;
4. To promote and facilitate research activities in Higher Education institutions;
5. To develop and promote academic and professional excellence in Higher Learning Institutions;
6. To coordinate management support services provided by Higher Education agencies;
7. To promote and sustain Regional and International Cooperation on Higher Education;

8. To promote public awareness on functions and roles of Higher Education sector.
9. To collect, analyse, store and disseminate data and statistics,

Institutions providing higher education in Tanzania include 8 public universities, 22 private universities and university colleges and 15 additional public Institutions of Higher Education (these include 6 professional institutes, 2 institutes of Technology, a wildlife college and a business college). All universities in Tanzania are regulated by the Tanzanian Commission of Universities (TCU) (MoEVT, TCU, 2014).

Arrangements in place for financing, including both HEIs and students

In the early 1990s, Tanzania reintroduced a policy of higher educational cost-sharing. This has been implemented using a variation on tuition fees, whereby students admitted at the top of the competitive admission examinations have free tuition preserved and other scoring below the cut-off score are admitted for a fee (Johnson Ishegoma, 2004).

Student financing

The Higher Education Students' Loans Board was established by Act No. 9 of 2004, 30th March 2005 and became operational in July 2005. The objective of the Board is to assist, on a loan basis, needy students who secure admissions in accredited higher learning institutions, but who have no economic power to pay for the costs of their education. The Board is also entrusted with the task of collecting due loans from previous loan beneficiaries. The Chairman of the Board is answerable to the Minister of Education and Vocational Training (Higher Education Student's Loans Board, 2013).

Arrangements in place for quality assurance

The three branches of MoEVT that have responsibilities for post-secondary education (Technical and Vocational Training Division; Teacher Education and the Higher Education Division) each have requirements to perform quality assurance on the development and implementation of policies, guidelines and standards.

The Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) performs the following quality assurance procedures:

- National guidelines and benchmarks for Quality Assurance.
- An institutional Audit System
- An institutional quality assurance, quality control and management system.
- Database of experts and peer reviewers in various fields.
- Leaflets, brochures and booklets on Quality Assurance activities and initiatives (TCU, 2014).

Regulation/legislation setting out operating rules for private HEIs

All universities and academic programmes, whether public or private, are required to complete a three stage accreditation process though the TCU: a TCU Certificate of Provisional Registration, a TCU Certificate of Full Registration, and finally a TCU Certificate of Accreditation. The requirements for these can be found on the TCU website (Fielden and LaRoque, 2008; TCU, 2014).Once programmes have been validated and approved, they can be offered in accordance with section 15 of the Universities Act Cap 346 (TCU, 2014). Additionally, Private Institutions are expected to research and provide consultancy before they achieve final university status (Bjarnason et al., 2009).

Main categories of HEIs which are active

MoEVT oversees three branches of post-secondary education: Technical and Vocational Training Division; Teacher Education and the Higher Education Division.

Higher education reforms since the mid-1990's

The Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) was launched in 1997 and revised in 2001 in order to improve educational provision to achieve poverty alleviation. The ESDP embodies a sector-wide approach which regards education from pre-primary to higher education as a single entity. A priority action within ESDP is the installation of Education Performance Management Systems (EPMS) throughout the sub-sectors (and, as applicable, in all institutions/schools). The operational reform goals of the EDSP are:

Higher Education:
1. rationalise tertiary and higher education by designing and implementing a capability improvement strategy for the sub-sector;
2. strengthen a sub-sector Education Management Information System (EMIS) that is linked with ESMIS;
3. finalise and implement a teacher professional development strategy;
4. expand production of degree teachers by utilising open learning approaches;
5. expand university level teacher training and its professional development wing;
6. enhance teacher professionalism among teacher educators by enabling teacher educators to join Tanzania Education Society;
7. enhance the quality of teacher training by instituting curricula reviews;
8. increase funding for production of home-grown experts including Ph.D. degree graduates;
9. strengthen research generation capacity through increased post–graduate enrolment;
10. earmark and allocate funds for building research capacity;(xi)enhance cognitive, conceptual and technical skills of both academic staff and students; and
11. promote linkages with production and service centres/firms.

Technical and Vocational Education and Training:
1. enhance teacher professionalism among teacher educators by enabling teacher educators to join Tanzania Education Society;
2. promote the quality of teacher training by instituting curricula reviews;
3. strengthen cognitive, conceptual and technical skills of both academic staff and students;
4. promote linkages with production and service centres/firms;
5. harmonise Educational Qualification Framework;
6. design TVET Development Programme;
7. support privately owned Vocational Training Centres at the District level (Public-Private Partnerships);
8. recruit and retain the available, technical and vocational teachers/tutors/facilitators;
9. integrate and expand the training of vocational and technical education teachers; and
10. establish a sub-sector-wide Education Management Information System (EMIS) that is linked to ESMIS (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2008).

Resources/ references

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http://www.moe.go.tz/

Cost-Sharing in Higher Education in Tanzania: Fact or Fiction?
M. Johnson Ishengoma, M. 2004, JHEA/RESA Vol. 2, No. 2,101–133
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Privatization of Higher Education in Tanzania
Benjamin, K., B., and Dunrong, B., 2010, The Social Sciences; 5:1, 45-48
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http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/7db3ed804970bff99a01da336b93d75f/Discussion%2BPaper%2BFinal.pdf?MOD=AJPERES

A new dynamic: Private Higher Education
Bjarnason, S., Cheng, K., Fielden, J., Lemaitre, M., Levy, D., Varghese, N.V., 2009, UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education.
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001831/183174e.pdf

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13. Resources on higher education reform in Tanzania

Cost-Sharing in Higher Education in Tanzania: Fact or Fiction?
M. Johnson Ishengoma, M. 2004, JHEA/RESA Vol. 2, No. 2,101–133
http://www.codesria.org/IMG/pdf/6-ishengoma.pdf

In the early 1990s, Tanzania reintroduced a policy of higher educational cost-sharing, designed to slowly move some of the costs of higher education, which in recent years had been borne almost exclusively by the government, toward parents and students as well as toward other nongovernmental parties. This article reports research into the difference this policy seems to have made at Tanzania's major public university, the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), with particular attention to the enrolment of privately sponsored (i.e., fee-paying) students and other changes discernible in university finances during the early years of this policy implementation. The report concludes that cost sharing in higher education in Tanzania is justified on the grounds of the sheer need for nongovernmental revenue for public higher education institutions because of the declining government appropriations to these institutions, along with the dire need to expand access to higher education; however, its implementation has been lackadaisical.

Privatization of Higher Education in Tanzania
Benjamin, K., B., and Dunrong, B., 2010, The Social Sciences; 5:1, 45-48
http://www.medwelljournals.com/fulltext/?doi=sscience.2010.45.48

Since 1995, when it became legally possible for private higher education to operate in Tanzania, the sector has grown to become a significant part of the country's higher education system. This study examines the problems that lead to the privatization of higher education in Tanzania. A key finding of this study is that the problems that lead to the privatization of

higher education in Tanzania include: the fiscal incapacity of the state to expand higher education through public universities and inability of the public universities to respond immediately to household demand for employment-oriented courses. Private higher education is characterized by small segment of higher education yet makes important contributions in providing opportunities for many students, who would otherwise not be able to find a place at public institutions.

Review and Evaluation of the Performance of Tanzania's Higher Education Institutions in Science, Technology and Innovation: Final Report
Bastos, C., A., Rebois, R., R., 2011, UNESCO
http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/SC/pdf/sc_Review-Evaluation_of_HEISTI_Final%20Report_23-06-2011.pdf

Acting on the request of the Tanzanian Government, UNESCO reviewed Higher Education Institutions (HEI) with the main purpose of determining their performance in science, technology and innovation (STI) and their wider contribution to strategic development plans. This Report describes the main findings and outcomes, and provides recommendations for action to be inserted into the definition of a future Roadmap. The Review should also enable the Government to monitor progress in its educational reform program, make adjustments where necessary and ensure that any future changes to Government's science, technology and innovation and HEI policy are informed by the findings.

This Review's findings show that the performance of HEI in STI can be best characterized by an environment where there exists policy instruments related to the development and finance of the traditional tasks of HEI, training, research and extension, but that there is also indifference to research in the institutional context as well as resistance to changes in the institutional culture. The above can be attributed to a weak recognition of research in the normative architecture, which has a strong administrative bias, and the still limited existence of funding, human resources and equipment. Only more recently there is better motivation of the research community and lines of research are being drawn based on national priorities. The weak recognition of research and extension produces discrimination or lack of incentives for active researchers, which are few in number and many are self-made.

Finally, there are only limited efforts in attracting the private sector, individuals, business people, trade unions and community organisations into contributing significantly to the national STI effort by the way of funding or shared sponsorship of research programs. The main recommendation that this Review can make, following the analysis of the situation, the examination of policy and strategic documents, in particular the latest STI Policy (under review) and the Higher Education Development Programme (HEDP), is that Tanzania requires a Roadmap which is realistic and clearly recognizes what can really be done in the short and long-terms. Extensive and overoptimistic lists of objectives and goals, in overlapping policies, weak coordination mechanisms, little funding, a disarticulated STI system, weaknesses in human resources and other limitations, cannot lead the country into an effective capacity building process of its HEI and STI systems.

Democratising higher education in Ghana and Tanzania: Opportunity structures and social inequalities
Morley, L., Leach, F., Lugg, R., 2009, International Journal of Educational Development; 29:1, 56-64.
http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0738059308000631

This article is based on an ESRC/DFID funded research project on Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania: Developing an Equity Scorecard (http://www.sussex.ac.uk/education/wideningparticipation). There are questions about whether widening participation in higher education is a force for democratisation or differentiation. While participation rates are increasing globally, there has been scant

research or socio-cultural theorisation of how different structures of inequality intersect in the developing world. Questions also need to be posed about how higher education relates to policy discourses of poverty reduction and the Millennium Development Goals. The article explores participation in higher education, utilising statistical data and life history interviews with students in two public and two private universities. It focuses on how gender and socio-economic status intersect and constrain or facilitate participation in higher education. Findings to date suggest that opportunity structures reflect social inequalities.

The cultural politics of constructivist pedagogies: Teacher education reform in the United Republic of Tanzania
Vavrus, F., 2009, International Journal of Educational Development; 29:3, 303-311
http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0738059308000485

This article examines recent educational reforms in Tanzania by looking at the cultural politics of pedagogical change in secondary and teacher education. It presents an ethnography of a teachers college founded on the principles of social constructivism in a country where formalistic, teacher-centred pedagogy is the norm. Using data collected through a year of participant observation, it argues that the cultural, economic, and political dimensions of teachers' practice need to be considered alongside efforts to reform the country's educational system. It offers contingent constructivism as an alternative to the international consensus on a single model of excellent teaching.

14. Mozambique Higher Education Profile

Government departments responsible for oversight

The governance and oversight of Higher Education in Mozambique is enshrined in Article 114 of the Mozambican constitution:

Higher Education

1. Access to public institutions of higher education shall guarantee equal and equitable opportunities and the democratisation of education, taking into account the requirements in terms of qualified staff and the raising of educational and scientific standards of the country.

2. Public institutions of higher education shall be corporate persons governed by public law, and they shall have legal personality and enjoy scientific, teaching, financial and administrative autonomy, without prejudice to the appropriate evaluation of teaching standards, in accordance with the law.

3. The State shall recognise and supervise private and co-operative education in accordance with the law (Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique).

In accordance with the Higher Education Law of 2003, tertiary-level and higher education institutions offer a variety of programmes leading to the bachelor's degree (three-year programme), the licenciatura (normally, a four-year programme; five years in the case of law and dentistry; five and a half years in the case of veterinary; seven years in the case of medicine), and the master's degree (two-year programme). At the postgraduate level, the faculty of education of the University Eduardo Mondlane offers one-year programmes leading to a diploma or a master's degree (mestrado) (UNESCO 2010/2011). There are 24 Teacher Training Institutions (Guro and Weber, 2010).

Higher education is governed by Law No. 1/93. In accordance with this Law, public higher education institutions are collective persons of public law, with legal status, and enjoying scientific, pedagogical and administrative autonomy. A more recent Higher Education Law, No. 5/2003, was approved in January 2003.

The Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology was established in January 2000 in accordance with by the Presidential Decree No. 1/2000. In accordance with the Presidential Decree No. 13/2005 of 4 February 2005, the responsibility over higher education was transferred to the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC). The same Decree specifies the functions and attributions of the MEC (UNESCO 2010/2011).

MEC is responsible for planning, managing and monitoring the national education system, ensuring that it works in a unified manner. The National Council of Higher Education, Science and Technology is the Council of Ministers' body for coordination, analysis and consultation in all matters concerning higher education.

Arrangements in place for financing, including both HEIs and students

There is minimal cost-sharing in the public system. Students currently pay a low tuition fee, around USD 100 per year. The government finances higher education through two basic mechanisms. First, it makes funds available to:
- The Ministry of Education and Culture for policy development, including quality assurance mechanisms;
- Higher education institutions and staff, in both public and private institutions, through the Quality Enhancement and Innovative Facility –an initiative to reward institutions and individuals for the development of quality - enhancing programmes; and
- Students, through the provincial scholarship fund, in which students from the rural provinces can apply for funding to study at any of the accredited higher education institutions.

Second, the government provides direct funding to the public higher education institutions, through a mix of instruments, including the following:

- Direct budgetary allocations to the institutions, through submission of specific proposals to parliament;
- Sourcing grant funds from development partners and directing them to the higher education sector; and
- Sourcing and allocating credit funds, in preferential conditions, to fill gaps in public financing (e.g. from the World Bank).

Private higher education institutions are not entitled to any direct funding or subsidies from the government. However, in 2002 the government introduced a provincial scholarship scheme which has immensely benefited students from poor, rural backgrounds who have accessed the Quality Enhancement and Innovative Facility. In addition, staff at private institutions can apply for grants from the Facility (Bailey, Cloete and Pillay, 2010).

Arrangements in place for quality assurance

The accreditation of higher education institutions is under de responsibility of the National Commission for Accreditation and Quality Assurance (Comissão Nacional de Acreditação e Qualidade–CNAQ) (UNESCO 2010/2011).

The National Accreditation and Quality Council (CNAQ) have responsibility for quality assurance. Quality Assurance mechanisms and indicators are often non-existing. There is

also a lack of harmonisation and because graduation requirements vary from one institution to the other, students find it difficult to change institution.

CNAQ are supported by the University of Twente to improve their quality mechanisms. The project aims to enable CNAQ to carry out its Quality Assurance and Accreditation tasks related to the Higher Education sector. This will be achieved by providing training and exposing Council members, executive Directors and technical staff to regional and international best practices. The project also aims to create and consolidate internal Quality Assurance units in every HEI in Mozambique (NICHE-MOZ-093, 2011).

Regulation/legislation setting out operating rules for private HEIs

Through Decree No. 11/90 of 1 June 1990, the Government authorized private education (free or fee-paying) in all types of schools and at all educational levels, thus decentralising one of its functions in order to create an additional capacity which would translate into expanded opportunities for access to education (UNESCO 2010/2011).

Main categories of HEIs which are active

The higher education system comprises 26 institutions, of which 13 are public and 13 are private. The number of private institutions has been growing rapidly since their introduction in 1995. The institutions are of three types: universities, polytechnics and tertiary schools (Bailey, Cloete and Pillay, 2010).

Higher education reforms since the mid-1990's

In October 1999 the Minister of Education appointed a Committee to work out the first Mozambican Strategic Plan of Higher Education. The main objective was to analyse the present situation of Higher Education in Mozambique and to propose a 10-year Strategic Plan for this sub-sector in consonance with the strategic plan approved for the Education Sector, defining objectives, structure, scope, financing and governance (Chilundo and Berverwijk).

A new curriculum for education (including higher education) was introduced by the Mozambican government in 2004 (Guro and Weber, 2010).

Resources/ references

Constitution of the Republic of Mozambique
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From policy to practice: education reform in Mozambique and Marrere Teachers' Training College
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Reform of Mozambican Higher Education System Through New Funding Mechanisms
Chilundo, A and Berverwijk, J
HTTP://WWW.GOOGLE.CO.UK/URL?SA=T&RCT=J&Q=&ESRC=S&SOURCE=WEB&CD=1 2&VED=0CC4QFJABOAO&URL=HTTP%3A%2F%2FAHERO.UWC.AC.ZA%2FINDEX.PHP %3FMODULE%3DCSHE%26ACTION%3DDOWNLOADFILE%26FILEID%3D818061155116 91942387689&EI=K6XWUOX5M9LXHQEG4YCODQ&USG=AFQJCNHRCANBFFSQXRXN BHEGFDPN3Y_AAG&BVM=BV.59378465,D.ZG4

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versions/Mozambique.pdf

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http://circulodesociologia.wordpress.com/breve-historia-do-es-em-mocambique/

Case Study: Mozambique and Eduardo Mondlane University
Bailey, T., Cloete, N., and Pillay, P., 2010, Universities and Economic Development in Africa
http://chet.org.za/files/uploads/reports/Case%20Study%20-
%20Mozambique%20and%20Eduardo%20Mondlane%20University.pdf

15. Resources on higher education reform in Mozambique

Reform

Reform of Mozambican higher education system through new funding mechanisms
Chilundo, A and Berverwijk, J
HTTP://WWW.GOOGLE.CO.UK/URL?SA=T&RCT=J&Q=&ESRC=S&SOURCE=WEB&CD=1
2&VED=0CC4QFJABOAO&URL=HTTP%3A%2F%2FAHERO.UWC.AC.ZA%2FINDEX.PHP
%3FMODULE%3DCSHE%26ACTION%3DDOWNLOADFILE%26FILEID%3D818061155116
91942387689&EI=K6XWUOX5M9LXHQEG4YCODQ&USG=AFQJCNHRCANBFFSQXRXN
BHEGFDPN3Y_AAG&BVM=BV.59378465,D.ZG4

In this paper the authors reflect on the Mozambican national funding mechanisms for higher education. In order to do this they first illuminate how the political context of Mozambique has affected the national policy on higher education through the years and how that changed the landscape of Mozambican higher education system. In the second part they concentrate on the finance mechanisms of the higher education system in Mozambique. In the third part of this paper the current developments and future plans for the higher education sector are outlined, specifically focussing on impacts on financing mechanisms. Conclusions are drawn regarding how the new established Ministry for Higher Education, Science and Technology (MESCT) changes the funding mechanisms for higher education which it turn will reshape the Mozambican Higher Education system as a whole.

Higher education in Mozambique: a case study
Mouzinho, M., Fry, P, Levey, L., Chilundo, A., 2003, Imprensa & Livraria Universitária, Universidade Eduardo Mondlane
http://ahero.uwc.ac.za/index.php?module=cshe&action=viewtitle&id=cshe_200

Of all the countries in southern Africa, Mozambique is probably the one that has experienced the most dramatic changes over the past 30 years. Mozambique has now marched forward into the 'new world order' and is regarded as one of the most successful African attempts at structural adjustment.

While the relative merits of private and public educational Institutions are vigorously debated, there is widespread consensus on the social significance of higher education in Mozambique. Despite the rapid growth of its economy in recent years, Mozambique continues to be one of the poorest countries in the world. Sustained economic growth is critically important for social development and the reduction of high levels of poverty. Yet Mozambique still suffers from a critical shortage of highly qualified professional skills that are fundamental for the development and execution of appropriate public policies, for effective leadership throughout society and for the training of successive generations of professionals and educators. It also suffers from acute regional disparities in wealth, development and qualified human resources, leading to all provincial governments and civic leaders demanding institutions of higher education in their regions. This combination of factors has led the government to attach great importance to higher education, inaugurating the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology (MESCT). The new ministry is charged with devising an overall plan for higher education in Mozambique, deciding on the relative roles of governmental and non-governmental institutions and the most appropriate utilization of public funding.

The emergence of non-governmental universities has led to passionate debate on the nature of higher education in Mozambique. On the one side, there are those who are highly critical of non-governmental institutions of higher education. On the other side, the proponents of a diverse field of higher education in Mozambique defend the emergence of non-governmental institutions, arguing that they bring healthy competition to the field, lead to a growth in the number of university places without cost to government and society and stimulate greater regional equity by bringing higher education to the provinces.

The field of higher education in Mozambique is in great flux and provides the scenario for considerable dispute. This study is therefore not a straightforward account of a stable system. Rather it tries to describe and analyse a rapidly changing field and the various positions within it.

Capacity building in higher education in Mozambique and the role played by co-operating foreign agencies: The case of the World Bank
Chilundo, A., 2006, UNESCO Forum Occasional Paper Series Paper no. 12
http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001478/147819e.pdf

The major goal of this paper is to throw light on and share the Mozambican experience of designing higher education projects for submission to international partners in the request for funding. Drawing from Mozambique's experience over the last 12 years, it is argued that in order to assure ownership of any national policy governing higher education, it is important to involve ab initio all the stakeholders in the country, namely the Government, civil society, national and international partners and higher education institutions (HEIs). This constitutes the milestone leading to a successful design of projects and, consequently, their implementation. Judging from the Mozambican experience, for a successful conception of projects to be funded by the World Bank it is important to start from a participatory formulation of a national higher education strategic plan, thus involving all the stakeholders concerned. Therefore, it is recommended to have a: strong commitment of political leadership at the highest level to reforms and expansion of higher education; high level of motivation from members of the Commission – who must be in the driving seat – working on both the Strategic Plan and Project Conception; strong support from the World Bank, both financially and intellectually; constant dialogue with national stakeholders and international partners; permanent sharing of critical information with the World Bank throughout the process, and involvement of international consultants, whenever the situation is deemed critical, in the preparation of the following documents: Project Concept Document (PCD), Project Implementation Document (PID), Project Appraisal Document (PAD), Project Preparation Facilities (PPF) and the Development Credit Agreement (DCA)

Education Reform in Mozambique : Lessons and Challenges
Fox, L., Santibañez, L., Nguyen, V., André, P., 2012,. World Bank.
https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/6021

The report opens with a brief description of the conceptual framework that guided the analysis as well as the data used. The next chapter presents the analysis of changes in household behavior and educational outcomes related to the implementation of the reforms, at both the primary and secondary levels. The descriptive nature of this analysis does not allow for inferences regarding the effects of the reforms on enrollment and demand for education. The following chapter presents the results of an econometric impact analysis of the reforms to quantify the magnitude of the effects on enrollment. In considering priorities for the future, the Government is paying increasing attention to the impact of the investments in education on growth, jobs, and poverty reduction, as measured by increased earnings from employment, and particularly by improving opportunities for the labour force to move to higher productivity activities and livelihoods. The next chapter presents the results on the changing structure of employment in Mozambique between 2003 and 2008, the impacts of education on employment opportunities, and the implications of these changes for education policy. The final chapter integrates the education and labour force analyses and provides strategic recommendations as Mozambique continues to improve educational outcomes, particularly for those population groups that have had the most difficulty entering and remaining in school.

Ongoing reform projects:

Reform program in developing countries: higher education reform and accountability in Mozambique
Gomana, B., S.,
https://dar.aucegypt.edu/handle/10526/3133

The present research deals with the question of education in Mozambique. It is an analysis on the tertiary education or higher education sub-sector. Considering the importance of this sub-sector to the economic and social development, the reform undertaken to address the deficiencies in education sector is one of the main tools of analysis. In fact, in the wave of African reforms, Mozambique introduced reforms at different levels of society, and higher education is considered as one of the government's priority. Therefore, to analyze and assess the reforms in higher education, the research uses the expansion of education physically and quality, and the access and equity. In the study, the data were collected from the Ministry of Education and Culture in Mozambique. Those data were analyzed taking into consideration the Strategic Plan for Higher Education (SPHE) 2000-2010. SPHE is another main reference of the study. The time frame of the study is 2003 to 2007 due to the data availability. The results should be considered as being partial ones, because not all objectives of this plan were analyzed. The findings show that there is an improvement in higher education based on the expansion of higher education institutions, access and equity. From 9 higher education institutions in 2001, there are more than 40 institutions and all 11 provinces are covered. Moreover, the access improved, but there is a need to improve female participation as well. The improvement verified brings other challenges for quality improvement and investment. Government responsiveness is one of the factors for the success of reform program. Mozambique's government should consider the process of reform as a continuous one.

Higher Education Reform Implementation Programme (HERIP) – Mozambique
University of Twente, 2014.
http://www.utwente.nl/mb/cheps/research/current_projects/herip/

Within the framework of the implementation of the higher education operational plan, the project is aimed at assisting the Ministry and Mozambican stakeholders in completing the

initiated higher education reforms and have them firmly embedded in the Higher Education institutional landscape. The overall objective is to enhance the structural improvement of governance and supply of Higher Education in line with National Higher Education Strategic objectives. More specifically, CHEPS aims to strengthen technical and human resource capacity at governance level in particular within DICES and to support the structural improvement of Governance and Supply of Higher Education through the development of system wide mechanisms.

CHEPS envisages achieving these goals through 1) bringing to scale the initiated reforms in the area of Quality Assurance, Credit Accumulation Transfer, Higher Education Management Information system, Financial Reforms that were achieved with support of the CHESS project and 2) aiding DICES with its new focus areas such as reforming the Higher Education Law and developing a Higher Education National Qualification Framework.

Researchers involved: Jon File; Jasmin Beverwijk; Hans Vossensteyn; Don Westerheijden

16. Additional information

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