Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania: Developing an Equity Scorecard

An ESRC/DFID Poverty Reduction Programme Research Project

Working Paper 1: Setting the Scene

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Table of Contents

Table of Figures

List of Acronyms

AVU	African Virtual University
B.Sc.	Bachelor of Science
CSP	Corporate Strategic Plan (UDSM, Tanzania)
CUC	Central University College (Ghana)
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DUCE	The Dar es Salaam University College of Education (Tanzania)
EdD	Doctor of Education
ELCT	The Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania
ERNWACA	Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa
ETP	Education and Training Policy (Tanzania)
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GoG	Government of Ghana
HEAC	The Higher Education Accreditation Council (Tanzania)
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HESLB	Higher Education Students' Loans Board (Tanzania)
ICGC	International Central Gospel Church
ICT	Information Communication Technologies
IFM	Institute for Finance Management (Tanzania)
IJMC	The Institute for Journalism and Mass Communication (UDSM, Tanzania)
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMTU	International Medical and Technology University (Tanzania)
IRDP	Institute for Rural Development and Planning (Tanzania)
ITP	Institutional Transformation Programme (UDSM, Tanzania)
IUCo	University College of Iringa (Tumaini University, Tanzania)
KCMC	The Kilimanjaro Christian Medical College (Tumaini University, Tanzania)
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (Ghana)
MA	Master of Arts
M.B.A.	Master of Business Administration
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MEd	Master of Education
MKUKUTA	Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kuondoa Umaskini Taifa (The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty, Tanzania)
MNMA	The Mwalimu Nyerere Memorial Academy (Tanzania)
M.Phil.	Master of Philosophy
M.Sc.	Master of Science
MUCCOB	Moshi College for Cooperative and Business Studies (Tanzania)
MUCE	The Mkwawa University College of Education (UDSM, Tanzania)
MUCHS	Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences (UDSM, Tanzania)
MUCo	Makumira University College (Tumaini University, Tanzania)
NAB	National Accreditation Board (Ghana)
NABTEX	National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations (Ghana)
NACTE	National Council for Technical Education (Tanzania)
NCTE	National Council for Tertiary Education (Ghana)
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation

NUFFIC	Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education
NSGRP	The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (Tanzania)
OUT	Open University of Tanzania
PhD.	Doctor of Philosophy
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SAUT	St Augustine University (Tanzania)
SBMA	School of Business Management and Administration (Central University College, Ghana)
STM	School of Theology and Missions (Central University College, Ghana)
SUA	Sokoine University of Agriculture (Tanzania)
SUZA	State University of Zanzibar (Tanzania)
TCU	Tanzania Commission for Universities
TU	Tumaini University
TU-DarCo	Tumaini University Dar es Salaam-based campus (Tanzania)
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UCLASS	University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UDSM, Tanzania)
UDS	University for Development Studies (Ghana)
UDSM	University of Dar es Salaam (Tanzania)
UEW	University of Education, Winneba (Ghana)
UG	University of Ghana
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WPHE	Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania

1 Setting the Scene for the ESRC/DFID Project on Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania

Sussex Team

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1.1 Aims

This three-year project is investigating interventions for widening participation in a public university and private university in Ghana and Tanzania. The overall aim is to interrogate the role that universities play in poverty reduction programmes and achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The project aims to explore factors that facilitate or impede participation in higher education. This will involve examination of policy frameworks and codes of practice for widening participation of under -represented groups in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania. It will also include evaluating the success of widening participation initiatives via scrutiny of statistical data and interviews with key staff, policy-makers and community advocates and life-history narrative research with students from 'non-traditional' backgrounds.

2   Objectives

1. To explore the role that universities are playing in poverty reduction programmes and to provide information about how higher education is contributing to MDGs.

2. To build theory about socio -cultural aspects of higher education in low-income countries, and provide new knowledge that could contribute to making higher education more socially inclusive.

3. To provide a comprehensive statistical overview of patterns of participation and achievement in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania.

4. To provide illuminatory qualitative data that will help explain statistical data and provide more textured information about enablers and barriers to participation and achievement for under-represented groups in higher education.

5. To devise Equity Scorecards to evaluate the effectiveness of existing policy interventions to promote inclusion in the case study institutions.

6. To enhance research capacity in the partner countries via research training for in - country teams, and two International Doctor of Education (EdD) students based at Sussex.

7. To produce new literature on the subject of widening participation in higher education in low-income countries.

Ghana and Tanzania were selected as case study sites for the research for several reasons. Both are countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the region of the world with the lowest rates of participation in higher education. Both countries have participation rates that are below even the regional average (UNESCO, 2006). However, in recent years the governments of Ghana and Tanzania have implemented policies and established administrative structures to support increased enrolment and broadened participation in higher education (URT,

1999; GoG, 1991; GoG, 1993). Sharing histories as colonies of Britain, Ghana and Tanzania gained independence at much the same time; Ghana in 1957 and Tanzania in 1961. Their similar historical profiles but different geographical location - with Ghana in the West of Africa, and Tanzania in the East - promises opportunities for valuable comparative work within Africa.

B   Research Questions

+ What have been the achievements and challenges to date in developing and implementing strategies for widening participation in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania?

+ How are the case study institutions interpreting and responding to the MDGs?

+ Which groups are currently and traditionally under-represented in the case study institutions? Does this correlate with wider national and international patterns of social exclusion?

+ Is there a relationship between learners' prior experiences of education, their socio-economic backgrounds and their experiences and achievement in education? Are there correlations between entry qualifications, progression rates and achievement/completion?

+ What mechanisms for support have been put in place for 'non-traditional' students to facilitate retention and achievement? How do 'non-traditional' students experience these interventions?

+ What do stakeholders perceive to be the main barriers to participation for under-represented groups?

✚ What interventions used in other national locations appear to promote or impede widening participation of groups traditionally excluded from higher education? Are these transferable?

✚ What strategies can the case study institutions develop to improve the recruitment, retention and achievement of students from non-traditional backgrounds?

1.4   The Equity Scorecard

The Equity Scorecard is an action research approach, with the aim of enhancing research capacity by creating a community of researchers. It is based on a culture of evidence model in which diverse data concerning the recruitment, retention and achievement of socially and economically marginalised groups are collected at each institution (Bensimon, 2004). There will be a commitment to equity in the process as well as the research content (Briggs, 2002; Equal Opportunities Commission, 2000).

Teams have been formed in each country to identify their own measures *e.g.* enrolment, access programmes, degree classifications. The teams include membership from university management, students, civil society groups concerned with poverty reduction (such as Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), relevant public policy-makers and community groups).

Central to the Equity Scorecard is disaggregation of institutional and programme-level data. This allows critical gaps in recruitment, retention and achievement to be identified, with a view to action planning.

Figure 1. An Equity Scorecard

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                    ┌─────────────┐
                    │   ACCESS    │
                    │  Indicators │
                    └──────┬──────┘
                           │
                           ▼
┌─────────────┐     ┌─────────────┐     ┌──────────────┐
│  RETENTION  │ ──▶ │  SCORECARD  │ ◀── │ ACHIEVEMENT  │
│  Indicators │     │             │     │  Indicators  │
└─────────────┘     └─────────────┘     └──────────────┘
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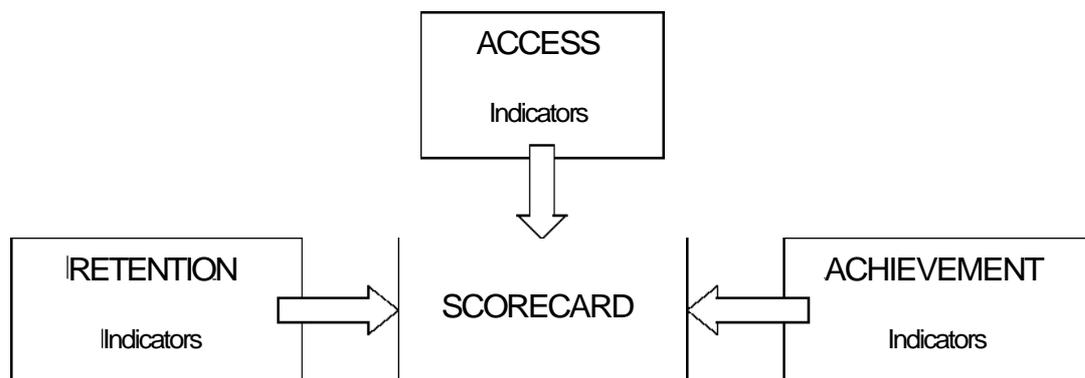
5   Why This Research is Important

There is a political economy of access and participation in higher education (Ntschoe, 2003). Higher education is repeatedly positioned by the international community as a central site for facilitating the skills, knowledge and expertise that are essential to economic and social development in low-income countries (Roberts, 2005; UNESCO, 1998; World Bank, 2002; Bloom *et al*, 2005; Commission for Africa, 2005). However, globally, there are concerns about who gains access to higher education and whether some socio-economic groups are persistently marginalised (World Bank, 2002).

Expansion has happened for over a decade in higher education internationally (Buchert, 1992). Widening participation has received global attention: in South Africa (Boughy, 2003; Naidoo, 1998), in Bangladesh (Quddus, 1999), in China (Hong, 2004), in Uganda (Kwesiga, 2002), in the UK (Burke, 2002; Forsyth and Furlong, 2000; Hayton and Paczuska, 2002; Kirton, 2002; Thomas *et al*., 2001; Ward and Steele, 1999) and in cross-country studies (Morley, 2004 a and b; Morley *et al*., 2006; Osborne, 2003). Expansion of the sector has been achieved by increased state investment and also by the rise of private education and offshore and satellite expansion, increasing both the number of students

and providers. The expansion of Information Communication Technologies (ICT) throughout the 1990s began to change both the world economy and the place of higher education institutions in that economy. Distance education has also allowed more people to participate in higher education (UNESCO, 2002).

Student enrolment increased from 13 million worldwide in 1960 to 82 million in 1995, and to 132 million by 2004 (UNESCO, 1998; UNESCO, 2006). Although starting from the lowest tertiary enrolment rates of any region, Sub-Saharan Africa has experienced one of the fastest rates of growth in higher education in the past decade, witnessing an average increase of 7 per cent per year between 1991 and 2004 (UNESCO, 2006). According to recent figures, 3,300,418 students were enrolled in higher education in Sub -Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2006). In 2002, the World Bank estimated that by 2015 there would be 97 million students enrolled in higher education (a figure that has already been surpassed), and that half of these would be in the 'developing' world (World Bank, 2002). The increasing demand for access represents a significant capacity challenge. Africa is a continent with 54 countries and over 700 million people, but with only around 300 universities (Teferra and Altbach, 2004). Those who have access to higher education represented less than three per cent of the eligible age group in the early part of this millennium (Teferra and Altbach, 2004); a recent estimate is 5 per cent (UNESCO, 2006).

6   Which Groups are Under-represented?

The World Bank (2002) notes that rapid enrolment growth has produced noteworthy progress in many countries in providing access to higher education for traditionally less privileged groups, including students from rural areas and women. However, they conclude that higher education, especially in the university sector, generally remains elitist, with most students coming from wealthier segments of society. Interrogation of Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) data shows this to be the case in both Ghana and Tanzania (see Figure 2 below).

Figure 2. **Completion of higher education in Ghana and Tanzania, by socio-economic background and gender**

Who completes higher education in Ghana?
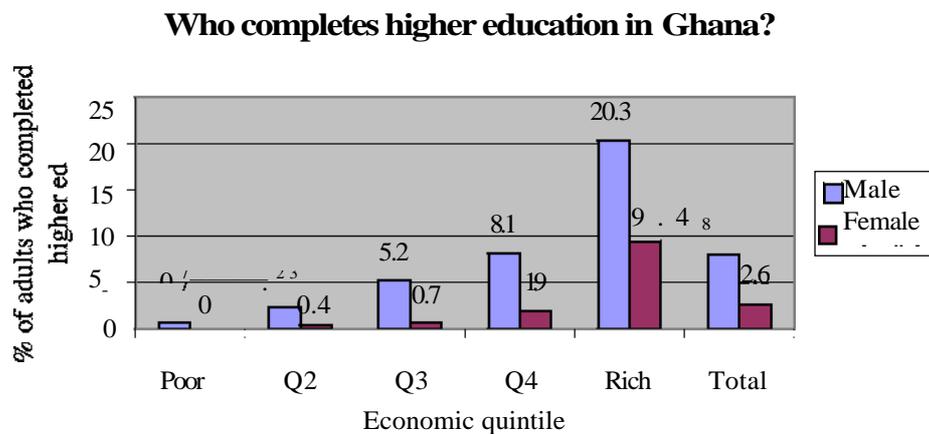
Source: www.devdata.worldbank.org/edstats/
Ghana DHS data indicator 26, 1998. (The quintiles constructed in the Ghana DHS are relative measures of wealth based on household patterns of consumption. The Ghana DHS was conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service.)

Who completes higher education in Tanzania?
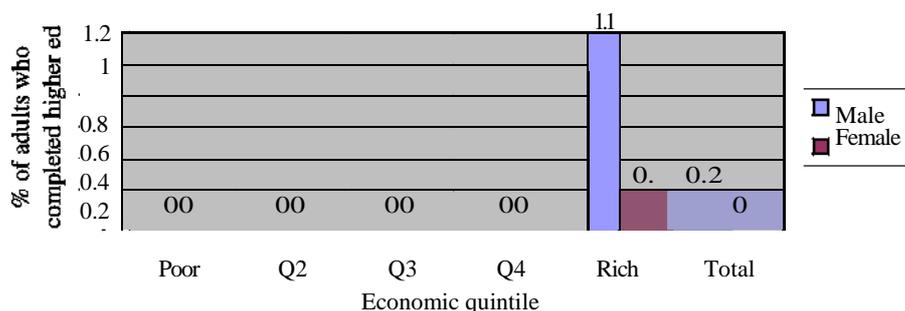
Source: www.devdata.worldbank.org/edstats/
Tanzania DHS data indicator 26, 1999. (The quintiles constructed in the Tanzanian DHS are relative measures of wealth based on household patterns of consumption.)

One of the main determinants of inequity is family income, but, depending on the country, other factors may contribute to unequal access and outcomes. Among these are caste, ethnicity, language, religion, regional origin, gender and 'physical or other' disability. Language can contribute to social inequity in countries where higher education is conducted in a language different from that of primary and secondary education. In Tanzania, for example, English is the language of higher instruction. Ta kyi and Addai's study (2002) also confirms the importance of religion in educational attainment in Ghana.

According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), discrimination based on sex, religion, race, ethnicity, class and age remains at the core of social exclusion, poverty and human misery (UNDP, 2004; UNDP, 2005). Gender disparities also tend to increase at higher levels of education. Of the 181 countries for which 2004 data were available, two thirds had achieved gender parity in primary education and one third had achieved gender parity in secondary education in that year. At tertiary level, gender parity only exists in five countries out of 148 with available data (UNESCO, 2007). In most developing countries, women's participation in higher education remains below that of

men; in Sub-Saharan Africa, only 38 per cent of students in higher education are women (UNESCO, 2006).

The under-representation of women as students in African higher education has received some research and policy attention (Bunyi, 2004; Dunne and Sayed, 2002; Morley *et. al*., 2006, Morley *et al*, 2005). Tanzania and Uganda have introduced affirmative action, pre-entry programmes, gender mainstreaming and sensitisation courses to help promote gender equity (Lihamba *et al*, 2005; Mbilinyi, 2000; Nawe, 2002). There are many explanations for the gender gap including low enrolment in basic education and gendered socio-cultural practices (Dunne and Leach, 2005; Sima *et al.*, 1999). Recent research findings suggest that the gender gap has been slightly reduced in quantitative terms, but it still remains in qualitative terms. Furthermore, gender is not always considered in relation to socio-economic background, disability and ethnicity (Morley *et al*., 2006). A central question is whether equity interventions are being extended to a range of socially disadvantaged groups. The two countries in this study have decided to focus on gender, socio-economic status and age as categories of analysis in their data collection on students.

1.7   Policy Interventions

The need to reform African higher education has been widely reported. The World Bank position moved away from focusing on basic education to the exclusion of higher education in the late 1990s. In 2000, the Bank commissioned a Task Force on Higher Education and Society, along with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), to draft a report on the role of universities in the developing world (World Bank, 2000). A conclusion was that higher education cannot afford to be

considered a luxury good for developing countries in an era of globalised knowledge and commerce. By 2002, the Bank recognised "the need to embrace a more balanced, holistic approach to... the entire lifelong education system, irrespective of a country's income level" (World Bank, 2002: x). This report describes how higher education contributes to building a country' s capacity for participation in an increasingly knowledge -based world economy.

In the UK, the Commission for Africa (2005) highlighted the role of universities as enablers of development, rather than as targets of development aid themselves. African higher education is presented as playing an indispensable role in any programme of sustainable development and poverty reduction. The report raised concerns about the shortage of professional, scientific and technically proficient staff. Higher education is viewed as central to development as it can provide skilled staff and generate research and analysis to improve effectiveness of government policy and services.

UNESCO has also played a central role in international higher education development. It hosted the first World Conference on Higher Education in Paris in 1998. Representatives of 182 countries endorsed the *World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty First Century: Vision and Action* with its commitment to in depth global reform of higher education. The pre-conference report (UNESCO, 1998) outlined difficulties including the shortage of resources, the deterioration of staff conditions and the decline in quality of teaching and research as a consequence of brain drain. It also reported reforms to revitalise higher education *e.g.* strengthening research capacity, access to ICT and improvement of women's access to higher education. While increases in enrolment have been the highest in the world, the report observed that the higher education system in Sub - Saharan Africa remains the least developed in the world.

18   Higher Education and Poverty Reduction

Poverty reduction is the overarching concept which guides international commitments to development in the framework of the MDGs. MDGs already serve as a development framework for many global and national initiatives. The eight MDGs, which range from halving extreme poverty to stemming the spread of infectious diseases such as HIV/AIDS, all by 2015, have become globally accepted benchmarks for reform. Yet there have been few studies that explicitly relate the role of higher education in achieving the M DGs. There is clearly a case for more specific scholarly work on the role that universities can play in poverty reduction in low-income countries. The following sections provide some country specific information on how the project was set up in the two res earch countries.

2 Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana

Ghana Team

Professor James Opare - Lead Researcher

Dr. Linda Dzama Forde - Research Officer

Mr. Godwin Egbenya - Research Officer

Ms. Eunice Johnston - Research Administrator

2.1 Research Sites and Rationale for Selection

The University of Cape Coast (UCC) and the Central University College (CUC) were chosen as the case study research sites in Ghana because they have unique features that satisfy the requirements of the project. UCC is a public and CUC a private institution - suitable for the sake of comparative analysis. Both have significantly expanded in curricula development and enrolment and thus provide avenues for the participation of large numbers of 'non-traditional' students in higher education. The expansion in curricula development and enrolment have been in fulfilment of policy objectives on educational reforms and in response to increased enrolments at lower levels, in part as a result of population expansion.

These 'non-traditional' students include mature students, people in full-time employment, the disabled, poor and female students as well as students from rural and deprived schools who were targeted through the creation of specific routes and the allocation of quotas. The government policy directive regarding university admissions for example, ultimately aims at a 50-50 enrolment for males and females. The Joint Admissions Board of the

University of Cape Coast has directed that the percentage of female enrolment should not

fall below 35 percent of total enrolment. Both universities are actively responding to the changing needs of the society with the introduction of new programmes and innovations.

2.2   Background Information on the Higher Educational Institutions Chosen for Study

2.2.1 The University of Cape Coast

UCC was established in October 1962 as a University College out of a dire need for highly qualified and skilled graduate professional teachers to meet the staffing needs of Ghana's accelerated secondary education programme at the time. UCC attained full independent university status, by Act of Parliament, on 1 October 1971 with the promulgation of the University of Cape Coast Act of 1971, and later the University of Cape Coast Law of 1992 (GoG, 1971; GoG, 1992).

From an initial two departments that developed into two faculties, the UCC now has six faculties and two schools. These are the faculties of Arts, Education, Science, and Social Sciences. Together with the Schools of Agriculture and Business, they offer programmes at the diploma, bachelors, masters and doctorate levels. As well, they offer a wide range of sandwich and distance education programmes. From the 2003/2004 academic year, the university introduced a Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.) in Human Biology programme as a foundation for the establishment of a School of Medical Sciences.

The dynamics of the economy and society at large have brought in its wake human resource needs in the fields of business, finance, management, science and technology. In response to this, UCC has over the past few years progressively added to its traditional function of training education professionals by introducing several new programmes.

These include B.Sc. Actuarial Science, B. Commerce, B.Sc. Optometry, B.Sc. Tourism, B.Sc. Information Technology, B.Sc. Computer Science and B.Sc. Environmental Science. Students now no longer have to study education as a compulsory subject unless they wish to become teachers. In addition, new need-driven professionally-oriented Master of Arts (M.A.), Master of Science (M.Sc.) and Master of Education (M.Ed.) programmes have been introduced alongside the more research-focused Master of Philosophy (M.Phil.) programmes in areas like administration, guidance and counselling, educational planning and mathematics education.

From an initial student enrolment of 155 in 1963, UCC's student population has risen to 43,158 in 2006/7. Of this number, 17,072 are regular full-time students (from diploma to postgraduate level), 2,900 are sandwich students, and 11,593 are distance learning students (UCC, 2006a). In addition, 74 students are studying through the African Virtual University (UCC, 2006b). The African Virtual University is a continental educational network of higher educational institutions offering diploma and degree programmes in computer science through on-line learning. The programme in Ghana is offered by the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology, Australia.

As part of an affirmative action programme, special entrance examinations and remedial programmes have been introduced to assist mature students and those from less endowed schools to gain admission. As a result, mature students are now given a 10 per cent enrolment quota while 200 slots are reserved for students from deprived schools.

For the 2006/2007 academic year the university admitted a total of 3,870 undergraduate students comprising 2,417 (62.5 per cent) males and 1,453 (37.5 per cent) females out of a total of almost 16,000 candidates who applied for admission to the University (UCC, 2006a). The high number of applications repeats the levels of demand of the previous

year, which at 16,000 represented a 12.6 per cent increase on applications in 2004/5 (UCC, 2006b). The increase in the percentage of female admissions this ye ar, represented by a ratio of approximately 2:1 is in line with the Strategic Plan of UCC and in conformity with the policy of the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) directives on gender equity described above.

UCC's vision statement positioned it to become "a university that is strongly positioned with a world wide acclaim" (UCC, 2005). This vision statement sets the stage for it to realise its aspirations. It articulates the objective of a noble and attractive futu re for itself; a target that inspires all stakeholders to invest their maximum efforts to bridge the gap between the current reality and the desired future (UCC, 2005).

UCC's mission statement declares it to be an equal opportunities university, uniquely placed to provide quality education through the provision of comprehensive, liberal and professional programmes that challenge learners to be creative, innovative and morally responsible citizens.

UCC's corporate strategic priorities seek, among other objec tives, to vigorously promote quality research, teaching and outreach that will position the institution as a centre of excellence, and provide integrated and modern information as well as communication technology facilities. Important priorities are to dev elop linkages with local and foreign institutions, establish partnerships with industry, improve management capacity and institutional governance structures, and create an organisational culture that enhances efficiency, discipline and commitment in a cond ucive working environment which recognizes equal opportunities for faculties, staff and students (UCC, 2005). In

furtherance of this, all recruitment and admissions are advertised in national newspapers and selection is based on qualification.

2.2.2 Central University College

Central University College (CUC) is an educational initiative of the International Central Gospel Church (ICGC) located in Accra. It started as a short-term pastoral training institute in October 1988 and was incorporated in June 1991 under the name Central Bible Institute. Its name changed again in 1993 when it became Central Christian College. To reflect its new status as a liberal arts institution, it was renamed Central University College in 1997. The National Accreditation Board has since accredited it as a tertiary institution. It is co-educational with equal access for male and female students. It has two schools - the School of Theology and Missions (STM) and the School of Business Management and Administration (SBMA) (CUC, 2005). The School of Theology and Missions offers four different undergraduate programmes, as well as two postgraduate Masters Programmes. The School of Business Management and Administration offers six undergraduate degrees, as well as a Master of Business Administration (M.B.A.) and Masters in Commerce programmes. The majority of students are following management-related degree programmes.

CUC has integrated Information Technology into all its degree programmes. The study of the French language is also compulsory for all students. CUC also offers worker–friendly programmes that are accessible to all who work hard and are capable of pursuing university education (CUC, 2005). The college has three sessions designed to address the needs of diverse categories of students: morning (8am to 2pm), afternoon (4:30pm to 8:30pm), and weekend (Friday 5pm to 8pm and Saturday 8am to 8pm).

Student enrolment has risen dramatically at CUC in recent years. Furthermore, figures for 2005/2006 indicate that 54.8 per cent of the students who enrolled that year were female. The higher proportion of female students is a pattern that has been maintained since 1999 as indicated in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3. Student enrolments for Central University College from 1999 to 2006

Gender	Academic Year						
Male	1999/2000	2000/200 1	200 1/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006
	244	268	346	305	359	338	1267
Female	253	302	418	365	478	503	1542
Total	497	570	764	670	837	841	2809

Source: NCTE (2006b) National Council for Tertiary Education. Ghana Records.

2.3 Setting Up the Project: Progress to Date

2.3.1 Access to the research sites

For a smooth takeoff of the study in Ghana, some key authorities have been contacted. First, Mr. Isaac Ohene, Director of Academic Affairs (Deputy Registrar, Academic) has been mandated by the UCC to offer all the assistance the team will need. The President of CUC, Accra has also given his assurance that one of his key officers will wo rk closely with the Ghana team.

2.3.2 Equity Scorecard Group

Mr. Isaac Ohene has also agreed to act as part of the Equity Scorecard Group. Mr. Paragon Pomeyie, representative of CUC, will sit on the group as well as supporting the study at CUC. Mrs. Esi Sutherland-Addy, a former Minister of State for Tertiary Education and now a Senior Lecturer of the University of Ghana, Legon has given her

consent to serve on the Equity Scorecard Group. The Executive Secretary of the National Council for Tertiary Education, Mr. Paul Effah, has expressed keen interest in the project, and has offered to be a member of the team. The membership of the Equity Scorecard Group is therefore, almost complete.

2.3.3 Ethics

The University of Sussex has guidelines on ethics. Those of UCC are still under review. The team will be guided by the tenets of the two documents. Already, the purpose of the research has been explained to the authorities of the two universities from which participants will be drawn. It will now be the responsibility of researchers to ensure that participants of the study have absolute rights of no interference, and are not caused any unnecessary or irreversible harm. Their prior voluntary consent will be sought before they are engaged in interviews. Further, researchers will be careful not to create unnecessary stress that is likely to have an inimical effect on participants. Researchers will present findings honestly without distortions. Adherence to the ethics of research on human subjects will be one of the important foci of the research officers.

2.3.4 Challenges

The anticipated challenges include easy access to resource persons, especially those who are targeted to constitute the Equity Scorecard Group. Availability of participants for even pre-arranged meetings may occasionally pose problems since some of them have very tight schedules. The student participants are likely to be even more difficult to reach for scheduled meetings, especially when formal assessments are approaching. Other problems are unreliability of the internet, and power fluctuations that could make correspondence with Sussex difficult.

2.4   Higher Education in Ghana

2.4.1 The higher education system

Higher education in Ghana is provided by universities, university colleges, polytechnics and pre-service training institutes. There are currently six public universities and thirteen private universities in Ghana (NCTE, 2006a and b.) The first institution to include higher education, Achimota College, was established in 1924 to provide education from kindergarten through to first-year university courses in engineering. The University College of the Gold Coast, now called the University of Ghana (UG), was the first university established, in 1948. The second institution of higher learning in the country was Kumasi College of Technology, now Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), which was established in October 1951. The third institution, the University College of Cape Coast (UCC), was established in 1962.

Two new universities, the University for Development Studies (UDS), located in Tamale, the capital city for the Northern Region of Ghana, and the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) have been in existence since 1992 (Effah, 2003). The sixth public university is the University of Mines and Technology (NCTE, 2006a). The polytechnics are currently being upgraded and will soon be authorised to offer university level courses (Sedgwick, 2000).

To ensure efficient coordination of the tertiary education system and effective implementation of government policies, tertiary institutions were brought under the general supervision and direction of the Ministry of Education, with a National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) established in 1993 to advise the Minister of Education on all matters related to the development of tertiary education (GoG, 1993; Adei, 2006).

According to the National Council for Tertiary Education Act of 1993, the National Accreditation Board (NAB) and the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations (NABTEX) are responsible for accrediting institutions offering degree level programmes as well as professional and technician examinations (GoG, 1993; Adei, 2006).

2.4.2 Participation in higher education in Ghana

Enrolment in universities in Ghana increased by 165 per cent during the 1990s, rising from 11,857 in the 1991/1992 academic year to 31,460 in the 1998/1999 academic year (Effah, 2003). The phenomenal increase was due to pressure from the demand for higher education, fuelled by enrolment explosions in basic and secondary education following the introduction of the Educational Reforms in Ghana in 1987.

During the same period, polytechnics registered an increase of 730 per cent from 1,558 in 1993/94 (when they were upgraded to tertiary status) to 12,926 in 1998/99. Within a period of 13 years from 1983-96, total enrolment in universities and polytechnics thus increased by 162 per cent. Despite this expansion, the enrolment rate for the 18-21 age group in tertiary education is less than 3 per cent (Effah, 2003).

More recent figures indicate that enrolment in higher education in Ghana continues to rise. UNESCO statistics indicate that in 2004, 69,968 students were enrolled in higher education in Ghana, and that the majority of these - 87 per cent - were enrolled on degree level programmes offered by universities (UNESCO, 2006). The most recent figures from the National Council for Tertiary Education suggest that university enrolment is now over 93,285 students (see Figure 4 below). 10 per cent of students are enrolled in private universities, and 35 per cent of students in all universities are women.

Figure 4 Enrolment in universities in Ghana in 2005/6

	M	F	T	%F
Public universities				
Students enrolled in certificate and diploma programmes	1074	923	1997	0.46
Students enrolled in degree programmes	50820	27008	77828	0.35
Students enrolled in post-graduate programmes	2835	1128	3963	0.28
Total students enrolled in public universities	54729	29059	83788	0.35
Private universities				
Students enrolled in private universities	5582	3915	9497	0.41
All universities				
Total students enrolled in public and private universities	60311	32974	93285	0.35
% at private universities	9	12	10	

Sources: (i)All Tables S5 in NCTE (2006a) (ii) NCTE (2006b) private universities

Figure 5. Enrolment in public and private universities in Ghana 2005/6
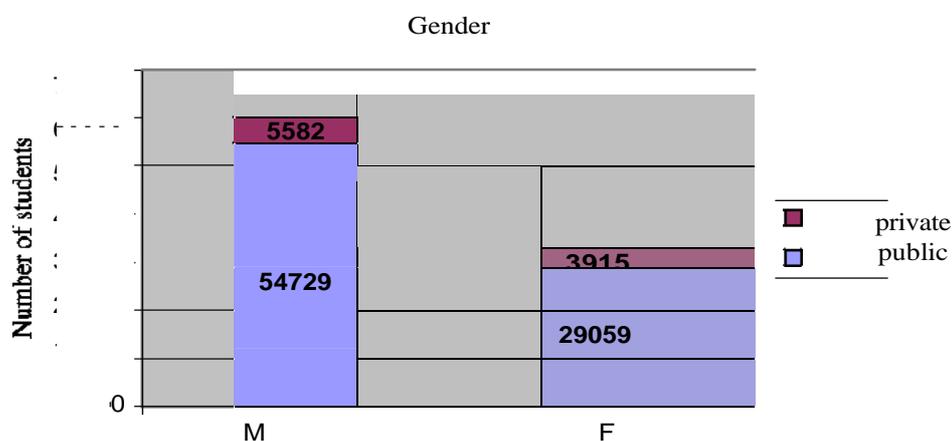
Data sources: Tables 5S in NCTE 2006a and NCTE 2006b

2.5   National Strategies for Widening Participation in Ghana

2.5.1 Who is excludedfrom higher education in Ghana?

Higher education is open to all who meet university entry qualifications through the Senior Secondary School Certificate, Mature Students Entrance Examination or the Entrance Exam for Distance Learning. By implication, persons who fail to meet these requirements are excluded from higher education (Adei, 2006). As shown by Figure 2, women and people from poorer backgrounds in Ghana have traditionally been excluded from higher education.

2.5.2 Initiatives for widening participation in highe r education in Ghana

A range of strategies has been initiated by the Government of Ghana (GoG), and by institutions of higher education, to widen participation in higher education.

Private sector involvement: The landscape for the development of higher education changed early in the 1990s when the private sector as well as religious and individual foundations entered the scene. By mid-2006, the National Accreditation Board of Ghana had granted accreditation to over 11 private university colleges to provide different educational programmes in the country. In 2003/2004 over 18,000 students were enrolled in the seven public universities while a little over 5,000 students were enrolled in the other private institutions (Ofori-Attah, 2005). By 2005/6 this figure had risen to over 9,000 students (NCTE, 2006b).

Figure 6. Increasing enrolment at private universities in Ghana, 1999 to 2006
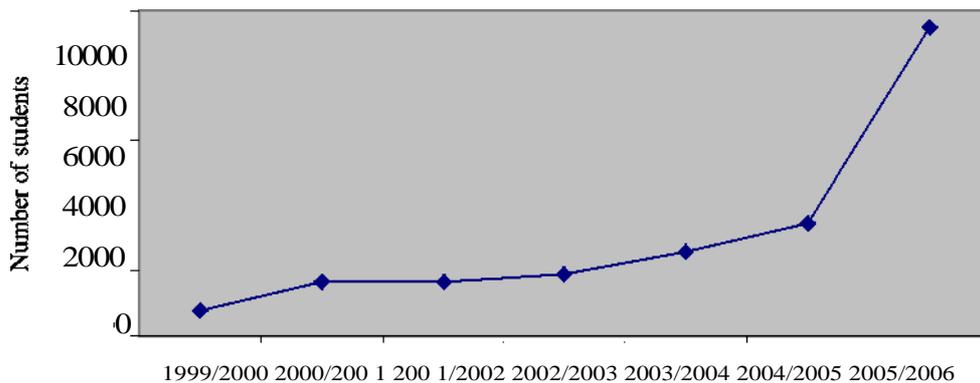
Data source: NCTE, 2006b.

Expanding campuses: Until recently, higher education was provided on single campuses. The idea today is to make education as accessible to as many students as possible. The UDS and UEW provide excellent examples. The UDS has four satellite campuses in the northern part the country while the UEW in the Central Region has two other campuses located in other parts of the country (Ofori-Attah, 2005).

Increasing participation of females: Enrolment of female students as a percentage of total enrolments increased in the universities from 21 per cent in 1991/92 to 26 per cent in 1998/99 (Effah, 2003). The figures for women's participation in polytechnics for 1993/94 and 1998/99 were 16 per cent and 21 per cent, respectively (Effah, 2003). As has been noted in Figure 4 above, participation by women in university education has now reached 35 per cent. However, the participation of women is slightly higher in the private sector; 41 per cent of students in private universities are women.

Although women's participation in university-based higher education is increasing, enrolment of women decreases at each level of the institution. Recent NCTE figures for public universities have been combined in Figure 7 below and indicate that women's

participation is highest at the certificate and diploma level where 46 per cent of students

are women, falling to 35 per cent for degrees, and is lowest at post-graduate study. 29 per

cent of Masters students and only 17 per cent of Ph.D. students in Ghana are women

(NCTE, 2006a).

Figure 7. Enrolment of women on higher education programmes at public universities in Ghana, 2005/6

	Enrolments on Certs & diplomas	%F	Enrolments on Degrees	%F	Enrolments on post-gad & Masters	%F	Enrolments on Ph.D.s	%F
Univof Ghana	1213	45%	25656	41%	1613	34%	not disaggregated	
KNUST	117	14%	18343	30%	1398	24%	65	17%
Cape Coast	327	62%	16229	33%	480	23%	54	19%
Winneba	246	50%	11659	36%	263	37%	4	0
Uniof Development Studies	94	38%	5137	30%	33	21%		
Univ of Mines & Technol			804	7%	48	2%		20%
TOTAL	1997	46%	77828	35%	3835	29%	128	17%

Source: (i)All Tables S5 inNCTE (2006a)

Figure 8. Participation of women in programmes at public universities in Ghana, 2005/6
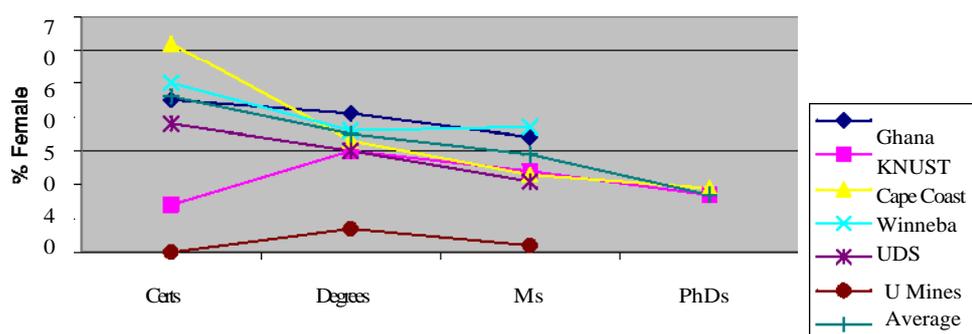
Data Source: Tables 5S in NCTE, 2006a.

Women's varying participation across the different public universities may reflect, to

some extent, the different subject specialisms of the universities. Women's participation is

greatest in universities that specialise in education (Winneba and Cape Coast), followed

by the University of Ghana, a university that historically has been predominantly a social sciences university. Women's participation is lowest in the universities that specialise in science, engineering and technology (KNUST and the University of Mines and Technology).

Expanding curricula: The curriculum first designed for higher education in Ghana consisted essentially of the social sciences, although science and technology were not overlooked. Today, the curriculum is more varied and includes programmes in the fields of business and education. Computer science and technology education constitute the core of the curriculum for all tertiary institutions in the country (Ofori-Attah, 2005).

26   Research on Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana

Literature relating to participation in higher education in Ghana is limited. An important document was the research report produced by Addae-Mensah *et al.* (1973) which

indicated that graduates of the elite secondary schools in the country were over-represented in the country's universities and in the most prestigious and strategically important programmes of study. These findings suggested that for one reason or another, students who attend the less endowed, usually rurally located schools were disadvantaged due to the schools' internal deficiencies.

In a more recent study of admissions to two universities Addae-Mensah has shown that little has changed in terms of access to higher education in the intervening twenty years. His study revealed that at the University of Ghana and KNUST for 1998/99 and 1999/2000 the majority of students came from the top 50 schools in the country, that is

less than 10 per cent of the country's schools (Addae-Mensah, 2000). From within this

list, Addae Mensah drew up a list of 18 'starred schools' on the basis of consistently excellent performance in a national quiz programme that shaped public perceptions of schools. These schools make up only 3.65 per cent of schools in Ghana. Addae-Mensah found that, depending on the subject of study, between 60 and 92 per cent of students enrolled at Ghana University came from the top 50 schools, and about 43 per cent came from the top 18 schools (with 57 per cent of students admitted to science degrees being from 'starred schools'). A similar picture was found at KNUST. Here, for example, 88 per cent of students enrolled on engineering degrees came from the top 50 schools (Addae-Mensah, 2000). Thus, students enrolled in science, medicine and engineering degree programmes continue to be overwhelmingly drawn from the country's most elite schools.

2.7 Ghana Research Team: Skills and Experience

Considering the importance of the project on Widening Participation in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania (WPHE) for theory building and policy formulation, the skills and competencies of the researchers involved were considered to be of paramount importance. Accordingly, the team was selected on the basis of their research experience.

Professor Opare has carried out research on several aspects of education in Ghana. In 1994 he was the country manager of a research study into sustainable development commissioned by the Netherlands Organization for International Cooperation in Higher Education (NUFFIC). He has also completed several research studies for the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa (ERNWACA).

Research Officers: Dr Linda Dzama Forde, a lecturer, has a Ph.D in Educational Leadership from Florida Agricultural and Mechanical University. She has a rich research experience including collaborative research with colleagues in Sussex (Dunne, Leach *et al*, 2005). Mr. Godwin Egbenya, also a lecturer and a doctoral candidate, has an M. Phil in Sociology from University of Cape Coast. He has done some research with senior colleagues in the Faculty of Social Sciences, and in the Department of Sociology. He and Professor Opare have just finished a survey commissioned by ERNWACA.

Eunice Johnston is an administrator at the Office of the Dean of Graduate Studies, University of Cape Coast. She is also a part-time student reading Bachelor of Management Studies (BMS). Her interests include researching into the academic pursuits of brilliant but needy students.

3   Widening Participation in Higher Education in Tanzania

Tanzania Team

Professor Amandina Lihamba - Lead Researcher

Professor Eustelle Bhalalusesa - Research Officer

Dr. Rosemarie Mwaipopo - Research Officer

Ms. Lucy Shule - Research Administrator

3.1   Introduction

This is the first in a series of working papers that will be produced by this research project. The paper provides information on the research sites and rationale for their selection, how the research project was set up and initial challenges, preliminary statistics on participation in higher education and initial information about national and organisational policies, and existing research on the subject of widening participation in Tanzania.

3.2   Research Sites and Rationale for Selection

3.2.1 University of Dar es Salaam

This study focuses on two universities: the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) and Tumaini University (TU). As of January 2007, the University of Dar es Salaam had five campuses, four of which are within Dar es Salaam, and the fifth is in Iringa Region. The University of Dar es Salaam is the largest public university in Tanzania, and is also the oldest. First established in 1961 as a College of the University of London, it became a

constituent college of the University of East Africa in 1963 and a national university in

1970. It was established to act as a centre where scientific research could advance the frontiers of knowledge as well as meeting the high level human resource needs of the country, in addition to transmission of knowledge which was to be the basis of action (URT, 1970). Starting with only the Faculty of Law in 1961, the University has expanded considerably in terms of both disciplines and administrative units. In 1991, the Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences (MUCHS) was established and this was followed by the transformation of the then Ardhi Institute into the University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLASS) in 1996. The Institute for Journalism and Mass Communication (IJMC) became part of UDSM in July 2003. The Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) and the Mkwawa University College of Education (MUCE) were established in 2005 and these were followed by the inauguration of the first campus college at the University in 2006 – the College of Engineering and Technology. Within the colleges and the campuses, the University fulfils its mission of teaching, research, consultancy and public service through 18 faculties, five schools, eight institutes, three centres and three bureaus. (UDSM, 2006a: 2-3).

3.2.2 Tumaini University

Tumaini University (TU) is owned by the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania (ELCT) and is a more dispersed multi-campus university in terms of the location of its four campuses. It is composed of: the Constituent University College of Iringa (IUCo) located in Iringa region, which is the oldest campus; Makumira University College (MUCo) in Arusha region; the Kilimanjaro Christian Medical College, (KCMC) in Kilimanjaro region; and the Dar es Salaam based Campus, (TU-DarCo), all of which are semi-autonomous. TU also has three Institutes for Postgraduate Studies and an Institute of Agricultural Development at IUCo. Tumaini University has its roots in the long-standing interest in faith-based institutions' participation in the provision of education.

Missionaries and religious organisations were amongst the early education providers at the primary and secondary school levels in the country and it is therefore not surprising that churches established some of the earliest tertiary institutions in the country. Tumaini University started its operations in 1997 with three constituent colleges – MUCo, IUCo and KCMC. The fourth constituent college, TU-DarCo, was established in 2003. TU aspires to blend its commitment to its faith with the pursuit of excellence in learning without discrimination. The vision and mission of the university states that:

> Tumaini University is a Christ-centred university focussing all its programmes through the guidance of and obedience to the word of God and by conducting and promoting higher education learning and research through scientific fact-finding and enquiries to all students without any form of discrimination (TU, 2005: 2).

Between its four university colleges, TU has currently 20 undergraduate programmes, six diploma programmes, one certificate programme, 10 programmes at Masters level and two Ph.D. programmes (TU, 2005: 17-18). The University has plans to establish a further multi-disciplinary constituent college at Masoka in Kilimanjaro region and another in Tanga region to train teachers on Special Education.

These two universities were chosen for this research project for three reasons. First of all, as indicated above, they are well-established compared to some other universities in the country. Second, they offer programmes that can provide comparative analysis especially in the professions of law, medicine, journalism and mass communication, education, commerce and business administration as well as in the arts and social sciences. A

comparison of some the programmes offered by the two universities is presented below in Figure 9.

Figure 9. A comparison of academic programmes offered by UDSM and TU

Programme	UDSM	TU
Arts and Social Sciences	Main Campus	IUCo, MUCo, Tu-DARCo
Commerce/Business Administration	Main Campus	IUCo, Tu-DARCo
Education	Main Campus, DUCE, MUCE	IUCo, MUCo
Journalism/Mass Communication	IJMC	IUCo, Tu-DARCo
Law	Main Campus	IUCo, Tu-DARCo
Medicine and Health Sciences	MUCHS	KCMC
Theology	-	MUCo
Engineering	CET	-
Architectural studies	UCLAS	-

Comparative studies can therefore be made in at least five areas of professional training. Other than the medical sciences at KCMC, Tumaini University does not offer programmes in the natural and biological sciences or engineering and architectural studies, which are offered by UDSM constituent colleges.

A third reason for the selection of these case study institutions is the anticipated willingness on the part of management, staff and students to participate in the project given existing linkages between the two institutions.

3.3   Setting Up the Project: Progress to Date

3.3.1 Access to the research sites

To obtain access to the two chosen research institutions, letters of introduction were written and permission sought to conduct and involve the universities in the research project from the Chief Executives of either the university or individual constituent

colleges. The universities and/or their constituent colleges showed not only willingness but also enthusiasm to participate in the research.

3.3.2 Equity Scorecard Group

The Equity Scorecard Group in Tanzania includes the research team and leading experts in gender and higher education. Prof. R. Meena, Professor in Political Science has researched widely on gender, particularly gender and politics. She is also experienced in human rights, gender and children policy-related issues at both national and international levels. Dr. F. Mukangara is currently the Acting Director, Gender Centre of the UDSM. She has experience in gender equity and equality particularly at the national and institutional levels. She has widely participated and contributed to gender mainstreaming in the UDSM transformation process that began in early 1990s. Dr. L. Mbilinyi is the Deputy Provost Administration at the Tumaini University Dar es Salaam College. Mr A. Mbegu works at the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education. Ms N. Mhando, Assistant Lecturer in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, has experience in advanced sociological theory, community health, poverty alleviation, children and gender. Mr L. Filipo is currently pursuing a Masters with Education. This programme's specialisations include education psychology and adult education.

3.3.3 Challenges of the research project

Several challenges have already been experienced and others are anticipated. These include the following:

- Incompatibility between the project and the institutions' calendar. The two participating institutions were closed in December because of Christmas and New Year holidays. Access to information and particularly statistics was limited.

- It was expected that most of the information and documents required for this paper would be available at the central level. However, this was not always the case. At

times, travelling from one constituent college to another was inevitable and this

delayed the process because the constituent colleges are spread out.

.Challenges are anticipated in getting an equitable and representative sample for all

excluded social categories (especially in terms of religion, people with disabilities)

since the existing statistics do not indicate these categories.

3.4   Participation in Higher Education in Tanzania

Since independence in 1961, the government of Tanzania has been trying hard to ensure

the growth and expansion of the higher education sector although it has been difficult to

satisfy all educational and training needs of the country. Until 1993, the whole country

had only two universities, the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) and Sokoine

University of Agriculture (SUA), with the capacity of enrolling only about 4,000 full time

students (URT, 1993). In 1994, the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) was established

as a strategy to expand higher education. To date (January 2007) Tanzania has five public

universities: UDSM, SUA, OUT, Mzumbe University, and the State University of

Zanzibar (SUZA), and five university colleges with a total number of 11,110 female and

24,496 male students (see Figure 10, p44).

Following the economic liberalisation policies from the mid-1980s that were engineered

by World Bank-International Monetary Fund (IMF) structural adjustment programmes,

Tanzania was transformed from a centrally commanded economy to a more open

economy encouraging foreign investment in various productive sectors. With time,

individuals and private agencies have been encouraged to invest in higher education to

compliment government efforts. From 1994, a number of private universities and

colleges have been established in the country, although some of them still have limited

enrolment capacity. Currently, there are 17 recognised private universities (see Figure 11, p46).

Private institutions are entirely self-financing, their main sources being fees, donations, endowments and self-generated income (Cooksey *et al*., 2003). As of 200 5/06, students enrolled in these universities also became eligible for government loans from the National Higher Education Loans Board already available to students in the public universities. With the exception of the International Medical and Technology University (IMTU), which is run by private individuals, all other universities are affiliated with, or own ed by, various religious organisations. The Roman Catholic Church, for example, operates St Augustine University (SAUT) in Mwanza and Ruaha University College in Iringa Region, while the ELCT owns the four colleges of Tumaini University as mentioned above. The Muslim Council of Tanzania is supporting the Muslim University of Morogoro.

Besides these universities, higher education in Tanzania also includes institutions that do not offer degree programmes[1], although some offer professional training equivalent to university education. Whether they offer degree programmes or not, both types of institutions are recognized within the Higher Education Institution Framework bu t are accredited by different systems. Universities are accredited by the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) and the rest are accredited by the National Council for Technical Education (NACTE).

Enrolment in all these institutions - universities and colleges - increased in absolute terms from 18,539 in 2000 to 40,881 in 2004/5. For the higher education sector as a whole, in

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[1] Mkude *et al.* (2003) refer to these institutions as non-universities.

2005/6, public universities accounted for about 65 per cent of total enrolments, private universities 10 per cent and other institutions such as the Institute for Finance Management (IFM), Institute for Rural Development and Planning (IRDP) and the Mwalimu Nyerere Memorial Academy (MNMA) accounted for 25 per cent.

Despite the rapid expansion of higher education, challenges to access remain. These include inadequate capacity of higher learning institutions to cater for the growing demand for places. In his 2006 Graduation address, the Vice Chancellor of UDSM stated:

> With all the efforts taken to expand the intake every year, the number of qualified applicants who do not get admission is large. For example, this academic year (2006/2007) there were 16,018 applicants (37.8% were female) but only 7, 548 were admitted which is only 49% of the total number of applicants (UDSM, 2006b:4).

Other challenges include the imbalance in the number of students studying science compared to arts-based courses, gender and regional disparities and under-representation of students with physical disabilities. The national statistics on enrolment of students for 2005/06 indicate that only 54 students with disabilities (15 female and 39 male) are enrolled in all public universities and colleges in the country (URT, 2006:19). The following tables illustrate enrolment figures for universities only (full-time and part-time) up to the academic year 2005/06.

Figure 10. Student enrolment for the years 2001/2002 -2005/2006

Public universities

INSTITUTION	Acronym	2001/2002			2002/2003			2003/2004			2004/2005			2005/2006		
		F	M	T	F	M	T	F	M	T	F	M	T	F	M	T
University of Dar es Salaam	UDSM	1870	4869	6739	4163	5985	10148	3501	7365	10866	5108	7036	12144	5146	9935	15081
Muhimbii*University College of Health Sciences	MUCHS**	263	684	967	361	794	1155	605	1228	1833	643	1374	2017	866	2124	2990
University College of Lands and Architectural Studies	UCLAS**	81	705	786	98	786	884	142	825	967	175	860	1035	182	1012	1194
Sokoine University of Agriculture	SUA	592	1504	2096	669	1672	2341	724	1796	2520	640	1840	2480	485	1801	2286
Open University of Tanzania	OUT	1004	4347	5351	1160	4523	5683	2581	7732	10313	3481	9464	12,945	2825	6407	9,232
Mzumbe University College	MZUMBE	195	510	705	216	502	718	526	1143	1669	955	1595	2550	1014	2156	3170
State university of Zanzibar	SUZA				18	38	56	98	88	186	79	128	207	141	119	260
Moshi University College for Cooperative Education and Business	MUCCOB*	85	166	251	128	221	349	167	389	556	248	487	735	255	611	866
Dar es salaam University College for Education	DUCE**													196	331	527
Mkwawa University College for Education	MUCE**+															
	TOTAL	4110	12785	16895	6813	14521	21334	8344	20566	28910	11329	22784	34113	11110	24496	35,606
	%F/M	24.4	75.6	100	31.9	64.8	100	29.9	71.1	100	33.2	66.8	100	31.2	68.8	100

Source:URT, 2006. Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology (2006) Statistics in Higher Education 200 1/2002 -2005/2006

Key:

- *** = Constituent College of SUA**
- ****= Constituent colleges of UDSM**
- **+ = MUCE had not started operations by 2005/06**

Figure 11. Student enrolment for the years 2001/2002 -2005/2006

Private universities

| NAME of INSTITUTION	ACRONYM	2001/2002			2002/2003			2003/2004			2004/2005			2005/2006		
		F	M	T	F	M	T	F	M	T	F	M	T	F	M	T
StAugustineUniversityofTanzania	**SAUT**	204	200	404	204	201	405	229	244	473	287	370	657	503	841	1344
TumainiKilimanjaroChristian Medical College	**KCMC**	61	93	154	86	106	192	100	156	256	99	142	241	78	142	220
Tumaini MakumiraUniversity College	**MUCo**	14	131	145	16	125	141	21	133	154	23	124	147	101	170	271
Tumaini Iringa University College	**IUCo**	112	181	293	162	182	344	226	373	599	249	449	698	555	753	1308
TumainiUniversityDaresSalaam College	**TU-DARCo**							71	55	126	137	149	286	108	156	264
University of Arusha	**UNIV. ARUSHA**	66	122	188	78	107	185	49	112	161	59	146	205	52	102	154
University College of Education, Zanzibar	**UCED ZANZIBAR**							69	222	291	121	242	363	50	93	143
ZanzibarUniversity	**ZANZIBARUNIV.**	100	203	303	144	295	439	145	293	438	171	314	485	171	314	485
Hubert Kairuki Medical Univ	**HUBERT KARIUKI**	28	36	64	41	45	86	61	74	135	84	107	191	66	43	109
InternationalMedicalTechnology University	**IMTU**	34	59	93	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	18	25	83	89	172
Bugando Clinical Health University College	**BUGANDO UCS**							4	6	10	12	23	35	12	23	35
HH the Agakhan University	**AGA KHAN (TIHE)**							79	9	88	12	126	138	46	77	123
Mount Meru University	**MOUNT MERU**							6	27	32	16	67	83	45	119	164
Ruaha University College	**RUAHA**													87	134	221
Muslim University of Morogoro	**MUM**													67	100	167
Bishop Kisanji University	**KISANJI UNIV.**													5	57	62
Mwenge University College	**MWENGE**													6	27	33
	TOTAL	**619**	**1025**	**1644**	**731**	**1061**	**1792**	**1060**	**1704**	**2763**	**1277**	**2277**	**3554**	**2035**	**3240**	**5275**
	% Female/Male	**37.5**	**62.5**	**100**	**37.7**	**62.3**	**100**	**40.8**	**59.2**	**100**	**38.3**	**61.7**	**100**	**38**	**62**	**100**

Source: URT, 2006. Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology (2006) Statistics in Higher Education 200 1/2002-2005/2006.

**Figure 12. Changing patterns of enrolment for women at public and private universities in Tanzania**

Type of University	Total number of female students enrolled at university per academic year				
	2001/2	2002/3	2003/4	2004/5	2005/6
all public universities	4090	6813	8344	11326	11110
all private universities	619	731	1060	1277	2035
Total	4709	7544	9404	12603	13145
Proportion of women at university who are in public universities	0.87	0.9	0.89	0.90	0.85

Data source: Figures 10 and 11 above (URT, 2006a)

The total number of women enrolling at university in Tanzania has grown dramatically in the first years of the 21st century, rising from 4,709 women in 200 1/2 to 13,145 in 2006/7, an increase of almost 300 per cent in just five years. While numbers of women enrolling have increased at both private and public universities, public universities continue to provide access to higher education for the majority of women; 85 per cent of women enrolling in university in Tanzania in 2006/7 did so at a public university. However, in the past year, the proportion of women enrolling in public universities has dropped from just over 90 per cent in 200 5/6 to 85 per cent.

Figure 13. Women's participation at public and private universities in Tanzania between 2001 and 2006
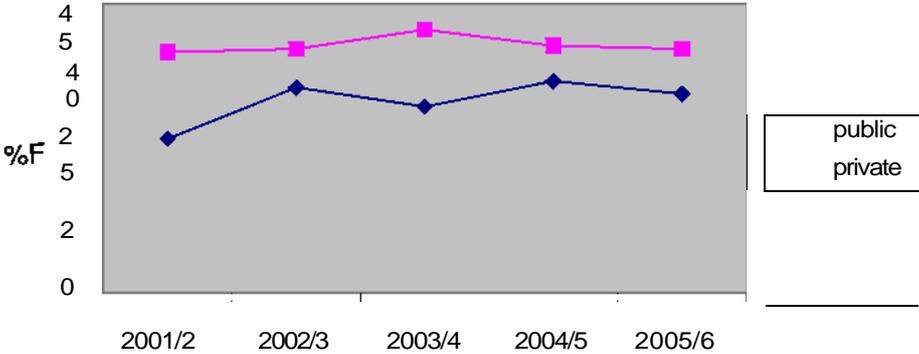
Data source: Figures 10 and 11 above (URT, 2006a)

Whilst neither public nor private universities demonstrate gender parity in student enrolments, the proportion of women enrolling is higher at private universities than at public universities. Over the past five years, enrolment ratios at private universit ies have hovered around 38 per cent. In contrast, only 30 per cent of students enrolled at public universities are female.

Within the public and private university sectors, different institutions also show different enrolment patterns (see Figure 14 below). For several public universities, increasing numbers of students enrolling is associated with decreasing proportions of female students. UDSM shows an unusual pattern of peaks every two years. For the year 2002, this phenomenon can be attributed to the sudden expansion of enrolment and that more private students were allowed to enter the university, while in 2004 the enrolment was boosted by the Government's decision to accept two Form VI cohorts instead of the usual single cohort. Moshi University College for Cooperative Education and Business on the other hand has very low proportions of women enrolling. Its focus on Cooperative Studies is not really a disincentive to female candidates but rather, the university has exp erienced a small number of female under-graduate applicants. Most female enrolment therefore is in its post-graduate programmes that absorb a high percentage of in -service applicants. Mzumbe University's sudden boost in enrolment since 2 004 may be attributed to its opening of the Dar es Salaam Unit that mainly runs post -graduate degree programmes. This unit has indeed attracted many candidates, including civil servants currently obliged to have a minimum of a first degree for re cruitment to government s ervice, and a post-graduate qualification for promotion[2]. The Dar es Salaam campus seeks to serve the busy schedules and commitments of mature entrants.

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[2] This qualification is demanded for senior positions in government.

Sokoine University has shown a steady decline in the proportion of female enrolments, suggesting that the A-level proportion of female students with the appropriate qualifications has been declining, or that female candidates are opting for other courses now increasingly available in higher education institutions, such as training in teachi ng or administration. In contrast, the Open University has shown a steady increase in the proportion of students enrolling who are women because of its more conducive programmes and modes of study to women's situation. The programmes include long - term, part-time and distance learning arrangements.

Figure 14. Women's participation at different public universities in Tanzania between 2001 and 2006
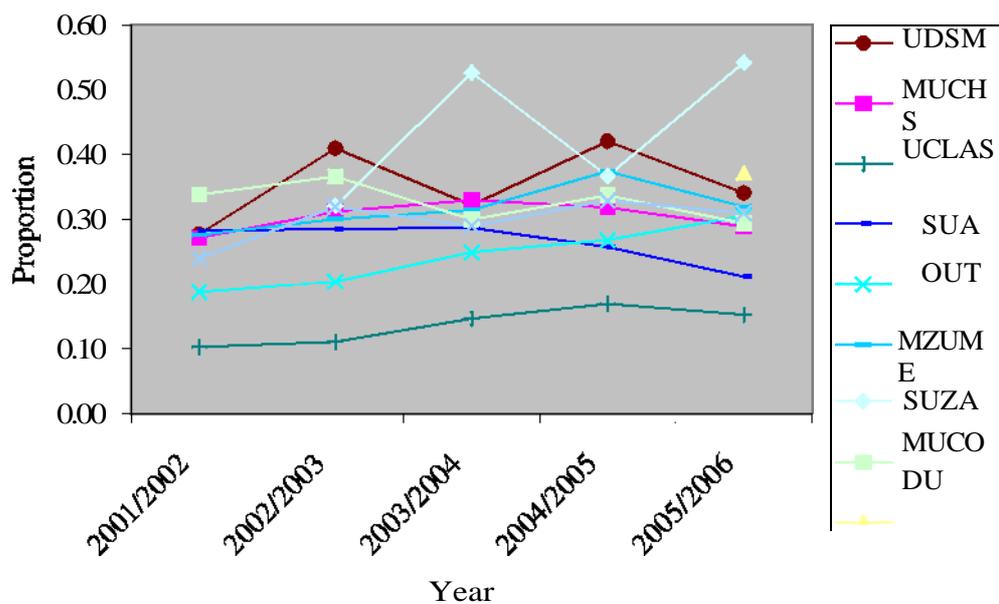
Key to university names

UDSM University of Dar es Salaam
MUCHS Muhimbili University College of Health
Sciences UCLAS University College of Lands and Architectural
Studies SUA Sokoine University of Agriculture
OUT Open University of Tanzania
MZUMBE – Mzumbe University
SUZA State University of Zanzibar
MUCCOB – Moshi College for Cooperative and
Business Studies DUCE Dar es Salaam University College of
Education MUCE Mkwawa University College of Education

Figure 15. Women's participation at different private universities between 2001 and 2006
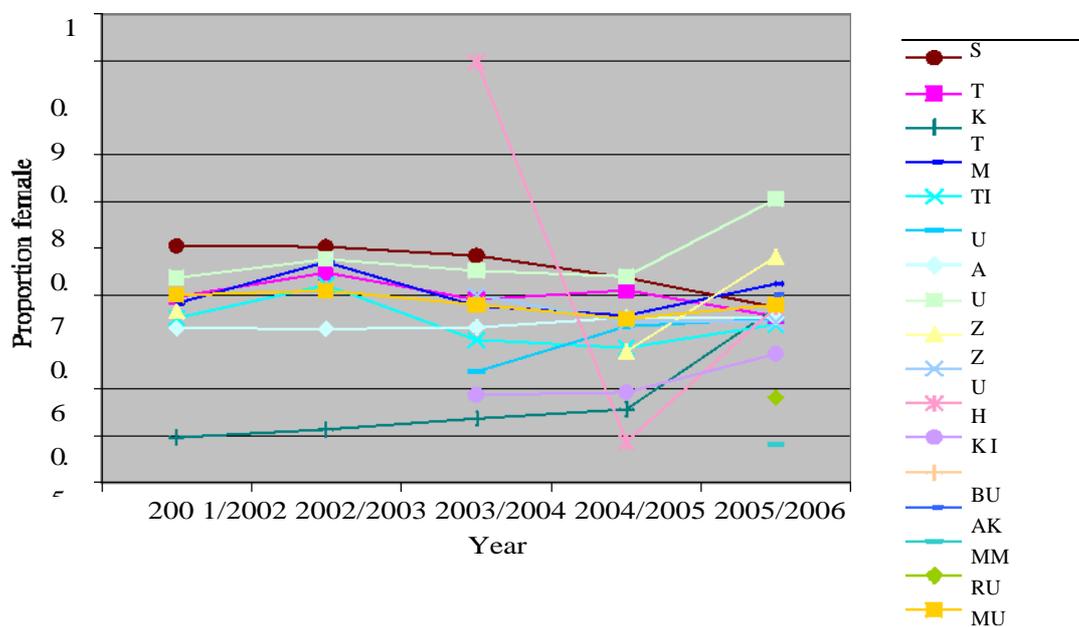
Key to private universities names

S: St Augustine University (SAUT)   BU: Bugando UCS
TK: Tumaini KCMC   AK: The Aga Khan University
TM: Tumaini Makumira   MM: Mount Meru University
TI: Tumaini Iringa   RU: Ruaha University College
UA: University of Arusha   MU: Muslim University of Morogoro
UZ: University College for Education Zanzibar   KU: Kisanji University
I: International Medical and Technology University MUC: Mwenge University College
ZU: Zanzibar University
HK: Hubert Kariuki

In most private universities, the proportion of female students enrolling is over 30 per cent. Three universities that had lower enrolment ratios when they were established (Tumaini Makumira, Mount Meru and Kisanji) have shown a recent increase in proportions of women amongst students enrolling for their programmes of study. The greater range of opportunities for female students is one reason. For example, more women can enter Makumira Theological College after the Lutheran Church became softer on female entrants into the clergy: Makumira has also expanded into programmes such as Fine Arts and Music that attract more females. The new programmes introduced, including the increased number of eligible students from

secondary schools opting for courses such as education and law has contributed to

Makumira University's increase in enrolment of females.

However, at universities that had higher rates of enrolment for women at the beginning of the millennium, enrolment ratios are decreasing. Indeed between 2002/3 and 2004/5, female enrolments at several private universities dropped by five to 10 per cent. Yet, for universities that had low enrolment rates initially, enrolments of women in 2005/6 rose sharply. The increasing accessibility of loans especially for students enrolled in private universities is a major factor leading to this phenomenon.

3.5   National Policies Addressing Widening Participation in Higher Education in Tanzania

3.5.1 National strategies on poverty alleviation and gender equity

The drivers behind policies addressing widening participation in education in the country are multidimensional, but they can all be traced to the ideals of the National Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania drawn in 1977 (and amended in 1984), in which education was stipulated as a Constitutional right (URT, 1998). It was since these early times that the government also propagated the ideology of cultivating development through eradicating the three 'worst enemies' namely, illiteracy (*ujinga*), poverty (*umaskini*) and disease (*maradhi*).

Education has therefore long been addressed as an impetus for developmen t in the country. The constitution provides for education as a human right, and individual freedom of both sexes to educate themselves up to the desired level. Article XI (2) states that: "every person has the right to self-education, and every citizen shall be

free to pursue education in a field of his (*sic*) choice up to the highest level according to his merits and ability" (URT, 1998: 19). The Arusha Declaration (1967) furthered this zeal when it encouraged people's commitment to development with the words of 'freedom, development and self-reliance' and education was realised as one of the solid paths to achieving development.

As is illustrated above, the policy context responds to the ideals of the MDGs, albeit the focus was there even before MDGs were articulated. The most recent evaluation of national performance suggests that Tanzania is on track to achieve MDG 2 for Universal Primary Education (UPE) where overall enrolment is on average 95 per cent and appreciable gender parity (URT, 2006b). However, there are still milestones to be reached for Goal 3 in gender equity at higher levels in the system and Goal 1 concerning the alleviation of poverty (URT, 2006b).

The Women and Gender Development Policy (2000): As a response to internal and external pressures for gender equality policies, the Tanzanian government formulated the Women in Development Policy in 1992, re-named the Women and Gender Development Policy in 2000. The policy calls for removal of barriers that hinder women's access to education and training to the limits of their abilities. The earlier policy was developed after the institution of the Beijing Platform for Action of 1985, and most of its stipulations regarding equity and equality have been taken on board [3.] This policy and its predecessor have been instrumental in influencing processes such as the following:

Some influence may also be attributed to the leadership of the Secretary General of the Beijing Conference who was a Tanzanian, Hon Getrude Mongella.

- Addressing gender mainstreaming in development, including the establishment of gender desks in ministries and organisations;

- Removing barriers to education and training;
- Introducing scholarships for higher education through the Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children, specifically for women.

In addition to addressing gender equity, Tanzania has also been continuously developing policies and strategies in order to address poverty, the all-encompassing malaise of the country, as discussed below.

The Tanzania Development Vision 2025: The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 aims at a high quality livelihood for all Tanzanians through the realisation of, among others, universal primary education, the eradication of illiteracy and the attainment of a level of tertiary education and training. Higher education is expected to contribute to a vision of a well-educated nation, sufficiently equipped with the knowledge and skills needed to competently respond to development challenges which face the nation and effectively compete regionally and internationally.

This vision, however, provides a broad sense of the development ideals that the country needs to be directing itself towards, rather than stipulating specific strategies on how to pursue them. Yet, falling in line with the goals of the MDGs, the Tanzanian Development Vision is reflected in all development policies and strategies.

The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) (2005): The latest strategy document is popularly known as 'MKUKUTA' the Kiswahili acronym from the translation of the NSGRP (URT, 2005a). The NSGRP is a development from

an earlier Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) released in 2000, whose focus on education concentrated on the primary (basic) education level (URT, 2000). Tertiary, or higher, education was not mentioned in the PRSP, partly owing to the World Bank emphasis that tertiary/higher education does not have an impact on economic growth. A study conducted in 2005 pointed out that, out of 31 countries whose PRSPs' were reviewed, only Tanzania did not mention higher education as a priority in its development agenda (Bloom *et al.,* 2005: 49).

NSGRP remedies this shortcoming as, in addition to outlining the government's strategies to ensure equitable access to quality primary and secondary education for boys and girls and universal literacy among women and men, the strategy also stresses the expansion of higher, technical and vocational education. The national strategy has three broad clusters of targets. Cluster II focuses on the 'Improvement of quality of life and social well-being' by enhancing the life situations of the poorest and most vulnerable groups in society. One of its aims is stipulated as reducing inequalities in education outcomes across geographic, income, age, gender and other groups (Goal 5.3.2.1 of NSGPR, 2005) (URT, 2005a: 42), which is also of interest to our project. National targets on increased enrolment in Tanzanian universities and technical colleges are also provided by the NSGRP. In this strategy the government envisages reaching 30,000 full-time students, 10,000 part-time and 15,000 distance learners by the year 2008 (URT, 2005a: 43). As illustrated, this national strategy is related to the MDGs quite clearly, particularly in opening up space for enrolments, and addressing inequities. In fact, the expanding establishment of private universities has

significantly opened up more space for enrolment. Given the total enrolment rates in

the universities by the 2005/06 academic year, about 31,000 students in other public

and private universities including UDSM had been enrolled as full -time students. Part-time enrolment is increasing through arrangements such as those at OUT, UDSM and Mzumbe University. The challenge is to reach the 15,000 enrolment of distance learners because to date a sustainable system for such purpo ses has not taken root very well. An attempt by the country to participate in the African Virtual University (AVU) distance learning project, run jointly by several countries, has also not been very successful because of poor coordination. Currently, OUT h as enrolled the highest proportion of distance learners, plus a few from the AVU set -up[4].

Also, these targets do not take account of inequities in access to higher education, although targets concerning access for girl children, disabled children and other vulnerable children are set for primary and secondary schooling levels.

The education targets are in the NSGRP cluster concerned with improving quality of life and social well-being, which tie in well with the areas this project is also interested in, *i.e.,* the role of higher education in poverty reduction. Our work will be exploring connections across these clusters of targets.

3.5.2 National higher education policies for widening participation

In addition to the above national policies on education and poverty reduction, specific policies targeting higher education have been put in place. These policies have had either direct or indirect impact on widening participation as the following discussion illustrates.

· The actual figures will be established in the course of the study.

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

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

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

in higher education was eventually enshrined in the National Higher Education which stated that cost-sharing was being introduced:

- (A)s a means to shift the shouldering of higher education costs from Government (main financier) to beneficiaries;

- To arrest decline of quality because of poor funding, and *inter alia*, enabling students to appreciate the relevance and responsibility in attaining higher education (URT, 1999: Section 6.2).

Implementation was designed to be in three phases:

- First phase 1992/93 – students covered transport costs to and from college, other costs were met by Government;

- Second phase 1993/94 – students paid direct costs, such as food and accommodation;

- Third phase 2004/05 – students had to pay part of tuition fees. At this time,

most students were able to get partial loans from the government (URT, 1999).

Despite initial widespread disapproval by the people, the policy has indeed opened up opportunities and accessibility for more candidates into higher education institutions. The increase in number of students enrolled at UDSM and other institutions i n 2004/05 is attributed to the ability of government to expand the loan scheme to reach more students especially those in private universities.

As a development of the Cost-Sharing Policy, in 2004 the Government instituted the Higher Education Students' Loans Board under Act No. 9 (2004) to provide loans to all eligible students (URT, 2004). The Board commenced its work in July 2005.

Under this Act full-time students in both private and public higher education institutions are eligible to apply.

The criteria for securing a loan are stipulated as follows:

- Socially disadvantaged/needy students, who have been identified in the loans regulations as: orphans; disabled or with disabled parents; from poor or single parent family; from marginalised and disadvantaged groups; and low income threshold families (minimum wage or below) (HESLB, undated);

- From the year 2005/06, an additional criterion was used to include academically outstanding students *i.e.*, those who had achieved a Div. 1 grade in the final Form VI (Advanced Level) examinations. For girls and those with a science specialisation, the criteria also included those with a Div. II (HESLB, 2006).

The Loans Board has yet to set up a credible system to identify needs and get good performers who deserve loans.

Repayment of the loans is left to the choice and commitment of the loan beneficiary who is supposed to select the manner of repayment – either through salary or through remittances in a bank. The Loans Board however reserves the mandate to make a follow-up and take alternative steps (within the law) for recovery of the loan which is expected to be paid back within 10 years, with a grace period of one year after graduation.

The Tanzania Commission for Universities: Quality assurance as the country increasingly responds to an expanded HEI environment has also been necessary. In 1995, the Higher Education Accreditation Council (HEAC) was established as a body corporate under Section 64 of the Education (Amendment) Act No. 10 of 1995 in order to facilitate and guide the development of higher education in the country. This was in response to the increasing pressure to open up to more providers of higher education. In 1996 the HEAC was reviewed and the Tanzanian Commission for Universities (TCU) was formed.

The TCU has the mandate, *inter alia*, to audit, on a regular basis, the quality assurance mechanisms of universities, and to provide guidance and monitoring crit eria for student admission to universities in the United Republic. Its key role is to coordinate higher education at national level, to ensure quality control and facilitate accreditation.

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

36   Policies and Strategies Regarding Widening Participation at the

Institutional/organisational Level

Within the context of national policies, institutional policies are anchored to guide practice. Some of the institutional policies are a result of institutional activism or micropolitics with regard to certain inequities, while others are in response to national or international dictates on development in higher education.

3.6.1 The University of Dar es Salaam

The introduction of the UDSM Corporate Strategic Plan (CSP) (1994), the core document that defines UDSM's plans and strategies for transformation, set in motion developments which saw systematic increase in enrolment numbers through institutionalisation of affirmative actions that have been instrumental in expanding female students' enrolment, special scholarships to women students and those in professions where they are not well represented (*e.g.* engineering) as well as putting in place mechanisms and policies that deal with sexual and other harassments. A Gender Centre has currently been introduced to monitor gender equity and equality issues.

The Institutional Transformation Programme[5] (ITP) document stipulates an elaborate monitoring and assessment procedure on gender equity targets (UDSM, 2004). For example, every six months, Deans of Faculties and Heads of Institutions make presentations regarding gender equity parity at progress review meetings of the UDSM Strategic Plan organised by the UDSM Directorate of Planning and Development (UDSM, 2006c). Other continuing processes regarding gender equity

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[5] The ITP commenced in 1994 as part of the UDSM Corporate Strategic Plan (CSP) (1993-2008). The ITP facilitates the goals of CSP through several activities including expansion of student enrolment and gender equity.

include the institution of the Anti-Sexual Harassment Policy that has now been widely popularised within the UDSM community.

UDSM also has specific measures for special categories of students. For example, while the Higher Education Loans Policy is specifically geared to reach out to students who have a disadvantaged socio-economic background, other aspects of disadvantage, such as disability, are considered at institutional level. UDSM in this regard has special consideration for candidates with sight problems regarding entry qualifications (*e.g.* exemption of matriculation exams for blind students). Students with disabilities are also given special consideration in accommodation on campuses. The UDSM Disability Policy currently being developed will establish clear guidelines on addressing disability. It is expected that the Equity Scorecard Group will address some of these indicators of disadvantage and their consequence.

3.6.2 Tumaini University

Tumaini University operates within the context of the national higher education policies; being relatively new, it has fewer stategic instruments than UDSM. As stated earlier TU has clearly outlined its desire to maintain the following aspects in enrolment and participation. A provision of the Mission Statement of Makumira University College for example states its objective as follows:

> To make university education available to all people without any
> discrimination with regard to nationality, ethnic identity, gender, social
> or economic status, or religious belief (TU, 2005: 257).

3.6.3. Comment on the national and institutional poli cies

Analysis of the policies that guide the provision of higher education shows that the government is committed to widening participation in higher education. However, emphasis is placed on the promotion of gender equality in higher education, with less emphasis on other disadvantaged groups. For example, to date there is no clear policy for creating an enabling environment for people with disabilities to gainfully involve themselves in higher education. Also, irrespective of policies, there is still a struggle to clearly delineate who are the actual needy students that require financial assistance to access higher education.

37   Research on Widening Participation in Higher Education in Tanzania

Several studies on the subject have been conducted in Tanzania. One such study was done in 1990 (URT, 1990) to examine the feasibility of establishing an Open University in Tanzania to offer degree programmes through a distance learning mode of delivery. A distance learning institution was considered a relatively cheap and flexible way of expanding higher education, particularly for all those who qualify but are denied the opportunity of studying full-time because of reasons such as family commitments or being disabled. The study led to the establishment of the Open University of Tanzania in 1992.

Some years after its establishment, Bhalalusesa (1998) examined how the Open University of Tanzania was faring in widening higher educational opportunities. The study noted that in a developing country like Tanzania the assumptions about the potential benefits of distance learning in terms of widening participation should not be

taken for granted. Factors related to inadequate resources, weak infrastructure, as well as poor communication networks especially in rural areas, pose a great challenge.

Studies that followed (Mboya *et al.,* 2001; Mhehe, 2002) built on this first study. Both of these subsequent studies focused on women with a view to identifying the difficulties faced by Tanzanian women participating in higher education through distance education and the ways through which the system could be made more woman-friendly. The findings of these two studies concurred with Fadhili (1996) that there are certain situations for women (such as learning styles, personal disposition, and family demands) which make studying within the practices set up by the university more difficult for them than it is for men. It was suggested that women need encouragement right from the beginning to enhance their self-confidence. Universities were advised to consider having more representation of female staff to serve as role models and to offer women-specific guidance and counselling.

In realisation of continued gender disparities within the education system, several affirmative actions have been introduced in various universities to expand women's access to higher education. Lihamba *et al.* (2004) observed that the University of Dar es Salaam has put in place several affirmative actions including gender sensitisation programmes, pre-entry, preferential admission criteria and scholarship programmes to expand the enrolment of women. These have significantly contributed to their increased enrolment, although gender imbalance in the science and engineering fields is still evident. The university was urged to create a gender-friendly learning environment, to enable female students to achieve full participation, and perform to the best level of their ability through the following:

Establishment of the Gender Centre and policies related to gender issues;

- Gender and anti-sexual harassment policies;

- Giving priority of accommodation to female students on campus;

- Establishment of Gender Clubs to enable students to give each other peer support;

- Carrying out sensitisation seminars on gender issues not exclusively to staff members but also to the administrative and student population;

- Mainstreaming gender.

Building on the Lihamba *et al.* (2004) study, Wassena (2003) and Rwegelera (2007) have identified several reasons why gender imbalance still persists regardless of the affirmative actions on the ground. Both of these studies agree with Malekela (1999) that, while there has been no deliberate attempt to marginalise female enrolments, the performance of girls at secondary school is poorer than that of boys, because of the pressures resulting from socio-cultural processes such as societal expectations and demand for early marriages. Dunne and Leach (2005) and Mlama (2005) have also illustrated how the school environment is not friendly for girls in secondary schools. They give examples of infrastructure being not conducive, such as the type, location or poor condition of latrines for girls, which is especially difficult when they are in menses; distant/authoritative teacher-student relationships; aggressive behaviour in student-student interaction; and irresponsive school management systems, all of which impact on identity formation within the school setting. The non-intervention by teachers and school managers even when there are obvious gender disadvantages is also discouraging to girls, hence the low retention and achievement that are experienced in secondary level. Gender insensitive environments, *e.g.* unfriendly teaching methodologies are also typical in higher education institutions in the country (Morley *et al.*, 2006; Lihamba *et al.*, 2006). The need for awareness creation and sensitisation on the value of females' higher

education among the general populace and policy makers has thus been highly

recommended.

There is however an overwhelming focus on gender in the volume of existing studies

on widening participation, as indicated above, with less emphasis on other aspects of

disadvantage. This tendency was also noted by Mkude *et al.* (2003), who when

examining the expansion of enrolment at UDSM between 1999 and 2000 questioned

whether the expansion has also made an impact in reducing other social inequalities –

such as religion, ethnicity, culture and class - while noting that the gender aspect has

indeed been addressed significantly (Mkude *et al.*, 2003: 66-7)

Studies by Malekela (1999) and Mkanula (2003) focus on the other disadvantaged

groups to higher education. Malekela (1999) analysed students' registration forms at

the University of Dar es Salaam and observed that more students came from

privileged regions which had a Christian missionary influence, like Kilimanjaro,

Mbeya and Kagera. This advantage, however, did not reflect the representation of

Catholic nuns in higher education, as observed by Kweka (2005) who contended that

their low participation in higher education was due to the prevalence of patriarchal

tradition within the Catholic Church establishment whereby nuns had to observe the

docility and 'behind the public roles' expected of them within the institution of the

church.

Mkanula (2003) on the other hand, researched the plight of students with disabilities

at the University of Dar es Salaam and revealed that there is no policy in the Ministry

of Higher Education Science and Technology to guide practice. She also noted that

resource constraints in providing the necessary equipment and other support services

to students with special educational needs remain a major setback. The proposed UDSM Disability Policy is expected to show sensitivity to and cater for the needs of students with disabilities enrolled at UDSM.

It is important to note that almost all the studies documented in this paper were small - scale and qualitative in nature and many are unpublished. Although they are not conclusive and generalisable, they provide some valuable lessons and contribute to our general understanding of what has already been the challenges experienced in widening participation in higher education and the research gap.

3.8 Tanzania Research Team: Skills and Experience

The Lead Researcher, Professor Amandina Lihamba, is a Professor in theatre arts and has recently completed her tenure as the Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences of the University of Dar es Salaam. Her research interests and the focus of her writings include culture, politics, communication, the arts, gender studies and education. She has been one of the pioneers of initiatives for gender equity and equality in education including the Tuseme programme, which has received international and regional attention. A recipient of Rockefeller, Fulbright and other fellowship awards, she has also been the Chair and member of numerous regional and national organisations. Besides her academic and creative writings, she has also worked as a performer and director for the stage and screen. She has been, amongst others, the lead researcher for Tanzania in the Gender Equity in Commonwealth Higher Education project funded by Carnegie /DFID.

Research Officers: Professor Eustella Bhalalusesa is currently the Dean of the Faculty of Education, UDSM. She has considerable research experience on education, equity and policy issues. Dr. Rosemarie Mwaipopo, is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology with research experience in education, equity, poverty and gender issues.

Research Administrator: Ms Lucy Shule, is a lecturer at the Centre for Foreign Relations with experience in national and international research on equity, gender and international relations.

Project Accountant: Mr. A. Mutanaga works at the University of Dar es Salaam as an accountant.

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