

**THE IMPACT OF CORPORATISATION ON ACCESS AND EQUITY  
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM**

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**The impact of corporatisation on access and equity at the  
University of Dar es Salaam**

**by**

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## DECLARATION

I, Afrael Mark Sarakikya, declare that this thesis, titled ‘**The impact of corporatisation on access and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam**’, is solely a product of my own work and it has not been submitted for examination or any other degree in any other university. That, all other sources used or quoted in this work have been acknowledged accordingly.



Afrael M. Sarakikya

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine and analyse how the transformation taking place at the University of Dar es Salaam in the context of corporatisation addressed the challenges of access and equity as central features of national development. The study was based on the premise that widening access to and equity in higher education contributes to the development and prosperity of the nation in Tanzania. The study used a qualitative case study design. Epistemologically, the study was located within the constructivist paradigm which is premised on a social construction of reality. I used both purposive and snowball sampling techniques to select both the research site and the participants. Face-to-face, semi-structured interviews and an in-depth document analysis were used to collect the requisite data. The data were analysed qualitatively by developing themes using the Atlas.ti program.

The findings revealed firstly that both internal and external factors had provided the impetus for the transformation of the university. The findings also indicated a strong move towards the privatisation of the university. This was evident in the outsourcing of the non-core activities of the university as well as the introduction of market-driven programmes. Secondly, the implementation of corporate strategies had both–positive and negative, planned and unplanned consequences. While the university had significantly increased its student intake, improved the efficient utilisation of its resources and diversified its sources of income, it had, nevertheless, been unable to match the increased student intake with improved teaching and learning resources as well as enhanced student support services. In addition, the influence of both donors and the organisational culture shaped and influenced the adoption and implementation of a corporate culture with regard to the management of the university. With respect to the role played by the university in national development, the adoption and implementation of the market approach was characterised by a paradigm shift from viewing the university as a social institution that serves the community to that of an institution that meets the demands of the market. Overall, the findings indicate that effective leadership, supported by a favourable policy environment, was a critical component in the realisation of the institutional transformation goals.

The study suggests that a combination of both the state-controlled model and the market model in public higher education institutions should be encouraged and promoted for the purposes of equity, efficiency and effectiveness. Accordingly, this study suggests that the

idea of ‘asymmetrical balance’ is a strategic approach that will enable the university to mediate the contesting demands of both the national and the market imperatives. The notion of asymmetrical balance argues that the goals of national development and efficiency are not mutually exclusive and that they could potentially be mutually beneficial.

**Key words:** Access; asymmetrical balance; corporatisation; corporate strategies; equity; higher education; marketisation; national development; privatisation; transformation.

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this thesis to

my parents

the late Mark Sarakikya and Elishiisa Pallangyo for investing in my education

My wife, Perpetua and our children, Joshua, Jehovaness and Jonathani

for their tender love, moral support and encouragement during this study

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## ACRONYMS

ARU	Ardhi University
CACO	Chief Academic Officer
CADO	Chief Administrative Officer
CoET	College of Engineering and Technology
CSP	Corporate Strategic Plan
DIRM	Directorate of Investments and Resource Mobilisation
DUCE	Dar es Salaam University College of Education
FYRSP	Five-Year Rolling Strategic Plan
HESLB	Higher Education Students Loans Board
IGU	Income Generation Unit
ITP	Institutional Transformation Programme
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MUCE	Mkwawa University College of Education
MUCHS	Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences
MUHAS	Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
NSSF	National Social Security Fund
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PMU	Programme Management Unit
PSC	Programme Steering Committee
SARUA	Southern Africa Research Universities Association

SEDP	Secondary Education Development Programme
TANU	Tanganyika African National Union
UCB	University Consultancy Bureau
UCLAS	University College of Lands and Architectural Studies
UDASA	University of Dar es Salaam Academic Staff Assembly
UDBS	University of Dar es Salaam Business School
UDEC	University of Dar es Salaam Entrepreneurship Centre
UDSM	University of Dar es Salaam
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VC	Vice Chancellor

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## CHAPTER ONE

### Introduction and context of the study

#### 1.1 Introduction

The aim of this case study was to examine and analyse the transformation of the University of Dar es Salaam within the context of corporatisation. In particular, the study seeks to examine and analyse whether the adoption and implementation of corporatisation facilitates access to and equity in university education and, thus, contributes to the development and prosperity of a competitive country. The study is anchored primarily in the belief that widening access to and equity in higher education will not only contribute to the realisation of national development goals but will also enable the nation concerned to participate successfully in a global, knowledge-based economy.

In the contemporary discourse the transformation of higher education institutions has forcefully permeated the writings on higher education on a global scale. The transformation and/or restructuring in higher education have taken place in the majority of countries across the world, albeit to varying degrees and for different reasons. It stands to reason that different countries provide different contexts for the discussion on the transformation of higher education. Scholars such as Salmi (1992) and Aina (2010) have argued that public higher education in Africa has undergone significant tremendous transformations since independence as a result of the need to revitalise the public higher education sector and, more importantly, the public universities. It is possible to utilise various factors in order to describe the transformation of public higher education in Africa. One such factor that is evident in the relevant literature is the decline in the government funding of public higher education, while, at the same time higher education has witnessed a tremendous expansion in enrolment as a result of the increased demand for such education. Indeed, this is a global phenomenon. However, it would appear that the increasing demand for higher education has been met by decreased state funding of such education. It may, thus, be argued that declining government funding poses a challenge to the expansion of higher education. Salmi (1992) argues that ‘the performance of higher education is directly influenced by the availability of financial resources’ (p. 25). This claim appears to suggest that the decline in public funding reduces the capacity of government to develop higher education in order to meet national



development goals. In the context of Tanzania one document reports on the linkage between access to and investment in higher education and development as follows:

Access to education at all levels remains low and is partly a function of inadequate investment in the sector. In particular, access to and equity in tertiary education remain huge challenges. It is unlikely that Tanzania will be able to participate in the knowledge economy to any significant extent with current outputs in human capital from the tertiary education system (Bailey, Cloete & Pillay, 2011, p. 11)

The quotation cited above indicates that inadequate public funding in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular, has affected the capacity of the public universities to expand their student intake. It is, thus, obvious that addressing the financial crises in higher education would improve the prospect of expanding the student intake. Thus, it would appear that poor funding and the increased demand for higher education are providing both the rationale and the drivers for transformation in the public higher education institutions. Public higher education institutions have responded by adopting strategies derived from the market approach. The University of Dar es Salaam was selected for the purposes of this study as it is an example of a public higher education institution that has made progress towards transformation within the context of the market approach. As will be explained, the introduction of the market approach at the University of Dar es Salaam created an ideological debate. In particular, the debate suggested various perspectives as regards reform in relation to the role of the university in responding to both national development goals and market needs. The answer to the issue that focused on ‘the demand-response imbalance’ resides in the adoption of ‘asymmetrical balance’, the term that denotes a strategic approach that public higher education institutions may apply in order to mediate between the demands of the state and the market within the context of their ongoing reforms. I argue further that the attainment of ‘asymmetrical balance’ is mediated by the presence of strong and innovative leadership which is supported by a favourable public policy environment.

## **1.2 The context of the study**

This section discussed the context of the study. From its inception public higher education in Africa, as elsewhere, has remained an important priority on the agendas of governments. Until the late 1990s public higher education in many of the developing countries, including African countries, was both supplied and financed by the state (Eisemon & Salmi, 1993, p. 151, Johnstone, Arora & Experton, 1998, p. 2). With respect to supply, the state was the sole

provider of higher education while, in terms of financing; public higher education was primarily state-funded (Bisaso, 2010, p. 344). Indeed, public higher education institutions were and still are included in national economic plans while state investment in higher education underlies both the ‘nation building’ spirit as well as the attainment of national development goals. However, despite the contribution of public higher education to economic growth and social development, much of the existing literature indicates that, in the past two or three decades, the common theme that has characterised public higher education system in many countries in Africa has been that of crisis and reform (World Bank, 1994, p. 16, Ajayi; Goma & Johnson, 1996, p. 144, Zeleza, 2004). The literature has further pointed that the crisis facing public universities manifested in financial management and administration that weakened the ability of the public universities to fulfil their mandate. With respect to the issue of funding, the literature indicates that, in postcolonial Africa, the education systems, including public higher education, were traditionally controlled and funded/subsidised by government (Varghese, 2013, p. 4). In other words, higher education was free and, regardless of their socioeconomic status, students received subsidies from government. In the following passage, Assié-Lumumba (2006) provides an apt description of the ‘the state-controlled model’ which, before the mid-1980s, was dominant in the provision of higher education:

The state-controlled model was characterised as nearly the sole agent of subsidy of higher education: full scholarships including travel expenses, local transportation, health care, boarding, lodging and monthly stipends and living expenses to all students who, in theory, were ‘qualified’ or those who had family or personal connections to attend university’ (p. 68).

In addition, government met other costs, including the establishment and running costs of higher education institutions. There was, in fact, a valid reason for this arrangement. Many independent African countries regarded public higher education institutions and universities, in particular, as ‘instruments for attaining national goals of development and nation-building’ (Aina, 2010, p. 31). Varghese (2013) notes that one feature of higher education before mid 1980s was that it ‘remained an elite sector with limited access but with liberal public funding support’ (p. 6).

With time, several countries, not only in Africa, faced financial crises. Within the African context, this economic distress limited the ability of governments to continue to finance the universities at the levels at which they had done in the immediate post-independence period. Yang (2003) argues that public expenditure in education declined significantly relative to the

rapid increase in student enrolments at the higher education level. The problem of diminished government funding was rooted in various causes. The 1973 oil crisis and unfavourable trade terms resulted in the financial difficulties of the 1980s as a result of which African countries were not able to afford adequate funding to cope with the increasing demand for higher education. In addition, the decline in the funding of higher education was also linked to the neo-liberal policies of fiscal constraint, minimalist government and reduced social spending, including spending on education (Ng'ethe, Assie'-Lumumba, Subotzky & Sutherland-Addy, 2003, p. 28). For example, the financial resources allocated to higher education declined proportionally after the imposition in the 1980s and 1990s of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) by the international financial institutions, including the World Bank, International Monetary Fund and donors. From the perspective of the World Bank higher education was treated as a 'luxury'. In accordance with the SAPs, the World Bank called for the restructuring of the education sector in such a way that government spending would be directed at those education levels offering the highest social returns. Based on this perspective, the rate of return analysis supported investment in primary education. The implementation of this philosophy was, in turn, marked by the decline in the financial resource base as well as the deterioration in service conditions in many of the higher education systems in developing countries, including African countries. This, in turn, made it difficult for public universities to match the requirements pertaining to the resources needed to sustain acceptable standards in teaching, research and public service. A significant volume of literature has documented the results of the declining government funding to public universities including, among others, overcrowding, infrastructure deficiencies, inadequate access to international knowledge resources, the inability of the universities to pay staff members and to conduct research effectively, perpetual student unrest as well as inadequate laboratory and library resources (Salmi, 1992; Aina, 1994; World Bank, 1994, p. 16; Atteh, 1996, p. 36; Taylor & Scott, 1999, p. 221; Mwiria & Ng'ethe, 2003; Lulat, 2005, pp. 390-391; Assie'-Lumumba, 2006). It may be that one of the biggest challenges associated with the financial crisis in public higher education is the problem of access and equity (Atteh, 1996, p. 41). This, in turn, suggests that the fiscal crises in many of the African countries rendered the state-controlled model both unsustainable and also inefficient as regards to addressing the challenges facing public higher education institutions. As a result, redefining the role of the state has been considered as a strategy with which to address the crises facing higher education in Africa (World Bank, 1988; Salmi, 1992 cited in Eisemon & Salmi, 1993, p.

152). This, then, has provided the rationale for reforms in management and organisation in public higher education.

Another cause of the crisis in the universities was attributed to the inefficient management of the universities, with this being reinforced by excessive government control (Devarajan, Monga & Zongo, 2011, p. 138). This also hampered administrative creativity and innovation as regards seeking extra resources with which to run the institutions. For example, the World Bank (1998) cited poor management as a cause of the inefficient use of resources in higher education in the African countries with this contributing to the poor quality of education provision. This also manifested in the failure to make maximum use of both teaching personnel and physical resources in order to expand access to and equity in higher education institutions. Thus, in view of the situation described above, public universities in the African countries have been confronted with problems of cost, quality, efficiency, effectiveness and access. Most of these challenges are similar to those facing higher education institutions in Tanzania. For example, the National Higher Education Policy (1999) in Tanzania lists, among others, increased demands for higher education, inadequate funding, poor teaching and learning environments and gender imbalances (URT, 1999a, p. 3) as challenges facing higher education. It was in the wake of these unpleasant experiences that public higher education institutions and universities, in Africa have been compelled to orchestrate reforms in both their management and organisation (Siringi, 2008, p. 1).

The transformation taking place in a number of public universities in developing countries, including Africa countries and Tanzania, in particular, hinges on the fact that the traditional state-controlled model is perceived to be both economically wasteful and also the cause of the inertia and constrained initiatives as regards expanding access and, consequently, as limiting the realisation of equity (Morley, 1997, p. 234; Otiende, 2006, pp. 37–38). Operating in terms of this model restricted the public universities to operating within the financial capacity of their governments. This was the case because, within the legal frameworks in terms of which the universities had been established, it was not possible for them to attract private funds in order to expand to meet the growing demand for higher education. However, Ajayi, Goma, and Johnson (1996) rightly suggest that it is vital to understand the nature and complexity of the problems and attendant crises confronting the public universities in order to seek out proper and effective measures and strategies with which to remedy the situation (p. 144). The argument in favour of reform was based on Varghese's (2013) suggestion that 'the revival of

higher education needed reforms to mobilize resources and the restructuring of study programmes, governance and management to better align with markets’ (p. 7). This quote, in turn, underscores the introduction of the market approach as an approach in terms of which public higher education institutions were/are expected to be ‘more financially self-sufficient and market driven’ (Altbach, 2008, p. 11) and, in so doing, to adopt ‘market oriented strategies to supplement their funding’ (Parker, 2012, p. 259). The market approach, which constitutes the cornerstone of the neoliberal framework, places a premium on the business model in the provision of social services. A fundamental premise in terms of the market approach is the belief that this approach will promote the efficiency and effectiveness required to cope with and sustain expansion in higher education (Otiende, 2006, p. 38; Aina, 2010, pp. 31–32). This belief has made way for the corporatisation of public higher education institutions as a reform strategy to correct the distortions highlighted elsewhere in this section and, more importantly, to expand both access and equity. Nevertheless, while there are numerous advocates of the corporatisation which is practised in both Western and Asian countries, its potential implications in terms of enhancing efficiency and facilitating greater access across social groups to promote the equity which is a prerequisite for meeting national development priorities have not been sufficiently studied and documented within the African context. Against this backdrop, this study used the University of Dar es Salaam as an example of a public university which has been corporatised in order to examine and analyse the efficacy of corporate strategies in the running of public universities in Africa and in Tanzania in particular.

### **1.3 Focus of the study**

The fundamental purpose of this study is to examine and analyse how the adoption and implementation of corporatisation at the University of Dar es Salaam addressed the challenges of equity and access as central features of national development. More specifically, the study seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- To explore the nature and character of the transformation which is taking place at the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania.
- To understand how a corporate strategic approach is seeking to address the imperatives of access and equity in the provision of university education.

- To analyse the way in which the transformation programme at the University of Dar es Salaam addressed national development priorities.

## **1.4 Research questions**

### **Main research question**

How did corporatisation increase access to and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania?

### **Research sub-questions**

Based on the research objectives, the study intends to answer the following research sub questions:

- What was the nature and character of the transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam?
- How did corporatisation address the imperatives of access and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam?
- How did corporatisation at the University of Dar es Salaam address national development priorities?

## **1.5 Concept analysis**

In this section, I provide definitions of key terms as perceived by various writers in order to inform the discussion contained in and understanding of this study.

### **Access**

The question of access to higher education is one of the major problems facing education globally. However, the understanding of the issue of access to higher education is debatable because of the various dimensions used to define it. The problem is also compounded by the lack of data on access to and enrolment at university of students from various socio-economic backgrounds. This, in turn, makes it difficult to find a precise definition of the term. In an attempt to understand the concept of access to education and to higher education in particular, one must consider the contexts of a particular country in terms of both its history and its social realities. In Tanzania, for example, the Education and Training Policy of 1995 defines

access to education as ‘the opportunities available to the target population to participate in that education’ (p. 17). However, it should be noted that, even when cross-national patterns in higher education indicate increased access, many qualified applicants still fail to enrol. For example, Asplund, Adbelkarim and Skalli (2008) observe that ‘students from low socio-economic families remain under-represented in universities’ (p. 261). In this study I adopted the definition of access suggested by Machingambi (2011) and which refers to, and encompasses, ‘the removal of all perceived constraints, barriers and impediments that affect individual or collective participation in education activities’ (p. 14). In short, access to higher education encompasses the efforts and measures that intend to widen participation to enable more people from different backgrounds to enrol at a higher education institution on a relatively equal basis.

## **Equity**

Equity is a difficult concept to define. It has a diversity of meanings, depending on the various contexts that underlie its usage (Wang & Shulruf, 2013, p. 111). Thus, it follows that different perspectives are used to define the concept of equity in education. From an economic perspective, equity implies that ‘all potential students with eligible qualifications and aptitudes should have access to higher education, irrespective of their financial capacity (Jacobs & Van Der Ploeg, 2006, in Wang & Shulruf, 2013, p. 11). Another perspective holds that the student body in higher education should reflect the distribution of socio-economic status (SES) and ethnicity/race within the population from which the student body is drawn (Harper, Patton, & Wooden, 2009). In the Tanzanian context, equity is defined as ‘fairness in the distribution and allocation of educational resources to various segments of the society’ (URT, 1995, p. 17). Machingambi (2011) accords a broad meaning to equity in higher education by stating that it includes ‘equality of access and provision, equality of programme quality and content as well as equality of calibre in terms of graduates’ (p. 14). Nieuwenhuis and Sehoole (2013) agree with Machingambi when they state that equity comprises ‘fair access to educational resources of equal quality and value to enhance educational attainment’ (p. 194). This would appear to suggest that the meaning of equity is close to that of fairness (McCowan, 2007, p. 581). In the South African context, the *Higher Education White Paper 3* stipulates clearly and in detail that ‘the principle of equity requires fair opportunities both to enter higher education programmes and to succeed in them’ while its application implies:

A critical identification of existing inequalities which are the product of policies, structures and practices based on racial, gender, disability and other forms of discrimination and disadvantage (DoE, 1997, par. 1.18).

The above quote indicates that South Africa is an example of a country that is struggling to address the problem of access and equity in higher education. In short, a central principle that underlies the equity objective is the fair treatment to all individuals who are aspiring to access education. For the purposes of this study equity is understood in the context of enhancing the access to higher education of students from historically and contextually disadvantaged groups on a relatively equal basis.

The discussion above highlights the fundamental fact that, although access to higher education is imperative, it does not necessarily lead to equity. It is in this context that the link between access and equity become more apparent. While there has been significant achievements in terms of access to higher education worldwide (Pityana, 2009), there is, nevertheless, still evidence that points to the fact that, as demonstrated by the low representation of certain groups of students, such as women and students, from low socio-economic backgrounds, access to higher education continues to be inequitable in many countries (Akoojee & Nkomo, 2007, Knight, 2009, p. ix). In many cases access to higher education has been expressed in terms of the numbers of students enrolled at an institution for the first time. However, Maassen and Cloete (2004) maintain that access is ‘not only a matter of increased access and participation; it is also a question of access for whom’ (p. 13). It is on this basis that Machingambi (2011, p. 14) and also Nieuwenhuis and Schoole (2013, p. 194) shared conceptualisation that moves beyond traditional focus on numbers when they observe that ‘equity has a substantive quality dimension rather than being confined to mere numbers’. Gidley, Hampson, Wheeler and Bereded-Samuel (2010) have the following to say about access:

Access is about numbers and percentages and does not necessarily reflect student participation or success, nor does it reveal anything about the quality of the education that is accessed (p. 131).

The quote cited above underscores Pityana’s (2009, p. 5) argument that participation should go beyond numbers to include fair access to educational resources of equal equality and value in order to ensure educational attainment. Within the context of higher education, the notion of fair access underlies the introduction of equity-driven measures such as affirmative actions



and student loans. These measures are, in turn, framed within social justice approach, which is intended to create equalitarian and inclusive education systems by addressing the problems of unequal participation. It should be noted at this point that the introduction of the market approach in the realm of higher education emphasises the ability to pay as a criterion in terms of gain access. This approach was followed by the introduction of cost sharing which, in turn, creates a tension between affordability and the desire to widen participation (Knight, 2009, p. 15). Restricting the access to higher education of students from impecunious backgrounds is perhaps one of the most profound consequences of cost sharing and is also the reason why student loans schemes have been established in order to facilitate equitable access to higher education and to cater for the needs of the students from low socio-economic backgrounds (Machingambi, 2011, p. 15). However, the implementation of equity-driven measures is not without its critics. For example, the introduction of loan schemes does not necessarily improve access to higher education. Based on the Tanzanian experience, Bailey, Cloete and Pillay (2011) argued that student loans exacerbate inequalities in higher education because such loans are accessible primarily to students from the most advantaged classes (p. 23). Furthermore, it is argued that, although affirmative action ensures equity in higher education, it also compromises the quality of the education offered (Patnaik, 2009, p. 23).

Although access and equity are conceptually different; they are, however, in essence, two sides of the same coin. Access is an initial step towards achieving equity while equity enhances the access of disadvantaged groups (Wang & Shulruf, 2013, p. 111). This, in turn, suggests that access and equity are mutually reinforcing terms which are linked inextricably with the development of higher education. This, then, implies that both access and equity depends on each other for support while they are both 'linked to the notion of social inclusion in higher education' (Gidley *et al.*, 2010, p. 124). Thus, access and equity cannot be addressed as discrete concepts in any discussion on transformation in higher education. Within the South African context, Nieuwenhuis and Sehoole (2013) succinctly summarised the relationship between the two concepts, stating that 'access and equity were seen as twin goals and principles underpinning the transformation of higher education' (p. 194). A general theme that has emerged from this discussion is the fact that access should be supplemented by equity. Indeed, it may be argued that governments are obliged to recognise and promote access and equity as regards all levels of education and higher education in particular. However, in addition to the efforts of government it is incumbent on higher education institutions to create environments that promote access and equity as regards all eligible

students. Thus, overall and based on the context of this study, it may be argued that the pursuit and achievement of access and equity have significant implications not only for social equity but also for national development.

## **Marketisation**

Teixeira and Dill (2011) have summarised the change in ideological perspective and the possible reason for the emergence of the market approach in higher education as follows:

The traditional public ethos of many higher education systems and institutions has been questioned and eroded, and the political discourse has given growing visibility to the role of markets and market forces in higher education (p. vii).

Teixeira and Dill's observations point to the problem of inefficiency in public higher education institutions which accelerated the adoption of the market approach. By implication, the fact that higher education institutions have resorted to the market approach indicates a paradigm shift from 'direct government provision and control of many services to their provision by the market' (Parker, 2011, p. 437). Parker's explanation highlights the paradigm shift that led to the introduction of the market approach in the higher education. The argument in favour of the adoption of the market approach in the public sector underpinned the conviction that 'market competition offers the best solution to pressing organisational and social problems' (Collins & Roads, 2008, p. 183). The introduction of the market approach has, in turn, given rise to marketisation in higher education. Askehave (2007) focuses the attention on increasing marketisation as a strategic tool in higher education affairs with marketisation manifesting itself at various levels of university practice (p. 724). The impetus behind introducing marketisation in the public sector was aimed at enhancing the delivery of public service including public higher education. However what does the concept of 'marketisation' actually mean? Various writers have attempted to define the concept. Chan and Mok (2001) define the marketisation of the public services as 'the development of market mechanisms and the adoption of market criteria within the public sector' (p. 22). In order to clarify this definition, Mok (1997) notes that the market criteria, namely, profit and affordability, are used as 'operational principles in rationing or distributing social service' with the aim of enhancing 'effectiveness, economy and efficiency in the delivery of public service' (p. 550). On the other hand, Munene (2008) defines marketisation as 'the adoption of market practices without necessarily privatising the organisation' (p. 2), while Kwong (2000)

and also Qiping and White (1994) appear to offer broad definitions of the concept. For example, Kwong (2000) observes that:

Marketisation in education refers to the adoption of free market practices in running schools. These include the business practices of cutting production cost, abandoning goods not in demand, producing only popular products, and advertising products to increase sales and the profit margin (p. 89).

Furthermore, Yin and White (1994) clarify the concept ‘the principle of marketisation’ as follows:

A process whereby education becomes a commodity provided by competitive suppliers, educational services are priced and access to them depends on consumer calculations and the ability to pay (p. 217).

Sporn (2003) maintains that the introduction of the market approach has transformed education from a ‘public service’ to a ‘market service’. In describing this shift, Baltodano (2012) states that ‘education is no longer a public good offered and protected by the government; it has become a commodity that can be traded in the market’ (p. 495). Thus, the use of market and commercial concepts may be regarded as evidence of the dominance of ‘an economic rationalist approach’ in the delivery of public service (Parker, 2011, p. 437). The dominance of economic rationality transcends sectors and, as Parker (2012) argues, ‘it is readily apparent in public sector universities that have increasingly redefined themselves and their strategies in commercial terms’ (p. 250). This, in turn, has significant implications for the nature and purpose of higher education. For example, Teixeira and Dill (2011) argue that, in view of the fact that the demand for higher education is driven by economic goals, higher education institutions have been brought within ‘the basic framework of a market’ (p. xv). Informed by economic motives, public higher education institutions have introduced a number of marketisation practices that have enabled them to generate revenue at a time when public funding is on the decline. In pursuit of generating revenue, teaching, research and public services in public higher education institutions have been transformed into education products and consultancies that generate income for the institutions. In the presence of these activities, Chan (2004) posits that ‘the universities have found themselves more dependent on market forces and tuition income to survive’ (p. 34). In short, the marketisation of higher education as applied in this study denotes the adoption and implementation of commercially focused practices and strategies by public higher education institutions and universities in

particular in order to generate revenue so as to offset the cutbacks in state funding. In addition, marketisation is also a mechanism that is capable of responding to the increased demands for higher education that aim to include the previously excluded segments of the population such as women.

## **Corporatisation**

There is a vast body of literature that attempts to define the term ‘corporatisation’ in some depth. However, despite the fact that it is now somewhat dated the definition suggested by Nicholls in 1989 remains applicable. Nicholls (1989) described corporatisation as ‘establishing an operating environment for a government organization which replicates the internal and external conditions of successful private enterprises’ (p. 27). Nicholls’s definition is akin to that of Smith (2004) who defined corporatisation as a process which ‘involves changing public institutional structures to incorporate private sector principles in the provision of services’ (p. 380). More recently, Boyle and Throsby (2012) have argued that a policy of corporatisation ‘has been adopted when the objective of the government has been to improve the economic performance of a particular enterprise by freeing up its operation from the rigidities of public service structures and allowing a more entrepreneurial management to prevail, while at the same time retaining ownership in public hands’ (p. 36). In the context of higher education, Lee (2004) argues that the corporatisation of public universities is a global trend which involves ‘changing universities into enterprises and developing a corporate culture and practices that enable them to compete in the market place’ (p. 36). Indeed, corporatisation creates an environment that allows public universities to operate like business organisations and, thus, ‘engage in market-related activities’ (ibid). In this regard, Lee enumerates the market related activities that the corporatised university may undertake in order to raise a proportion of its operating costs to include, but not be limited to, ‘research grants and consultancy, franchise educational programmes, rentals from university facilities as well as the enrolment of full-fee paying foreign students’ (p. 41). Yet, as Lee reminds us, in addition to diversifying their sources of revenue, corporatised universities are also required to improve their management internally in order to improve their accountability, efficiency, effectiveness and productivity. For the purposes of the study the more encompassing definition of corporatisation as offered by Teo (2000) will be adopted:

A structural reform process which changes the operational conditions of public sector organizations in order to place them on a commercial basis in a competitive environment. At the same time, it allows the government, as owner, to intervene by providing broad direction in key performance targets (including financial and nonfinancial) and community service obligations ... Corporatized public sector organizations are required to adopt a strategic perspective to the management of scarce resources (p. 558).

It is, thus, obvious that the advocates of corporatisation all shared a similar presumption that the corporatised entity be modelled into a position analogous to that of a private sector entity although the state retains a degree of control over and also monitors the operations of higher education institutions (Wei, 2001, p. 229; Smith, 2004, p. 380; Parker, 2011, p. 426; Majid & Bakar, 2013, p. 2). The purpose of retaining some elements of control ensures that, in the final analysis, national developmental goals are not compromised. Thus, within the context of Tanzania and the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), corporatisation took on specific nuances.

It would seem that the discussion above suggests that marketisation and corporatisation are interrelated processes that embrace commercial imperatives in the provision of products and services. Lynch (2006) posits that ‘the corporatisation and marketisation of the universities has its origins in neo-liberal politics that are premised on the assumption that the market can replace the democratic state’ (p. 3). This viewpoint is developed further by Mok and Lo (2002) when they argue that:

when talking about the ‘marketisation’ and ‘corporatisation’ of higher education, we refer to the popular trends in adopting market practices and values, as well as market practices and strategies to run higher education’ (p. 58).

In short, the recourse to the market approach and the adoption of both marketisation and corporatisation in public higher education denotes a reform strategy which was aiming at improved efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of educational services. To this end, the implementation of corporatisation in public higher education institutions is expected to lead to ‘more self-regulated, dynamic and innovative organisations’ (Gornitzka, Kyvik & Stensaker, 2005, p. 36).

## **Strategic planning**

In common with marketisation and corporatisation, strategic planning is a term which is derived from the corporate world and, as such, it embraces ‘the business values and practices’ (Lumby, 1999, p. 71). The application of strategic planning in the public sector is associated with the introduction of the market approach which introduces and makes use of business instruments such as strategic planning. Focusing on further education and citing Crisp (1991), Lumby (1999) defines strategic planning as ‘the set of activities designed to identify the appropriate future direction of a college, and includes specifying the steps necessary to move in that direction’ (ibid). Shah (2013) proposes that strategic planning is gaining importance in the context of the changing higher education landscape. To justify his argument, Shah writes:

There is no doubt that universities now operate in a turbulent environment with constant change due to social, political and economic changes within the external and internal operating environments (p. 28).

To a large extent this changing environment restricts the performance of the universities with the changing environments emphasising the need for public higher education institutions to prepare and utilise strategic planning to guide their activities. The precursor to a strategic plan involves defining the aims and objectives of an organisation and charting the methods to be used to realise such aims and objectives (Özdem, 2011, p. 1888). In addition, strategic planning entails interlacing the institutional priorities with the institution’s core business with the strategic planning acting as a ‘compass’ or ‘guide’ that directs the organisation to achieving the envisaged development. In other words, strategic planning sets out how the organisation will utilise its resources to achieve its aims and objectives. For the purposes of this study, I adopted the definition of strategic planning as suggested by Taylor and Machado (2006), because it combines the components of the strategic plan discussed above. Taylor and Machado (2006) define strategic planning as a process that ‘focuses on strategic and operational goals, objectives and strategies based on organisational policies, programs and actions designed to achieve the institution’s aims and desired results’ (p. 146).

## **National development**

There has been a fundamental change in the thinking about what constitutes national development and it is thus difficult to offer a precise and clear definition of the concept of national development. National development is often regarded as synonymous with the

economic development that is associated with the concept of economic growth, which is expressed mainly in terms of per capita gross national product (World Bank, 1999, p. 14). However, the literature suggests that economic growth (per capita GDP) provides only a partial explanation of what national development is because it is based on measurable criteria, irrespective of the way in which income is distributed, and it does not reflect ‘the broad range of development goals of nations’ (Cypher & Dietz, 2009, p. 47). Thus, income per capita, in itself, is an incomplete measure of national development. In light of this, it is suggested that the definition of national development should go beyond economic growth to include other components such as social, cultural and political components. Since 1990, the United Nations Development Programme has used the Human Development Index (HDI) as a measure of national development. The calculation of the HDI goes beyond income per capita to include ‘longevity, knowledge and a decent standard of living’ as indicators of development (ibid., p. 50). Based on the HDI, improvements in economic, social, cultural and political conditions are an integral component of the process of national development. It is, however, significant that there is no single indicator which provides precise and relevant information about national development.

More recent literature has indicated that the definition of national development has evolved from focusing solely on material things to include knowledge. For example, Kaur (2007) observes that ‘the industrial economy makes way for the development of information and knowledge economy’ (p. 13). This, in turn, leads to what Teferra and Greijn (2010) termed a ‘move from commodity-based to knowledge-based economies’ (p. 4). It would appear that knowledge is increasingly becoming both a driver and foundation of national development. Many scholars have recognised and admitted that knowledge is an important component of national development. To demonstrate this argument Aarts and Greijn (2010) remind us that ‘any form of development, whether defined in social, human or economic terms, has become critically dependent on knowledge’ (p. 9). Another example of a similar analogy was offered by Teferra and Greijn (2010) when they stated the following:

For any nation, global competitiveness and economic success now depend on the existence of capacities to create, develop, consume, package and disseminate knowledge (p. 2).

The scenario outlined above suggests that education and higher education, in particular, are central to national development and, thus, a priority for any nation that aspires to develop.

Indeed, the literature indicates an ongoing argument that higher education increases the national skills base and, in so doing, spurs faster economic, political and socio-cultural development as well as global competitiveness (Gidley *et al.*, 2010, Eggins, 2010). Gidley *et al.* (2010) emphasise the usefulness of education as regards national development when they stated that ‘Education is widely accepted as leading instrument for promoting economic growth’ (p. 1). Arguably, education and higher education in this context remain a prime resource for the economic development of a country. In the context of the developing countries, Bloom, Canning and Chan (2006) support this claim, arguing that higher education is a prerequisite for developing countries if they are to participate and prosper in a world economy in which knowledge has become a vital resource (p. 9). In addition, the World Bank (1994) extols the benefits of higher education as regards national development and acknowledges that ‘higher education is of paramount importance for economic and social development’ (p. 1). This link between higher education and economic and social development is based on the assumption that it is the quality rather than the quantity of the human resource that determines the rate of the national development process. There is, thus, a compelling reason to enhance the access of all citizen to higher education as an essential prerequisite for both a ‘cohesive and a more economically successful society’ (Bitzer, 2010, pp. 301–302). On the basis of the discussion above this study adopted a definition of national development which views national development as the capacity of a country to maximise the utilisation of its human and material resources to meet the needs of its citizens and to compete successfully in the global economy.

## **1.6 Rationale for undertaking the study**

The motivation for conducting this study emanated from three levels – the personal, the practical and the intellectual. On a personal level, in my master studies I conducted a comparative study on the influence of cost sharing on access to and participation in urban and rural-based community secondary schools. The findings of this comparative study revealed that the introduction of cost sharing in the provision of education was inconsistent with both access and equity criteria. In addition, it hindered, among others, children from poor families and also female students from accessing secondary education (Sarakikya, 2007). The findings of this study aroused my interest in extending the study by exploring whether the corporatisation of public higher education would lead to greater access and equity and also efficiency and, consequently, an increased responsiveness to national development priorities.



In addition, practical experience spurred me to conduct this study. When I enrolled at the University of Dar es Salaam in 2001 as a student, the university was implementing its reform programme. Although I benefited from the transformation, I felt its effects because the expanded student intake did not match the available facilities. As students, we were forced to compete for few available facilities. On certain occasions, students were forced to listen to lectures and seminars from outside the lecture halls. In 2006, I was employed by the University of Dar es Salaam as a tutorial assistant and later, in 2007, I was promoted to the position of assistant lecturer. As a tutor I was compelled to teach a large classes of up to 1 200 students. Nevertheless, I was aware of and I understood why the university had enrolled so many students. I was also aware of the importance of higher education graduates for my country of Tanzania. This experience aroused my interest in exploring the challenges of transformation and how best they could be overcome so as to enhance the efficient and effective provision of university education.

The last level concerned intellectual motivation. The body of literature on the emergence and application of the market approach in public higher education has grown significantly in recent years, with previous studies providing useful contexts for understanding the corporatisation of public higher education. Clark (1998) used a multi-site case study of five enterprising universities in Western Europe to document his notion of ‘the entrepreneurial university’. Clark’s central argument was that higher education institutions were being forced to reconfigure their mode of operations, curricula, faculties and modernise their infrastructure in order to become more enterprising.

In another study on ‘changing context of academic work’, Slaughter and Leslie (1997) established that the main reason for the changes in academic work was the changing patterns of the resource(s) flow to universities which had forced academics and the institutions as a whole to search out new sources of funding. Slaughter and Leslie (1997) termed this response ‘academic capitalism’. The central premise of their book, *Academic capitalism: Politics, policies, and the entrepreneurial university*, as reviewed by Deem (2001), is that ‘the structure of academic work is changing in response to the emergence of the global market’ (p. 14). Criticism has, however, been levelled against this work. Firstly, the study focused primarily on research rather than on the teaching which constitutes the largest component of the workload of many academics. Secondly, and relevant to this study, is the lack of any similar studies conducted in the developing countries to ascertain whether globalising

tendencies have had any similar effects on the functioning of state-financed higher education. Analytically, the two concepts: the entrepreneurial university and academic capitalism as used by Clark and Slaughter and Leslie, suggest that higher education institutions all face similar problems and that similar strategies may be used to address these problems.

It is interesting that the two studies, those of Clark, and Slaughter and Leslie, on the application of the market approach to academic institutions focused on the developed countries. It may be assumed that, while the relevant lessons can and should be learned across regions, it would be a mistake to attempt to transfer directly practices that have succeeded in one context to other contexts without considering the internal dynamics within a specific country, for example, different socioeconomic, cultural and political factors within the country. It was, therefore, deemed reasonable to propose a research study into public higher education institutions that would encapsulate the realities in developing countries at both the institutional and national levels and on which this study focuses.

A substantial body of literature is available that aligns public higher education in Africa and the market model. More recent to the Clark, and Slaughter and Leslie studies is the key study which was conducted by Mamdani. In a retrospective of his work, *'Scholars in the Marketplace'*, Mamdani (2007) examines the application of neoliberal market reforms at Makerere University in Uganda from 1989 to 2005. In his study he documented the contexts of the reform and its consequences for the university's activities. He contends that the reform, which drew support from the World Bank, was a response to a financial crisis within the university and that its implementation aligned the university with the market as exemplified by the privatisation and commercialisation of the university's activities. While a shift from public provision of higher education to privatisation and then to commercialisation was evident, he noted in his preface that, under commercialisation, 'it is the market which defines priorities in the functioning of a public university' (p. v). The central message of this study suggests a 'mission drift' from a university that served the society to the one that bowed to the market imperatives. In addition, he shows that the reform shifted the 'mission of the university from development-oriented to a market-oriented university' (p. 97).

While the Makerere reform holds lessons for public higher education institutions, it also indicates the need for more research to explore how to 'harness the forces of the market' to meet the public interest (p. vi). There have been a plethora of studies conducted in Kenya

which attempted to analyse the paradigm shift in public universities in the context of both liberalisation and globalisation. These studies include those by Munene (2008), Wangenge-Ouma (2008), Mulili and Wong (2011) and Johnson and Hirt (2011). The study by Munene, 'Privatising the public: Marketisation as a strategy in public university transformation' (2008), established that both internal and external factors had triggered the transformation of the Kenyatta University from a solely public-funded to a more market-oriented university. Mulili and Wong conducted a study on corporate governance practices in public universities in Kenya. They concluded that very little research had been conducted in the field of corporate governance in developing economies in Africa. Johnson and Hirt (2011) conducted a study entitled 'Reshaping academic capitalism to meet development priorities: the case of public universities in Kenya'. They concluded that, based on a particular setting, the public universities in developing countries would benefit from the reshaping and contextualising of 'academic capitalism'.

Ntshoe (2004a) focused on how the 'impacts of global privatisation, quasi-marketisation and new managerialism' have shaped the South African higher education sector. There is no doubt that the overview of the literature on the application of the market approach to public universities provided important foundations that underpin this study. Nevertheless, despite the growing importance of corporatisation, there is still little evidence on its impact on public higher education either in Africa in general or in Tanzania in particular. In view of the paucity of empirical evidence, this qualitative study intends to focus on a country context to investigate the value of corporatisation as a strategy as regards the transformation of public higher education in Tanzania. Thus, this study aims to examine and analyse whether the application of the market approach at the University of Dar es Salaam had rendered it a stronger institution after corporatisation in terms of access and equity, as well as its responsiveness to the national development priorities in Tanzania.

## **1.7 Philosophical approach**

The purpose of this section is to discuss my position with regard to the philosophical beliefs and assumptions that I used as a lens with which to approach various stages of this study, including the collection, presentation and analysis of the data. In this study I employed a qualitative case study design situated within the social constructivist paradigm. Ontologically, I based my choice of the paradigm on my belief that reality is both relative and subjective and is socially constructed (Given, 2008, p. 117) through collaboration between the researcher

and the research participants (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 545). Epistemologically, I recognise that ‘knowledge is constructed between inquirer and participant through the inquiry process itself’ and that ‘insights and understanding emerge from the joint construction of inquirer and participant’ (ibid.). Methodologically, I purposively selected and interviewed participants because I wish to understand and analyse the transformation of the university in question ‘from the perspective of those experiencing it’ (Given, 2008, p. 119). In other words, I used the participants’ views and experiences to understand and analyse both the transformation of the university and the consequences of this transformation within their natural setting.

### **1.8 Significance of the study**

In this section, I attempt to explain the envisaged contribution of the study to the existing body of knowledge. It is anticipated that this study on the institutional transformation of the University of Dar es Salaam within the context of corporate strategies will make a valuable contribution to the various actors who are seeking to effect changes in public higher education. In particular, it is hoped that the study will contribute to the ongoing critical debate on the corporatisation of public higher education by providing a detailed understanding of organisational reform within the context of the market approach from the perspective of developing countries. The study attempted to show how public higher institutions may respond to both internal and external challenges in achieving their mission and purpose. This study also demonstrated the role of effective leadership as a fundamental component of the successful transformation of the university. In addition, it is expected that this study will have generated new insights that will assist the intellectual community, including scholars, administrators, policy makers and other stakeholders involved in championing reforms and development within the framework of higher education in the developing countries. Finally, this study shows how ‘asymmetrical balance’, as a strategic approach, may be used by public universities, mainly in Africa, in order to realise their transformation goals. It is also anticipated that the findings of this study will be useful to other sectors of the economy. This assumption is based on the fact that the adoption and implementation of appropriate reform strategies and innovations should result in an efficient, effective and responsive higher education system that is able to contribute to the development of a nation.

## 1.9 The organisation of the thesis

In this study I seek to understand and explain whether the adoption and implementation of corporate strategies facilitates greater access to and equity in university education. In addition, the study also investigates whether reform enabled the university to contribute to the achievement of national development priorities. As presented below the thesis is divided into nine chapters.

Chapter one introduces the context of the study. It discusses the background to the study, the purpose of the study and the rationale for conducting the study. It also contains the analysis of key concepts and explains the philosophical approach adopted in the study.

Chapter two offers an overview of the literature on higher education from the perspective of the research problem. The chapter starts by describes the history of higher education in Africa and in Tanzania in particular. The literature review also focuses on the role of higher education in national development. It also covers several issues related to higher education, highlighting, in particular, the circumstances that have led to the adoption and implementation of the market approach in public higher education. The chapter also discusses the application of the market approach within the context of corporatisation and its consequences for higher education. The literature review helped to identify gaps in the literature and provided useful ideas that were used to develop the conceptual framework used in the study and also to inform the data analysis conducted in the study. Whilst there is a considerable literature on corporatisation of public higher education in Western and Asian countries, there has been little research conducted on corporatisation of public higher education in the developing countries, especially in Africa. This study attempts to fill this gap by examining the efficacy of corporatisation in public higher education in Tanzania.

Chapter three sets out the conceptual framework of the study. This chapter contains a brief review of two theoretical perspectives, namely, resource dependence theory (RDT) and the market approach, and how they fit into the study. In particular, I used the insights from these two theoretical perspectives to develop a conceptual framework that provides the basis for understanding and explaining why and how an organisation responds to environmental factors. Drawing on RDT, I argued that organisations that depend on either one or a few sources of financial resources, for example, public higher education institutions, are constrained in their ability to accomplish their missions and goals. As a response to resource

constraints, RDT suggests that organisations should adopt diversification as a strategy in order to reduce their dependencies from one source of resources. I further argued that the adoption of the market oriented approach results in public higher education institutions adopting corporate strategies as a means both to reduce their resource dependencies and to improve their management practices. In line with the conceptual framework used in the study, I argue that public higher education institutions should diversify and optimise their sources of revenue in order to improve the efficiency, effectiveness and responsiveness of their operations.

Chapter four introduces the methodological procedures used in the study and their implications for the collection, analysis and presentation of the data. The chapter starts by describing the research design used and then justifies the choice of research design. The case study design was used to examine and analyse the adoption and implementation of corporatisation in the university concerned and its consequences for the running of the university. The sampling techniques used, various data gathering techniques, the data analysis as well as ethical considerations are discussed then in detail. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the challenges and limitations encountered during the study, while I argued for the use of more than one source of data and techniques in order to increase the quality and trustworthiness of the study findings.

Chapters five to eight report on the findings of the study based on the research questions and the nature of the data. Chapter five establishes the context of the chapters which follow. It presents the findings as regards the question that seeks to understand the nature and character of transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam. The chapter also discusses how reform was implemented at the university. The chapter concludes that strong leadership is a prerequisite for the success of the reform programme.

Chapter six presents the findings on the way corporatisation addresses access and equity in the provision of university education. I begin by offering the policy frameworks linked to access and equity in higher education in Tanzania. Accordingly, I discuss the corporate strategies implemented by the university in order to expand student intake. I further discuss the equity-driven strategies that were applied in order to realise the ITP strategic objective of addressing access and equity, particularly with regard to undergraduate female students. In furthering this analysis, I examine the support services offered by the university that are

intended to ensure that students from various backgrounds succeed in their studies. I argue that government funding should be supplemented with corporate strategies that improve efficiency and effectiveness in the provision of higher education.

Chapters six, seven and eight contain a detailed discussion of the data collected. In addition the chapters also suggest preliminary conceptual links between the data and the understanding of corporatisation, marketisation and national development as discussed in chapter one with the aim of retaining the focus on the relationships between corporatisation, the Institutional Transformation Program (ITP) and national development.

Chapter seven extends the discussion on access and equity within the context of corporate strategies. The chapter then explores the relationship between the implementation of corporate strategies and the consequences for the university community, including the students, academic staff and administrative staff. The chapter also discusses the challenges that were encountered during the implementation of the reform process. The chapter argues that the reform resulted in positive and negative consequences, both planned and unintended.

Chapter eight analyses and examines how the adoption and implementation of corporatisation within the university addressed national development priorities. The chapter starts by introducing the debate surrounding the introduction of corporatisation strategies in public higher education in Tanzania. The chapter focuses on the UDSM in comparing what happened before the reforms of the 1990s and what happened afterwards. The analysis of the findings of this study indicated a paradigm shift from perceiving the university as a social institution that served the public interest to that of an institution that responded to market demands. In this chapter, I argue that, if public universities such as the University of Dar es Salaam are to remain relevant and function more efficiently and effectively, they should strive to mediate between national and market demands as these demands complement each other as regards the realisation of national development priorities.

Chapter nine is a reflective chapter. It summarises the main findings of the study based on the conceptual framework used in the study and the literature review. The chapter discusses how public higher education institutions and universities, in particular, are addressing the competing, yet simultaneously complementary, demands of both the state and the market. I argue that the state and market demands caused asymmetry in the university operations. I

advocate ‘asymmetrical balance’ as a strategic approach that would enable public higher education institutions to combine the strengths of both the state and the market in order to achieve national development goals. In fact, I argued for strong and innovative leadership, supported by a favourable policy environment, as a prerequisite for achieving ‘asymmetrical balance’. The chapter also suggests areas for further research. The references and appendices appear at the end of the thesis.



## CHAPTER TWO

### Literature review

#### 2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I reviewed the body of literature on the transformation of higher education in order to ascertain the status of the existing information on transformation through corporatisation. The chapter begins by providing the contextual background to the development of public higher education, in particular, public universities in Africa and, specifically, in Tanzania. Within this context the chapter examines education policy trends in Tanzania in order to understand the context of education reform. The chapter also reviews literature linking higher education and national development in Africa and Tanzania and then, within this context, discusses the challenges facing public higher education in Africa in order to gain an understanding of the nature and character of the reform strategies adopted. Accordingly, the chapter reviewed literature on the adoption and implementation of corporatisation in public higher education. Finally, the chapter discusses possible consequences linked to the implementation of corporatisation in public higher education.

#### 2.2 Development of higher education in Africa: A brief historical overview

In this section, I adopt a historical approach to discuss the origin and development of modern higher education in Africa. The background to the development of higher education in Africa may be explained in relation to both internal and external factors (Samoff & Carrol, 2003, p. 3). The historical facts attest to a lengthy history of higher education in Africa with the establishment of three institutional traditions, namely, the Alexandria Museum and Library, the Islamic mosque universities and the early Christian monasteries (Ayandele, 1982, p. 166; Sherman, 1990, p. 364; Ajayi *et al.*, 1996, p. 235; Teferra & Altbach, 2004, p. 23). However, the modern African university is a recent phenomenon that may be traced back to the period between 1930 and 1960 (Ayandele, 1982, p. 166; Samoff & Carrol, 2004, p. 75; Mohamedbhai, 2008, p. 2). The European conquest of Africa in the nineteenth century was followed by the establishment of colonial universities on the African continent. According to Samoff and Carrol (2003), the establishment of colonial universities started after the First World War when 'colonial governments started to develop official policies for the provision of higher education in Africa' (p. 3). However, the development of higher education and the number of universities in colonial Africa was restricted until after the Second World War

(Atuahene, 2011, p. 323). This, in turn, implies that the development of higher education in Africa and the establishment of modern universities on the continent was essentially a post-independence phenomenon.

The period from the mid-1950s to the 1970s was characterised by rapid change in Africa. This rapid change corresponded with the wave of political independence that favoured nationalism and the drive for development. As regards higher education, the continent recorded a rapid increase in the number of institutions and also of students. For example, a UNESCO survey conducted in Africa established that, in 1950, there were universities in eleven out of thirty-four countries. In 1962, the number of countries with a university had doubled to twenty eight while the number of universities had nearly tripled from sixteen in 1950 to forty one in 1962. Subsequently, the number of universities increased from 80 in 1981 to more than 150 in 1992 (Atteh, 1996, p. 37) and, by 1990, at least 15 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa could claim to have two or more universities (Hoffman, 1996, p. 84). In terms of student population, the enrolment of students in higher education institutions expanded from 2,270 (1951–52) to 16,580 in (1961-62) (Samoff & Carrol, 2004, p. 78) while, amazingly, the total number of students increased from 6 million in 2000 to 9.3 million in 2006 (World Bank, 2010, p. 27), with a current estimate of 10 million students (Hayward & Ncayiyana, 2014). Another feature of the universities established in Africa has been their modelling on specific institutions of the Western colonial powers in terms of their academic programmes, vision and mission as well as their major philosophical discourses and policy debates (Ng’ethe *et al.*, 2003, p. 14; Samoff & Carrol, 2003, p. 4; Hayward & Ncayiyana, 2014). This suggests that higher education in Africa has not been designed to address the development challenges in Africa. In her paper titled ‘Beyond reforms: the politics of higher education transformation in Africa’, Aina (2010) summarises the development of higher education in Africa as follows:

If we were to think about the development of the modern university in Africa in terms of discrete periods, we can broadly identify the colonial, the nationalist, and the crisis and reform – or what can now be called the neoliberal – periods. Each period was characterized by a specific broad, dominant mission and set of mandates for the universities. And each period involved a wave or more of reforms that supposedly addressed the inadequacies and defects of the previous era (p. 31).

Similar views were captured from the narrative of one of the participants in a study conducted by Bailey *et al.* (2011):

All African universities went through phase one, a separation from the metropolitan institution, the University of Nairobi from the University of London, and Makerere from the University of London – that international phase; and that was consolidated by the late 1960s. At the same time there was a simultaneous phase of universities for manpower development; they were part of the Africanisation programme. Then the alienation phase when dictatorship set in. Then a renewal that we're now seeing. But under the new renewal it's not clear whether the universities are renewing themselves as inward-looking, efficiency-guided institutions for internal efficiency, or its renewal in order to go to a new phase of linkages of relationship with the state, either for democratisation purposes or for development purposes, that is the developmental institutions, hopefully without separating development from democracy (p. 38).

In short, it is evident that, despite the long developmental history of higher education in Africa, it is still searching for its path. It is also evident that, for higher education in Africa, the challenge of meeting the goals of development, building democracy and yet asserting institutional autonomy, remains.

### **2.3 Development of higher education in Tanzania**

This section discusses the tumultuous developmental milestones of higher education in Tanzania since independence up to the current era of market liberalisation. Higher education in Tanzania is offered by public and private universities and also by other institutions which provide a non-university education. The developmental trajectory of higher education in Tanzania has passed through four phrases (Mkude & Cooksey, 2003, pp. 584–585). The first phase covers the period between 1961 and 1974. During this phase, the local delivery of higher education began with the establishment of the university college of Tanganyika, an affiliate of the University of London. In 1963, it became a college of the University of East Africa together with the colleges of Makerere and Nairobi. It ultimately became an independent national university the University of Dar es Salaam after the breakdown of the East African Authority in 1970 (Wedgwood, 2005, p. 8; Nge'the *et al.*, 2008, p. 129). During this same phase, six non-university institutions of higher education were established, namely, Dar es Salaam Teachers Training College (1966), Dar es Salaam Technical College (1971), Institute of Development Management (1972), Institute of Finance Management (1972), National Social Welfare Training Institute (1974), and National Institute of Transport (1974).

The second phase of higher education development covers the period from 1974 to 1984. This phase was associated with critical decisions which had a major effect on the country's education as a whole. One of the resolutions which was relevant to higher education

stipulated that candidates wishing to enrol at higher education institutions should have two years of working experience after undergoing one year of compulsory national service. This period was also marked by the onset of a serious economic crisis that weakened the ability of the government to finance postsecondary education and absorb the increasing demand for higher education. The third phase covers the period between 1984 and 1993 and was associated with two developments. Firstly, the ruling party (Tanganyika National Union Party) reversed its resolution as regards its student admission policy in 1984. As a result, many more candidates became eligible for admission as compared to the space available at higher education institutions. The second development involved the establishment of two more public universities in Tanzania, namely, the Sokoine University of Agriculture in 1984 and the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) in 1992.

The fourth phase, which covers the period from 1994 to the present, coincided with liberalisation reforms. The implementation of these reforms in the 1980s spearheaded the liberalisation of the economic and social sectors while the education system was also liberalised. Thus, the privatisation of higher education comprised an integral component of the reform measures and was a precondition for receiving external funding support from the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank as well as donors (Atuahene, 2011, p. 324). Through its National Education and Training Policy of 1995 the government ushered in the liberalisation of education services at all levels, including higher education. In terms of this policy the government invited the private sector to participate in the provision of education. The policy stresses:

Enhancement of partnership in the provision of education and training, through the deliberate efforts of encouraging private agencies to participate in the provision of education, to establish and manage schools and other educational institutions at all levels (URT, 1995, p. xii).

The policy has encouraged various agencies to invest in higher education and, since then, higher education has experienced a significant expansion both in terms of size and shape, including the establishment of private universities and university colleges in the country. The literature indicated that the Tanzanian tertiary education system had grown from one higher education institution in 1961 to 32 universities and university colleges in September 2007 (Knight, 2008, p. 424). Currently, there are 47 universities, university colleges and university centres (Tanzania Commission for Universities, 2013, pp. 6–10) distributed throughout the

country. From the end of the 1990s the number of students enrolled in higher education expanded rapidly as a result of the increase in the number of established higher education institutions, improved access to loans as well as the increased number of privately sponsored students at both public and private institutions. The population statistics have indicated an increased enrolment in universities and university colleges, namely, 40,993, 45,501, 76,172, 95,525 and 118,951 respectively, for the five consecutive academic years from 2005/06 to 2009/10 (URT, 2010a, p. 96). In 2010/2011, the enrolment comprised 157, 812 students (URT, 2011, p. 310). All the higher education institutions in Tanzania are governed and regulated by the Universities Act No. 7 of 2005 (URT, 2011, p. 5). However, in spite of substantial progress, higher education in Tanzania is facing several challenges; *inter alia*, increased social demand for higher education, inadequate funding, inadequate teaching and learning resources, gender imbalances as well as a gross imbalance in science relative to art and the social sciences (URT, 1999a, p. 3; SARUA, 2009, pp. 3–4).

#### **2.4 Educational policy in the context of access and equity in Tanzania**

In this section, I examine the historical and social background of education policy and public higher education, in particular, in Tanzania, in order to understand both the nature and the role of the state in the process of policy reform. The central premise of this section is that it is not possible to understand education in isolation from general developments in society. It is further emphasised that education, as part of the public sector, is shaped and informed by changing views on the role of the state. To a large extent, such trends significantly influence public sector reforms, including those in education. While tracing the education policy reform, it is worth noting that the transformation of higher education is taking place on a global scale. Tanzania, in common with most of the Sub-Saharan African countries, has, since independence in 1961, defined its education policies. Since independence the numerous changes have taken place in the social, economic as well as the political sectors of the society have either that directly or indirectly influenced the education policies (Ta & Caillods, 1975, p. 15; URT, 2000, p. 4; Swai, 2002, p. 5). Chale (1993) argues that the country's educational system at all levels derives its objectives from the national ideology (p. 21). As Levin (2001) observes, such changes in the substance of education policy, are accompanied by important changes in the political process. Thus, it is not possible to examine education policy in isolation without taking into account the broader context of the economic and social development of the country. Basing on the above, in examining education policy reform in

Tanzania, I linked it with the social, economic and political objectives of the country over a period of time.

It is worth noting that Tanzania has been preparing and implementing a number of educational documents and statements to direct the provision of education since independence (Buchert, 1997, p. 34). In this review, an attempt is made to highlight some of these documents and their impact on education. In general, such documents form a basis for analysing the development of education with respect to purpose, priority areas and other issues over time. In discussing education policy in Tanzania one should note the following. Firstly, education policy formulation is highly centralised with some degree of involvement on the part of the sub-national levels in the formulation process and, secondly, all education policies are approved by the National Assembly and implemented centrally by the respective ministries (Buchert, 1997, p. 44). The vision and policies of post-independence Tanzania were premised on the state playing a major role in ensuring that education was an important factor in the social transformation of its people and in their emancipation from ignorance, diseases, and poverty (UDSM, 2007b, p. 8).

In his book *Beyond capitalism versus socialism in Kenya and Tanzania*, Barkan (1994) divides education policy and development in post-independence Tanzania into three phases, namely, the national consolidation phase (1961–1966); the socialist phase (1967–1982) and the ‘crisis and adjustment’ phase, which continues up to today (pp. 215-216). In this regard, the government and national priorities or emphasis on education and on higher education, in particular, have been changing over time. The initial post-independence phase was characterised by the nationalist takeover of colonial schools which were racially segregated and unevenly distributed throughout the country. These schools were in part fee-paying, run mainly by the European and Christian churches and externally oriented in terms of ideology, quality, and certification procedures. In short, the education system was stratified and accessibility was restricted (World Bank, 1999, p. 47). Based on this situation, measures were taken to ensure, among other things, the abolition of racial and religious segregation, the nationalisation of curricula and examinations, a reduction in the inequalities in school coverage, changes in the curriculum and the partial abolition of fees. In other words, the 1960 White Paper on Education and the Education Ordinance of 1962 provided a legal framework for the abolition of racial segregation and preference in the Tanganyikan educational system (Morrison, 1976, p. 163, URT 1999a, p. i). This appeared to suggest that policy changes

during the post-independence period were designed primarily to promote national unity and eliminate existing disparities. Thus, government efforts to improve education focused on educational policies that dealt with the ‘distribution and equalization of educational opportunities and the expansion of the system at all levels’ (Galabawa, 1990, p. 9; URT, 1995, p. 17). It may, thus, plausibly be argued that there was expanded access to education and extensive reforms of the contents and orientation of schooling in Tanzania.

The prime policy of higher education after 1961 was expansionary in order to meet the urgent need for skilled cadres in the various posts in government and industry. This was achieved through a manpower policy which emphasised the expansion of higher education after 1964 with ‘the desire to increase the supply of qualified Africans’ (Resnick, 1967, p. 108) in order to fill the manpower gap left by the departure of European and Indian bureaucrats and managers in the various posts in government and industry (ESAURP, 1985, p. 106; Okoko, 1987, p. 51; Galabawa, 1990, p. 18; Barkan, 1994, p. 215). As Resnick (1967) observes as regards the pursuit of manpower planning in Tanzania:

The skilled manpower required for the achievement of economic development could best be attained through the allocation of educational resources to the production of the skills most critically in short supply (p. 107).

In order to meet this demand, the manpower plan focused on expanding the output of both secondary schools and universities with the expansion of higher education being manifestly evident in every Economic and Social Development Plan, that is, the Third Year Development Plan 1961–1964; the First Five Development Plan 1964–1969 and the long-term plan, the 15 Years Perspective Plan (1964–1980). For example, the latter, which was adopted in 1964, had as one of its three major term objectives the achievement of self-sufficiency in the trained requirements in the economy by 1980. Hence, the First Five Year Plan (1964–1969) accorded priority to the development of secondary and higher education relative to primary education (Sanyal & Kinunda, 1977, p. 81; Barkan, 1994, p. 215). It was during this post-1961 period that the first of the higher education initiatives, namely, the University of Dar es Salaam and the Dar es Salaam Technical College were opened (ESAURP, 1985, p. 106).

The second phase corresponded with the adoption of a socialist political orientation as well as the publication of the Education for Self-Reliance (ESR), which became an integral part of

the socialist development strategy in Tanzania. According to Okoko (1987), the proclamation of the Arusha Declaration in February 1967 indicated major changes in the economic and political policies of the government with a clear commitment to building a socialist country (p. 56). In the context of education policy, the major policy statement, ‘Education for Self-Reliance’, was issued in March 1967 (Mosha, 1990, p. 60). The cardinal emphasis of this statement was on changing the educational system. The policy, which was a result of the Arusha Declaration, pointed out that education, as part of the society, should promote the growth of socialist values (Okoko, 1987, p. 57; Galabawa, 1990, p. 21). Mushi (2009) argued that the adoption of socialism and self-reliance as the country’s development strategy in 1967 and the subsequent policy of Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) was intended to guide the planning and practices of, *inter alia*, educational initiatives in the country (p. 126). In the context of higher education, the majority of the policies and objectives formulated after the 1967 Arusha Declaration were qualitative, distributional and social in nature and were geared towards producing local science manpower for local industry. In the Second and Third Five Year Plans (1969–74; 1976–1981), the strategy of ‘Education for Self-Reliance’ was intended to correct weaknesses in the colonial education system and it became a cornerstone of all major education policies (ESAURP, 1985, p. 106; Okoko, 1987, p. 62; Galabawa, 1990, p. 9; URT, 1999a, p. ii; Knight, 2008, p. 422). Within that context Education for Self-Reliance outlined all the aims and objectives of education in the country. In line with the philosophy of ESR, the education system had to be restructured so that manual work and production would become part of education in all educational institutions (Galabawa, 1990, p. 24). The policy recommended several reforms which were considered necessary as there had not been any significant change in the goals and objectives of education since independence in 1961. In order to implement the ESR, the Education Act of 1969 (which was later replaced by the Education Act of 1978) was introduced. The implementation of this Act was followed by the nationalisation of all government assisted voluntary agency schools (Morrison, 1976; URT, 1999a, p. iii). Thus, as Mushi (2009, p. 127) states, education became the sole responsibility of the state. Based on this reality and in terms of the Arusha Declaration, the government abolished school fees in primary and secondary education as well as and tuition fees in higher education (Baleiy *et al.*, 2011, p. 18). In 1967, the government provided bursaries to all students admitted to the then University College of Dar es Salaam. However, in 1974, the bursary system was abolished and the government took on the responsibility of financing higher education (*ibid.*, 19).



The third phase was marked by the economic crisis of the 1980s, the emergence of the World Bank/IMF structural adjustment policies that stressed cost-effectiveness and sustainability, and the evident shortcomings of Education for Self-Reliance. Barkan (1994) observes that the 1980s witnessed a deepening financial and managerial crisis in the state sector and this, in turn, led to both internal and external pressures to loosen the central control of the education system (p. 216). Tanzania started to undergo significant political and economic changes, moving from a centralised to a market-oriented economy (UDSM, 2004a, p. 2). In other words, Tanzania liberalised its political and socio-economic policies. The liberal reforms, as advocated by the international financial institutions, increased the demand for social services, including education. In compliance with this new thinking, the government took measures that aligned social policies with the changing circumstances. It is important to recognise that the above transformations had profound implications for the country's educational policy. Within the education sector, the World Bank recommended that African countries, including Tanzania, should effect drastic reductions in state support to higher education in order both to promote higher internal efficiency and to ensure a more egalitarian distribution of resources (World Bank, 1991). Following the World Bank recommendation, the government formulated education policies that focused on the education system in general and also on specific sectors in education such as primary, secondary and higher education. In 1995 the government issued the Education and Training Policy (ETP), which is the current official education policy of Tanzania. According to this policy, the role of the government in the provision of education changed. The policy states:

For the last previous decades, central government planning has guided the provision of public social services, including education. This also means that policies that guaranteed access to education without regard to sex, colour, ethnicity, creed or economic status were enforced fairly and effectively. The current trend for central planning is to accommodate the liberalization and privatisation of the public services, including education (URT, 1995, p. 17).

The quotation cited above indicates the main difference in the context of education policy in Tanzania since independence. More importantly, the policy shifted from emphasising the formulation of a socialist state and public responsibility in education to the development of a market economy which lends itself to public and private initiatives (Buchert, 1997, p. 35). This new focus is reflected in subsection 8.1 of ETP which states that 'the establishment and ownership of tertiary education and training institutions shall be liberalized' (URT, 1995, p. 112). Thus, this indicated a policy shift away from state ownership and provision of

education to the liberalisation, privatisation and facilitation of education. The analysis of the development of education offered above provides a sound background to and also a context for understanding the key socio-economic and political developments in Tanzania which informed educational policy formulation and reforms. It is within this wider policy development that public higher education institutions and the University of Dar es Salaam, in particular, rethought their operations in terms of organisation, the provision of services and management. In the light of the need to achieve efficient and effectiveness in the provision and management of public higher education reform was deemed crucial. Within the UDSM context, the reform process was guided by the Institutional Transformation Programme (ITP), which was initiated in 1994.

## **2.5 Contribution of higher education to national development: African context**

In this section, I examine the role of public higher education in the development of the African continent. Gumport's (2000) classification of higher education is used to frame the discussion that seeks to understand the role of public higher education in national development. According to Gumport, two perspectives dominate the discussion on the understanding of the role of the public higher education institutions in national development. The first perspective views the public university as 'a social institution' while the second views it as 'an industry'. In other words, according to Gumport, there has been a shift from considering public higher education as 'a social institution' towards viewing it as 'an industry'. She argues that there is tension between the two perspectives. With regard to the concept of higher education as a social institution, she writes:

Public colleges and universities, by definition, must preserve a broader range of social functions that include such essential educational legacies as the cultivation of citizenship, the preservation of cultural heritage(s), and the formation of individual character and habits of mind (p. 71).

She goes on to remind us that educational organisations fulfil a variety of social functions that have been expanding over time. According to her, the social functions include:

The development of individual learning and human capital, the socialisation and cultivation of citizens and political loyalties, the preservation of knowledge, and fostering of the legitimate pursuits for the nation-state (p. 74).

The perspective that views higher education as ‘a social institution’ appears to suit the imperatives of public higher education in Africa soon after political independence in the early 1960s when independent African states considered education as ‘the priority of all priorities’ (Assié-Lumumba, 2011, p. 180) in their national development plans. In addition, public higher education institutions and universities, in particular, were considered as a key instrument for promoting national socio-economic development and social progress (Banya & Elu, 1997, p. 151, Assié-Lumumba, 2011, p. 180). In this context, public higher education had a developmental mission and, for this reason, the post-independence university in Africa was to be conceptualised and conceived as a ‘developmental university’. In other words, the post-independence university in Africa was a university whose work and mission were guided and directed by the state in the attainment of the concrete and demonstrable development goals or priorities of the country (Coleman, 1984, pp. 85–104). This orientation was accurately summarised by Assié-Lumumba (2011) when she concluded that ‘the public university in Africa was conceived as ontologically imbedded in the developmental state’ (p. 179).

There is little doubt that higher education is one of the crucial components of the development process. In fact, it is regarded as ‘the engine of development’ of any country because it contributes to development in so many ways. For example, it is crucially important in the training of the highly skilled personnel required to manage the civil service and the parastatal sectors (Moja, 2004, p. 23; Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2004). In this respect, the role of higher education institutions involved meeting societal needs by making available human resource as a product to society with their mission reflecting some of society’s most cherished goals, namely, opportunity through education, progress through research, and cultural enrichment. In short, these institutions responded to the changing societal imperatives and aspirations of the people (Memon, 1998). Essentially, universities were, and still are, regarded as cornerstones in the development of society and also the nation at large. Unlike other levels of education, higher education plays a pivotal role in development as it provides the multi-skilled human resources needed for the development of a country’s economy. In addition, higher education conducts both research and analysis that ‘improve the effectiveness of private economy and government policy and services’ (Morley, Leach & Lugg, 2009, p. 57). In the same vein, higher education institutions and universities, in particular, also play a role in providing theoretical education and developing the specific skills that African countries need (Samoff & Carrol, 2003, p. 1) as well acting as both a

developer and disseminator of new knowledge and a catalyst to shape the practice of management and business. In short, higher education is viewed as a contributor to both the community and the national economy. In countries such as Senegal, Uganda, Tanzania and Mozambique, among others, indigenous universities were treated as the incubators of national progress and development in the period soon after independence (Hoffman, 1996, p. 83). As a result, most countries considered higher education as an increasingly important pathway to modernisation and development.

The period from the early 1980s until today has been marked by a gradual shift in the role of higher education as ‘a social institution’ towards higher education as ‘an industry’. This perspective, which views higher education as ‘an industry’ and, thus, ‘the industrial model’, is evident in the current public higher education and is characterised primarily by ‘privatisation, commercialisation and corporatisation’ (Kezar, 2004, p. 432). In terms of this model, Gumport (2004) argues, public colleges and universities are considered to be quasi-corporate entities that ‘produce a wide range of goods and services in a competitive marketplace’ (p. 71). Referring on the works of scholars such as Bok, Gumport and Rhodes, Kezar (2004) posits that:

Higher education is foregoing its role as a social institution and is functioning increasingly as an industry with fluctuating, predominantly economic goals and market-oriented goals (p. 430).

In terms of this perspective, higher education is viewed as ‘part of the national economy’ (Maassen & Cloete, 2004, p. 9). Viewed from an economic perspective, Gumport argued that higher education organisations have adopted ‘business rationales with strategic management principles’ in order to compete within the new economic realities (p. 73). In the global knowledge economy, knowledge is treated as a primary resource for economic development. In line with this argument, higher education institutions are required to produce a large number of human resources with high skills as one of the prerequisites for the economic and social development of the country. In the context of the globalised economy in which knowledge is considered to be a major driver of economic development, it is, thus, essential that higher education be reformed in order to meet the economic development needs of the country. The World Bank Task Force on Higher Education in collaboration with UNESCO reported that:

As knowledge becomes more important, so does higher education. Countries need to educate more of their young people to a higher standard – a degree is now a basic qualification for many skilled jobs. The quality of knowledge generated within higher education institutions is becoming increasingly critical to national competitiveness (World Bank, 2000, p. 9).

It is within this changing global context that a strong higher education is considered to be crucial for the development of the national economy as well as a strategy with which to compete in the global knowledge economy. In the context of developing countries, I agree with Naidoo (2003) that a well-developed and dynamic higher education system is an essential prerequisite for entry into and participation in the global knowledge economy (p. 251). While higher education has played a crucial role in ensuring the availability of trained human resources, the available evidence indicates that, worldwide, there is a shortage of personnel with high-level skills (Moja, 2004, p. 33). In Africa, the situation is even worse because of the brain drain that has led to the ‘staff haemorrhaging of universities’ (Lebeau, 2008, p. 140). In this light it would not be wrong to argue that Africa is facing the challenge of producing large numbers of highly skilled workers. Thus, widening access to and equity to education, in general, and to higher education, in particular, is crucial if a nation is to compete in the global knowledge economy (Saint, Hartnett & Strassner, 2003). In the African context it is argued that the need to increase the access to and equity in higher education is anchored in the premise that increasing access to quality higher education will increase the capacity of the African continent to create future prosperity by enhanced economic performance and also improve public health, and advance both sustainability and, more importantly, social inclusion (AHEC, 2008). The preceding discussion suggests that African countries and the continent as a whole should expand access to higher education and also increase the participation in higher education.

## **2.6 The role of higher education in national development in Tanzania**

In this section, I discussed the link between education and higher education, in particular, and national development in Tanzania. It is argued that education at all levels contributes significantly to the economic, social and political development of a country. In this contention, I agreed with Oketch (2003) that higher education is critical to any nation that aspires to lay a strong foundation for its socioeconomic and political development (p. 91). In terms of the African context, Moshia (1986) listed a number of developmental problems which universities are expected to address, *inter alia*, ‘poverty, social disorganisation, low

production, unemployment, hunger, illiteracy and diseases’ (p. 93). Hence, higher education institutions are responsible for training professional personnel such as managers, scientists, engineers and technicians who will participate in promoting national development (World Bank, 1994, p. 15, Oketch, 2003, p. 91). Higher education in Tanzania is no exception. In particular, the role of higher education in poverty eradication and other economic initiative have been clearly articulated in the Tanzania Vision 2025 (URT, 1999b) with higher education playing a key role in the establishment of sustainable development programmes in the country. Indeed, the Vision 2025 requires Tanzania to produce ‘the quantity and quality of educated people sufficiently equipped with the requisite knowledge and skills to solve the society’s problems; meet the challenges of development and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels’ (URT, 1999b, p. 5). Thus, in this regard, education is treated as a strategic agent for enabling people to acquire the knowledge required to address development challenges. The national development Vision 2025 cited a lack of quality education as a limiting factor in respect of national development. Specifically, the document states:

The level and quality of education that has been attained has not been adequate to meet the growing development challenges and to enable the search for solutions to the development problems that confront the nation. In particular, education has not adequately and appropriately been geared to integrate the individual into the community. Equally, it also has not been able to innovatively engage Tanzanians in entrepreneurship and self-employment (URT, 1999b, p. 9).

This developmental challenge calls for higher education institutions to produce large numbers of highly trained people to meet the country’s economic development needs. Luhanga (2010) appears to endorse this objective when claiming that the University of Dar es Salaam was challenged to re-orient its programmes to be ‘more responsive to the national development priorities as outlined in the National Vision 2025, National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty and other sectoral policies and plans’ (p. 7078). This study will examine and analyse whether or not the adoption of corporate strategies has enabled the university to train highly skilled people needed to facilitate economic and social development in Tanzania.

## 2.7 The trend in access to and equity in higher education in Africa

The issue of access and equity is one of the challenges facing higher education worldwide and in Africa in particular. As such the issue of access and equity is an integral part of the higher education policy as well as the development plans of many countries. The importance of ensuring access to and equity in education rests on the assumption that strong economic development is a product of high participation rates in education and in higher education, in particular. It is argued that it is investment in education that has taken the East Asian countries to their present level of development (Abe, 2006). It is, thus, essential to expand access to and equity in education. The importance of equal access to higher education was emphasised in the declarations that emerged from the 1998 World Conference on Higher Education convened by the UNESCO. Based on Article 26(1) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the conference asserted that ‘higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit’ (Altbach, Reisberg & Rumbley, 2009, p. 37). In the same vein, the Article stresses that ‘no discrimination can be accepted in granting access to higher education on grounds of race, gender, language or religion, or economic, cultural or social distinctions, or physical disabilities’ (Goastellec, 2008, p. 77). This provides a useful starting point for analysing the trend in access to and equity in higher education in Africa.

The literature available on higher education in Africa indicated that the first post-independence decade was characterised by an unprecedented expansion in the enrolment in higher education as well as in the number of institutions (Assié-Lumumba, 2006, p. 69). As regards the expansion of higher education in Africa, Sawyerr (2004) postulates three factors that stimulated this enrolment (p. 8). Firstly, historically higher education had been restricted in the African colonies and, thus, there were very small numbers of African graduates at independence. The expansion in enrolment was, thus, intended to train more Africans to fill the vacancies left by departing expatriates in the expanding public services, the professions and business. Secondly, the high rate of population growth had caused explosive demands for education at all levels with this high rate of population growth creating large number of children of school-going age at the secondary schools. The third factor and one which was related to the previous factor was the expansion of primary and secondary education which, in turn, increased the pool of secondary school graduates qualified to enter higher education (cf. Hayward & Ncayiyana, 2014). This trend appears to be supported by the current expansion in secondary education in Tanzania.

Although there has been a remarkable increase in enrolment since independence, enrolment in Africa indicates that the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) is still comparatively low compared to other global regions (Bloom, Canning & Chan, 2006, p. 3, Morley, Leach & Lugg, 2009, p. 57). While participation in higher education has improved across the global, still there is variation between and within the regions. For example, in 2005, the GER in higher education was 1%, 3%, 10% and 15% in Tanzania, Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa respectively compared to the 5% in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2007, pp. 132–133). In 2007, the GER was 2.2% in Tanzania (URT, 2010b, p. 4), while in Africa the overall number of students who accessed higher education represented less than 3% of the eligible age group, suggesting that higher education in Africa is still elitist in nature and, thus, pointing to the significant challenge of access. The following quotation from Teferra and Altbach (2004) pertinently illustrates the situation:

Africa faces a significant challenge in providing access to higher education, not only to reach the levels of other developing and middle-income countries but also to satisfy the demand of populations that are eager for opportunities to study and that have achieved a level of secondary education that qualifies them for postsecondary study (p. 26).

The analysis of the current enrolment trend in Africa has been strongly shaped by the colonial and post-colonial socioeconomic and political backgrounds of the continent and, as Teferra and Altbach (2004) revealed, ‘higher education in Africa is an artefact of colonial policies’ (p. 23). Lebeau (2008) suggests that an example of this is the fact that ‘higher education institutions in Africa are of colonial origin and they experienced similar developments despite the academic traditions they inherited’ (p. 140). There were consequences to this state of affairs. Teferra and Altbach (2004) argue that the colonial legacies, including colonial higher education policy, have had lasting impacts on the contemporary African higher education. The colonial education policies provided either limited or no higher education for Africans (Assié-Lumumba, 2006, p. 68) and, thus, they limited Africans in their accessing of higher education. The colonial powers had feared expanding the access of Africans to higher education and this is, in turn, was reflected in the limited numbers of trained Africans in the administration of their colonies. Teferra and Altbach (2004) list several techniques which were used to restrict access to higher education in Africa. Firstly, the colonial powers such as the Belgians forbade the development of higher education in most of their colonies. Secondly, the number of enrolments in the Spanish and Portuguese colonies was kept



extremely low while, thirdly, the French preferred to send a small numbers of students to study in France instead of training them in their colonies. In short, Assié-Lumumba (2006) observed that the colonial powers, irrespective of some differences in their policies, slowed down the full development of higher education in Africa (p. 69) and, as a result, the higher education systems in the African countries were either deficient or completely absent at the time of independence. A similar trend was evident in Tanzania where, in the 1961/62 academic year, the university college of Tanganyika enrolled 11 students (seven nationals and four non-Tanzanians) while, in 1974, the enrolment totalled 1852 undergraduate students (World Bank, in Teferra & Knight, 2008, p. 123).

As opposed to other African countries, the discussion on access to and equity in higher education in South Africa must be understood in the context of the historic inequalities in the country. It has been well documented that the apartheid policies in South Africa restricted access to education at all levels based on ethnicity and that this was reinforced through a system of separate education which was characterised by extreme inequalities (Griesel, 1999, p. 16; Badat, 2009, p. 457; Nieuwenhuis & Schoole, 2013, p. 190). Since 1994, the focus in South Africa has been on redress and transformation with the debate on access being framed in terms of race and gender. One of the challenges which faced South Africa's new democratic government was to 'redress past inequalities and to transform the higher education system to serve a new social order, to meeting pressing national needs, and respond to new realities and opportunities' (DoE, 1997, section 1.1, p. 7). This challenge offered a compelling argument for broadening access in order to meet the country's development needs as well as ensuring access to those who had previously been excluded (Griesel, 1999, p. 17). Concomitantly and as part of national development, 'access was regarded as central to the transformation of higher education practices' (ibid). For this to happen, the White Paper 3 (1997) provided signposts to guide the transformation of higher education, requiring the higher education system and its institutions to 'increase and broaden the participation and, in particular, increasing 'access for black, women, disabled and mature students' (DoE, 1997, section 1.13, p. 10). The White Paper 3 stressed the promotion of equity of access by ensuring fair chances of success to all while, at the same time, focusing on 'eradicating all forms of unfair discrimination and advancing redress for past inequalities' (ibid, section 1.14, p. 11). In short, the White Paper was endeavouring to redress 'past discrimination and ensur[e] representivity and equal access' (Griesel, 1999, p. 21). The success achieved, particularly with respect to 'access as participation', has been significant. For example, Badat

(2010) notes that the enrolment of student has increased from 473,000 in 1993 to 799,388 in 2008 and that black students constituted 52% and 64.4% respectively of the student enrolment within the period (p. 7). As in many countries, the main challenge facing higher education in South Africa is how to ensure ‘access with success’, that is, to ensure that those students who have gained access are able to complete their studies successfully.

In addition, the expansion of higher education was hampered by the conditions and policy advice of the World Bank, International Monetary Fund and donor agencies during the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in the 1980s and 1990s. In particular, the programmes favoured expenditure at the lower levels of education at the expense of higher education (Trust Africa, 2011, Kotecha, 2012b, p. 18; Hayward & Ncayiyana, 2014). This policy was guided and reinforced by the World Bank’s social rates of return which established that investments in education were higher in basic education than in higher education (Samoff & Carrol, 2003, p. 4; Sawyerr, 2004, pp. 5–6). As a result, higher education suffered immensely because African countries diverted their expenditure priorities to basic education. Later, it was recognised by the international agencies as well as the African countries that the policy of neglecting higher education was contrary to the indubitable role of higher education in the development of Africa (Swayerr, 2004, p. 23; Bloom *et al.*, 2006, p. iv). After decades of neglecting higher education in Africa, the World Bank is trying to correct its policy and insists that ‘if Africa and other developing nations want to catch up with the global North, a vibrant higher education system is a necessity’ (Atuahene, 2011, p. 324). The World Bank’s policy shift and support have been articulated in its publications: *Higher education in developing nations: Peril and promise* (2000), *Constructing knowledge societies: New challenges for tertiary education* (2002), *Higher education and economic development in Africa* (2006), among others. All these reports indicate a significant change with the emphasis on the importance of higher education and research into socioeconomic development in Africa (*ibid.*). It is clear from the above trajectory of focus that higher education systems in Africa have been the victim of the changing educational priorities of international agencies (Lebeau, 2008, p. 140).

A further point worth considering is the fact that higher education and universities, in particular, in Africa were established by the national governments and, hence, the bulk of the funding for higher education was met in its entirety by the governments’ financial resources (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, p. 27). Statistically, Teferra and Altbach observed that ‘African

governments consistently provide more than 90 to 95 percent to the total operating budgets of higher education' (ibid.). This model of depicting of higher education was referred to as 'the state control model'. As previously discussed in chapter one, this model was possible because the number of students was small and governments were able to meet the costs of higher education. A vivid example of state control model may be drawn from Tanzania. One of the principles of the Arusha Declaration states that 'access to scarce resources such as education was to be regulated and controlled by the government to ensure equal participation by all socio-economic groups' (Bailey *et al.*, 2011, p. 18). As from 1974, the bursary system was abolished and the government assumed responsibility for financing public higher education in Tanzania (Ishengoma, 2004, p. 105). The rationale behind abolishing the bursary system was 'to make higher education accessible to all socio-economic groups to achieve one of the major goals of the Arusha Declaration of building an egalitarian society' (Bailey *et al.*, 2011, p. 19). However, with time and as a result of declining government funding, the relationship between the state and public higher education institutions has been fundamentally changing. This, in turn, implies that the state-control model had proved to be ineffective as regards the provision of public higher education. The model was abandoned in Tanzania in 1992/93 and the cost-sharing model of education was introduced. The provision of higher education in accordance with the state control and highly centralised approaches was seen as the main obstacle because these approaches had not enabled public higher education to expand at the desired rate to accommodate the growing number of qualified students in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular. This was because the state control model had relied on government funding. In short, the state control model was 'restrictive in terms of access and, thus, works against the realisation of equity' (Otiende, 2006, p. 38). Against the backdrop of these concerns, a reform process that could expand and ensure equity in higher education was deemed necessary. The available literature on reform indicates that the state control model is giving way to a market-driven model in the provision of public higher education with the intention of ensuring that public higher education institutions are able to perform their functions more efficiently and effectively (Sirat, 2010). Informed by this expectation, this study will examine whether the adoption of the market approach in public higher education has expanded access and equity and, thus, contributed to the national development.

## 2.8 Challenges facing higher education in Africa

This section discusses the challenges that public higher education institutions in Africa face while seeking to achieve their goals. The literature available indicates that the higher education institutions are facing several challenges on a number of fronts (Taylor & Machado, 2006, p. 154). It is important to note that these challenges influence higher education across the globe as well as in Africa. They include, among others, reduced per capita funding, increasing demands for access, the rise of both the knowledge society and the information-driven global economy, the affordability and accountability of higher education, globalisation, the increased use of technology and the invasion of market forces into higher education (Briggs, 2005, p. 256; D'Ambrosio & Ehrenberg, 2007). Each of these challenges has implications for the functioning of higher education institutions and, ultimately, their contribution to national development. An understanding of these challenges will inform the policy steps taken by public universities to address such challenges. The challenges identified for inclusion in this review are discussed below.

### 2.8.1 Declining public expenditure

Essentially, one of the most critical problems facing higher education institutions in Africa is a decline in public expenditure relative to the rapid increase in enrolments (Atteh, 1996, p. 36; Teferra & Altbach, 2004, p. 26). In the early years after independence higher education institutions in Africa enjoyed a 'honeymoon' period because the costs of buildings, equipment and facilities were borne primarily by the states. In addition, African universities and/or governments provided a 'safety net' for individual students who enrolled at public universities that offered health care, housing, subsidised meals and tuition. For example, the World Bank estimated that Anglophone African countries spend between 12 and 15% of their higher education budgets on support for students while the Francophone governments spend approximately 55% of their higher education budgets on maintaining the safety nets referred to above (Sawyerr, 2004, p. 3; Hoffman, 1996, p. 85). This was possible because the numbers of students were fewer and the demands for finances were manageable. However, in time, the governments were unable to allocate funds to higher educational institutions to meet the requirements created by the rapid increase in the number of students (Moja, 2004).

From the 1980s to the 1990s, African higher education suffered from neglect on the part of government. Mohamedbhai (2008) cited two reasons that gave rise to this situation (p. 2).

Firstly, the budget allocated to universities was inadequate to support the increasing number of student enrolments in many African countries and, secondly, the declaration by the World Bank that stopped African countries from investing in higher education because it was not deemed important for development. As mentioned earlier, the decision was made to limit spending on higher education and to direct it to lower levels of education. This, in turn, had a negative impact on the development of the sector in developing countries (Kotecha, 2012b, p. 18). For example, the proportion of World Bank support for higher education declined from 17% between 1985 and 1989 to almost 7% between 1995 and 1999 (Bloom *et al.*, 2006, p. iii). In Africa, the literature indicated that, between 1980 and 1995, there was an average of a 65% decline in the percentage of GNP per capita publicly invested in the higher education of each university student in Africa (Federici & Caffentzis, 2004, p. 86). The World Bank (2010) revealed that, during the 1991 to 2006 period, African countries allocated 0.63% of their GDP to higher education while the number of students quadrupled (p. 2). The situation at the University of Dar es Salaam was no different. For example, the ratios of the council to the government approved budgets to the university decreased substantially from 77.8% in 1985/86 to 28.9% in the 1994/95 academic year (Luhanga & Mashalla, 2005, p. 23). This decline in funding to public higher education had two effects. Firstly, the increased number of students in African public universities in the 1990s was met by a reduced level of resources and support services and, secondly, many higher education institutions reduced their budgets for study programmes, modernisation of infrastructure, library holdings, international co-operation and even academic staff (UNESCO, 1995).

### 2.8.2 Increased social demand for higher education

It has been established globally that there is a growing social demand for higher education. It is worth asking why higher education has expanded so quickly in recent years. The forces that explain this trend are multifold and relate to social, economic and political changes. In Africa, the increased demand for access to higher education has been fuelled by the recognition of the benefits which accrue from the possession of advanced qualifications in the new knowledge economy (World Bank, 2009, p. 42). It is possible that the fundamental factors driving increasing access to and expansion of higher education systems in Africa include the social equity goal, demographic growth, the achievement of universal access programmes at the lower levels of education, and the demand for large numbers of highly trained human resources in the global economy (World Bank, 2002, p. 48; Moja, 2004, p. 26;

Lebeau, 2008, p. 147). For example, the increased access to both primary and secondary education has boosted the number of candidates eligible to enter higher education. One statistic is sufficient to illuminate this point. For example, in 2004, Tanzania launched the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP). The statistics indicated that enrolment in secondary schools (Forms 1–6) increased from 432,599 in 2004 to 1,466,402 in 2009 while the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) increased from 11.7% in 2005 to 31.3% in 2009 (URT, 2010b, p. iv). This expansion was considered both as a benefit as well as a burden to higher education – a benefit because it would increase the number of qualified people in the country but a burden because of the declining funding that is limiting the capacity of higher education institutions to meet the increased social demand for access for eligible students from the lower levels of education.

In addition, increasing employment opportunities for university graduates imply a significant demand for greater access to higher education (Varghese, 2009, p. 9). The emergence of the knowledge economy has further intensified the demands on higher education systems to produce large numbers of skilled human resources. Together these factors all generate intense social pressure for access to higher education. However, governments have been unable to meet this demand for access to higher education as a result of the problems arising from budgetary constraints. In addition, the move to mass higher education systems requires effective ways with which to deal with the large student numbers as well as the difficulties involved in running more complex organisations. In this respect the researcher agrees with Van der Wende (2003), who suggests ways to accommodate the increasing demand for higher education by diversifying and by making the mode of provision of higher education more flexible including lifelong learning and corporate planning, among the others (p. 1994). Nevertheless, the goal of achieving access to and equity in higher education, especially in the context of the developing countries, remains a challenge.

### 2.8.3 Globalisation as a challenge to higher education

There is little doubt that globalisation is an emerging challenge for higher education, not only in Africa but globally. The World Bank Report (2002) on *Constructing knowledge societies: New challenges for tertiary education* highlighted that significant changes in the global environment are impacting heavily on ‘the role, functions, shape and mode of the operation of tertiary education systems all over the world’ (p. 7). Indeed, as Moloji, Gravett, and Petersen (2009) note, in view of the fact that education is one of the central arenas in which

changes, adaptations and responses occur, it stands to reason that globalisation has shaped, and will continue to shape, both higher education and the modern university (p. 283). In particular, one of the challenges associated with globalisation is the premium that is placed on the importance of knowledge in the growth of the knowledge-based global economy. In other words, higher education is a vital component of the knowledge-based global economy – firstly, because it produces human resources and, secondly, because of the knowledge it generates through research and innovations (Naidoo, 2003, p. 149; OECD, 2009, 13).

The knowledge economy requires individuals who possess a broad knowledge as well as the skills that provide them with a leverage advantage to participate in the global competitive economy. At the simplest level, knowledge is viewed as a new factor of production. For the developing countries globalisation has far-reaching effects. According to Maassen and Cloete (2004), ‘globalisation encouraged higher education institution to become more businesslike’ (p. 17). This implies that globalisation has transformed the role of higher education from that of being an integral component of national development to producing knowledge and skills for the global market (Prewitt, 2004, p. 41). In addition, globalisation has resulted in academics becoming more mobile, thus promoting the migration of skilled labour and fostering the brain drain. In this light, it is essential that developing countries, particularly in Africa, reform their public higher education system in order to mitigate the global and national socio-economic challenges.

## **2.9 Strategies adopted by higher education institutions to respond to the challenges**

This section discusses the strategies adopted by public higher education institutions to address the challenges discussed in the preceding section. These strategies adopted by public higher education institutions include the restructuring of their organisational components in order to adjust to their changing external environments (Cameron, 1984, p. 123). Lee (2005) argues that the restructuring of higher education has been taking place on a global scale and has focused on specific areas. These areas include, but are not limited to, resources allocation, establishing sources of income generation, realigning to new demands, finding innovative ways of management to lower cost and increase efficiency and productivity as well as improving teaching quality (p. 35). Arguably, it is expected that the implementation of these strategies will enable higher education institutions and universities, in particular, to cope with the challenges discussed in the previous section. This review will be restricted to the commercial approach adopted by public higher education institutions as a reform strategy.

### 2.9.1 The emergence of corporate cultures in public higher education

The literature on the introduction of corporatisation in the public sector is burgeoning. Whincop (2003) has provided a useful analysis on the corporatisation of public enterprises. According to Whincop (2003), the advocates of corporatisation claim that the public sector is relatively inefficient as compared to its counterpart, the private sector. However, he suggests that corporatisation could help to overcome this inefficiency (p. 45). The theoretical rationale underlying the corporatisation of public enterprises is the belief that efficiency may be improved by replicating the private sector model. Corporatisation has been regarded as a reform strategy which offers corporatised public entities, such as universities, the autonomy and flexibility to manage themselves while the government continues both to fund their operations and to retain jurisdiction over the assets and staff for the purpose of promoting the public interest (Wei, 2001, p. 221; Parker, 2012, p. 250; Majid & Bakar, 2013, p. 1). McDonald and Ruiters (2005) argue that corporatisation is a popular institutional form of commercialisation through which market principles and practices are introduced to the decision-making of a public service entity (p. 12). The conceptualisation of corporatisation, as discussed in chapter one, suggest that, unlike privatisation, corporatisation means that government retains a role in providing strategic direction and establishing key financial and non-financial performance targets and community service obligations to the entity in question (Pitkin & Farrelly, 1999, p. 252; Whincop, 2003, p. 32).

Corporatisation has increasingly dominated the discourse on the transformation of public higher education. The available literature indicates that the corporatisation of university is not a new phenomenon. For example, higher education in the United States of America has a long history in pioneering the incorporation of market practices into public education (Munene, 2008, p. 3). In addition, Rosow and Oswego (2000) revealed that it is possible to trace debates regarding corporate influence in the university back to 1870s in the United States of America (p. 11). Thus, the current trend of corporatisation manifests structures embedded over a long period of time in the American university. According to Lieberwitz (2005), the corporatisation of the university has become an important concept, particularly since the 1980s, with the ever-broadening effects of privatisation on both a national and a global scale (p. 759). Chan and Lo (2007) argue that the corporate culture has become the driving philosophy of higher education governance worldwide (p. 307) with its adoption oscillating around the broad influence of globalisation. Underlying globalisation is the neo-



liberal argument about the role of the state in the economy, the reduction of state expenditure (especially as regards subsidising social services), deregulation and liberalisation (Yang, 2003, p. 272).

The diffusion of the corporate culture in public higher education has been propelled by a series of developments. Wei (2001) mentions the following three reasons for this phenomenon (p. 219). Firstly, corporatisation and privatisation have been widely promoted as part of the reform packages designed to counteract the failure of highly interventionist systems in former socialist countries and in some East Asia economies. In this context it is argued that the centralised governance model hindered the development of public universities. This study will interrogate this claim based on the fact that, until recently, Tanzania was also a socialist country. According to Mok (2007), corporatisation will give public universities greater autonomy and flexibility as regards both their administration and their finance (p. 275). Secondly, the adoption of the private sector ethos in many developed countries was intended to increase the economic efficiency of their public sectors and, thirdly, the World Bank has motivated countries to take steps to privatise their public enterprises as a result of the fiscal crisis being experienced by the state. In this context, Chan and Lo (2008) argue that the state-oriented model was no longer suited to the provision of higher education (p. 644). Such a premise incorporates Naidoo's argument that the commercialisation of public higher education was based on the fact that the system had become too large and too complex for the state to sustain its position as both regulator and funder (Naidoo, 2003, p. 250). For this reason, the corporatised universities are supposed to generate additional resources by diversifying their sources of revenues to finance their activities and, at the same time, adopt corporate managerial practices in order to improve their accountability, efficiency and productivity. This view implies that the main goal of corporatisation is to enable the university, or any other organisation, to run as efficiently and effectively as its private counterpart while the government retains ownership. Majid and Bakar (2013) view the corporatisation of public universities as follows:

A governance mechanism by the government to make these universities more accountable for the resources given, to be more responsive to societal demands and to be proactive in bringing about changes, especially in offering new programmes and improving old ones (p. 2).

In short, both corporatisation and commercialisation indicate the introduction of market oriented strategies in the running of public higher education institutions and universities, in particular. Both replicate market doctrines that embrace efficiency, effectiveness and responsiveness in the provision of higher education.

### 2.9.2 Trends in the corporatisation of universities in the world

This section discusses various studies which have been conducted on the corporatisation of public universities. There is a plethora of studies focusing on one nation analysis and also others comparing a group of countries within the same region. With regard to higher education policies, the focus has been primarily on the Western universities. For example, Sporn (1999) investigated the transformation of universities to describe how the European universities had adapted to the challenges imposed by external changes (p. 23). She argued that the universities developed adaptive strategies in order to cope with the changing environment of higher education with respect to constrained resources, market pressures, modern technology and government regulations. This set of factors influenced the type of adaptation initiated and explained similar patterns in higher education reform in Europe. There have also been a growing number of nation-focused studies that described the corporatisation or privatisation of national universities in Asian countries. A study conducted by Zhao and Guo (2002) and that focused on the restructuring of China's higher education revealed that the restructuring had started in 1990s and that it had been initiated by the government. The government had linked the problems facing the higher education system to the tight state control in terms of the planned economy. It is from this perspective that the government had taken the initiative to introduce market forces in order to reform the higher education sector. The initiative focused on enrolment, planning as well as the employment of the graduates. The reform was intended to ensure that the higher education institutions became both self-regulating and market-oriented in their operations and also that they became more flexible, adaptive, and responsive to both the social and economic needs of the country.

Lee (2005) contends that, in Malaysia, the privatisation and corporatisation of higher education and public universities, in particular, was a result of budgetary constraints which prevented the government from sustaining the massification of higher education. The restructuring in Malaysia has achieved the following. Firstly, the number of students in tertiary education increased sharply in the private sector. This was followed by the growing popularity of fields of study such as management, commerce, and Information Technology.

In addition, income generation strategies as well as cost efficiency were highly emphasised within the corporatised public universities. Secondly, the corporatised universities provided evidence of structural changes in their governance as collegial governance was replaced by corporate governance. In addition, there was a marked increase in entrepreneurial activities and corporate managerial practices. Lastly, state intervention has remained strong, even during the restructuring of higher education in Malaysia (p. 15). Following restructuring of higher education and public universities in Malaysia, the role of the state in higher education was extended from being that of provider to both regulator and protector of higher education.

The introduction of corporate-style management systems within national universities has also dominated the discourse on the history of Japan's higher education. In a study conducted into the corporatisation of national universities in Japan, Yamamoto (2004) found that the process had been triggered by the radical reform plan published by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Science and Technology in 2001. Included in the changes the plan proposed was the introduction of putative business methods into national universities through a process of corporatisation. The study concluded that the corporatisation of national universities had been implemented as a policy reform to enhance both institutional autonomy and international competitiveness in order to meet the external demands for higher education.

As mentioned earlier, there is considerable literature available on comparative studies that focus on a group of Asian countries. For example, Mok (2003) conducted a comparative study on reforms and the restructuring of the higher education policy in Hong Kong, Taiwan and mainland China. The study revealed that globalisation had varying impacts on universities despite the fact that similar business-like practices had been implemented to address the issue of competition in the global marketplace. Mok (2003) concluded that it had been escalating demands from the various stakeholders in each country that had informed the restructuring and reforming of higher education. This would appear to suggest that, in order for any reform to succeed, factors within the nation in question should be considered.

In another study Mok (2007) compared reforms in higher education governance in Malaysia and Thailand in the context of corporatisation and privatisation. The following emerged from the study. Firstly, the centralised governance model was considered inefficient in terms of the provision of higher education. For this reason, the countries had introduced market-oriented forces into their higher education systems in order to improve both efficiency and operations.

Secondly, the adoption and implementation of corporatisation or incorporation strategies were intended to improve both management and finance. Another interesting finding of the study was that both countries were firm believers in the neo-liberalist doctrine. Underpinning this belief is the assumption that the adoption of market principles and strategies in the public sectors would promote better service delivery. The study revealed that the performance and productivity of the institutions and academics has been enhanced by introducing corporatisation strategies into the governance of the higher education systems. Mok (2010) also compared the restructuring of higher education in Singapore and Malaysia. Historically, these countries used a highly centralised governance model to direct their higher education development. However, the model had been rendered inappropriate and ineffective in coping with the challenges generated by local, national and global forces. On the one hand, the Singapore government incorporated its national universities by introducing management techniques similar to those in private sector while, on the other Malaysia transformed its public universities by implementing corporatisation measures. By comparison, Chan and Lo (2008)) focused on the restructuring of universities in East Asian countries. Many of the governments in this region have corporatised their public universities. However, this corporatisation has taken many forms. In Hong Kong, Singapore and mainland China, the corporatisation of the public universities fostered entrepreneurship as a strategy with which to secure additional sources of revenue from the market. For example, in Hong Kong, public universities adopted a market-oriented and business corporation model in terms of which programmes at various levels were run on the basis of self-financing and for profit. On the other hand, in mainland China, the state universities established their extension arms in the second-tier colleges in order to expand their share of the growing higher education market while, in Singapore, corporatisation was enforced by the law.

These few examples from East and Southern Asian countries illustrate the fact that, while they had different histories and structures, the reforms and restructuring of their public higher education and universities, in particular, revealed a common restructuring pattern, namely, incorporation and corporatisation. The insights from these studies into corporatisation or the incorporation of public higher education indicated that restructuring had focused on the internal governance systems while preserving state ownership. In other words, corporatisation and/or incorporation provided the public universities with autonomy and flexibility in terms of financing although they remained accountable to the governments and, ultimately, to the

general public. The transformation of the University of Dar es Salaam provides evidence of this trend.

### 2.9.3 Corporatisation of public universities in Africa

It is worth noting that the efforts to reform public higher education systems in Africa have been ongoing since independence and that they gained momentum in the 1990s. In addition, the reforms have varied from country to country based on the historical, social and economic development of the country concerned. This section extends the discussions presented in chapter one and in this chapter by examining public universities in Africa within the context of whether they depend on the government for funding and how they are responding to the declining public funding. The assumption is that the state of the economy of a country dictates the amount of financial resources devoted to the development of education and higher education, in particular. However, there is evidence, especially in the developing countries in Africa, pointing to a decline in government support for public higher education and universities in particular (Samoff & Carrol, 2003, p. 4). This point has been discussed in detail both in chapter one and in this chapter. It is worth repeating that the flow of funding is both declining and is also uncertain, thus constituting a considerable challenge to the public universities.

The trend towards the diminishing of per capita public funding has beset public higher education in Africa. For example, weak fiscal and budgetary constraints on the part of the government are undermining the operational efficiencies of public universities, including their prospects of expanding to meet the ever escalating social demand as well as maintaining educational quality. It is not surprising that the drastic cuts in budgetary allocations to higher education have fundamentally changed the structure and nature of public universities which have adopted institutional transformations together with the private and corporate dynamics as championed by the World Bank (Ng'ethe *et al.*, 2003, p. 23, Otiende, 2006). As part of strategies designed to mitigate financial austerity, the World Bank is exerting pressure aimed at the reduction of state funding to higher education and the removal of subsidies while encouraging the 'market-oriented reforms of universities' (Mamdani, 2008, p. 7; Atuahene, 2011, p. 324). There are several reasons for this. Firstly, the World Bank maintains that the so called 'developmental university' guided by the state duplicates the colonial model which was not only expensive but also be elitist in nature as regards access. In addition, the developmental university model was characterised by state interference and, thus, reform was

imperative in order to improve university autonomy and broaden the financial base of the universities (Mamdani, 2008, p. 8; Kotecha, 2012b, p. 18). Within the discourse of the World Bank, rates of return were used as a justification for introducing user charges in higher education. In this respect, the reform of public higher education in the context of privatisation was intended ‘to inject market forces into the public higher education sector’ (Michael, 2005, p. 18). Thus, it would appear that the transformation of public universities in Africa was intended to reduce their dependence on government financial support and also to extend access to those who are able to pay (Johnson & Hirt, 2011). However, as discussed earlier, the World Bank’s recommendations, which are classically based on the rates of return, had dire effects on public higher education. For example, in his analysis, Mamdani argues that the position adopted by the World Bank that treated the market as an alternative to the state in the provision of public higher education was inappropriate. His argument highlights the need to regard the two models as complementary (p. 8) – the position this study adopts.

As discussed in chapter one, various studies have been conducted in Africa that link the corporatisation and transformation of public higher education in the context of the market approach. For example, Munene’s (2008) study focused on marketisation as a transformative strategy at Kenyatta University in Kenya. He argued that both internal and external factors had triggered the transformation. The internal factors had constitute the decreased state subvention and the increased demand for higher education while the external factors had included globalisation and the role of the international agencies that had encouraged the role of private resources as well as market forces in the financing of higher education. However, the findings of this study indicated that, despite the multiplicity of marketisation and privatisation strategies, there was no firm policy in place with which to guide transformation. He argued that the commercialisation and privatisation of public higher education in Africa characterise the global trends while drawing from neoliberal imperatives. As has been documented by many scholars, the transformation in public higher education in Africa was a response to budgetary constraints as well as to market needs (Assié-Lumumba, 2006, p. 101; Mamdani, 2007; Wangenge-Ouma, 2008; Johnson & Hirt, 2011). It is significant that it is financial distress which is steering public higher education institutions in Africa to transform with the bias towards corporatisation. There is no doubt that the adoption and implementation of corporatisation in the public higher education institutions in Africa was aimed at diversifying funding sources in order to plug the budget deficits on the part of the governments. Thus, it would appear, and many scholars have used the same line of argument,

that public higher education institutions have responded imaginatively by introducing alternative strategies in order to reduce their dependence on one source of funding as well as to respond to market needs. The strategies adopted include

- the enrolment of private sponsored students
- the privatisation of academic programmes for the purpose of acquiring revenue and meeting the demand for higher education
- outsourcing internal services, such as cleaning and the cafeterias, to private companies
- consultancy services.

The implementation of the strategies discussed and which are indicators of the corporatisation of public universities has, arguably, been focused on compensating for the decline in government financial support in order to maintain their operations. It would appear that economic rationale, rather than social equity, played a more dominant role in the reform of public universities in Africa. Michael (2005) is of the opinion that ‘care must be taken to ensure that institutions are not preoccupied with a search for funds to the detriment of their goals and mission’ (p. 16). This sentiment seems to correspond with Altbach (2011), who argues that the broad, traditional purposes of universities, which do not produce income, are not being emphasised and, instead, income-generating activities have become more important (p. 11). In this sense, the introduction of market approaches in the public higher education that emphasise an ability to pay as a prerequisite for access poses a challenge for equity. This implies that, while reforms are imperative, equity of access and quality should also be accorded priority. However, it is important to note that there have been successes at the level of both countries and institutions. For example, Makerere University, the University of Dar es Salaam and the University of Nairobi in Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya respectively are all examples of successful cases in Africa (Court, 1999; World Bank, 2002, p. 64; Teferra & Altbach, 2004, p. 29; Wangenge-Ouma, 2008; Luhanga, 2010). The success achieved by these universities may be ascribed to the economic and political environments that support the reform strategies, ownership of the reform, imaginative university leadership that initiates and implements reform, among others (Court, 1999, Luhanga, 2010). In short, the discussion above indicates that the financial austerity facing governments has initiated the transformation that introduced corporatisation into public higher education institutions in Africa. Arguably, the move towards corporatisation may be deemed desirable for the future

of public higher education institutions in Africa as it improves both their financial sustainability and also their efficiency and effectiveness in the provision of education.

## **2.10 Impacts of corporatisation on the provision of higher education**

This section seeks to highlight the consequences of the adoption and implementation of corporatisation as a reform strategy initiated by state-owned enterprises, including public universities. Scholars have documented both the positive and the negative consequences of corporatisation. The proponents of corporatisation argued that corporate universities expanded access by providing education at a lower cost as compared to the programmes offered by traditional universities (Nixon & Helms, 2002, p. 146). The strategies adopted by the corporatised universities, including systems of resource allocation and diversification, are expected to lead to a reduction in costs, thereby rendering higher education more affordable and facilitating greater access. In other words, corporatisation has meant extending access to those who are able to pay. In addition, there are institutions that have employed corporatisation as a socially responsive approach. In this sense, the objective of generating revenue is integrated into policies in order to address broader social goals, both in terms of broadening access and engaging in basic research for the production of socially responsive knowledge. A study conducted by Mok (2007, pp. 273–274) in Malaysia concluded that the implementation of market forces, ideas and strategies in higher education system was part of the national goals of transforming Malaysian economy from a manufacturing to a knowledge-based economy. Mok (2007) argued that it was equity purposes that students were awarded scholarships and loans by the government to enable them to pursue further studies, either locally or overseas.

While the rationales for the corporatisation of public higher education remain, there is, however, persuasive evidence suggesting that corporatisation has had negative impacts. Scholars have focused on the unacceptable consequences of corporatisation from different perspectives. For example, scholars have discussed the role of the academic as public higher education institutions converge towards corporatisation. In this regard, two quotations from Sawyer, Johnson and Holub (2009) elucidate the changing role of academics as a result of reform. The first quotation is as follows: ‘[T]he old university was characterised by a commitment to a set of intangible values of scholarship, truth and freedom and were sanctuaries of freedom’ (p. 11), while the second maintains that ‘the corporate university risks too much scholarship and too much freedom for the principles of the market’ (p. 10).



Naidoo (2007) claims that ‘forces which apply pressure on higher education to operate according to market criteria attempt to alter what is valued within higher education’ (p. 5). These viewpoints have widespread validity with respect to the role of academic and, more generally, scholarship with the core values of the university have changing from ‘intangible’ to ‘tradable in the marketplace’ (Sawyer *et al.*, 2009, p. 11). As a result, ‘the academic role is inverted’ (ibid, p. 10). This echoes the conclusion drawn by Nagy and Robb (2008) that those aspects of the academic work that cannot be counted have been undermined (p. 1417). This, in turn, suggests that corporatisation has changed the values, activities and working lives of academics. Bostock (1999) and Sawyer *et al.* (2009) point out that corporatisation has segmented academics and that it has led to the decline in collegiality – a form of relationship where responsibility is shared among academics. Accompanying this assertion is the view that corporatisation has weakened the participation of academics in decision making in the university governance. More specifically, corporatisation has undermined collegiality in two ways. Firstly, it has removed equality from individual academics who possess tenure and, secondly, collegiality has been superseded by intensified competition among universities in the marketplace (Bostock, 1999; Sawyer *et al.*, 2009). In addition, it may be argued that corporatisation has had a detrimental impact on academic freedom because it has replaced the collegiality system with a corporate approach (Mok, 2007). More generally, Zeleza (2003) and Sawyer *et al.* (2009) have asserted that restructuring on the basis of the neoliberal model has either undermined or destroyed traditional academic values with the concomitant dissolution of institutional traditions.

In other cases, scholars have cited the effects of corporatisation in the core activities of the university. With regard to research, they argued that commercialisation is, in many ways, the antithesis of the canons of scientific inquiry. For example, Slaughter and Leslie (1997, pp. 129–132) revealed a neglect of basic research, as well as significant secrecy and confidentiality about research results. In conjunction with Slaughter and Leslie, Bok (2003) suggested reasons why secrecy in respect of research findings has adverse results for the university and science itself, listing the following: Secrecy disrupts collegial relationship, it erodes trust if a delegate to a scientific conference withholds information for commercial reasons and it causes waste as scientists duplicate work performed by others for business reasons (p. 112). In considering the effects of commercialisation on research, Bok cautions that ‘introducing opportunities for private gain threatens to divert, at least, some researchers from exploring more interesting and intellectually challenging problems’ (p. 111). Such

behaviour kills creativity and research innovation, as well as causing conflict and division between individuals and academic units within a university (cf. Mamdani, 2007).

Furthermore, there is evidence to support the notion that the market approach may have compromised quality education in public higher education. Scholars such as Mamdani (2007) and Munene (2008) have linked the commercialisation of public higher education and the quality of education, arguing that the expansion of self-sponsored students has brought with it a decline in academic quality as a result of inadequate teaching and learning resources. With regard to Makerere University, Mamdani (2007) writes that ‘the ‘reformed’ Makerere is an informal university where questions of quality have been thrown by the wayside and where fee paying students receive a low-level vocational education in an expensive campus setting’ (p. 9). The introduction of parallel degree programmes in public universities has been the source of conflict between government and private sponsored students. The following example from the University of Nairobi illustrates this tension: ‘government-sponsored students attacked Private-Sponsored Students (PSS) accusing them of having watered down the academic status of the institution’ (Munene & Otieno, 2008, p. 471). In conclusion, and with respect to developing countries, I agree with Sawyer *et al.* (2009) that, in order for a public university such as the University of Dar es Salaam to retain its reputation and contribute to national development, it is essential that it ‘manage trade-off between its corporate values and the values of the old university’ (p. 23).

Other critics have not focused on the core activities of the university but, instead, they have paid attention to the fundamental issue of access and equity concerns. They argued that the adoption of neo-liberal policies, especially the introduction of tuition fees, has restricted access to the university. In the main, instead of correcting the existing inequality, the marketisation of the public higher education has exacerbated it. Writing in the context of South Africa, Ntshoe (2004a, 2004b) argued that both privatisation and marketisation have had negative impacts on equity among disadvantaged, lower socio-economic groups, namely the blacks and coloureds. He concludes that the adoption of market practices in the provision of higher education penalises students from less affluent backgrounds. This point was further expounded by Oanda, Chege and Wesonga (2008) who argued that the move towards the corporatisation and privatisation of African universities has, rather than facilitating access to the universities, it has limited access to a small elite – the very problem the process was supposed to resolve. Sall (2004) in Munene (2008) argues that both globalisation and

marketisation in Africa state universities are posing a challenge to equity (including gender) (p. 3).

Finally, Scott (2005) discussed the impact of globalisation on universities and articulated three threats that have negative implications for the issues of expanded access and the affordability of programmes, especially in the developing countries. The first such threat refers to the exclusive privilege granted to universities by the state. He argued that, under corporate arrangements, it is becoming increasingly difficult to treat universities within their national contexts as, essentially, public service institutions. This, according to Scott, limits the capacity of the public higher education institutions to respond to social pressure issues, such as the expansion of access, without recourse to market conditions. Secondly, corporate arrangements pose a threat to the traditional patterns of university governance. He further argued that, once the universities have been corporatised within a global market, it is likely that the existing arrangements of governance may be redefined in such a way that they will limit their social responsibility in a national context. Finally, Scott posits that the emphasis on tuition fees under corporate structures will render public universities unaffordable and, hence, inaccessible to students from economically disadvantaged groups.

## **2.11 Summary of the literature review and research focus**

The literature shows that public universities in many parts of the world have made significant moves toward the corporatisation of both their governance and their management. The reasons for corporatisation range from improving efficiency and effectiveness to economic reasons based on the history, economic, political and social background of the country concerned. The literature is in agreement that public universities have been transformed into corporate entities in order to improve their efficiency and effectiveness but that they have remained accountable to the governments and to other stakeholders. In addition, the literature reveals that economic reasons have provided the rationale for the corporatisation of public higher education institutions. In particular, the literature demonstrates that, on one hand, corporatisation has expanded access and also improved both the financial stability of public higher education institutions and their contribution to national development. On the other hand, corporatisation has had negative consequences for the issue of equity as well as for the core activities of the public universities.

The path of the corporatisation of public higher education has been synonymous with transformation in Africa. The literature on public higher education in Africa indicates that the transformation of public higher education through corporatisation had its origin in government financial constraints. Faced with limited funds, African governments, including the government of Tanzania, failed to develop a comprehensive higher education sector capable of absorbing the increasing demand for higher education. Thus, the corporatisation of public higher education was seen as a reform strategy that could ensure the future of the public universities in Africa. It should be noted that, in Africa, the process of corporatisation of public higher education is at an early stage. Despite the growing amount of research into the corporatisation of public higher education, there have been few studies conducted in Africa. In other words, most of the studies on corporatisation referred to in the literature review were conducted mainly in the developed and Asian countries. This, in turn, suggests that there is a gap in the literature on corporatisation as a reform strategy in the provision of university education in the context of the developing countries and in Africa, in particular. In view of the limited case study evidence, especially from a developing country context, there is clearly a need for a study into whether corporatisation has improved the performance of public higher education with respect to efficiency, effectiveness and responsiveness. In addition, as regards the East Africa region, there are several studies on the corporatisation, commercialisation and/or marketisation of public higher education in Uganda and Kenya respectively. However, there are limited studies of that nature in Tanzania. Accordingly, this study attempts to address this gap in the literature by examining whether the introduction of corporatisation as a reform strategy at the University of Dar es Salaam has been successful in facilitating broad access across the social strata in terms of equity considerations and the national development imperative.

The history of Tanzania adds an interesting dimension to this study. From independence in 1961 to the mid 1990s, Tanzania was a socialist country in which the state had a monopoly in the provision of social services, including education. The objectives and goals of education were consistent with the socialist development strategy of 'Self-Reliance', as envisaged in the national ideology of 'Socialism and Self-Reliance'. Clearly this also applied to the objectives and goals of the University of Dar es Salam, a public university (cf. UDSM, 1982, pp. 656–657). In common with other socialist countries in the 1990s, Tanzania pioneered its transformation from a socialist economy to a market economy. This transformation, in turn, led to the liberalisation and privatisation of the public sectors, including education. This case

study, conducted in a former socialist country, intends to examine whether the adoption and implementation of corporatisation at the UDSM has either promoted or hindered the attainment of the national development goals.

## CHAPTER THREE

### Conceptual framework

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conceptual framework which was used for understanding and analysing the transformation of public higher education institutions within the context of corporatisation. Baxter and Jack (2008) maintain that ‘the conceptual framework serves as an anchor for the study and is referred at the stage of data interpretation’ (p. 553). In developing the conceptual framework for the purposes of this study I took into account the warning sounded by Abes (2009) that ‘all theoretical perspectives that guide research are incomplete’ (p. 141). Despite the fact that he was writing nearly fifty years ago, Merton (1968) suggests how to overcome the weakness of using one theoretical perspective only. Accordingly, I followed Merton’s (1968) advice regarding the usefulness of applying a diversity of theories in order to investigate and explain a particular phenomenon (p. 39). In line with the viewpoints of both Abes and Merton’s views, I acknowledge the usefulness of combining more than one theory as this helps to provide a powerful lens with which to understand and interpret a particular phenomenon in detail. Thus, this study combined the notions and concepts borrowed from both the resource-dependency theory and the market approach in order to develop the proposed conceptual framework. These two theoretical perspectives enabled me to examine and analyse why and how public higher education institutions initiate and implement reforms. In terms of this framework, the integration of the assumptions underlying the two theoretical approaches provides valuable information with which to understand why and how public higher education institutions engage with their environments in order to address the constraints that limit their survival. The chapter starts by describing the main tenets of each perspective and then, building on this, I develop a conceptual framework comprising five components. The chapter ends by describing the five components of the conceptual framework. To sum up, the two theoretical perspectives complement one another in explaining why and how organisations, namely, public higher education institutions, initiate changes in order to address the challenges that constrain their activities.

### 3.2 Resource-dependence approach

This section discusses resource dependence theory (RDT) as a lens for understanding why an organisation would initiate changes. The proponents of the resource dependence perspective maintain that ‘an organisation does not and cannot exist in a vacuum but has to interact with its environment for achieving its basic objectives’ (Gornitzka, 1999, p. 6). RDT proposes that the organisation–environment interaction determines the extent to which an organisation obtains the ‘critical resources’, such as raw materials, personnel, monetary resources and others resources (ibid.), which it needs for both its survival and its success. As described by Pfeffer and Salancik, the basic notion of RDT can be stated as ‘the key to organisational survival is the ability to acquire and maintain resources’ (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 2; Macedo & Pinho, 2006, p. 537). It therefore follows that in order for any organisation to survive and prosper it must interact with other elements in its environment in order to acquire the required resources. Specifically, the theory posits that, in order to ‘understand organisations one must understand how organisations relate to other social actors in their environment’ (Gornitzka, 1999, p. 7). This perspective denies the assumption that organisations are essentially self-sufficient, self-directed and isolated, and that they are autonomous actors pursuing their own ends within their social contexts. Instead, RDT argues that organisations are other-directed, constantly struggling to become autonomous of others and confronted by constraints and external control (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 257; Gornitzka, 1999, p. 7; Griffin & Dunn, 2004, p. 198; Macedo & Pinho, 2006, p. 537). This perspective emphasises that, while investigating the objective resources and interdependencies is crucial for understanding organisational changes, it is equally important to examine how the organisations perceive their environments or as Gornitzka (1999) expresses it:

How they act to control and avoid dependencies, the role of organisational leadership in these processes as well as the way internal power distributions affect and are affected by external dependencies’ (pp. 8–9).

The strength of RDT lies, firstly, in its emphasis on ‘intra-organisational factors to understand how organisations react and interact with their environments’ (Gornitzka, p. 8). In other words, understanding the internal processes within the organisation is considered to be vital for understanding why and how the organisation changes and also how and why a reform process either fails or is implemented successfully (ibid., p. 11). Secondly, the strength of RDT is also found in its emphasis on how organisations respond ‘strategically and

make active choices to manage their dependency on those parts of their task environment that control vital resources' (p. 7). In other words, the theory takes into account the role of active agents and strategic choice in the organisational responses to environmental change (p. 10). However, RDT has also been criticised for these very strengths. The central theoretical problem with RDT is the fact that it is inefficient when applied within the study of human service organisations. While resources are crucial to such organisations, this perspective ignores or at least underestimates other important factors that may affect the organisation–environment interaction, including ideologies, values, behaviour, norms and so forth (Patti, 2000, p. 141) and which would determine the success or failure of the organisational reform. In addition, the theory does not adequately suggest how an organisation should position itself with respect to non-monetary values within the context of the state experiencing a fiscal crisis.

According to the literature on this theory, the existence of the organisation depends on its access to vital resources. In other words, its operations are determined primarily by its resource dependency (Macedo & Pinho, 2006, p. 534). This appears to suggest that organisations which depend exclusively on either one or a few sources of resources are more vulnerable to experiencing constraints. According to Palmer and Randall (2002) in Macedo and Pinho (2006), 'the risk of having just one funding source means that, if that source is withdrawn, then the organisation is likely to fold' (p. 538).

Having described RDT, I proceed to discuss its applicability in relation to public higher education. I used RDT in this study because it provides a basis for understanding and explaining the relationship between public higher education and its dependency on government. In line with RDT, higher education institutions depend on their surrounding environments to supply the critical resources they need for their sustainability, for example finance. It is worth noting that the financing of public higher education is dependent on the economic performance of the government. Referring specifically to public higher education, the World Bank (2000) asserts that 'most public universities are highly dependent on central governments for their financial resources' (p. 25). Thus, governments, as the 'sole resource providers', control the 'niches' from which public higher education institutions obtain their essential resources. This suggests that the fate of public higher education is directly intertwined with government. In terms of RDT, it is evident that, if the flow of financial resources from the government were no longer stable and assured, the



organisational performance would be severely compromised. In other words, should there be economic stagnation in government, the public higher education institutions would be vulnerable to in financial stability and their ability to perform their operations would be affected. RDT recognises that, when the resource is both critical and scarce, the organisation is highly dependent on the supplier of that resource (Bess & Dee, 2008, p. 150). Based on Bess and Dee, it may be argued that the supplier of the resource (government, donors or any other source) determines the amount of resources made available to ‘the receivers’, that is, the public higher education institutions, while also dictating how the ‘the receivers’ will use the resources. Chapters one and two both discussed how the economic deterioration in African countries during the period from the 1970s to the early 1990s led to a financial crisis which, in turn, affected the flow of financial resources from the governments to public higher education institutions (cf. Federici & Caffentzis, 2004; Bloom *et al.*, 2006, World Bank, 2010). As a result, public higher education institutions failed to meet their objectives at the required level including expanding access to and equity.

In addition, RDT provides a useful understanding on how dependence on a single source of funds increases dependence on donors. More specifically, the decline in public funding to public higher education in Africa exposed the sector to donor influence. The literature available reveals how international organisations such as the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and donor agencies have affected the development of public higher education, particularly in Africa. As suppliers, these organisations decide where and how their financial assistance is to be used. A pertinent example is the diversion of funds to primary education with one source reporting that ‘the World Bank drew the conclusion that its lending strategy should emphasis primary education, relegating higher education to a relatively minor place on its development agenda’ (World Bank, 2000, p. 39). This has had a long-term impact on the development of higher education, with Samoff and Carrol (2004) reporting that ‘resources were to be redirected from higher education to basic education. Decay was the result’ (p. 2). It is also worth noting that, in the case of developing countries such as Tanzania, depending on donor support was also problematic. According to Macedo and Pinho (2006), ‘the price for attracting resources from donors can put the goals and values attached to the initial mission of a non-profit organisation at risk’ (p. 536). Faced with resource constraints, organisations such as public universities are forced to concentrate on and perform those activities in respect of which funding is easily available even if such activities do not correspond with the core purpose for which they were established (Bovaird

& Rubienska, in Macedo & Pinho, 2006, p. 536). Although it is not the intention of this study to assess the role of donors in the development of public higher education, the study will, nevertheless, highlight the influence of donor support on the activities of the university.

While RDT describes the consequences of depending on one source of resources, it also suggests how organisations such as public higher education institutions may exploit their environments in order to seek alternative sources of fund. In support of RDT, Gornitzka (1999) argues that ‘changes in resources flow and how they are structured will then bring about organisational change’ (p. 7). In addition, Singh, Power and Chuong (2011) argue that organisations ‘make changes to their internal processes to adapt to their organisational environments, attempt to change their organisational environments, and do both of these if and when possible’ (p. 50). In line with RDT, public higher education institutions adopted and implemented a ‘diverse revenue strategies’ as ‘a way of reducing resource dependence and maintaining organisational autonomy’ (Pfeffer & Salancik, in Macedo & Pinho, 2006, p. 538). As applied in public higher education, diversification implies that ‘the undertaking of income-generating activities can provide institutions with a more diversified and likely more stable funding base’ (World Bank, 1994, p. 7). In doing so, public higher education institutions would be able to generate the financial resources required to enable them to succeed and/or achieve their mission-related activities, including the expansion of student enrolment. In short, the survival of organisations, including public higher education institutions, depends on the way in which they utilise their environments to harness the available resources. In view of the financial constraints they were facing, public higher education institutions initiated reforms that reflected the adoption of the market approach. The following section describes the market approach as a strategy used by public higher education institutions to respond to the issue of resource dependency.

### **3.3 The market approach**

In the previous section mention was made of the fact that public higher education in many countries is funded and controlled by the government. The discussion on the introduction of the market approach to the provision of higher education draws on and extends the discussion in chapter one on concept analysis (cf. pp. 11-13). The available literature indicates that, until the mid-1980s, the state model of providing and funding public higher education was dominant in several countries, including African countries (Varghese, 2009). However, midway through the 1990s, government financial support to public higher education

institutions started to decline significantly as a result of the economic crisis of that time. In their work, *The marketisation of Chinese higher education*, Qiping and White (1994) argue that ‘the old pattern of the state as sole patron of higher education is incapable of taking the strain of a rapid expansion’ (p. 233). The Chinese situation provides evidence that the dominant model of government funding was inadequate to meet the evolving demands of higher education. Indeed, this was the case in many other countries, including African countries. This inefficiency of the state model was reflected in the decline in university activities, as well as the decline in student enrolment (Varghese, 2009, p. 8). It may be that Schiller and Liefner (2007) offered a solution to the problem of the financial austerity facing public higher education when they argue that ‘a certain level of commercialisation is necessary to ensure adequate responses to decreased public funding and new demands’ (p. 544). Young (2002) extends this argument by pointing that:

Higher education that exploits the tools of the market is, in part, a response to perceived government failure to rationally or efficiently determine supply, demand or the distribution of educational resources (p. 89).

The quotations cited above all indicate that the solution to the inefficiency associated with the state model in the provision of public higher education is in the hands of the market (Teixeira & Dill, 2011; Parker, 2011). Thus, the introduction of market competition within and between universities was intended to create institutions which were not only efficient but also effective (Naidoo, 2003, p. 250). In addition, Mok (2011) argues that ‘public services, including education, are believed to be run more efficiently and effectively if more ‘privateness’ is installed into the system’ (p. 28). This implies that the adoption of the market approach in public higher education was intended to enhance both efficiency and effectiveness by adopting ‘private sector principles and practices’ (Mok, 2001, p. 126). Adendorff (2010) also argues that the introduction of the market approach reflects ‘the influence of neo-liberal economic and business theory on the regulation and operation of public sector institutions, particularly higher education’ (p. 19), thus implying that ‘the market would run better education than the state or the public sector alone’ (Mok, 2011, p. 19). Other scholars, including Lynch (2006) and Collins and Roads (2008) express similar views. In short, public higher education institutions, previously funded by government, were reconstituted under the market approach to achieve ‘economic goals as well as standards of efficiency and effectiveness’ (Kezar, 2004, p. 450; see also Teixeira & Dill, 2011).

The introduction of the market approach brought with it an allegiance to both corporatisation and marketisation as reform strategies in public higher education. Although under corporatisation the government retains control, the government also provides a favourable environment for encouraging public higher education institutions to engage in market-oriented activities (Lee, 2004; Boyle & Throsby, 2012). As discussed in chapter one, in the provision of public higher education, corporatisation and marketisation fostered the adoption of practices and strategies similar to those used in the private sector. It is important to note that the adoption and implementation of the market approach through corporatisation and marketisation underpinned the need to improve efficiency, effectiveness and accountability in public higher education institutions. More specifically, the supporters of the market approach argue that the application of marketisation ostensibly seeks to make higher education institutions more flexible and more efficient (Furedi, 2011, p. 1). They base their argument on cost reduction, expanded provision, equity concerns and, more importantly, greater responsiveness to social and economic needs as possible benefits of the approach (Qiping & White, 1994). Massy (2004) contends that the imposition of market mechanisms and disciplines on the design, delivery and management of public services would sustain the drive towards strategic effectiveness and operational efficiency (p. 8). Susanti (2011) observes that the introduction of marketisation and privatisation to for-profit education would ensure that higher education would become more efficient, accountable and less bureaucratic (p. 209). Conversely, the introduction of marketisation also attracted criticism. Overall, Qiping and White (1994) provide a useful summary of the potential weaknesses associated with marketisation:

The creation of an increasingly inegalitarian society; a fragmentation of knowledge; an increase in transaction costs through the imposition of overly detailed systems of performance evaluation; a potential decline in the quality of teaching and research; the overheated pursuit of immediate, short-term interests at the expense of long-term social and intellectual needs (p. 233).

The adoption of the market approach has been perceived as a paradigm shift that redirected the focus of public higher education institutions towards what Aina (2010) termed the ‘market-driven university mission’ (p. 31). In illustrating this shift, Parker (2012) observes that ‘the financial objectives and associated strategies have become the primary drivers of university structures, overall strategies and behaviours’ (p. 262). In varying degrees, public higher education institutions in various countries have introduced market-driven strategies in

their operations. In short, as Lee (2004) argues, public higher education institutions engage in diverse ‘market-related activities’ (p. 36) in order to compensate for diminished government resources. It is not difficult to find examples of income-generating strategies in public higher education institutions. Gumport and Sporn (1999) provide an example of public colleges and universities seeking out new student markets or new sources for research funding as strategies for generating revenue (p. 30). Focusing on non-profit organisations, in their study, ‘The relationship between resource dependence and market orientation’, Macedo and Pinho (2006) reported that public organisations obtained their funds from various sources, including state funding, self-generated revenue resources such as fees and charges, commercial activities and income from investment as well as private funding (p. 538). A further means by which public higher education institutions in many countries generate income is through curriculum reform toward the more market-oriented approach. Public universities responded by introducing part-time degree programmes (parallel degree programmes) in terms of which students are charged fees comparable to those charged by private universities (Mutula, 2002, p. 117). Writing on Kenyan public universities, Nafukho (2004, p. 138) and Wangenge-Ouma (2008, p. 460) cite the introduction of self-sponsored degree programmes, parallel degree programmes, evening degree programmes, sandwich programmes and school-based programmes as strategies for generating additional income. The students who enrolled in these programmes paid the full cost of the programmes and did not receive any form of government sponsorship. In the same vein, in his work, ‘Marketizing higher education in post-Mao China’, Mok (2000) discusses a similar pattern adopted by Chinese higher education. Parker (2012) went further by arguing that ‘knowledge and intellectual capital has been transformed from a social and public good into a commercial commodity: an asset with profound revenue generating capabilities’ (p. 262).

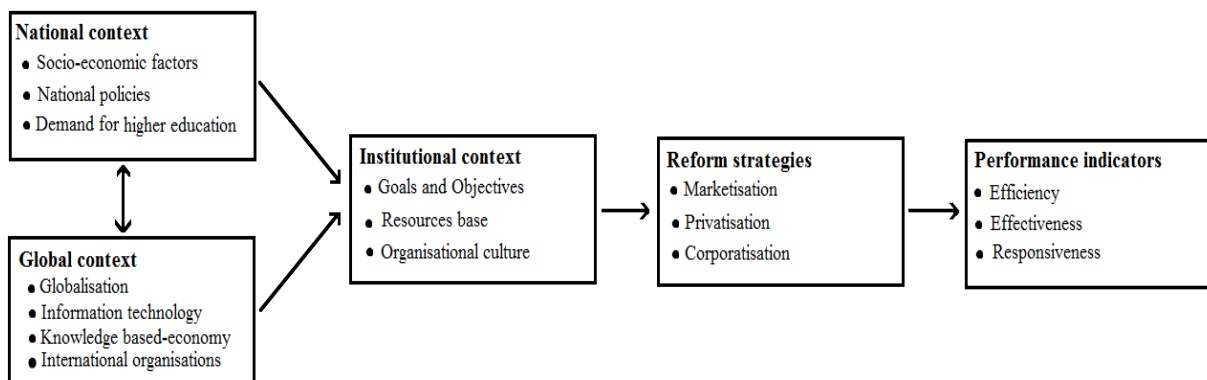
The lesson gleaned from the above discussion suggests that the adoption and implementation of a market approach reduced the dependency of public higher education institutions on government subsidies. The reform initiated in terms of the market approach propelled public higher education institutions to diversify their sources of funds in order both to survive and to continue to carry out their mandate, including expanding their student intake. The analysis above, as well as the discussion in chapter one, revealed that the adoption of the market approach was intended as a response to the economic woes that impinged on the efficiency and effectiveness of the public higher education sector. In particular, the reform replicated corporate practices in the public higher education institutions in order to improve the

efficiency, effectiveness and responsiveness of higher education. In short, the market approach, which both embraces corporatisation and marketisation, has strategically and structurally transformed public higher education institutions by ensuring that they become more efficient and effective in their response to the diverse demands of higher education while at the same time addressing the national development goals. In order to build a strong and relevant public higher education I support Kezar (2004), who suggests obtaining a ‘balance between the demands of market forces and the public good’ (p. 453).

### **3.4 The conceptual framework**

The conceptual framework used in this study integrates the two theoretical perspectives and also supplements them with the literature review on higher education in order to examine and explain how the organisation in question responded to changes in its environment. The proposed conceptual framework comprises five components, namely, national level, global level, institutional level, reform style and trend, as well as organisational performance indicators. In developing this conceptual framework, I started with resource dependence theory, which recognises that ‘organisational environment plays an important role in influencing the ability of the organisations to survive and prosper’ (Singh *et al.*, 2011, p. 51). In addition, drawing on the work of Bourgeois, Singh *et al.* observe that the environment may be studied at three levels, namely, environment as objects, attributes or perceptions (*ibid.*). In this study, I chose to use the first perspective, which views the environment as objects, because it provides an appropriate interpretation that brings together the interaction between national–global–institutional environments. The environment-as-objects perspective may be further subdivided into two categories, namely, ‘task’ and ‘general’ environments. The first category, ‘the task environment’, is consists of ‘suppliers, customers, and other stakeholders that the organisation closely interacts with and whose actions can directly affect the organisation’ (*ibid.*). In the conceptual framework used in this study, the national and global contexts fit into this category. The second category “the general environment’ is composed of multiple task environments that are sources of general social, political, economic, demographic and technological trends” (*ibid.*). According to Doty *et al.* in Singh *et al.*, the environment as objects perspective proposes that the task environment is located within the jurisdiction of an organisation’s influence while the general environment is usually ‘remote’ to an organisation while the organisation cannot easily influence this general environment (p. 51).

The conceptual framework proposes that forces operating within the national, global and institutional contexts provide an impetus for the transformation of public higher education institutions. In addition, the conceptual framework acknowledges that the task environment (which consists of the national and global contexts) influences the internal structure and dynamics at the institution level. At this juncture, it may be argued that, in order to examine changes in public higher education institutions, it is crucially important to understand the dynamics operating at the national, global and institutional levels and their interactions (Gornitzka, 1999, p. 5). In the first place, there is the national–global relationship. Each or both (national and global), directly and/or indirectly, simultaneously influence the performance of public higher education institutions. This suggests a need to address the challenges emanating from the national and global contexts and from within the institution itself and which necessitate the reforms. In this respect, I agree with Assié-Lumumba (2006) who argues that ‘a fundamental rationale for undertaking a reform or a planned innovation is the assumption or fact that the existing system is unable to achieve previously targeted objectives or is inadequate to support or advance new objectives’ (p. 94). Based on the above, higher education institutions should introduce reform measures in order to improve their operational efficiency and effectiveness (Varghese, 2009, p. 15). The relationship between the main components of the conceptual framework and the way in which they interact to inform and shape the reform process are presented diagrammatically in Figure 3.1.



**Figure 3.1:** A conceptual framework for analysing the corporatisation of public universities

Source: Developed from literature.

### 3.5 The components of the conceptual framework

As discussed earlier, the conceptual framework consists of five quadrants. An understanding of the components of the framework is important in order to comprehend why and how

public higher education institutions and universities, in particular, initiate and implement reform strategies in a manner that enables them to continue to fulfil their mandate.

### **The national context**

The first component of the framework consists of the factors operating at the national level that impacted on the functioning of higher education and universities, in particular. The frequently cited factors that collectively influence higher education include social, economic and political factors and their related policies. This is the case because education, in general, and higher education, in particular, is inherently vested in specific national objectives. In other words, the national government is usually responsible for developing the policy framework that shapes and guides the provision of education (Marginson, 2010, p. 6962). In this regard, the goals and objectives of education and higher education, in particular, are usually drawn from the national philosophy and policies of a country as well as in alliance with global expectations. Thus, as Gornitzka, Kogan and Amaral (2005) observe, ‘national higher education policies cannot be seen in isolation from other national policies’ (p. 6). This suggests that any change in national priorities would also affect the provision of education and, thus, also higher education.

It has been established that the economy and particularly the state fiscal conditions determine the state’s support for the provision of services, including higher education. It was discussed in the previous chapters that higher education in virtually every country depends on government funding with the result that any changes in the fiscal resources will affect the ability of the country concerned to support higher education. For example, as a result of fiscal and budgetary constraints, public higher education has failed both to meet the increased demand for higher education and to improve its quality and relevance in many of the developing countries, including Tanzania. In addition to the economic state of the country, the provision of higher education is also affected by social, political and global circumstances. The educational implication of these forces is that they exert pressure on public higher education institutions, and public universities in particular, in many parts of the world to transform their modes of operations. These forces, in turn, act as driving forces that shape and determine the direction of the educational reforms as well as higher education policies. For example, liberalisation of economy in Tanzania was followed by the introduction of cost sharing in the provision of public services including higher education.



## The global context

The convergence of the global forces of globalisation; information technology, knowledge-based economy and international organisations have, together, influenced national policy changes and impacted on the operations of higher education systems. In other words, it may be argued that the global forces have a significant impact on the character and functions of higher education in many countries of the world. As Varghese (2009) observes:

Globalisation has changed the purpose and orientation of education in many countries. While universities were associated with and seen as an integral part of the national development efforts in the past, they are increasingly becoming an integral part of the production of skills for global market (p. 14).

This, in turn, has an effect on education systems. As Lee (2004) writes:

Education changes in any particular society are not only related to its socio-economic and political development but are also influenced by global forces and global trends. As the global forces impinge on national economic, social, political and cultural context, governments have to respond by initiating education changes to meet these global imperatives (p. 31).

The above quotations suggest that higher education policies are no longer based solely on or benchmarked in accordance with national norms and circumstances (Beerkens, 2004, p. 19). Instead, they are required to cater for national and international demands. Similarly, the emergence of the global knowledge economy, which is built on knowledge, has impacted on higher education. It is argued that, since knowledge is the main driver of the knowledge economy, then ‘the knowledge economy is transforming the demands of the labour market in economies throughout the world’ (World Bank, 2003, p. xvii, 1). In practice, the knowledge economy strengthens the demand for high-quality skills. Accordingly, higher education is viewed as a pivotal or developmental tool to enable the country concerned to enter and participate in the global knowledge economy through the training of not only an adequate but also a well-trained labour force (Carnoy, 1999).

However, globalisation and the knowledge-based economy are not the only global forces that are impacting on higher education. The available literature indicates that international organisations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, as well as donors, exert influence in the shaping and functioning of higher education policies (Teferra, 2008, p. 46). For example, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, through the

strategies for educational reforms that they have promulgated, have had significant influence on education in general, and specifically on higher education in developing countries (Lynch, 2013, p. 2). Several of the reforms in education and in higher education in particular have been either initiated or institutionalised by the World Bank and by donors, with the main focus on quality, relevance and equity, among others. In short, all of the demands discussed above imply the need for profound reforms if higher education is to reorient towards strong higher education institutions capable of addressing the global requirements associated with globalisation and the global knowledge economy on one hand and meeting the economic, social and political demands of the nation concerned on the other.

### **The institutional context**

The institutional context represents the internal environment of the institutions of higher education. Higher education institutions are not immune from the forces that cause changes at the national and globe levels. More specifically, higher education is located at the intersection of the global and national and, thus, the influences from these levels impact on the operations of higher education institutions. Thus, it may be argued that the demands from the national and global levels shape and inform the reforms at the institutional level in terms of mission and strategies. The internal forces within the institution include budget constraints, the need to address the increased social demand for higher education, as well as the organisational culture. For example, as a result of fiscal constraints, public higher education institutions have adopted the market model as a reform strategy to search for new sources of funds to replace declining government funding (Deem, 2001, p. 11). Indeed, it is believed that the shift from the state control model to the market approach will give public universities the autonomy to manage themselves independently in the areas of finance, academic programmes and personnel (Yamamoto, 2004).

In addition to the internal factors which explained the quest for change, the reforms were also motivated by the external pressure exerted by global forces, for example, globalisation and the concomitant knowledge-based economy and information technology, together with the influence of international organisations, notably the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. The national, global and institutional demands called for responses that aimed to ‘solve problems of cost, quality, effectiveness, and access’ (Gumport and Sporn, 1999, p. 6). It follows that public universities either institute reforms or develop strategies in

order to respond to the imperative needs of socioeconomic, political as well as global change. At this juncture, it may be argued that reforming and/or restructuring public universities would constitute an appropriate strategy with which to respond to the demands of the ever-changing socio-economic and political environments, while at the same time maintaining the global competitiveness of individual nation-states (Mok, 2005, p. 539; Mok, 2007, p. 271). Thus, higher education institutions are required to revisit their goals and objectives, while the realisation of these goals and objectives depends on both the availability of financial resources and the organisational culture.

### **The reform strategies**

This section discusses the strategies used by public higher education institutions to improve their internal processes and performance. In pursuit of this objective, public higher education institutions adopted market-driven reform strategies which embraced commercialisation, corporatisation and privatisation (Mok, 2005, p. 540). The introduction of market reform strategies in public higher education was, arguably, triggered by the declining public financial support. Accordingly, several market-oriented strategies have been employed in order to diversify financial resources. These strategies include charging student tuition fees, increasing the number of students, working with businesses and industry, and offering professional courses, consultancy and community services (Mok, 2007, p. 274) while ‘continually seeking cost efficiencies in its own internal operations’ (Parker, 2012, p. 259).

The alignment of public higher education institutions to the marketplace led, in turn, to the emergence of a new form of institutional management, that is, the entrepreneurial model. The literature on the entrepreneurial university model indicates that there is a strong movement towards the emergence of an entrepreneurial university (Etzkowitz, Webster, Gebhardt & Terra, 2000, p. 314) and its rate and level of intensity vary across universities and countries (Shattock, 2005, p. 15). The imperative for adopting the entrepreneurial university model is viewed as a strategy to freed public universities from the constraints imposed by either restrictive regimes or by the state’s conventions in the running of higher education systems (Clark, 2001; Shattock, 2005, p. 17). In the context of declining public funding, public universities have been forced to adopt entrepreneurship (De Zilwa, 2005). The distinctive feature of entrepreneurial university as indicated in the literature is the creation of new and diversified sources of revenue through entrepreneurial activities. It is worth noting that the

reason for engaging in entrepreneurial activities went beyond income generation as summarised by Etzkowitz *et al.* (2000): ‘entrepreneurial activities are undertaken with the objective of improving regional or national economic performance as well as the university’s financial advantages and that of its faculty’ (p. 313). Such entrepreneurial activities include, among others, commercialisation of research, consultancy, investments, student tuition and fees and royalties (De Zilwa, 2005). It is also evident that entrepreneurship has promoted other advantages such as encouragement of innovative academic behaviour, reinforcement of academic performance by attracting additional resources as well as encouragement of partnerships with external bodies (Shattock, 2005, p. 17). In a nutshell, entrepreneurial university denotes ‘the self-steering, self-reliance, progressive university’ which ‘seeks opportunities beyond means currently available’ (Clark, 2001, p. 23). In describing entrepreneurial university, Marginson & Considine (2000) viewed it as ‘one dimensional institution solely dominated by profit seeking, an organisational culture totally reduced to the business firm’ (p. 4). Underlying this logic is the trend towards marketisation and privatisation into the running of public services such as education which emphasised on effectiveness, efficiency and economy in the delivery of public services (Chan & Mok, 2001; p. 22). Drawing on Watford (1990), Chan and Mok (2001) make the point that the introduction of privatisation and marketisation was based on the belief that this would make the public sector more effective and more efficient as well as more accountable to the public and more responsive to the changing demands of the public. It may, thus, be concluded that the quest for public universities to become more entrepreneurial has been heightened by their need to promote their financial sustainability while still fulfilling their traditional mission of teaching, research and service to the public. Nevertheless, the involvement of public universities in entrepreneurial activities has been viewed as a threat to the nature and purpose of public higher education. For example, some critics have raised a fundamental concern with regards to entrepreneurial university model by arguing that depending on non-state resources as well as engaging with commerce and industry would displace the traditional role of universities of acting as critics of the society (Shattock, 2005). The model has also been criticised for reducing research to consultancy.

### **Organisational performance indicators**

Captured in the left box of Figure 3.1 are organisational performance indicators. Organisational performance is evaluated on outcomes based on the organisation’s objectives.

It can be expected that the higher education institution that had transformed as a result of the adoption of a market approach and had adopted an entrepreneurial model in its management, would manifest increased efficiency, effectiveness and responsiveness as performance indicators in its operations (Clark, 1998; Vaira, 2004, p. 490; Mok, 2005, p. 540). The performance of the university is a function of the interdependence between its organisational structure and its 'environment'. Pitti (2000) maintains that performance describes 'how the output of the process confirms to requirements, expectations or goals and indicates how well an individual, a group or organisational process is working' (p. 156). In this respect, the performance of the university is measured on the basis of how well the university has utilised its resources in order to realise its goals and objectives.

Prominent in the evaluation of the performance outcomes/indicators of a transformed university are the goals of efficiency, effectiveness and responsiveness in its operations (Parker, 2012, p. 250). Pitti (2000) lists the criteria that may be used to measure institutional performance including, among others, counts (productivity), costs (efficiency) or client improvement (effectiveness). RDT uses two perspectives, namely, the external and the internal, to examine the effects of the environment on organisations (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 2). The external perspective relates to organisational effectiveness and focuses on how the various groups and participants, for example, customers, assess and/or react to the organisation's output and activities. According to RDT, effectiveness is viewed as the ability of an organisation to manage the demands placed on it by a variety of interest groups, both individuals and other organisations, which provide it with resources and support (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 2; 32). Pfeffer and Salancik argue that the effectiveness of an organisation implies 'an external standard of how well an organisation is meeting the demands of the various groups and organisations that concerned with its activities' and is expressed as its 'ability to create acceptable outcomes and actions' (p. 11). In short, organisational effectiveness is an external standard which is used by those outside the organisation to judge the quality of outputs or activities of the organisation through established and appropriate goals, based on the environment and demands (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 11; Cameron & Whetten, cited in Gumport & Sporn, 1999, p. 12). In this study, the operating performance measures used to measure organisational effectiveness focused on how outcome goals have met and contribute to the societal and economic needs of the country in terms of the relevance of the curricular, acceptability of the graduates in employment, consultancy and research output.

On the other hand, the internal perspective focuses on organisational efficiency and is expressed mainly in terms of the amount of resources utilised by the organisation to produce its outputs or carry out its activities (Singh *et al.*, 2011, p. 51). Singh *et al.* (2011) further argue that organisational efficiency is an internal measure or standard of goal achievement and is expressed as the ratio of resources utilised to the output produced (*ibid.*). In this study the efficiency of the organisation will be examined in terms of capacity utilisation, student intake with respect to size and equity, staff/student ratios as well as research and consultancy outputs. While efficiency and effectiveness criteria provide a means of evaluating organisational performance, they also provide a basis for effecting improvements. In this case, it is important to reinforce the basic structures within the institution that drive the levels of performance over time. In short, I will use the conceptual framework to examine and analyse whether transformation through corporatisation at the University of Dar es Salaam has addressed the transformation goals of increased access and equity.

### **3.6 Conclusion**

In this chapter an attempt was made to develop a conceptual framework that descriptively analyses how public higher education institutions and universities, in particular, respond to the changes in their environments. I used two theoretical perspectives, namely, resource dependence theory and the market approach, together with relevant literature on higher education, to develop the conceptual framework. In addition, I attempted to illustrate contextual factors that trigger the need for the transformation of public universities. I also described the strategies used by universities to address the challenges confronting higher education institutions in Africa, and Tanzania in particular. Finally, the conceptual framework describes the performance indicators which may be used to judge either the success or failure of reform at the institutional level. In short, it is argued that a transformed higher education within the context of market approach will lead to a higher education system that is more efficient, more effective and more responsive in its operations or practices.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### Research design and methodology

#### 4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I presented the conceptual framework that informed and guided this study. This chapter describes the methodological procedures that were considered necessary for collecting data pertinent to the research questions described in chapter one. The chapter begins by describing the research design used. The sample and sampling techniques used to guide the selection of a research site and the participants are discussed in detail. I also explain the data collection methods and the techniques I used to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings. The chapter also focuses on the way the data were analysed, the ethical considerations for this study, as well as the procedures used to gain access to the research site and the participants. In the final section of this chapter I highlight the challenges I encountered during this study.

#### 4.2 The purpose of the study restated

As described in chapter one, the major purpose of this study was to examine and analyse how the adoption and implementation of corporatisation addressed the challenges of equity and access at the University of Dar es Salaam. The study was based on the assumption that widening access to and equity in education, and higher education in particular, is a prerequisite in the process of national development and also to increasing the ability of a country to compete in the global knowledge economy.

#### The main research question restated

How did corporatisation increase access and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania?

#### Sub-research questions restated

- What was the nature and character of the transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam?
- How did corporatisation address the imperatives of access and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam?

- How did corporatisation at the University of Dar es Salaam address national development priorities?

### **4.3 Research design and its justification**

In this study, I employed a qualitative case study design. I chose a case study design because it allowed me to answer the questions of why, what and how (Meredith, cited in Voss, Tsikriktsis & Frohlich, 2002, p. 197) the corporatisation of the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) facilitated access and equity. The use of a case study was informed by the fact that the corporatisation of public higher education is a recent phenomenon in the African context and one which has not been adequately explored and documented. As Punch (2009, p. 123) argues, a case study is suitable in a situation in which our knowledge about a particular phenomenon is shallow, fragmented, incomplete or non-existent. Another advantage of using a case study design is that it allows for an in-depth understanding of a particular phenomenon in its natural setting. I considered that a study of ‘one case’, namely, the University of Dar es Salaam, would help to systematically examine and analyse the nature and character of the corporatisation of the university. In particular, the study employed a descriptive case study (Vos, Strydom & Delport, 2011, p. 321), also called the intrinsic case study (Punch, 2009, p. 119). By providing a descriptive narrative of the UDSM’s experience with transformation, it would enable one to theorise transformation in Tanzania’s oldest higher education institution.

### **4.4 Sample and sampling techniques**

In this section, I discussed sample and sampling techniques I used to select the research site and the participants. The selection and application of relevant selection procedures was deemed important as they determine the quality and depth of the information collected.

#### **4.4.1 The sample**

The selection of the sample involved two stages, namely, the selection of the research site and the selection of the participants.

#### **Research site**

I purposively selected the UDSM as it exemplifies a public university where transformation using the market approach has been in process since 1994. I considered this university as a typical case because it offers a range of experiences and changing policy contexts with



respect to corporatisation as compared to other public higher education institutions in Tanzania. In addition, the UDSM is the oldest, publicly funded university in Tanzania. I believed that, through its long period of existence, the university has undergone significant institutional reforms, some of which have focused on access to and equity in education. Of all public higher education institutions in Tanzania, the UDSM was the first to adopt and implement corporate strategies through a systematic programme of self-evaluation and reform, known as the University of Dar es Salaam's Institutional Transformation Programme in 1994 (UDSM, 2004a, pp. 1–2; UDSM, 2009b, p. viii). Thus, epistemologically, the UDSM represented an ideal institution where corporatisation as a reform strategy could be studied in depth. Its history in terms of pioneering transformation enabled me to evaluate the implementation of corporate strategies with respect to addressing access and equity concerns as reflected in the reform programme and as depicted in its policies and planning documents.

## **Participants**

The participants were selected from among the staff and students leaders at the UDSM. It was not possible, however, to involve all the staff members and, thus, I selected a sample of staff to be included in the present study. Maxfield and Babbie (2009) suggest two reasons why sampling is deemed important in any study. Firstly, it is often not possible to collect information from all the persons or other units the researcher wishes to study and, secondly, it is often not necessary to collect data from all these persons or other units (p. 141). Based on the above, I selected a sample consisting of 30 participants – 21 men and nine women. The inclusion of nine women (33.3%) in this study was a fair representation of the female staff who account for 32% (951) of the total number of the university staff (2999) (UDSM, 2011a, p. 23). I used the following sampling criteria in terms of which to select the participants: sex, administrative position, experience and academic discipline. The profile of participants interviewed is presented in appendix L. I considered that selecting such a diverse group of informed participants would provide rich, relevant and reliable information and, thus, ensure a greater depth of understanding of the research problem.

### **4.4.2 The sampling techniques**

The purpose of the study was to obtain a deeper understanding of the way in which the implementation of corporate strategies had addressed the imperative of access and equity at the UDSM. As mentioned in the previous section, not all the university staff participated in

the study. It was on this basis that I decided on stratified purposive and snowball sampling techniques in order to select the participants who were deemed to be knowledgeable about the research problem. According to Vos *et al.* (2011), the overall purpose of using a relevant sampling technique in qualitative research is to collect the richest data possible (p. 391). As Patton (1990) notes, the use of the purposive sampling technique to select participants is because ‘the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth’ (p. 169). He adds that information-rich cases are those from which one may learn a great deal about issues which are of central importance to the purpose of the research study. Thus, I used the experience of those individuals who were either part of the organisation or who had carried out the transformation process (Seidman, 2006, p. 10) to yield the most relevant and rich data which was required to answer the research questions (Yin, 2011, p. 88). In short, I selected staff members who had been working at the university for a lengthy period of time because they would probably have been present at the inception of the transformation process. I therefore agree with Marshall and Rossman (2011), who observed that individuals with a long working history generally have a broader view of an organisation’s policies, histories and plans (p. 155). I also used the same procedure to select trade union leaders who represent university employees in various fora. With respect to the student participants, I selected student leaders based on their involvement in student life. In addition to the purposeful sampling technique, I also employed a snowball sampling technique to enable me to access knowledgeable individuals who would be important to the study but of whom I was not aware. After each interview session, I requested the participant concerned to suggest other possible participants who could be approached for interviews and who, in his/her opinion, may have been able to offer information useful to the study. Further to this, I also used snowball sampling as a ‘networking technique’ which, in turn, facilitated access to and helped to ensure the cooperation of the interviewees (Scheyvens, Scheyvens & Murray, 2003, p. 185).

#### **4.5 Data collection methods**

The selection of data collection methods is directly related to the nature of the research problem under investigation and how the methods selected would suit the research questions of the study. I am in agreement with Seidman (2006) that the selection of a method of data collection depends, amongst other things, on the purpose of the study, the questions being asked, the resources available and the skill of the researcher (p. 11). I was also aware that

using one method of data collection only to answer a policy question would inevitably yielded biased and limited results. Yin (2003) posits that a notable hallmark of a case study is the use of various, different sources of evidence (p. 85). Accordingly, I used two methods of data collection, namely, the interview and a document review. The use of the two methods was anchored on the premise that any weaknesses inherent in one method would be compensated for by the strengths in the other (Desimone, 2009, p. 166). In essence, I used more than one data source in order to establish the convergence of different perspectives from the diverse group of the participants as well as the diverse documents used. In qualitative research such as this, the reality is arrived at a point when ideas, views or opinions convergence. The use of more than one method of data collection implies ‘triangulation’ in a study (Yin, 2009, p. 115) and this, in turn, emphasises that the phenomenon may be viewed and explored from multiple perspectives. In short, the use of more than one source of data enhanced both the credibility and the validity of this study.

#### 4.5.1 Interviews

I used an in-depth, face-to-face, semi-structured interview. Such interviews are regarded both as essential and as one of the most recommended sources of collecting information in a case study (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006, pp. 40–41). I used the interview because of its power in accessing people’s perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and reality (Punch, 2009, p. 144). In this study, I was also interested to obtaining participants’ narratives about their views and experiences regarding the application of corporatisation as an institutional reform strategy. Informed by the social constructivist approach discussed in chapter one, I viewed the qualitative interview as ‘a construction site of knowledge’ (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 2) because the participants were potential sources of information for answering the research questions. Specifically, I employed a semi-structured interview as the information digging tool. I decided to use the semi-structured interview (a set of predetermined, open-ended questions) for four reasons: Firstly, I was interested in obtaining similar information from all the participants with respect to the implementation of corporate strategies at the university. Secondly, the semi-structured interview allows considerable flexibility in the scope and depth of the information sought. Thirdly, semi-structured interviews would provide additional information that would help me to verify the information I obtained from the documents reviewed. Fourthly, semi-structured interviews would help me to compare the participants’

responses and to understand their unique experiences of the implementation of corporate strategies over time.

The initial plan was to include the three current three top executive university management officials. However, this was not possible mainly because they were so involved in their duties in and out of their offices. For example, I made about five attempts to set up an appointment to interview one of the top executive management officers. Unfortunately, I did not manage to get an opportunity to interview him. Indeed, I was keenly interested in interviewing him because he had participated in several internal institutional evaluation teams. On the other hand, I did manage to interview three senior academics who had been members of the top executive management at the outset of the transformation process. These included the chief academic officer (CACO), the chief administrative officer (CADO) and the Programme Managing Unit (PMU) officer who is currently the vice-chancellor of the Open University of Tanzania. Unfortunately, I did not manage to conduct a face-to-face interview with the former vice-chancellor, Mathew Luhanga. He, however, did inform me in telephone conversation that I can still obtain his inputs and referred me to his publications and, more specifically, his recent book titled *The courage for change: Re-engineering the University of Dar es Salaam* published in 2009. In this work he narrates his experience at the university as a vice-chancellor. Although I was not able to gain additional information from him through probing questions, I often cited some of his ideas to complement the views captured from the other participants. In the history of the university the four top management executive officers mentioned above are considered to have been the architects of the institutional transformation programme. However, I interviewed the directors, deputy directors, the acting campus college principal, the deans, a head of department and senior academics, as well as junior academics, senior administrative staff, trade union leaders, academic assembly leaders and student leaders. Table 4.1 (p. 86) presents the participants in terms of status and gender.

Before I engaged in the actual data collection, I requested one of the senior members in my academic unit to help me to identify possible participants for this study. I was able to draw up a tentative list of potential participants and their respective academic units. I approached as many participants as I could in their offices and briefed them about the purpose and procedures of the study. Eventually, I requested their participation. According to Seidman (2006, p. 48), a contact visit serves three purposes. Firstly, it enables an interviewer to

become familiar with the setting in which potential participants work before the actual interview.

**Table 4.1:** Research participants by status and gender

Status	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Top executive management officers*	2	1	3
Directors	3	3	6
Deputy directors	2	0	2
Acting principal	1	0	1
Dean	1	1	2
Department head	1	0	1
Senior academics	3	3	6
Junior academics	2	0	2
Senior administrative staff	1	0	1
Trade union leaders	2	0	2
Academic assembly leaders	2	0	2
Student leaders	1	1	2
<b>Grand total</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>30</b>

\*Indicates top executive management officers at the onset of the transformation programme.

Secondly, it helped to determine whether potential participants are interested in participating or not and, thirdly, it initiates the process of informed consent. I consequently managed to set up appointments and fix interview dates and times with the participants. Furthermore, I requested the participants to allow me to use their offices to conduct the interviews and they agreed. Before commencing with the interview session, I provided the participant with an informed consent form which explained the purpose of the study as well as the research procedures to assist him/her in making the decision on whether or not to participate. Each participant individually read the consent form and signed it. During the interview session, I used an interview protocol which contained instructions and guiding questions with spaces between each to enable me to take notes of the interviewee's responses (Creswell, 2012, p. 225).

The interview questions solicited information pertaining to the five domains of inquiry, namely, administrative-related issues, academic-related issues, student admission and welfare issues as well as institutional sources of income. Personal interviews of approximately 30 to 90 minutes in length were conducted with the participants. It should be noted that the duration of the interview was determined by the knowledge base of the participant with respect to the questions asked. Towards the end of each interview, I asked the participant to

reflect on the interview session and to provide a summary of it. In order to obtain divergent views, I prepared five sets of interview guiding schedules based on the position of the participant(s) at the institution.

- Interview guide for university executive management (Appendix G)
- Interview guide for senior academics (Appendix H)
- Interview guide for academic association leaders (Appendix I)
- Interview guide for trade union leaders (Appendix J)
- Interview guide for student leaders (Appendix K)

Apart from the questions indicated in the interview guides, I also asked probing questions on key responses from the participants. The aim was to obtain implicit information and thus improve the completeness and accuracy of the information. In addition to noting down the responses of the participants, I also requested the participants' permission to tape record the conversations for later review and analysis in order to help me to cross-check the accuracy of information collected during the interview sessions. One participant requested that the interview not be tape recorded. After each interview session, I thanked the participant as a 'potential source of information' for sharing his/her time and knowledge with me. In addition, I requested each participant for permission to integrate some of his/her responses into the findings of the study. All the interviews were conducted in English.

#### 4.5.2 Document review

Documents provide another rich source of data with which to corroborate and augment the evidence I obtained from the interviews. In this way, an analysis of institutional and national documents was done to enrich and strengthen the trustworthiness of the data. In view of the nature of the inquiry, I used documents as a valuable source of information because they provided detailed insights into the functions of the university. According to, Hatch (2002), documents may be powerful indicators of the value systems operating within an institution (p. 117). This implies that documents form a written record of the official activities of an institution. I was however fully aware of the drawbacks of using documents alone as a source of data because, in certain circumstances, they may offer a distorted view of events and social contexts. Thus, in order to overcome this weakness, I consulted diverse types of documents that contained considerable information about institutional values and practices with respect

to the key research questions of the study. Most of the documents I used were obtained from the transformation office and from specific units or sections, for example, the Quality Assurance Bureau, the Directorate of Planning and Finance, the Directorate of Undergraduate Studies, the Gender Centre and the College of Engineering and Technology. The primary documents I selected and accessed for the purposes of the study included all documents that had been formally authored or edited by the institution, *inter alia*, strategic plans, policies, annual reports, evaluation and monitoring reports and prospectuses. Others included tracer studies, academic audit reports, Chancellor Visitation Reports, facts and figures and admission records. I also accessed the national education policy documents, as well as the National Development Policy itself. Table 4.2 (p. 89) presents a summary of the documents accessed and reviewed.

As indicated in Table 4.2, I extracted an array of institutional information including, among others, the university mission, vision and values, expansion trends with respect to enrolment, resources and finance as well as challenges faced. The analysis of the documents served the following functions. First, the documents provided background information with respect to the transformation process such as, for example, Luhanga *et al.* (2003): ‘The national economic crisis, which reached disastrous proportions in the early 1980s, had serious repercussions on the functioning of the University’ (p. 48). The document adds ‘consequently, life at the University became characterised by decaying infrastructure, staff attrition, reduced student enrolment and scarcity of books and other teaching materials’ (p. 49). Secondly, the documents (especially the evaluation and monitoring reports) provided information about the achievements of the university with respect to the original objectives and expectations. Thirdly, the review of consultative meeting reports and tracer studies, for example, provided a first-hand account of the stakeholders’ views on the performance of the university with respect to the envisaged transformation goals. Fourthly, the document analysis helped me to frame the interview sessions and to formulate questions directed specifically at the transformation process. In short, the documents provided detailed information about strategies and agendas pertaining to the way in which the institution envisaged itself because they revealed the goals, visions, values, and directions that characterised the university.

**Table 4.2:** Documents reviewed by year of publication, source and type of data extracted

Year	Source	Type of data extracted
<b>A: Institutional documents</b>		
1982	Calendars for academic years 1982/83–1984/85	Courses, University Act of 1970
1999	Report on: The Proposed Organisational Structure of the University of Dar es Salaam, Version No.5.	Administration related issues
2005	Report on the 2004 UDSM Academic Audit	Evaluation of academic activities
2007	Quality assurance policy	Quality performance on institutional core activities
2007	The University of Dar Es Salaam Charter, 2007.	Administrative and legal procedures
Various	Proceedings of the Annual Consultative Workshop on the UDSM Transformation Programme	Review of institutional performance as regards strategic plans: strengths and weaknesses
Various	Facts and figures	Statistics: enrolment, graduation rates, staff profile, finance, etc.
Various	Strategic plans	Mission, vision, goals and objectives
Various	Prospectuses	Various courses
2008	UDSM Research Policy and Operational Procedures	Research performance indicators: quality, relevance, efficiency, effectiveness etc.
2011	Report of the Chancellor's Visitation Panel	Institutional performance indicators
<b>B: National documents</b>		
1995	Education and Training Policy	Policy directives
1996	The Technical Education and Training Policy in Tanzania Dar es Salaam	Policy directives
1998a	The Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1977	Legal aspects
1999	National Higher Education Policy	Policy directives
1999	The Tanzania Development Vision 2025	Development aspiration goals and strategies
2004	Education Sector Development Programme: Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) 2004–2009	Sector development objectives and projections
2005	Facts about Basic Education in Tanzania	Statistics: enrolment, finance etc.
2005	The Universities Act No. 7 of 2005	Administrative and legal issues
2010	Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST), 2006–2010, Dar es Salaam	Statistics on enrolment, progression etc.
2010	Higher Education Development Programme, 2010–2015	Goals, enrolment and finance projection, etc.
<b>C: Others</b>		
2003	Higher Education Reforms in Africa: The University of Dar es Salaam Experience (Luhanga <i>et al.</i> , 2003).	Institutional data
2008	In Searching of Relevance: A History of the University of Dar es Salaam [Kimambo, Mapunda & Lawi (eds). (2008)].	Institutional data
2009	The Courage for Change: Re-Engineering the University of Dar es Salaam (Luhanga, 2009).	Institutional data

Source: Various institutional, national and individual documents



## 4.6 Validity and reliability of the study

In this subsection I present the procedures and strategies used in the study to ensure the quality and trustworthiness of the research findings. The available literature indicated that the issue of validity and reliability in qualitative studies is contentious. For example, Miles and Huberman (1994) noted that qualitative findings are often in doubt, while Creswell and Miller (2000) add that ‘writing about validity in qualitative inquiry is challenging in many levels’ (p. 124). However, Yin (2011) indicates that ‘a valid study is one that has properly collected and interpreted its data, so that the conclusions accurately reflect and represent the real world (or laboratory) that was studied’ (p. 78). In line with this, Creswell and Miller (2000), citing Schwandt (1997), define validity as the accuracy with which the account represents the participants’ realities of the social phenomenon and how credible the account is to them (p. 125). The epistemological approach adopted in this study is located within the social constructivist paradigm. According to this tradition, the truth is relative and depends on one’s perspective. It is further built upon the premise of the social construction of reality (Maree, 2011). In the following subsection, the various strategies that I used to enhance the overall study quality and the trustworthiness of the findings are described.

### 4.6.1 Instrument validity

As indicated earlier, I used semi-structured interviews in order to collect information from the participants. In the first stage of the study I drafted the interview questions and sent them to my supervisors to establish whether they would, indeed, be able to capture the information required. They studied them, offered some critical suggestions and comments and returned them to me. I then used the suggestions and comments to update the original questions and, eventually, after the third set of recommendations, the interviews questions were finalised. The validity of the entire research process, including the validity of the research instrument, was further enhanced by the Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee at the University Pretoria. After reviewing the ethics application document, the committee issued a certificate as proof that the proposed research met the established research ethical standards. In addition, I conducted two pilot interviews before engaging in the actual data collection. I transcribed the recordings of the interviews and sent them to one of my supervisors. The aim of the pilot study was to assess the adequacy of the research instrument and to ascertain whether it would capture as comprehensively as possible the full range of the information needed for the study (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p. 103).

#### 4.6.2 Prolonged engagement

Prolonged engagement refers to conducting a study for a sufficient period of time to obtain an adequate representation of the ‘voice’ under study (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007 p. 239). Accordingly, the data collection period lasted for a period of six months. The fact that I stayed at the research site for such a long period of time had the following advantages. Firstly, it helped me to negotiate access to the participants as well as to establish a rapport with them so that they felt sufficiently comfortable to disclose information. Secondly, it helped me to verify the evidence I had collected by checking it and comparing it with other sources. Through this process, I was able to determine the saturation level of the data.

#### 4.6.3 Member checking

In this study, I used the participants’ ‘respondent validation’ as a lens with which to establish the validity and credibility of their own accounts. According to Jones, Torres and Arminio (2006), ‘the member checking technique provides participants with the opportunity to react to the findings and interpretations that emerged as a result of his/her participation’ (p. 99). Accordingly, after transcribing the interview data, I selected the five best transcriptions in terms of the richness of information they contained and sent them back to the participants to authenticate the findings. I then selected at least one transcription from each category of participants. I requested the participants to comment on whether, with respect to their experiences and perceptions of the corporatisation process at the university, the overall accounts were realistic and accurate. This was in line with the suggestion of Creswell and Miller (2000) that taking the data and the interpretations back to the participants in a study helps to confirm the credibility of both the information and the narrative account (p. 127). In addition, this technique conforms to the constructivist approach used in this study and according to which reality is socially constructed. It also helped to check the accuracy of participants’ realities as represented in the final draft (*ibid.*, p. 125). However, two participants only responded and acknowledged that the transcriptions were, indeed, a true reflection of the interview sessions. I also had the opportunity during the university break to meet with four participants to discuss the transcription of their interviews. I later used their comments as inputs both to verify the data and to enrich its quality.

#### 4.6.4 Triangulation technique

I used the triangulation technique to confirm the validity and/or credibility of the findings of the study. Triangulation is a technique which involves the use of two or more methods of data collection in a study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 141). The underlying principle of triangulation is best captured by Scott (2007):

The assumption that particular events are being investigated and that, if they can be investigated in a number of different ways and those different ways concur, then the researcher may then believe that their account is truer account of those events (p. 11).

In this study, I adopted both methodological and respondent triangulation. For the methodological triangulation, I used two methods of data collection, namely, interviews and document analysis. On the other hand, with respect to respondent triangulation, I drew a sample which was representative of the diversity of the participants. I then asked these participants the same questions in order to acquire valid, reliable and diverse construction of realities from the participants. Examples of the questions I posed to all participants are the following:

- Comment on how inclusive and consultative the process of corporate planning has been at this institution.
- In your opinion, what are the shortcomings of the corporate strategic planning as applied in the administration of this university?
- In your assessment of your experience with corporate planning and the culture of transformation at the university, would you say that the university's attempt has been useful and that it worth continuing with it? What would you say are the main reasons for its success/failure?

The use of triangulation (interviews, documents and diverse participants) enabled me to cross-check the authenticity of the data, thus ensuring a more accurate and credible report. According to Newman and Benz (1998), the use of more than one source of data to examine a particular phenomenon enables the researcher to acquire adequate information about the phenomenon. This, in turn, leads to thicker and richer data which then serves as the litmus test for validity and reliability (Jack, in Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p. 240). In short, it was especially beneficial to combine more than one source of information in order to assess the reform process at the university from a triangulated perspective.

#### 4.7 Data analysis

In this section, I present the procedures used to analyse the data. The study relied on two main sources of data collection, namely, interviews and a document review. The process of data analysis is aimed at interpreting research results in order to answer the research questions. According to Hatch (2002), data analysis is an important step in finding the solution to the problem under study (p. 148). In this study, I combined the data analysis with the data collection in order to generate an emerging understanding and/or confirm the answerability of the research questions (Hatch, 2002, p. 150; Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 208). The two processes were carried out concurrently for two major reasons. Firstly, it helped me to frame the questions to be asked in the following interview and, secondly, it enabled me to determine the information saturation point. During the interviews, I recorded all conversations and later transcribed them myself. In particular, I focused on capturing verbatim the words of the participants (Yin, 2011, p. 158). The use of the exact words and phrases helped me to gain insights into the meaning of the participants' thoughts or views. However, language editing of the texts was also carried out when particular phrases were used as quotations to substantiate a claim made by a participant. The aim of this language editing was to minimise grammatical errors as well as ensuring the logical flow of the ideas. The analysis of the data was informed by the framework of Miles and Huberman (1994). Miles and Huberman (1994, pp. 10–12) suggest a systematic approach to data analysis that involves three interlinked processes, namely, data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. Accordingly, in the first stage the mass of qualitative data was reduced and organised based on the theme which emerged. In this regard, I used qualitative computer program software, Atlas.ti Version 4.1, to aid with the qualitative categorical analysis. After transcribing the interviews, I uploaded the transcripts into the programme to facilitate the development of thematic codes by considering both the initial literature review and the interview questions. The coding process sets the initial description towards data analysis. I continued modifying and refining the themes as the coding process proceeded. During the actual coding process all the related codes which fell under similar themes or coding families were grouped together. In other words, I reflected on the transcriptions and grouped together concepts which were derived from the data and which illustrated similar features (Bowen, 2005, p. 218).

With all the codes grouped under each theme, I was able to filter out those parts of the text I wished to include in the data analysis and which appeared to be relevant to the research questions (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 42). In this way I produced a refined document which included the outputs containing all the coding themes and also the quotations that had helped to establish patterns and discover relationships. When writing the report, I combined selected quotations from the participants and extracts and numerical data which had been extracted from the documents. This stage corresponds with the second component of Miles and Huberman's framework, namely, the 'data display'. I used tables to present the statistical data and quotations as evidence to support the arguments used in the study and to develop the conclusions reached (Gratton & Jones, 2010, pp. 239–240).

#### **4.8 Ethical considerations**

There is little doubt that every research study that involves data gathering or contact with either a human or an animal population involves ethical considerations. As the researcher, in this study I did consider and adhered to all the ethical issues that guide the conduct of a research study and protect the rights of the participants who have volunteered to participate in the study. This implies that protecting the participants in any research study is imperative. In this study, the ethical considerations began with the choice of the research topic (Robson, 2002, p. 67) and continued both during and after the research process (Jones *et al.*, 2006, p. 170; Punch, 2009, p. 50). At the very beginning, the proposal passed through different levels or stages at the University of Pretoria. Firstly, I defended my research proposal at the departmental level and, secondly, I applied for ethical clearance from the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee. Thereafter, an official certificate granting me permission to conduct the research study was issued (see Appendix R). Before embarking on the data collection, I considered gaining access to the research site as a vital step not only because it would have a significant effect on the nature and quality of the data but also on the trustworthiness of the findings. Accordingly, I wrote a letter to the UDSM administration to request official permission to undertake the research study at the university (see Appendix A). In this letter, I categorically indicated the purpose of the study, the nature and size of the sample, the way in which the data would be handled as well as the practical application of the research findings (Cohen *et al.*, 2007, p. 56). In addition, I recognised that it was important to locate the study within a legal framework (see Appendix B). Accordingly, I wrote a letter to the Legal Aid Committee (under the University of Dar es Salaam School of Law), indicating

that the study would not contravene the laws of the Government of Tanzania. I subsequently received letters of approval from both authorities granting me permission to conduct the study (see Appendices C–E). The discussion below will focus on the ethical practices I complied with when conducting the study.

#### 4.8.1 Informed consent

The issue of informed consent involves providing as much relevant detailed information as possible to enable the participants to choose whether or not to participate in an investigation (Cohen *et al.*, 2007, p. 52). Accordingly, before each interview, I provided the participant with an informed consent form in which I formally requested the participant to participate in the study. The informed consent form (Appendix F) indicated the formal procedures such as the overall purpose of the investigation, possible advantages and disadvantages of participation in the study, as well as how the data would be handled (Kvale, 1996, p. 112; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 144; Seidman, 2006, p. 69; Vos *et al.*, 2011, p. 117). In addition, I allowed enough time for each participant to read the informed consent form and to sign it. I made it clear to the participants that, even if they filled in and signed the consent forms, they would still have the right to withdraw from the study at any time should they so wish. In other words, the participants had the right to withdraw from the study themselves or to withdraw their interview materials any time. All the participants agreed to participate voluntarily in the study.

#### 4.8.2 Confidentiality and anonymity

Central to the ethical principles of confidentiality and anonymity is the need to protect the participant's right to privacy. Accordingly, I promised that no information would be disclosed without the consent of the participants. This implies that the information that a participant has knowingly provided in the research study will not be reported or disclosed to unauthorised parties without his or her consent (Kvale, 1996, p. 114, Jones *et al.*, 2006, p. 155). It further suggests that, when the information collected from the participants is shared, the researcher should ensure that no identifiable information is disclosed (Jones *et al.*, 2006, p. 155).

In addition, Jones *et al.* argue that the analysis and interpretation of the data, as well as the dissemination of the research findings, carry with them a significant ethical responsibility (*ibid.*, p. 171). Therefore, I did not disclose any information that I thought could impact

negatively on either the professional or the personal lives of the participants or both. Indeed, I used the following techniques to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants. Firstly, I used pseudonyms instead of the participants' names. This lends support to Pryor's contention that 'the more the respondent is protected from identification, then the greater will be the respondent's propensity to telling the truth' (Pryor, 2004, p. 31). I did, however, request a few of the participants who had played a key role in the reform programme to allow me to reveal their real names when reporting the findings of the study (see Appendices M-O). The decision to use their real names was based on the following. Firstly, after scrutinising the information collected, it was realised that the information did not distort neither the participants' reputations nor the image of the institution. Secondly, the narration involved a true story of an institution that has undergone reform. Thus, the use of real names would add value to the story. However, two participants only, namely, Tolly and Kitila, allowed me to use their names (see Appendix P & Q). The second technique used to ensure confidentiality and anonymity involved accurately processing and reporting the information to minimise the possibility of the information being linked to a particular participant. Finally, I protected the confidentiality of sources by ensuring that the transcriptions and the recorded information were only accessible to me and my supervisors and that they were kept in a safe place (Seidman, 2006, p. 68).

#### **4.9 Gaining access to the research site and the challenges involved in researching one's own organisation**

While sampling strategies and the criteria for creating a sample are crucial, they do not guarantee access to the participants. Thus, gaining access to both the research site and the participants is a prerequisite to a successful study. Gaining access to a research site depends on the ability of forming relationships with people within the organisation (Walford, 2001, p. 34). Given (2008, entry A) defines access as 'the appropriate ethical and academic practices used to gain entry to a given community for the purposes of conducting formal research' (p. 2). Accordingly, I used the following methods to gain access to the research site. Firstly, I used the organisational authority to gain access. Indeed, as mentioned in the section on ethical considerations, I had research clearance from the University of Dar es Salaam allowing me to conduct this study. This offered access to the institution and its staff. Secondly, I used the key informant technique as a means of accessing the participants. This technique involves the use of people within the research site who possess inside information about the institution (ibid.). As already mentioned, I used one of the long serving academic

staff members as an entry point to access the participants. As a person with ‘insider knowledge’ (Jones *et al.*, 2006, p. 74), this staff member helped with the identification of potential participants who met the sampling criteria for the study.

In addition, access to the research site was enhanced by my existing relationship with the university as an ‘insider’, as I used my own institution as a research site for the study. As an insider, I had an initial understanding of the institutional setting because I obtained my bachelor’s and master’s degree at the University of Dar es Salaam. Furthermore, in November 2006, I was employed by the university as an academic member of staff. As an insider, I had the following advantages. Firstly, I was able to collect detailed data which improved the trustworthiness of data. For example, some of the participants interviewed were more comfortable about participating and providing authentic information because of my insider status. Secondly, data collection was less time consuming because I was able to access records and other documents relatively easily. Thirdly and also because of the fact that I was involved in the activities of the institution, being an insider provided flexibility with respect to interview times (Mercer, 2007). Finally, as an insider, I gained a new understanding of the institutional issues associated with corporatisation which I had not been aware of previously, such as conflicts over resources utilisation. From a methodological standpoint, being an insider was not an issue because my focus was on obtaining a great deal of information in order to answer the research questions.

However, in certain ways, I was like an outsider. For example, as a young staff member (employed in 2006), my knowledge about the transformation of the university and its consequences was limited. In addition, when interviewing senior officials and academics I was like an outsider because I was not known to them previously, nor had I had professional or social contact with them. This was because I had no high ranking administrative role to play at the university. Moreover, given the size of the university community, it was difficult to interact with each staff member. On the other hand, conducting a research study at a familiar research site does raise questions about the possible effects of perceived bias on the data collection and the data analysis, as well as possible ethical issues with respect to the institution and the individual participants (Mercer, 2007). In an effort to minimise subjectivity and biasness and improve the trustworthiness of the data, I used the following techniques. Firstly, in order to ensure the trustworthiness of the data collection, I focused firmly on key issues related to the study only. In other words, I concentrated on collecting



data which was important to the research. Furthermore, I used multiple sources of data and methods of data collection. The use of diverse methods of data collection helped to produce a more balanced and yet insightful account of the institutional transformation.

#### **4.10 Challenges and limitations**

This section reflects on the challenges encountered during the research process. The study employed a qualitative case study. A common challenge experienced in many qualitative case studies is the fact that it is not possible to generalise the research findings. Yin (2011) notes that, because of particularistic features, it is difficult to generalise the findings from qualitative studies to other studies and situations beyond the immediate study (p. 98). Thus, the findings of this study cannot be generalised. However, I did select a representative case and also provided a detailed description of the findings to ensure trustworthiness.

As mentioned earlier, I used my own institution as a research site to collect data. Being an insider posed both opportunities and challenges. The previous section outlined the advantages I enjoyed as an insider. However, one of the challenges I faced was being involved in the routines of the School of Education. In common with other academic units of the university, the School of Education has a shortage of academic staff. This is caused by the fact that a significant number of the junior academic staff members are attending postgraduate studies overseas while other senior academics have been promoted to managerial positions in the two constituent colleges of education of the University of Dar es Salaam. As I have a good working record, and from a moral viewpoint, it was very difficult for me to refuse to be involved in the routines of teaching, invigilating and marking the students' assignments and examinations. For example, during the six-month period during which I engaged in data collection I taught a course which would otherwise have been shelved. In so doing, I had to readjust my data collection schedule so as to accommodate such responsibilities.

Another challenge I encountered during the data collection arose from the people I approached for interviews. I received different responses from different personalities. For example, one participant stated that 'I don't have time to spare for your interview unless you pay me'. I responded 'certainly', this is a '*Homo Oeconomicus*' person who thought that maybe I am doing a consultancy! However, it is regarded as unethical to pay participants while it may also have compromised the study. Another person asked, 'Do you want me to write your thesis?' I politely asked him why he had asked that question. He replied that 'If

you interviewed me, I will be giving you answers’. He declined my request to be interviewed. This person was clearly proud of his knowledge. I then thanked him. Clearly, I approached both situations ethically and with integrity. Finally, there were people who were potential participants but who could not be interviewed because of their tight working schedules. Although their views were missed, I am confident that this did not have any significant impact on the depth of data in this study. Despite the challenges, I did manage to collect considerable data for the purposes of the study.

There is little doubt that the data analysis and the report writing are the difficult parts of any thesis. In addition, in January 27, 2013, I received the sad news that my mother had passed on. I then had to travel to Tanzania to arrange and participate in the burial ceremony despite the fact that could have impacted negatively on my studies. Throughout my academic career, my mother was very supportive and was a wonderful carer. She was like a ‘dictionary’. As her son, I learnt from her to be progressive and, for that I am grateful. Then, suddenly, she had passed on! Her untimely death was beyond my comprehension and I spent a month for mourning. However, her death motivated me to work hard to achieve what she had so often emphasised – education.

Finally, I was faced with the challenge of going to study away from home and being separated from my family. This had both social and economic implications. Socially, as a son, a husband and a father, I sacrificed my family. I am married with three young children: Joshua (nine), Jehovaness (six) and Jonathani (three) and, like other parents, I am expected to be with my children, teaching them right from wrong and, at some time, telling them my own life stories as a way of teaching them how to lead their lives. However, although I felt sorry for them, they have a loving mother, Perpetua. I used their names in this report as pseudonyms for some of the participants so that, when they are older, they will understand that their father loved and valued them. On an economic level, studying away from home involved communication costs as I telephoned home almost every evening to inquire about their health and their schooling. Nevertheless, despite all these challenges, I truly believe that I was achieving my mission and, more importantly, acting as a role model for my children.

#### **4.11 Conclusion**

This chapter explained and discussed the methodological procedures used to collect the data for the purposes of the study. In the course of collecting the data, I learnt a number of things.

Firstly, the selection of a suitable research design determines the quality of both the data and the final report. I also learnt how to be a good listener. Listening is an extremely important skill that helps to improve the quality of the interviews. Accordingly, I allowed the participants to talk and concentrated on listening for phrases or special knowledge relevant to the topic during the conversation. Careful listening also enabled me to ask probing questions to fill in details missed out during the interviews. Furthermore, I realised that the collection of relevant data in qualitative study requires enough time as well as skills such as attention, good manners and respect for the priorities and needs of the participants. In addition, any engagement in research activities demands a high level of ethical standards in order to deal with the diverse cultures of the participants, interact with various documents and write a credible report. Finally, the triangulation of evidence from multiple sources is crucially important in order to draw informed conclusions. Throughout the study, I tried to ensure that the way in which the data was being collected and analysed complied with the criteria for the trustworthiness of the study.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### Nature and character of the transformation process at UDSM

#### 5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I presented the methodological procedures used to collect the data for the study. In this chapter, I report the findings linked to the research question that sought to understand the nature and character of transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam. Arguably, this chapter contains the background to the following chapters. The chapter begins with brief background information on the Institutional Transformation Programme (ITP) at the University of Dar es Salaam. This was deemed necessary because the adoption of a corporate approach took place within the broader context of institutional transformation. This brief background information was followed by a discussion on the underlying factors that provided the impetus for the institutional transformation programme. In addition, the implementation and management strategies are discussed in the context of the goals and achievements of the ITP. This chapter establishes the fact that leadership was a key contributory factor in achieving the ITP goals and that it significantly facilitated the coordination and monitoring strategies. It is important to note from the outset that this study was not intended either to assess or to review the goals of the ITP and university's response to these goals. Instead, I draw on the dominant perceptions of the participants that, despite any shortcomings, in the main, it was successful in achieving these goals. In reflecting on the participants' views in the study, I offer some discussion on the reasons for the achievement of the ITP goals.

#### 5.2 The institutional transformation programme: Background and context

This subsection describes the context of the institutional transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam. It is an historical reality that the issues that triggered the institutional transformation programme at the University of Dar es Salaam were typical of African higher education in the 1980s and 1990s, namely, the increasing demand for higher education, inadequate funding, poor teaching and learning environments as well as gender imbalances (URT, 1999a, p. 3; SARUA, 2009, pp. 3–4). The roots of the institutional transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam may be traced back to the 1990s. The literature indicated that the notion of reforming the university started and was implemented first in the Faculty of Engineering in 1988/1989 (Luhanga, 2009, pp. 43–44; Luhanga, 2010, pp. 7071–7072). At

that time, the engineering faculty was faced with the problem of the exodus of its trained academic staff to greener pastures as a result of inadequate remuneration and a poor working environment. Accordingly, the faculty initiated a strategic plan to redress the situation. The strategic plan focused on the following issues: cost-control, performance monitoring and evaluation, staff retention, financing of teaching programmes and research, technological development and a culture of consultancy work (Luhanga *et al.*, 2003, p. 53). The model adopted by the Faculty of Engineering and the achievements recorded were used to guide the transformation programme at the institutional level. Before embarking on the process, the management of the university formed a committee comprising local staff members to conduct an institutional study to establish how the efficiency and effectiveness of the university management could be improved (*ibid.*, p. 66).

I conducted an interview with Julius, a senior academic and former Chief Administrative Officer (CADO) of the university, in order to gain a deeper understanding of this institutional study. The aim of the interview was to find out his views on how the notion of transforming the institution had started. Julius was one of the people who had strongly advocated the institutional study:

When I was in the office in September, 1990 one of the things I tried is to persuade my colleagues in the university top management that it looks like the institution is under serious trouble. May be there is something structurally wrong with our institutional set up that is why we are experiencing frequent students' unrest and problems. I proposed that we should form a committee to look into what was wrong with institutional set up which led to frequent problems. My colleagues accepted the idea.

Julius's view was reinforced by Juliet, a senior academic and the Director of Public Services. She stated:

Since its establishment the university had not really gone through major transformation changes except may be when it was elevated from being a College of the University of East Africa to fully fledged university in 1970. From there on, many activities were routines and there was a feeling that certain areas that were stagnant need major changes.

Thus, it appeared that reforming the institution was unavoidable. Subsequently, the university commissioned various studies to explore, analyse and report on the nature of the problems which were affecting the university. The findings of all previous studies are contained in a

document entitled *The Management Effectiveness Review Report (1991)* (cf. Mkude, Cooksey & Levey, 2003, pp. 9–10). The study identified five principal problems that were related to management inefficiency, namely, planning and finance, organisational structure, staffing, management information system and student services. According to Julius, the basic message contained in the report was that ‘the institution was sick and in serious crisis. It needs really to overhaul itself. It seemed to be outdated. The world was changing while the institution was not changing at the same rate’. Juliet compared the university with an ‘organism’. As regards the functioning of a university, she indicated the university is supposed to be like a dynamic organism that is constantly looking for improved ways of surviving. The use of the metaphors of ‘an illness’ and an ‘organism’ to explain how the university functions requires further clarification. From a life science perspective, a sick organism is unable to perform the basic functions that ensure its existence and, thus, it is likely to perish. In such a case, the best way to ensure its survival is for the sick organism to protect itself from the conditions that caused the illness. In the context of the university, the report diagnosed the causes of the ‘illness’, while workshops with both a national and an international perspective were used as a ‘surgical clinic’ to find the appropriate cure that would help the university as an ‘organism’ to overcome the problems which were preventing it from carrying out its mandate effectively and efficiently. It was suggested that, ‘the malaise inflicting the university had seeped so deeply into its institutional fabric that a piecemeal approach would not provide an adequate solution’ (ibid., 10). The following quote from Julius illustrates the approach adopted:

There was a need to overhaul the whole institution in order to go hand in hand with the changes that were taking place in the broader society. The mechanism to overhaul it was to embark on transformation. As management, we decided to develop a plan to guide the whole process of transforming the institution.

As Julius indicated, the first step after diagnosing the causes of ‘illness’ of the ‘organism’ was to overhaul the entire institution and to administer a treatment (cure) through transformation. Thus, transformation was deemed necessary in order to revitalise the university and restore its normal functioning. From that point, the university embarked on a reform process known as ‘The UDSM 2000 Transformation Programme’. In common with other universities in Eastern and Southern Africa in the early 1990s (Court, 1999; Mamdani, 2007), the university formulated a Corporate Strategic Plan (CSP) to guide the Institutional Transformation Programme (ITP) in 1994. The CSP, which is operationalised through five year strategic plans, defines both the ITP philosophy and the approach (UDSM, 2009b, p. 1).

It may be argued from the management perspective that the overall objective of the programme was to enable the university to overcome its weaknesses and, at the same time, to equip itself strategically to meet the demands of society as well as the global challenges of the 21st century (UDSM, 2004a, p. viii). As envisaged in the management effectiveness report the transformation affected all aspects of the institution, including expanding student enrolment, efficient utilisation of resources and improving student services as well as the governance and management of the institution. It may be argued that the use of a corporate strategic plan helped the university to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of its operations. In doing so, the university reduced costs and increased outputs. Based on the information above, the next section I discuss the factors or issues that initiated and shaped the reform process.

### **5.3 Factors behind the transformation programme**

This section discusses the factors which led to the transformation programme at the UDSM. As elsewhere, higher education institutions in Tanzania have been, and still continue to be, influenced either directly or indirectly by both internal and external forces. As the literature (Mkude *et al.*, 2003) indicates, the motivating factors behind transformation were associated primarily with changes in the national, regional and international environments in which the university was operating (p. 130). At this point, a pressing question arises: What issues led to the adoption of corporate strategic planning at the University of Dar es Salaam? In this regard, I reviewed institutional documents and conducted interviews with the participants in order to obtain a better understanding of the factors behind institutional transformation. Indeed, I assumed that such factors had triggered the University of Dar es Salaam transformation programme.

#### **5.3.1 Institutional context**

The organisational structure of the university stimulated the need for transformation. It is worth noting that the University of Dar es Salaam is a state-owned university that was established by the Act of Parliament No. 12 of 1970 (UDSM, 1982, pp. 654–687; UDSM, 2004a, p. viii). At its inception, Tanzania was a socialist country with a single party system. Thus, the framework of the UDSM structure was based on state control under a single party government (UDSM, 1999b, p. 1). In accordance with the Act of Parliament No. 12 of 1970, until the early 1990s, the President of the United Republic of Tanzania (who was also the

chairperson of the ruling party) was the Chancellor of the University of Dar es Salaam. In terms of the Act, the Chancellor had the power to appoint the top university leadership (cf. sections 7–11 of the Act). In addition, the socialist legacy was clearly evident in the way in which the objectives and functions of the university were formulated. For example, section 4(a) of the Act states that ‘the objects and functions of the university’ were ‘to preserve, transmit, and enhance knowledge for the benefit of the people of Tanzania in accordance with the principle of socialism accepted by the people of Tanzania’ (UDSM, 1982). However, from the mid 1980s onward, Tanzania started to undergo significant reforms in its socioeconomic and political orientation. Following on such reforms, the country adopted economic neo-liberalism as well as a multiparty system, followed, in turn, by liberalisation in the provision of social services, including higher education. As a managerial framework, some of the objectives stipulated in the Act did not support the changed socio-economic and political orientations in the country. I subsequently took a further step to obtain the participants’ views on the matter. The following views were expressed by the participants. Julius describes weaknesses in the Act and how they limit the ITP:

From the beginning when we started to embark into transformation, the University Act of 1970 was an obstacle. It was crafted in such a way that it could not facilitate transformation because you need to seek permission from the government for everything. We said we need a flexible Act. One of the early decisions was the need for a flexible Act which would allow the university to embark on changes or transformation. So the Act was rigid and it was coloured over by socialist language. The act was talking of making Tanzania a socialist country in everything. The spirit in which the act was crafted was not very helpful for these kinds of initiatives to take place. It did not facilitate them very easily.

In the same context, Juliet indicated that ‘the legal instrument that established the university [the University Act No. 12 of 1970] was a hindrance to the transformation process’. In addition, Shombo, a senior academic stated that the structure of the university had been insufficient to support the desired institutional changes. Although the Act states that the University Council was ‘the supreme body’ of the university, the council had several weaknesses in terms of composition, size and decisions, thus rendering it less effective in respect of realising the university’s major goals (UDSM, 1999b, p. 2). As with the issue of composition, the University Council was imbalanced in terms of representation with, for example, five student representatives. With regard to size, it was too large (29 members) with several members being appointees of the Chancellor and government parastatals (UDSM, 1982, p. 659). Court (1999) reported a similar situation at Makerere University (p. 2). Finally,



the Council's decisions, especially on finance and the appointment of top university management, were not binding (UDSM, 1999b, p. 3). Thus, in order to address these weaknesses, the Act needed to be reviewed. Such a review, in turn, necessitated a new legal framework that would enable the university to address the changing social, political and economic environment in the country. A similar concern on the University Act was voiced at the fifth Annual Consultative Meeting on ITP when the participants at the meeting expressed their views on the need to change the UDSM Act of 1970 in order to facilitate the speedy implementation of the goals of the transformation programme (UDSM, 1998, p. 5). As may be deduced from the discussion above, the Act was restrictive rather than facilitative in the achievement of the university goals because it reduced the institutional autonomy in decision making. In other words, major decisions had to be ratified by the government of the country. Thus, a flexible Act that would empower the university organs to make decisions on matters pertaining to the university without having to seek permission from the government was needed. Accordingly, the university formed a committee headed by Prof. Kanywani to review the Act and to make some suggestions to the Tanzanian Government. Although the participants indicated that the whole process of changing the Act had taken a long time, it eventually bore fruit following the enactment of the Universities Act No. 7 of 2005 and then the University of Dar es Salaam Charter in 2007 (UDSM, 2009b, p. 8). The Charter enshrined the university council's autonomy to manage the operations of the university and, hence, facilitated transformation. The discussion above suggests that 'autonomy', which is one of the key components of the business model, is essential for the efficient implementation of transformation goals in line with the current state of the environment. However, to achieve this goal, the government had to relinquish some of its control and, in so doing, facilitate the attainment of the transformation goals.

### 5.3.2 Economic and political vicissitudes in Tanzania

The UDSM is a public institution which depends primarily on government funding to run its operations. Until the mid1980s, the university had enjoyed a considerable monopoly as a state university with a favourable financial resource allocation within a centralised economic planning system (Lawi, 2008, p. 39). The UDSM received sufficient allocations that enabled it to meet its entire, recurrent, budgetary requirement on request. This, in turn, implied that the education sector and higher education, in particular, was adequately financed to meet the increasing demand for education. However, following the economic crisis from the mid1970s

to the late 1980s, the capacity of government to provide financial support to the university was adversely affected with the dwindling of national finance resources leading to decreasing annual financial assistance from the government to the university. As a result, the university, once a notable and highly regarded national institution of higher education with considerable international acclaim, started to decline (UDSM, 2005b, p. 30). The effects of the underfunding became evident in low academic staff morale, brain drain, dilapidated physical infrastructure, decreasing teaching-learning facilities, and meagre salaries as compared to actual living costs (Luhanga *et al.*, 2003, p. 49). The flow of financial resources to the university was also further affected by the establishment of two additional state universities – the Sokoine University of Agriculture and the Open University of Tanzania in 1984 and 1992 respectively. In such a situation it was difficult for the university both to expand and to maintain the quality of its outputs. The interviews with the participants revealed the following experiences. Athumani, a senior academic and Deputy Director, Resources Mobilisation and Investments, had the following to say:

[I] remember from the late 1980s major social, political and economic changes appeared in the form of shifting from the state-led economy to market economy. The provision of higher education was affected through reduced subsidization from the government. For the first time the private sector was allowed to provide higher education. All these brought a lot of changes in operation and run of higher education as a business. So, the university had to sort out reasonable strategies in order to survive including the corporate strategic plans’.

This view was reinforced by Juliet who contended:

I think there was a feeling by the early 1990s that the financial support that the government was putting into the university left a big gap. There was thinking that it was high time for the university to look at ways in which it could get its own, different sources of funds.

As evident in the extended quotes above, the university was receiving inadequate funding from the government. I consequently decided that a quantitative example would be illuminating and, thus, Table 5.1 illustrates the ratio of the council approved budget to the government approved budget form 1990/1991 to 2010/2011.

**Table 5.1:** Ratio of council to government approved budgets from 1990/1–2009/10

Year	Amount approved by council [USD]	Amount approved by government [USD]	Govt/council approved [%]
1990/91	25,008,313	10,436,304	42
1991/92	31,191,102	23,700,758	76
1992/93	48,871,253	21,474,533	44
1993/94	43,384,649	11,325,360	26
1994/95	44,573,612	18,165,689	41
1995/96	42,543,620	16,660,301	39
1996/97	56,095,576	19,828,066	35
1997/98	54,734,099	17,882,218	33
1998/99	44,831,892	20,907,031	47
1999/00	43,816,033	19,572,755	45
2000/01	29,484,961	20,478,862	69
2001/02	22,810,000	12,345,651	54
2002/03	23,054,918	11,979,924	52
2003/04	28,040,114	16,065,994	57
2004/05	27,909,445	15,619,717	59
2005/06	38,716,657	25,043,478	64
2006/07	61,280,000	23,040,000	38
2007/08	43,463,925	27,278,670	63
2008/09	67,588,756	30,072,829	44
2009/10	97,726,980	37,623,934	37
2010/11	77,661,555	48,671,172	63

Source: UDSM (2005b, pp. 81-82); UDSM (2008a, p. 131); (UDSM, 2011a, p. 126); UDSM (2012, p. 119). Exchange Rates from 1990/91-2010/2011 are TZS 192.00, 226.00, 301.50, 367.75, 455.00, 585.00, 620.00, 665.00, 685.00, 800.00, 950.00, 1,050.00, 1,046.00, 1,050.00, 1,080.00, 1,150.00, 1,250.00, 1,250.00, 1,250.00, 1,350.00 and 1,350.00 respectively.

Table 5.1 indicates that there was a fluctuating trend in the government approved budget as a proportion of the UDSM Council approved budgets. The inadequate funding as a result of declining government funds impacted adversely on the university. The trend highlighted above suggests that the declining government funding paralysed the implementation of the institution's plans, including expanding student intake, improving and maintaining infrastructure such as residential and teaching structures as well as supporting human resource development. Thus, the declining funds available to the UDSM impacted on the institutional functioning and exerted pressure on the university to seek additional sources of funding. It is therefore clear that it was the economic need of the university that necessitated the transformation process with the decline in public expenditure on higher education exerting pressure on the university to engage in entrepreneurial activities as a strategy to reduce its dependency on the government.

### 5.3.3 Social demand for education

This subsection explains how the social demand for higher education also engineered the transformation process at the University of Dar es Salaam. However, before I engaged in more detail, I will provide a brief historical background to the admission process at the University of Dar es Salaam. In so doing, I will focus on two policy measures adopted by the then ruling party, the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU). Established in the early postcolonial period in Africa, the University of Dar es Salaam was closely linked to the national development strategies and it was viewed as a strategic weapon in the fight against the three enemies of national development, namely, poverty, ignorance and disease. In order to achieve this purpose, the TANU incorporated the university into government centralised planning and dictated the admission conditions (Mkude, Cooksey & Levey, 2003, p. 1). As regards admission, the TANU issued a political decree which was contained in the Musoma Resolution of 1974. The resolution directed, among others, that the system of entry to higher education and to the university, in particular, be changed to the effect that students would be eligible for higher education only if they met the following conditions. Firstly, they had to complete one year of compulsory national service. Secondly, applicants were required to have had a minimum of two years of satisfactory work experience and, finally, the admission to higher education would be made not on the basis of passing examinations alone but also on the availability of positive reports/character references and recommendations given by their work-mates and/or employers (Nyerere, 1977, p. 13; Galabawa, 1990, p. 14; Luhanga *et al.*, 2003, p. 38). As a result, students had to spend three years fulfilling the conditions imposed by the Musoma Resolution before being admitted to higher education. Thus, in terms of this policy, higher education in general was available to mature students who would be admitted only after working for some years (Itandala, 2008, p. 196). The implementation of the policy led to a decrease in student intake and, more particularly, in the number of women admitted to the university (Leach *et al.*, 2008, p. 42). Later, however, the ruling party, Chama cha Mapinduzi (CCM) and its government realised that they had made a mistake by introducing the delayed admission policy under the Musoma Resolution. At its meeting held on 27 to 31 May 1984, the National Executive Committee of CCM rescinded the policy and reintroduced the old direct entry system to all higher education institutions (Itandala, 2008, p. 201). Further details of the Musoma Resolution are included in chapter six in the discussion on access to and equity in higher education.

Like the Musoma Resolution, the manpower training policy which stemmed from the government's need for local manpower to fill the middle and high-level positions influenced the admission to higher education. As noted by Galabawa (1990), the major objective of the manpower training policy after 1964 was to expand higher education so as to fill the urgent need for skilled cadres in various posts in government and industry (p. 8). Indeed, until recently, when the ITP changed the perspective, higher education planning was based on the higher level manpower needs of the country. For example, the Second Five Year Plan, 1969–1974, stipulated that manpower requirements were to remain the basis of the development of both secondary and higher education. In fact, one of the policy's specific objectives, as stipulated in the First Year Five Years Plan of 1964–1969 and also in the Second Five Year Plan of 1969–1974 was to expand secondary, technical and university education according to labour requirements (*ibid.*). The situation is described by Julius:

[...] before 1990 the prevailing policy was to control the number of students who joined the university and that number was determined by the centrally planned manpower policy in the country. The number of the students did never exceed what was planned in the central plan by the government for human resource development. From the 1990s the art of thinking in the strategic plan during the institutional transformation changed. We said that we should not limit the number of student intake just for the sake of what the government needed. University education is not for the sake of the government alone. We should also look at what the society needs. So, we should not be confined to the number of the people required by the government to fill the positions available. Instead, we should think of higher education as a pool of educated people who are important for propelling the development of the society.

Thus, it would appear that the manpower requirement policy restricted student intake in higher education institutions. In other words, the policy significantly slowed down the development of secondary education and, consequently, made access to secondary schools more difficult for the children leaving primary education. However, despite these policy measures, the enrolment trend at the UDSM did not change significantly. For example, until the late 1990s, the university enrolled a very small number of students in relation to the number of qualified applicants. Table 5.2 presents the general application and admission trends at the University of Dar es Salaam prior to and after the inception of the ITP in 1994.

**Table 5.2:** Application and admission to the university in selected years

Academic year	Applied	Admitted	Percentage admitted
1992/93	8,338	973	11.7
1993/94	7,410	1,097	14.8
1994/95	14,005	1,105	7.9
1995/96	6,192	1,300	21
1996/97	4402	1431	35.5
1997/98	4665	1750	37.5
1998/99	5474	1974	36.1
1999/00	5447	3041	55.8
2000/01	6256	3252	51.9
2001/02	6386	3290	51.5
2002/03	7105	3901	54.9
2003/04	6,036	3,582	59
2004/05	8,616	4,264	43
2005/06	17,164	4,475	26
2006/07	15,185	6,697	44
2007/08	15,030	5,775	38.4
2008/09	18,763	5,930	31.6
2009/10	17,287	6,952	40

Source: UDSM (2002b, p. 18); UDSM (2004a, pp. 107-108); UDSM (2008a, p. 7); UDSM (2010, p. 9); UDSM (2011a, p. 8).

As Table 5.2 demonstrates, except for the 1999/2000 to 2001/2002 academic years, the university admitted less than half of the total number of applicants who qualified. Thus, more than half of the qualified applicants were left out as ‘wastage’. Furthermore, the admission trends indicated that the university failed to meet the planned enrolment targets. For example, in 1994/95, it was planned that, by the beginning of 2000, the university should have attained an enrolment level of 8, 000 students. However, by the target date, the actual enrolment was 6170, thus 1, 830 students short (UDSM, 2000, p. 115). In addition, it was planned that the university would have attained an enrolment rate of 60% and 70% by June, 2002 and June, 2005 respectively (UDSM, 2002b, p. 45). However, by the target dates, the actual enrolment rate was 54.9% and 26%; 5.1% and 44% short respectively (see Table 5.2). This, in turn, indicated that the university was not able to absorb the growing demand of students who qualified for higher education and, thus, was failing to widen access to higher education sufficiently. There are myriads of possible explanations why the university failed to meet the planned targets.

Historically, in Tanzania, in terms of government policy, the government provided free services to its people, including higher education (Bailey *et al.*, 2011, p. 19). Thus, public universities, including the UDSM, depended on the government bursaries for the recruitment

of the students. This implies that when government funding declined, student numbers automatically declined. This, in turn, had implications for the admission criteria with the government's financial ability dictating the admission cut-off points. It is important to note that the cut-off points became so high that a large number of qualified applicants were eliminated. Again, as a result of the Act, the university did not have the power to develop innovative ways of enabling the enrolment of privately sponsored students at the university. Closely linked to the issue of private sponsorship was the fact that, unlike other East African countries, Tanzania was lagging behind in terms of value the people placed on education as well as a readiness to pay for it. However, this is no longer the case.

Another possible reason why the university failed to meet the targets set may have been the residential set-up, that is, the university's capacity to provide accommodation facilities. At that time and until recently, the admission to the university was largely determined by the accommodation available in the halls of residence. The university policy guarantees accommodation to all students admitted to the university (Luhanga, 2009, p. 137) and it was, in fact, a rule that 'all students are required to live in the halls of residence except in those cases in which the Chief Administrative Officer permits a student to live off campus' (UDSM, 1982, p. 637). The available records indicate that, at the beginning of the ITP, the university had the facilities enough to accommodate 3,100 students (UDSM, 2000, p. 107). Hence, there was no way in way the university could admit more than this number of students. It is argued that this limitation hampered expansion initiatives under the ITP. The resultant low student enrolment at the UDSM led to the university forfeiting the advantages of the economies of scale as expressed in the low capacity utilisation of the physical resources as well as low staff-student ratios and, more significantly, low outcomes that had little impact on national economic development. A further study of the Table 5.2 leads to the following interesting conclusions. Firstly, the low student intake contradicts the need for functional education in a developing country such as Tanzania for fast social and economic change. Secondly, a constrained student enrolment has two related multiplier effects, namely, internal inefficiency and also external inefficiency. Internal inefficiency refers to a low teacher-student ratio while external inefficiency is expressed in terms of a proportionately small graduate output that is inadequate as regards a wide-scale societal impact on productivity. The findings would seem to suggest that increasing the student intake would lead to more efficient staff-student ratios and also enable the maximisation of capacity utilisation.

In addition to the documents review, interviews were conducted in order to comprehend how the UDSM had responded to the social demand for higher education. Interestingly, it emerged during the interviews that a higher proportion of participants indicated that they believed there was a significant need to expand student intake. In their view, this need to expand was a consequence of a growing thirst for higher education among the Tanzanians – a thirst which exceeded the university intake capacity. Jacqueline, the former Chief Academic Officer (CACO) of the university, stated that higher education institutions were admitting an extremely small number of students as compared with both other regional, neighbour countries and also other similar low income countries. On reflection, she concluded:

The university was not growing and we were faced by a big demand for the number of students who wanted to join the university. At that time the university was only able to admit about 3000 students and the challenge was that the university admitted only 30% of the qualified students.

As her statement indicates, the slow expansion of the student population relative to both the fast-growing national population and needs of the Tanzanian economy posed a challenge to the university. According to her, the main task of the university was to consider measures that could be taken to absorb the number of qualified applicants who were not being admitted to the university. It is important to note that the demand for higher education had been intensified by two interlinked factors. Firstly, the desire for higher education was underscored by both corporate needs and/or labour market demands that required highly skilled people. The strategic plan 2008/2009–2012/2013 of the university (UDSM, 2009a) recognises this demand and posits that:

The more competitive and dynamic labour market is now apparently demanding people who can adjust easily to the fast changing environment, acquire new skills and handle multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary problems, issues and challenges (p. 10).

This quote illustrates that the acquisition of knowledge and skills which are valued by the labour market is imperative not only to secure a job but also to retain it. As regards the economic-driven demand for higher education, Carnoy (2005) notes that ‘rising payoffs to higher education in a global, science based, knowledge intensive economy make university training more of a “necessity” to get “good” jobs’ (p. 4). He adds that ‘this translates into pressure to increase the average level of education in the labour force’ (p. 5). In the Tanzanian context, it is worth noting that, during the socialist era, government employment



was assured and private business was restricted. However, in contrast, the current economic development favours the establishment of small and medium scale businesses and, thus, the demand for a business and entrepreneurship education as well as computer literacy has increased in recent years as such an education and computer literacy both serve as a basis for providing the basic skills required for the creation and management of business. This, in turn, is manifested in the increased enrolment in higher education as well as the shift in teaching towards marketable courses which promote both employability and self-employment concerns. Secondly, and as a consequence of the previous factor, there is the push for the government to expand the lower levels of schooling in order to increase the number of secondary school graduates who qualify for post-secondary education. In Tanzania, reforms initiated at the lower levels of education, namely, the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) and the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) in the primary and secondary education sectors respectively (URT, 2004), have significantly increased the number of students who qualify for higher education. For example, the number of students admitted to universities and university colleges in Tanzania increased from 40,993 in 2005/6 to 95, 525 in 2008/9 (URT, 2010b, p. 22). In other words, the number of students eligible for higher education more than doubled within the space of three years. At the time of writing this thesis, both the PEDP and the SEDP had already started to produce graduates and, thus, the pressure on the demand for higher education should increase substantially. As another example, the number of students in form six is projected to increase from 21, 126 in 2006 to 326,935 in 2015 (ibid.) – an almost fifteen-fold increase by 2015. This increase in the number of qualified applicants will require the university to rethink its strategies in order to facilitate further expansion in the student intake.

#### 5.3.4 Global forces

Since the 1990s, the world has noted the emergence of a ‘knowledge society’. In the Tanzanian context, the need to create a knowledge society is reflected in the key national documents. For example, the Tanzania Vision 2025 states:

Be a nation with high level of education at all levels; a nation which produces the quantity and quality of educated people sufficiently equipped with the requisite knowledge to solve the society’s problems, meet the challenges of development and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels (URT, 1999b, p. 5).

More explicitly, the Vision suggests that the ‘education system should be restructured and transformed qualitatively with a focus on promoting creativity and problem solving’ (ibid., p. 19). This should be read in conjunction with the higher education policy:

Curricular emphasis in institutions of higher education shall be placed on programmes that are geared towards responding to the changing world of science and technology and corresponding ever-changing needs of the people, their government, commerce and the surrounding environment in general (URT, 1999a, p. 7).

These policy documents suggest that the capacity of the nation to participate in the globalised world will depend primarily on the knowledge, skills, competences and creativity of its people. This, in turn, will require higher education institutions to restructure the way in which they operate in order to contribute to the building of a flexible knowledge society capable of functioning in a globalised world. However, while the creation of a knowledge society has been emphasised as a prerequisite for development, the only reference made to the knowledge society in the current strategic plan appears under the heading ‘Capacity and application of ICT’. Thus, it would appear that the university sees its role in helping the country to become a knowledge society in the securing of modern ITC resources and the training of ICT professionals (UDSM, 2009a, p. 11). In particular, the strategic plan states:

Globalisation is intensifying worldwide social-cultural-economic relations and is pushing the whole world towards the so-called ‘knowledge society’, which is knowledge-driven and being built on creativity, know-how, imagination and innovation. Tanzania is faced with a serious challenge of integrating into such a society, particularly in the competitive areas of international knowledge covering scientific, technological, financial, production, communication and other relevant activities. One major driving force towards achieving the above is Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Therefore, ICT should be harnessed persistently, both in terms of securing modern resources as well as training and retraining the relevant ICT professionals at all levels, if the country is to remain competitive. UDSM should play active role in meeting this challenge (ibid., 11).

Closely allied to the knowledge society is the knowledge-based economy with the knowledge-based economy being linked to the emergence and convergence of information and communication technologies. However, the university has a shortage of important resources such as computers while the science laboratories are ill-equipped. Such problems made it difficult to realise the goal of creating a knowledge society within the context of the ICT. In addition, the demand posed by the knowledge society as well as the knowledge-based economy calls for a reversal in what is taught and how it is taught. This, in turn, implies that

the production of graduates with appropriate skills and capabilities is a prerequisite to participating in the knowledge-based economy. In order to respond to this demand, higher education institutions should introduce new academic programmes, review their curricula and equip graduates with a broad knowledge who would enable them to tap into the global knowledge as well as adapt to the new environment.

In the preceding sections, I explained in detail the factors that led to the institutional transformation. As explained, transformation was deemed a necessary strategy to enable the university to operate effectively and efficiently. The next section discusses the strategies used by the university to implement its ITP.

#### **5.4 The ITP implementation strategies**

This subsection discusses the strategies that were used to implement the ITP. The realisation of the goals and objectives indicated in the corporate strategic plan of the university depended to a large extent on the implementation of these strategies. In the context of this study the following strategies will be discussed, namely, seminars and/or workshops, physical resources utilisation and the formulation of various policies.

##### **5.4.1 Seminars/workshop/meetings**

This subsection discusses the mechanisms which were employed by executive management to ensure that all the stakeholders were well informed and, thus, were prepared to participate in the Institutional Transformation Programme. One of the institutional transformation documents indicates that:

A broad participation approach was pursued in order for the different parties to identify themselves with the programme addressed by the Transformation Programme to ensure smooth implementation and overall programme (ITP) success (UDSM, 2004b, p. 7).

While the document suggests that the stakeholders were involved, I was interested in obtaining the participants' reactions to the document. Their responses to the invitation to comment on how inclusive and consultative the process of corporate planning in the institution had yielded varying reactions. In the course of the conversations with the participants, two perspectives emerged. According to the first perspective the process had been participatory. This perspective was based on the fact that there had been discussions and

meetings in which stakeholders from within and outside the university had been represented. In the following quotes the participants explain how the process had been both inclusive and participatory. Firstly, Tolly, a senior academic and former Programme Management Unit manager, explained the role of his office with respect to ensuring that the process had been participatory:

It was extremely consultative because I personally and my colleagues in the reform office we went to every Faculty, Institute and College of the university and conducted two meeting sessions, one in Swahili and another in English to tell people about the reform programme and to assure them that it is owned by the university....So when we prepared the corporate strategic plan we produced both Swahili and English versions. We tried to ensure that everybody understands and we had sessions where we presented and allowed them time to digest it.

When Levina, senior academic and director, library services was asked to comment on whether the process had been participatory or not, she said:

I witnessed and participated in the transformation process. From the beginning the process was participatory because it involves representatives from all Faculties, Colleges and Institutes within the university. Stakeholders both national and international were also consulted and involved. There were open meetings held for two or three days to discuss and draw up priorities as well as charting out how to achieve them.

As indicated by Sikujua, a senior academic the involvement of all administrative units meant that the process of formulating the institutional strategic plan had been participatory:

[...] the fact is every unit was involved in different committees and we have administrative organisation structure where we have units and within units we have committees and then committee of deans, the senate as well as the council. In all these levels issues were discussed, ideas were digested and plans were drawn.

The statements cited above represent the views of those participants who felt that executive management had tried to ensure that the notion of transforming the university had been widely understood. For example, the approach adopted by Tolly of visiting each unit and presenting the plan in languages understood by staff members was particularly interesting, not only because this facilitated communication and the collection of ideas (inputs) but also because it helped people to feel that they were part of the plan and that they owned it. I regarded Tolly as a 'change agent', because he tried to persuade his colleagues that transformation (which is innovation) would take the university in the desired direction.

Arguably, this approach may explain why the transformation programme was successful. In addition, the meetings and seminars were an effective way of bringing the stakeholders together to discuss the ITP, to exchange their knowledge and experiences of the ITP and also to make recommendations on what should be done to achieve the intended goals. As a result of my experience with the university as a staff member and based on the document review, I was aware that the university conducted an annual consultative meeting at which stakeholders from within the university and also from national and international contexts were represented. For example, Jehovaness, a senior academic and former director of the Institute of Journalism and Mass Communication stated that ‘We used to have annual strategic plan meetings and quarterly meetings where all the stakeholders discussed what we had done and later on provide comments for future improvement’.

At another level, the Minister of Science, Technology and Higher Education had the following to say when officiating at one of the Annual Consultative Meetings:

[...] a way of taking stock of successes, failures, problems and weaknesses that in turn gives the university community a clear vision of the implementation of its plans and also to correct all the problems it faced (UDSM, 2003b, p. 2).

While the role played by management to ensure wide participation in the ITP was extremely important, there were, nevertheless, still people who did not understand the relevance and importance of participating in the transformation programme. For example, Jacqueline stated:

There were many cases where people didn’t take part in the dialogue. For example, we used to call conferences and meetings to discuss the institutional transformation programme from the unit level to the institutional level. Some people did not participate in those different dialogues and then they would come up in one meeting and started complaining that this is the report from the top management.

George, a senior academic, also noted that not all people had been prepared to participate in transformation. This implies that while peoples’ ideas were deemed important, it was, however, difficult in a large institution such as the university to convince everyone to accept what was being planned. In addition, despite the concerted effort to convince everyone to accept the plan, time had been limited. Nevertheless, as indicated by Jacqueline, top management had attempted to ensure that people understood the plan. As a member of the top executive management team, Julius explained:

We had open meetings but people were indifferent, some came, others were sceptical about all these things.... So we tried our best...we opened up the discussions in the sense that when we were in the meetings those who were very critical were given opportunities to be as critical as they can and the task of the management was to respond and show the other side of the coin. We showed the negative side and the positive side.

It is interesting to note that the statement cited above seems to indicate that people were sceptical about accepting changes. However, this is typical of any innovation.

The second perspective indicated that the involvement of the stakeholders had been minimal. The following quotations reflect the feelings of those participants who felt that the process had not been participatory. In this vein, Kitila, a senior academic and general secretary of the University of Dar es Salaam Academic Staff Assembly (UDASA), stated that:

In terms of participation, yes, the participatory organs of the university participated, especially at the university level, but not so much at the faculty levels. Again, not so much when it comes to individual staff of the university because not many lecturers knew what is this called ITP? They were merely observers of what was going on.

Jonathani, a junior academic, also expressed his dissatisfaction with the way in which the process had been conducted:

I think to my view it was not that much consultative because communication was done at some advanced stage of which little could be addressed in terms of the wishes of the stakeholders. For example, if you ask me about the expansion vis-a-vis the number of academic member staff, I think it was not done appropriately. Inputs from the stakeholders are missing when it comes to decision making. The process is rather top-down in nature.

It would therefore appear that some people did not participate either because of a lack of information or because of a lack of interest in the process. The following quote by Luhanga *et al.* (2003) appears to suggest a reason why participation was minimal:

The rest chose either to mistrust the CSP and the ITP or to fight it because they were unconvinced of its message, while a proportion of carefree staff members were not bothered by the developments. Most of the self-declared enemies of the ITP either simply feared change or felt they had something to lose from the effective implementation of the ITP aspirations (p. 88).

Similar experiences with innovation are expressed in Rogers's (1995) work, *Diffusion of innovation*, namely, that it is extremely difficult to convince people to accept new ideas

despite the obvious advantages of the new ideas (p. 1). Rogers adds that ‘the individuals in a social system do not adopt an innovation at the same time’ (p. 252). According to Luhanga *et al.* and Rogers (1995), individuals who resist innovation are either sceptical or suspicious about innovations and would prefer to maintain the status quo. Oliver (1997) reported a similar case of individuals who displayed inertia and resisted changes, regardless of the nature of the changes, either because they did not feel inclined to engage in new activities or because they feared their power-base could be eroded (p. 702).

#### 5.4.2 Physical resources utilisation

One of the constraints the university faced in its effort to increase student intake was the shortage of infrastructure. As one way in which to overcome the problem, President Benjamin Mkapa, in his presidential address to the community of the University of Dar es Salaam in 1999, challenged universities in Tanzania, among others, to make ‘optimal use of existing facilities throughout the year in order to enhance enrolment rates, and to generate more income’ (Mwamila & Diyamett, 2006, pp. 16-17). The first initiative on the part of the university management, before embarking on the expansion programme, involved conducting a study to assess the resource utilisation on the campus. The aim of the study was to ascertain the available facilities and how they were being utilised. The study focused on the amount of space the university had, how this space was utilised and how much space was needed to support the expansion plan. Thus, the analysis of the university space utilisation was deemed important in terms of the university improvement. The report revealed that the university had a considerable physical space at its disposal in terms of lecture rooms and seminar rooms, although they were not being optimally utilised. The following views indicate the status of the utilisation of physical facilities before the expansion programme. Shombo commented:

We found in some faculties that only 5–15% of the physical capacity was utilised. We recommended coordination of the utilisation of facilities at the university level so that every facility available could be used not less than 80% per week. By just doing so, we were able to start expansion.

Tolly added:

I think NORAD makes us understand that we have not done our homework thoroughly. They asked us a basic question: do you know how much did you use the current facilities? And, believe me when we did our calculation we found that we were using them by 60% only because by then facilities were owned by faculties so

they were hiding rooms. This is how we started the central master timetable. This increased the utilisation of space up to 87% and this was only the maximum we can get and it is when we went up to that level when we started the expansion programme.

These narratives reveal that the university made two decisions to ensure the efficient utilisation of the university space. Firstly, the university declared that the space belonged to the university and not to the faculties. Secondly, the university established a centralised timetable system under the Programme Management Unit (PMU). The implementation of these two decisions, namely, changing the ownership of the properties and introducing a centralised timetable enabled the university to utilise its resources more efficiently and to expand enrolment. According to an internal review conducted by Mkude and Cooksey (2000), the resource utilisation was deemed to be an innovative element of ITP. The review stated:

For the first time, the cost of producing graduates in each programme was evaluated as part of the strategic planning process, leading to increased efficiency as faculties shed their ‘monopoly’ attitude towards ‘their’ teaching space and ensuring more optimal utilization of the human resources (UDSM, 2002c, p. 32).

Despite the fact that the strategy of centralising resources proved to be quite useful in enhancing the room utilisation rates, its introduction was met with resistance on the part of students (cf. UDSM, 2002c, p. 71). Subsequent interviews revealed that there had been conflict about the physical resource utilisation by the university. A vivid case which is widely documented and still lives on in the memories of the participants was that of the engineering students who had refused to allow their classrooms to be used by lecturers and students from other academic units. However, the participants revealed that the source of the conflict had been the planning philosophy that had been faculty-based rather than university-based. The staff and students had felt that resources were exclusively for faculty use. It is worth pointing out that an effort was made to address the conflict. In a meeting with the leaders of the engineering students, Jacqueline, as CACO, asked them to explain whether they had brought the lecture rooms with them. She explained:

If we don’t use your lecture rooms we will admit only 3000 students but if we make use of them we will double the enrolment. Among those extra students some will be your brothers and sisters. So why don’t you opened the door for other Tanzanians to get access to university education?



The first-year students' orientation programme was another avenue which was used to accustom the students to the notion of resource utilisation. Luhanga, then the Vice Chancellor and one of the architects of transformation, used the orientation programme as part of the university effort to inform first year students about the importance of the ITP. He made them aware that it was deliberate measures taken by the university to expand the student enrolment that had enabled them to be admitted to the UDSM. He, therefore, cautioned them against being selfish about resource utilisation after admission, stating that 'such an attitude could deny others access to public higher education' (Luhanga *et al.*, 2003, p. 91). Another strategy adopted by the university to increase the lecture rooms involved changing the use of some structures. For example, the university converted the former Yombo cafeteria into three lecture theatres with a carrying capacity of 750 students and 12 staff offices (UDSM, 2005a, p. 31). The effects of converting the cafeteria into lecture rooms are discussed in the next chapter under student welfare services.

#### 5.4.3 Formulation of various policies

The review of institutional documents indicated that the university has formulated various operational policies and procedures to facilitate the implementation of the ITP goals. The following operational policies and procedures were put in place.

- Master timetabling to coordinate and facilitate the utilisation of space in relation to teaching and learning facilities.
- The UDSM Land Use Policy and Land Use master plan (1997) allocated 17.5% of the university land to be developed and invited and allowed interested commercial (third party investors) parties to invest in the land. This initiative had two major objectives. Firstly, income generation from renting in order to enhance the financial sustainability of UDSM and, secondly, the provision of social services to the UDSM community on the main campus (UDSM, 2002c, pp. 70–71) for commercial use by third-party investors.
- Student Affairs Policy (2000) to improve student comfort and the establishment of a Student Affairs Committee to monitor the implementation of the policy.
- Admission of Third-Part Sponsored Students
- The Gender Policy of the UDSM (2006)

- The Anti-Sexual Harassment Policy (2006), which was the result of harassment incidents at the university. One of the objectives of the policy is to raise the awareness of the University of Dar es Salaam community of sexual harassment incidents with the aim of creating a gender friendly, learning environment.
- Quality Assurance Policy (2007) to ensure that relevant and appropriate academic standards are achieved and good quality education is provided to students. The policy also encourages and supports the ongoing quality improvement of the institution as well as its programmes and research management (UDSM, 2007c, p. 10).

These, together with other initiatives, have been implemented to ensure that the university's transformation programme achieves its goals.

## **5.5 Reasons for the success of the ITP**

The previous section discussed the strategies which were used to implement the ITP while this section examines the reasons behind the successful attainment of the selected key goals of the ITP relevant to this study. There is little doubt that the success of any reform programme is measured against the initial objectives or goals of the programme. The success of the reform programme at the UDSM is associated with a number of factors. I indicated at the beginning of this chapter that the study was not intended to evaluate whether the ITP had succeeded or not but, instead, I explored the views of the participants and the contents of the institutional documents to ascertain the reasons for the success of the programme. Indeed, as shall be discussed in chapters six, seven and eight, the ITP achieved many of its goals. However, while the achievement of these goals is evident, I sought to gain a deeper understanding of the reasons for the ITP success by conducting interviews with the participants in the study. The responses to the question that required the participants to provide their own assessments of their experiences with corporate planning and the culture of transformation at the university revealed that there were several different reasons for the ITP success. This study focused on the following: ownership of the programme, commitment to the ITP and the monitoring system.

### **5.5.1 Ownership of the programme**

This subsection builds on the information presented at the beginning of this chapter to the effect that the university was in a state that was described as 'sick' and, thus, reform was

needed to revitalise the situation. According to Julius, the first attempt to address the situation involved seeking financial assistance from the donors to hire experts to help the university to draft a plan. However, the donors insisted that the university staff members, who were better acquainted with the institution than anybody else, be used. Luhanga *et al.* (2003) captured the donors' response as follows: 'the university did not need an international expert for this task'. The donors added that 'there was enough talent within the country to undertake it' (p. 76). Thus, the university adopted the plan suggested by the donors and formed a team of internal experts with a knowledge and experience of planning and assigned to the team the task of preparing the first draft of the plan. Tolly said that higher education institutions in Africa including UDSM were told by donors that they should not look for experts from outside to transform them'. Shombo shared a similar experience with the transformation programme of the UDSM and added that the central characteristic of the transformation programme had been its essence and ownership:

Unlike other projects, which were donor driven in the government, this one was a very unique case because the idea came from within the university and not from outside. People from outside even tried to publish some things about the process but they did not get any leading role. Maybe there were individuals who were invited for a short while.

The conversation with Marietha, a senior academic also reflected this perspective when she stated that 'transformation was a kind of concerted effort to put heads together as a way of solving the problems that were facing the university'. The following general conclusions may be deduced from the research findings. Firstly, the use of internal people, despite the fact that they did not possess specific skills on preparing a strategic plan, helped to reduce costs. Secondly, the use of local experts to lead the transformation and manage it ensured ownership of the programme. In other words, the fact that the transformation initiatives came from within the university facilitated their implementation and ensured the sustainability of the programme.

#### 5.5.2 Commitment to the transformation programme

The successful realisation of the ITP goals may be attributed to the role played by committed individuals in different capacities in terms of time, skills and leadership. The institution documents available indicated that leadership had been the key to the ITP success. For example, one of the university documents reported:

The UDSM-2000 Institutional Transformation Programme ... has achieved a lot within a short time, thanks to the dynamic and visionary top leadership of the university, pragmatic role of the PMU and serious co-operation extended by Colleges, Faculties, Institutes and units (UDSM, 2000, p. 153).

As the document indicates, the nature of the cooperation shown by leaders from all levels of management facilitated the implementation of the programme and ensured the close follow-up of the programme. While there would doubtless have been disagreements and disputes during the leadership process, the interviews cited above suggest that, in the main, there was good communication and this, in turn, speeded up the decision making on important matters. Besides the document review, I conducted further interviews in order to understand why the ITP had succeeded in achieving its goals. In the course of the conversations, I realised that both individual and institutional leadership had played a significant role in the achievements of the ITP goals. At an individual level, Deo, a senior academic, stated that the achievement of the ITP goals could be attributed to the presence of a few committed people who had shared the same belief that the transformation had been possible. I reported elsewhere on the personal effort made by Tollyas a PMU manager and his colleagues in the reform office to visit each unit in order to ensure that the university staff understood the main objectives of the ITP has been reported elsewhere. At institutional level, Athumani indicated that the university had enjoyed a comparative advantage in terms of commitment and qualified human resources. Referring to the advantage of involving the academic staff in administrative duties, he stated:

If you hired experts to review all the documents we have here, you can't afford. It is a lot of money but most of the academic staff were trained by the university and they feel a part of this community.

As the statement quoted above suggests, the use of internal trained and committed human resources enabled the university to implement its transformation goals with minimal costs. Narrating his experience with the transformation programme, Luhanga, the then Vice Chancellor, stated that the top executive officers (VC and deputies) had agreed from the outset that they would not be paid for their extra workload: 'we were firm believers in the process and we did not want anybody to think that we were in the reform process to make money' (Luhanga, 2009, p. 51). This indicates that the team spirit shown by the institutional leadership had been instrumental in the success of the programme. The discussion was taken further by other participants. Ali, a senior academic, used the term 'pilots' to explain the role

played by management in achieving the ITP goals. He stated that ‘the success was attributed to the pilots, that is, the committed management from the onset of the institutional transformation programme to the current team’. Like Ali, Juliet linked the successful achievement of the ITP goals with the presence of ‘innovation champions’. She stated that, within the university, there had been ‘champions’ who had struggled to ensure that certain objectives were accomplished. She elaborated further, saying that ‘in any struggle you must have a champion and I think there were champions at various levels of the institution’. Being involved in the university management, Shombo appeared to agree that the new executive management of the university had facilitated the success of the ITP. The ‘new executive management’ referred to here by Shombo applied to the management which had come into being as a result of the transformation process. Unlike the previous management in which the three top positions had been filled by administrative staff members, the new executive management comprised mainly academic staff. Specifically, Shombo stated:

The major driving force was that there was new management with an idea to transform the institution. That new management was closely operating as a team of committed individuals.

Shombo’s view was similar to the comment made by Jacqueline. While the implementation of the reform process had encountered problems, she acknowledged the role of management in the success of the transformation programme. As one of the top executive officers she described how the management had operated:

Against all odds, we had a leadership which was committed to the corporate strategic plan. It was not only leadership but team work spirit. I think this was the magic! The VC and his team shared all their ideas concerning the transformation.

The use of terms such as ‘pilots’, ‘champions’, ‘new management’ and ‘team’ in the above narrations convey the message that it had been the visionary and creative leadership which had shared the same philosophy that had made reform possible. In addition, the foregoing suggests that ‘the team spirit’ had created a healthy environment because it had reduced antagonism and speeded up the implementation of the reform strategies. In addition, the contribution made by the University Council, the supreme organ of the university, had also reflected both the individual and team spirit which had played a role in the ITP. Julius did not hesitate to acknowledge the role played by the Council. Although the Council’s power to

make decisions was restricted by the University Act, it had, nevertheless, endorsed certain decisions that had facilitated the implementation of the ITP. In this regards, he said:

The Council was very useful because it allowed changes even if they were not strictly speaking in line with the 1970 Act. The Council was very understanding, we have very understanding people. For example, by then, the chairman of the Council was Mr Mwapachu who was well informed about all these changes. So the Council members were very sympathetic and understanding and we were able to do quite a lot of things with their support.

The discussion above indicates that leadership was a decisive factor in the success of the transformation programme. As illustrated in most of the quotations above, it is clear that leadership at both the individual and the institutional levels is instrumental in the success of any reform process.

### 5.5.3 Coordination and monitoring of the ITP

The achievement of the ITP strategic goals may also attributed to the existence of well-established coordination and monitoring structures. The aim of establishing these structures was to ensure that the strategic plans of the university were efficiently and effectively implemented. Thus, to meet this end, the university established organs and other mechanisms to ensure the coordination, monitoring and assessment of the outcomes in relation to the original objectives and expectations of the programme (cf. UDSM, 2009b, p. 55). This coordination, monitoring and assessment, in turn, provided relevant information on whether the plans had been successful or not while also providing the university with information about the day to day implementation of the ITP. Based on both the document review and the interviews, this section discusses the following strategies: establishment of coordination units, institutional reviews and annual consultative meetings.

#### **Establishment of coordination units**

From the outset it was realised that the implementation of the ITP would not be effective if there were no strategic units to handle specific functions or address goals as stipulated in the corporate strategic plan. Such strategic units were also considered to be a means of ensuring speedy decision making and rapid implementation of ITP goals. The interviews conducted revealed that the university had set up specific units to facilitate the monitoring and implementation of the ITP. According to Jacqueline, it was deemed necessary from the

beginning of the programme to have in place a management organ to monitor and oversee the process on a day to day basis. She stated that ‘although we had several meetings like the Senate and the Council we needed an executive organ to do the day to day monitoring and make decisions related to the process’. The organ to which she was referring was the Programme Steering Committee. In addition, Shombo described the committee as ‘a clearing house where proposals were discussed and suggestions made before forwarding them to other organs of the university’. Kitila also stated that the aim of establishing the Programme Management Unit (PMU) had been to facilitate the coordination of the Institutional Transformation Programme activities.

It emerged from the institutional documents reviewed that the following units were established:

*Programme Steering Committee (PSC):* This was formed at the outset of the ITP and was chaired by the Vice-Chancellor. The committee was set up to make decisions and monitor the progress in the implementation of the ITP. The overall management of the ITP was under the auspices of the PSC. The PSC comprised the following members: the Vice Chancellor, Chief Academic Officer, Chief Administrative Officer, Dean, Faculty of education, Dean, Faculty of Commerce and the Programme Management Unit (PMU) Manager. The terms of reference of the PSC, as listed by Luhanga (2009) in his book titled *The courage for change: Re-engineering the university of Dar es Salaam*, include the following:

- To ensure the setting up and adequate functioning of the PMU
- To appoint the members of the Programme Management Team and define their terms of reference
- To receive, discuss and give advice and directives on reports from the PMU
- To receive from the PMU and discuss and approve financial reports, budgets and operational requirements under the programme
- To decide and direct on submissions to relevant university organs, units or committees
- To monitor and direct all external relations and cooperation related to the programme activities (p. 49).

*Programme Management Unit (PMU):* This organ was established to coordinate the day-to-day operations, monitoring and evaluation of all activities connected with the ITP. The PMU

was directly answerable to the PSC but was operationally under the Chief Administrative Officer (CADO). The day-to-day activities of the PMU included the following:

- To plan, set-up and monitor task forces and studies relevant to the reform process
- To identify and deploy internal and external consultants and advisors for the process
- To promote the programme both internally and externally
- To mobilise the financial, physical and human resources needed for the programme
- To monitor the gradual incorporation of the reform activities into the regular structures and offices of the University of Dar es Salaam (ibid.).

In 2004, the name of the Programme Management Unit (PMU) was changed to the Directorate of Planning and Development (DPD) and it has currently been renamed the Directorate of Planning and Finance (DPF).

*Income-Generating Unit (IGU):* This unit was established in 1998 to administer the business aspects of the university. The aim of the IGU was to facilitate flexibility and quick decision making as regards the income generating activities in respect of the UDSM mission. To this end, the IGU was tasked to fulfil the following roles:

- review and restructure the existing Income Generation Activities (IGA) in order to improve the services and earnings of the UDSM as well as the individuals involved
- facilitate third party or joint venture investment at the UDSM
- facilitate loan provision to the UDSM departments, institutes and centres which have developed a viable proposal on tradable goods and services in terms of the mission of the UDSM
- promote and facilitate a culture of initiating the regular continuing education programmes which are needed by the Tanzanian community and the African region at large (Chungu, 1998, p. 78).

This unit functioned from 1998 to 2003 and it was subsequently elevated to the Directorate of Investments and Resource Mobilization (DIRM) in 2004.

Both the interviews and the document review indicated the organs or units that had been created in the early days of the ITP. However, with time, the university has undergone



restructuring which had led to the renaming, merging or creation of new units with similar purpose as indicated below:

- Directorate of Planning and Finance (2008) – following the merging of the Directorate of Planning and Development (2002), Directorate of Investment and Resource Mobilisation (2004) and the Bursar’s Office. This directorate is tasked with integrating the university functions of planning, development, information management, financial mobilisation and investments and financial planning (The directorate website).
- Directorate of Student Services (DSS) (2003), currently known as Dean of Students Office (DOSO). It has a counselling unit to respond to the changing needs of the students.
- Directorate of Public Services (2008) – followed the merging of the Centre for Continuing Education (2002) and the University Consultancy Bureau. Its main function is to promote, publicise and market the university and its units in relation to core mission of the university.
- Directorate of Undergraduate Studies (2004) – the aim of which is to improve and respond to student academic affairs
- School of Graduate Studies (2006) – currently known as the Directorate of Postgraduate Studies.
- The University Accommodation Bureau (2000) – a semi-independent unit that oversees the effective management of student accommodation facilities.
- The Quality Assurance Bureau, which came out as a result of the ITP and is mandated to monitor and evaluate all activities in relation to the core mission areas of teaching/learning, research and consultancy as well as support services to students and staff (UDSM, 2007c, p. 12).

In summary, the structures and/or organs listed above were established with the aim of realising the goals of the ITP. Indeed, these structures were established to promote accountability, efficiency and effectiveness within the hierarchy of the university in order to improve the performance of core activities and, more importantly, to broaden the sources of revenue in order to supplement the diminishing government support.

## **Institutional reviews**

The institutional documents reviewed indicated that the university had been conducting various reviews and studies to assess the performance of the ITP and to make recommendations regarding the implementation of the ITP. Since the inception of the ITP in 1994, several studies have been conducted, including among others, Farrant's External Review in 1997 (cf. UDSM, 2002c); The 1998 Academic Audit Report (UDSM, 1999b); UDSM Case Study (Mkude & Cooksey, 2000); Internal Review (Mgaya *et al.*, 2001); The 2001 External Review of the ITP (Smith & Mawenya, 2001); The 2004 Academic Report (UDSM, 2005a) and The Chancellor Visitation Report (UDSM, 2011b). For example, the report by Farrant in 1997 revealed that the strategic plan had not covered the employability of UDSM graduates. Thus, in response to recommendation contained in the report the university introduced programmes/courses in entrepreneurship. Suffice it to say, the recommendations contained in these reviews and/or reports were/are used to guide the review of the existing plans. A question was also posed to ascertain the participants' views on whether the university had in place mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the programme. A significant number of the participants indicated that the university conducts regular institutional review to determine the strengths and weaknesses of both its administrative and academic functions. For example, Juliet described how the university benefited from the reviews:

It was deliberately put in the ITP that the university should conduct academic audit on regular basis. So far the university had conducted two, in 1998 and 2004. Another mechanism through which the university ensures the quality of its programmes is through the Chancellor visitation team consists of both internal and external expertise. It provides the university with information regarding the relevance of its services as well as future prospects.

Like Juliet, Julius indicated that the university conducted an Academic Audit to assess its performance, including the performance of the ITP in respect of its strategic objectives. The university combined both internal and external reviews to improve its efficiency, relevance and effectiveness with respect to its teaching, research and public services. The university generally utilises recommendations from the various reports in order to update its plans.

## **Annual Consultative Meetings (ACMs)**

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the university uses annual consultative meetings (ACMs) as a strategy in order to communicate the philosophy and objectives of the ITP to stakeholders. In particular, the university conducts annual consultative meetings as a mechanism in terms of which to review the implementation of the UDSM transformation activities and plan for the future. In so doing, the annual consultative meeting ‘creates a forum at which progress of the UDSM Institutional Transformation Programme (ITP) is reported and, consequently, feedback received from participants’ (UDSM, 2009a, p. 1). The responses from the participants indicated that university has a culture of conducting the ACMs. While a large number of the participants mentioned the importance of ACMs, Julius summarised their views:

One of the things that were introduced during the transformation programme was annual consultative meetings. But each unit was supposed to hold meetings once or twice a year to report on their achievements and challenges they met during implementation of their corporate strategic plans.

The findings discussed in this subsection indicated that the ITP successes were primarily a result of a combination of strategies which complemented each other. It is also important to note that the basic aim of the ITP, as stipulated in the Corporate Strategic Plan (CSP, 1994), was for the university to ‘renew itself through a continuous process of self-controlled organisational audit and development’ (UDSM, 1999b, p. 1). Thus, while well formulated strategic plans were crucial to the success of the ITP, the coordination and monitoring system was considered to be as important.

## **5.6 Conclusion**

In this chapter I discussed how the environments surrounding the university in the 1990s provide the context for understanding and explaining the origin of the transformation programme at the University of Dar es Salaam. The discussion revealed that, for the university, the 1980s and the 1990s had been characterised by dwindling financial resources with decreasing annual financial assistance from government, increased social demand for higher education, and changes in the economic and socio-political environment in the country, among others. These events all had a significant impact on the functioning of the university. With respect to funding, it was established that, in common with other universities

which had been established in the post-independence period in Africa, the University of Dar es Salaam had enjoyed significant financial support from the government. This, it is argued, had meant government control of the university. However, with time, the government control of the university and its financial support proved to be stumbling blocks in the path of initiatives for change, because government control was limiting the university's ability to initiate innovative ways of addressing the challenges arising from the changed economic, social and political contexts within the country. The university was, thus, unable to implement plans such as expanding student intake in response to the increased demand for higher education.

At the same time, the demands imposed by the global knowledge economy were exerting pressure on higher education institutions and universities, in particular, to produce a highly skilled labour force in large numbers. In practice, a reform in the management of public higher education institutions was imperative in order to satisfy the current demands of higher education. It is in this sense and in the context of this study that it is argued that the decentralisation of the university management was required in order to give the university the autonomy it needed to initiate a reform programme that would revitalise the university and transform it into a more efficient and effective institution in terms of its core activities. The findings revealed, in realising this goal, more than any other factor, strong and innovative leadership played a key role in the success of the transformation process. In other words, it is argued in this chapter that the future of public higher education in Africa and Tanzania, in particular, will depend on the presence of innovative leadership that aligns transformation with the desired national and institutional goals.

## CHAPTER SIX

### Strategies to increase access and equity at UDSM

#### 6.1 Introduction

In chapter five, I described the context in which the nature and character of the institutional transformation programme at the UDSM may be understood. It was explained that decreased government funding in terms of the state controlled model restricts access to higher education. In other words, the declining government financial assistance limited the capacity of public higher education institutions to expand in order to be able to meet the increasing social demand for higher education. The introduction of corporatisation was, thus, a reform strategy aimed at helping public higher education institutions to correct the inefficiencies which had resulted from the state controlled model, including the restricted access to such institutions. In particular, the adoption and implementation of corporate strategies were premised on cost reductions through emulating economies of scale and the efficient utilisation of resources. It was envisaged that higher education would become more affordable and that this, in turn, would facilitate the access of greater numbers of students to higher education.

Based on the information presented in chapter five, this chapter presents the research findings which emanated from the question that sought to understand how corporatisation addressed both access to university education and equity in the provision of such education. In the first part of the chapter, I start by providing an overview of those policy frameworks which have a bearing on access to and equity in higher education in Tanzania. In the second part, I attempt to discuss the corporate strategies adopted by the university in order to expand student enrolment. I also discuss the equity-driven strategies which were aligned with the ITP strategic objective which was aimed at addressing the issues of access and equity, especially with respect to undergraduate female students. In furthering this analysis, I briefly explored the support services offered by the university to ensure that the students from various backgrounds succeed in their studies. In addition, in this chapter I argue for complementarities between the government and corporate strategies in the provision of higher education in order to broaden and sustain wider participation.

## 6.2 Access to and equity in higher education in Tanzania: general policy context

In this section, I examine how access to and equity to education and higher education in particular has been articulated in various national and international documents. Ideally, ensuring access to and equity in the social services is part of the national ethos and politics; however, in practice this ideal remains illusory. The literature indicates that efforts have been made at the institutional, national and international levels to redress the problem of unequal participation in education (cf. Galabawa, 1990; Marginson, 2011). In the Tanzanian context, the starting point of such efforts may be regarded as the founding legal framework of the country's constitution. The Constitution of Tanzania of 1977, Article 11 stipulates the right to education, including higher education: '[E]very person has the right to self-education and every citizen shall be free to pursue education in a field of his choice up to the highest level according to his merits and ability' (URT, 1998a: 19). The literature pertaining to Tanzania indicates that, from independence in 1961 up until today, educational policies and reforms have been characterised by the following features. Firstly, their major objectives were to distribute and equalise educational opportunities and, secondly, they focused on expanding educational institutions at all levels (Galabawa, 1990, p. 5; URT, 1995, p. 17). Thus, it was one of the main policy objectives that all forms of discrimination in education were to be abolished. For example, the 1962 Education Act abolished the provision of education in terms of race while the 1969 Education Act, among others, encouraged the expansion of secondary education and the opening of community schools. In 1974 the government abolished the bursary system and assumed the responsibility for paying all the costs of higher education. Clearly, it was expected that, as one of the aspirations of the Arusha Declaration<sup>1</sup>, the change in the financing of higher education policy would make higher education accessible to all socio-economic groups (Bailey *et al.*, 2011, p. 19). The enactment of the 1978 Education Act represented another effort to expand participation in education by establishing a quota system<sup>2</sup> for secondary schools in order to ensure district and gender parity. The system was intended to solve the inequality problem in education which had come about as a result of historical developments. However, the system was later phased out. In

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<sup>1</sup> The Arusha Declaration (1967): Named after the location of the conference, the Northern Town of Arusha, The Arusha Declaration is a policy directive intended to guide Tanzania along the path of socialism and self-reliance (Mtonga, 1993, p. 384).

<sup>2</sup> Quota system: As a way of promoting socioeconomic and regional equality in education an equity-driven strategy introduced allocated form one places in relation. This does not make sense to the total number of primary school leavers in each region and district in Tanzania (Buchert, 1997, p. 48). However, the quota system has been phased out on the grounds that it provided access to 'children with low achievement levels while, at the same time, denying access to the more deserving ones' (URT, 1999a, p. 21).

chapter five, it was reported that Tanzania experienced political and socio-economic changes in the mid-1980s and early 1990s. These changes had consequences in the provision of education. For example, in 1995, the Tanzanian Government issued the Education and Training Policy in which access and equity issues were stressed. This is underlined by the clause in the policy which states that ‘In the 1990s and beyond, there is a need to re-examine issues of access and equity in education within the context of a changed socio-economic and political environment’ (p. 17). In addition, the policy makes it clear that ‘policies that guaranteed access to education without regard to sex, colour, ethnicity, creed or economic status were enforced fairly and effectively’ (pp. 17–18). Furthermore, the Higher Education Policy of 1999 aimed to address, *inter alia*, the need for expansion, the enhancement of distance learning, the institutionalising of cost-sharing measures and the redress of gender imbalance while encouraging the private sector and individuals to establish and run higher education institutions (p. 5). Finally, one of the functions of the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU), as stipulated in the Universities Act No. 7 of 2005, is to promote gender equality, balance and equity (URT, 2005, p. 12).

At the international level, the ‘World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-First Century: Vision and Action’, which was adopted by the 1998 World Conference on Higher Education, dedicates its third article to the issue of equity of access. In an often used quotation, section (d) of the article states that:

Access to higher education for members of some special target groups, such as indigenous peoples, cultural and linguistic minorities, disadvantaged groups, peoples living under occupation and those who suffer from disabilities, must be actively facilitated. (World Conference on Higher Education, 1998)

As indicated above, there have been policy initiatives at the various levels to ensure access to and equity in education. Despite all these policy initiatives and reforms at both the national and international levels and which were intended to widen participation in education, the achievements still leave much to be desired. Accordingly, within the Tanzanian context, two policy frameworks that impacted negatively on access to and equity in higher education will be revisited. Chapter five discussed in detail these two policy frameworks, namely, the Musoma Resolution of 1970 and the Manpower Planning Policy, both of which referred the increased social demand for education. More specifically, it was noted that the implementation of these two policy frameworks has impacted significantly on the enrolment

of students in higher education. The next subsection will further explore these two policy frameworks within the context of access to and equity in the provision of education.

### 6.2.1 The Musoma Resolution of 1974

In chapter five, I presented on how this political directive, which was issued by the Executive Committee of the Tanganyika African National Union Party (TANU) in 1974, affected the enrolment of students in higher education. The implementation of the new admission policy, as stipulated in the decree, had several negative effects. Firstly, it caused a shrinking in the student intake in general and, more particularly, in the number of women admitted to the university (Leach *et al.*, 2008, p. 42). Biswalo (1980), cited in Luhanga *et al.* (2003, p. 38), and also Itandala (2008, p. 199) argue convincingly that the new admission policy impacted negatively on female education in the country. Under the Musoma Resolution, students were required to attend national service for one year and work for two years. Due to delayed admission female students decided to engage in other commitments and in so doing they either abandon or postpone indefinitely the idea of further studies. Even the enrolment of female mature students with work experience did not compensate for the number of those who could have enrolled at the university immediately after leaving secondary school. The available statistics indicate that, out of the 802 students admitted during 1974/75 academic year, 82 only were women while one year later, in 1976/77 academic year, only 68 were admitted (Kiondo, 1986:3, cited in Leach *et al.*, 2008, p. 42; Itandala, 2008, p. 200). In addition, and as a consequence, in the same academic year 1976/77 there were not enough eligible applicants available to enrol in the sciences, especially in engineering, following the delay in admission (Itandala, *ibid.*). An appeal was, thus, made to the ruling party to amend some aspects of the policy so as to allow women to enrol in all the programmes and for male applicants to be allowed to enrol in the Faculty of Engineering immediately after completing their high school education. In justifying these exemptions, Nyerere (1977) stated:

It has been necessary to make some temporary exceptions to this rule. Women students and for the Engineering Faculty are allowed to enter (the university) directly after completing National Service. This is intended as a temporary compensation for the social and education disadvantages suffered by Tanzanian women in the past, and in order to ensure that expensive technical and scientific equipment, and teaching capacity, at the university is fully used during the transition to the new system. But in time the same rules will apply (pp. 13–14).



It is thus clear that, in the main, the Musoma resolution expanded the access to the university of a certain category of students based on gender and academic programmes. As explained in chapter five, the policy was abolished and the old, direct entry system reintroduced.

### 6.2.2 The Manpower Planning Policy

The Manpower Planning Policy was the result of the government's intention to increase the supply of qualified Africans. In order to meet this demand the policy stated explicitly that the required skilled manpower could best be attained by allocating educational resources to the production of the skills most needed for economic development (Resnick, 1967, p. 107). In terms of the policy directive the National High Level Manpower Committee determines, on an annual basis, the number of students to be admitted to study courses relevant to the specific jobs required by the nation. Thus, in terms of this policy, the government decides on the national requirement in respect of high level manpower in the various public sectors. This decision has had two important consequences. On one hand, the policy limits the number of students that the university may admit. There is little doubt that the restricted student intake has led to the inefficient utilisation of the university's resources. On the other hand, the plan prevents the university from producing more graduates in professions, beyond what was required by the nation (Resnick, 1967). Thus, even bursaries were allocated according to the manpower planning framework. From an economic perspective, the policy ensures that there was no redundant skilled manpower after the estimated job demand has been met. Thus, the student intake in higher education was determined by the available job demand and was reinforced by the allocation of bursaries. As noted in chapter five, this policy slows down the development of lower levels of education as well as the growth of the higher education subsector. In short, the policy restricts the university's autonomy and flexibility as regards expansion and, thus, prevents the university from reaping the advantages of economies of scale because small numbers of students were admitted to the university as compared to the available resources.

### 6.3 Corporate strategies and the expansion of the student intake

This section discusses the corporate strategies adopted by the university to expand the student intake. In chapter five it was discussed that access to higher education in Tanzania and at the University of Dar es Salaam in particular was determined primarily by the government's financial ability to meet tuition and other expenses, as well as by the accommodation capacity

of the university. It was further noted that the university had been confronted with the problem of an increasing demand for higher education, but within the context of declining government funding. Thus, the inadequate financial resources from the government had compromised the ability of the university to admit qualified applicants. Luhanga (2009) described this situation as follows:

The economic crisis which faced Tanzania in the 1980s had a significant negative impact on academic programmes of the UDSM. The institution remained stunted and small with about 3000 undergraduate students and an insignificant number of postgraduate students (p. 61).

In other words, the government was unable to support the growth and expansion of higher education and, thus, to continue relying on the government for funding would not solve the problem of the restricted access to higher education. Recognising the importance of expanding its access, the university, with its Corporate Strategic Plan (CSP), has embarked on a systematic expansion of student enrolment since the 1994/95 academic year (UDSM, 2002b, p. 44). One of the specific goals of the revised CSP is ‘expansion and equity in enrolment and promotion of student welfare’ (UDSM, 2004a, p. 90). As part of achieving this goal, one of the institutional documents revealed that the university had been advised to ‘review its elitist admission criteria by introducing innovative methods of providing higher education for a larger section of the society’ (UDSM, 2002c, p. 34). Thus, in answer to this call, the university introduced various strategies to ensure wider participation.

### 6.3.1 Enrolment of private sponsored students

Until the 1990s, the public universities in socialist countries such as Tanzania were not allowed to enrol privately sponsored students for social equity justification. Thus, for example, in Tanzania, it was the government’s responsibility to sponsor Tanzanian candidates for undergraduate degrees. However, this ignored the fact that there were private sources available to meet higher education expenses and, more importantly, it treated all students, equally regardless of their socioeconomic backgrounds (cf. Oketch, 2003, p. 89). A corollary appears to be that this approach restricted public universities from admitting students who could be financed by private sources, including financially able parents. This, in turn, resulted in inefficiency in terms of the university’s capacity utilisation and unit cost. Thus, with the limited expansion, a private entry scheme for privately sponsored students became a necessary strategy to enable the university to utilise its resources efficiently and

effectively by increasing the student intake beyond the general government sponsorship. This chapter has already discussed how the manpower plan determines the student intake. However, during his interview, Julius indicated that the university had had the capacity to enrol more students. In particular, he stated that ‘we decided to open opportunities for people who were willing to pay because there was space left to train more people. Any person who had money and enough credentials was allowed’. In fact, there is evidence to suggest that, despite the fact that there were private resources in Tanzania that could be mobilised to expand the enrolment of private students, Tanzanians were reluctant to pay the tuition fees for higher education. The available data indicates that the admission of privately sponsored students at the UDSM was officially instituted in 1996 and that, as indicated in the university’s corporate strategic plan, its main objective was to provide access to university for several eligible Tanzanian students (Ishengoma, 2004, p. 115, UDSM, 2011b, p. 4). In 2002 the UDSM was allowed to admit privately sponsored students to fill the vacancies that remained after government sponsorship (Marcucci, Johnstone & Ngolovoi, 2008). However, the enrolment of privately sponsored students in terms of the regular system (referred to as the Dual Track Tuition Policy) was discontinued in Tanzania in 2005 following the introduction of student loans (ibid., p. 121).

There are several advantages to the enrolment of privately sponsored students, namely, the university would benefit from the economies of scale with respect to unit costs, generate income and, more importantly, meet social goals through the intellectual capital formation for the nation (Ishumi, Maghimbi & Kalembo, 2000, p. 115). Thus, in order to benefit from these advantages, the university enrolled privately sponsored students in its regular day and evening programmes. The data indicates that the number of privately sponsored students increased from 46 in 1997/98 to 384 in 2000/01 (UDSM, 2002b, p. 43). The aim was that the number of privately sponsored students would comprise 10% of the number of government sponsored students by 2003/04 (UDSM, 2004a, p. 10)). There were 3,800 privately sponsored students in the 2005/06 academic year (Luhanga, 2009, p. 56). It should be noted that this innovation was not unique to the UDSM as in East Africa Makerere University was the pioneer in this respect. The available literature points to the fact that, in 1999, Makerere University admitted 10,000 students of which 20% only were government sponsored (Musisi & Muwanga, 2003, p. 23). In addition, Makerere University also admitted a significant number of foreign students (ibid.). With respect to foreign students, who constitute part of the privately sponsored students, the UDSM has not been able to attract foreign students at either

the undergraduate or the postgraduate level. According to published data, the number of undergraduate foreign students at the UDSM decreased from 467 in 2009/10 to 138 in 2010/11 (UDSM, 2012, p. 10), while the number of postgraduate foreign students decreased from 35 to 13 on the main campus (*ibid.*, p. 11). During his interview, Athumani indicated that the internationalisation of higher education remains a significant challenge for the UDSM. He also stated that it is important for the university to attract foreign students who are able to afford the international fees. On the other hand, there is evidence to suggest that South African universities enrol a large number of international students from within and outside Africa and they generate income by charging them international fees. For example, in 2010, South African universities enrolled 46,204 students from the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) region (Kotecha, 2012a, pp. 83–84). It is, thus, clear that, comparatively speaking, the UDSM has failed to expand its private sources of income.

In order to attract privately sponsored students the university has adopted two complementary strategies, namely, the semester system and also the expansion of academic programmes, especially evening programmes. The semester system is deemed to be convenient for privately sponsored students because it gives them the opportunity to pay their fees on a semester basis while they also able to take a break from their studies to collect the required funds for the following semesters (Mbegu, 2000, p. 127). In order to ensure the effectiveness of this system, the courses should be structured in such a way so as to allow for flexibility to enable the privately sponsored students to take a break from their studies and return to continue with their studies after they have raised enough money to pay the fees. Unfortunately, anecdotal evidence indicates that the university has not been able to fully optimise the introduction of the semester system as a result of the rigidity in the course offerings (UDSM, 2011b, p. 33) and also partly as a result of the shortage of academic staff to facilitate offering courses throughout the year.

With respect to evening programme, the UDSM, in common with other corporatised universities such as Makerere, has introduced evening programmes. With reference to Makerere, Court (1999) observes that ‘the most effective way of attracting private students is to provide courses for which individuals, families and companies are willing to pay (p. 6)’. It should be noted that, under the state controlled model and within the ideological context of Tanzania, this option was not previously available. However, programmes are now offered during evenings or weekends so as to accommodate working people and to encourage private

sponsorship. In addition, evening and weekend courses also help to optimise the utilisation of the available resources. It is worth noting that all the evening programmes at the UDSM are offered under the private sponsorship scheme and have grown enormously. There will be more discussion on the evening programmes in chapter seven.

In short, based on the above brief discussion, it is possible to draw two conclusions. Firstly, the introduction of a private sponsorship scheme improves both internal and external efficiencies and, secondly, the success of evening programmes is based on both the willingness and the ability to pay and, thus, is likely to foster inequity.

### 6.3.2 Mobilisation of third-party sponsorships for students

The mobilisation of third-party sponsorships for students is another strategy by means of which the university encourages the expansion of student enrolment. In its strategic plans the university has strongly advocated third-party sponsorships by local as well as external organisations. This strategy has been supported by donors such as Sida/SAREC (Sweden), NORAD (Norway) and the Carnegie Corporation of New York (United States of America). In 2001, the university, with the support of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, instituted a programme known as the Female Undergraduate Sponsorship Programme (FUSP). The programme had both short and long range objectives. The short-term objectives included addressing the gender imbalance in student enrolment by increasing female enrolment and also bridging the gender gap in enrolment by offering scholarships to financially disadvantaged female students. The long-term objectives of the FUSP were twofold. The first long-term objective involved promoting gender balance in the student enrolment such that a 50:50 ratio in student enrolment would be achieved by 2010, while the second long-term objective involved promoting the acceptance of the concept of private sponsorship as an alternative method to accessing university education (UDSM, 2005a, p. 76). Since the 2001/2002 academic year, the annual female student intake has been boosted by guaranteed sponsorship by the FUSP. For example, 50 eligible female applicants were sponsored in the 2001/2002 and 2002/2003 academic years respectively while, in the 2003/2004 academic year, a total of 57 female students were funded under the scheme (*ibid.*). As indicated above, this programme depends on donor support. In this vein, Jehovaness, a senior academic states that ‘development partners such as Carnegie sponsored female students to pursue their undergraduate as well as postgraduate degree programmes’. The interview with Anne revealed that the Female Undergraduate Student Support Programme, which had been

supported by Carnegie Corporation of New York since 2001 had lasted for nine years until it was phased out in 2009/2010 because of a lack of local funds to ensure its sustainability. The programme was clearly both equity-driven as well as corporate in nature. On one hand, it could be regarded as an equity-driven strategy because it focused on expanding the enrolment of female students from poor backgrounds while, on the other hand, it cultivated the culture of private sponsorship as a strategy with which to access a university education. Nevertheless, the FUSP was not sustainable because of a lack of funds. It should be noted that, recently, companies with investments in Tanzania have been offering scholarships. In the College of Engineering and Technology, for example, Barrick Gold (T) Limited provides bursaries to students based on their academic performance.

### 6.3.3 Use of ICT to expand access and equity

I reported in chapter five how the shortage of physical resources poses a challenge to expanding access to higher education. In addition, it was also reported that the residential model of delivering education limits access to a significant number of eligible students. This implies that it was not possible for the residential mode of provision alone to assist the higher education institutions to respond to the challenge of the increasing demand for higher education (UDSM, 2007b, p. 206). This shortfall called for alternative ways in which to expand the access to higher education. Based on its Strategic Objective No. 5 of the Five-Year Rolling Strategic Plan (FYRSP) 2005/2006–2009/2010, the university is focusing on ‘improving its Information and Communication Technology capacity and its effective utilization in teaching, research and management’ (UDSM, 2005b, p. 104). There is little doubt that offering distance learning programmes, mediated through the use of information technology, offers a solution to the problem of restricted access. Indeed, as compared to the residential model, the use of the distance education mode (e-learning) has several advantages, including the fact that it is less expensive in terms of operational costs. This, in turn, enables the university to reap the maximum benefit from the minimum available resources. In this vein one of the documents (Luhanga *et al.*, 2003) reported that:

The university is currently planning a comprehensive programme to the expand access of a larger number of Tanzanians who will be able to access university education without necessarily increasing the number of academic staff (p. 157).

In addition, distance learning programmes are not restricted to a few students because of the flexibility that enables people who are not able to enrol on full-time basis to access higher

education. In summary, the use of ICT is cost effective because it opens access to many eligible Tanzanians without necessarily expanding the infrastructure and human resources while, for the students, it is comparatively convenient and affordable. The approved ICT-Mediated Distant programmes include: Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE), Postgraduate Diploma in Engineering Management (PGDEM), Bachelor in Business Administration (BBA) and Master in Engineering Management (MEM). Nevertheless, as illustrated by statistics and despite the perceived advantages of such programmes the university has not been able to utilise this strategy effectively. Table 6.1 depicts the number of students admitted to online courses per programme and per year.

**Table 6.1:** Number of students registered in online courses by programme and year

Programme	2008/2009	2009/2010	2010/2011	2011/2012
PGDEM	17	30	18	9
PGDE	11	8	7	6
MEM	0	17	29	20

Source: Data obtained from African Virtual University Learning Centre in May, 2012.

Table 6.1 reveals that the number of programmes offered online is still relatively small as compared to the growing skills and knowledge requirements of the country. These statistics are contrary to the envisaged goal of the Centre for Virtual Learning (CVL) of providing ‘affordable and quality education programmes and short courses to a greater proportion of the people of Tanzania’ (UDSM, 2007b, p. 15). Thus, it may be concluded that the number of students admitted under ICT mediated model is too small to have any significant impact on the university’s expansion programme.

#### 6.3.4 Strategy based on the efficient utilisation of resources

Corporatisation embeds market logic in decision making that is aimed at the efficient and effective utilisation of resources. In line with the logic of corporatisation, the university employs a strategic approach to the more efficient and effective utilisation of both its physical and human resources. One source indicates that the university had the capacity to increase its student intake by 1500 students by 2007/08 through the efficient utilisation of its physical resources and without any new investment in infrastructure (Luhanga, 2009, p. 78). In chapter five I discussed resource utilisation persuasively and it was established that the study of the capacity utilisation of the available resources should precede any expansion plans. There was a realisation that the university resources were not being fully utilised because of

the ownership style that existed. For example, Jacqueline indicated that the capacity evaluation study had found that the space at the university was underutilised. The main reasons for this underutilisation and the measures taken to address were discussed in detail in chapter five. As discussed above the introduction of evening programmes represented a more business-like approach to the efficient utilisation of resources (see also chapter seven). In addition to the introduction of evening programmes the university has extended its teaching schedule which now lasts from 7h00 to 20h00. This strategy resulted in a substantial increase in student enrolment and, thus, in class sizes. In other words, the transformation improved the student-teacher ratio. In this vein Max stated that ‘at some point the student-teacher ratio was very low in favour of students but, with time, the ratios became high, meaning that fewer numbers of staff attend many students in an average term’. However, while the university benefits from the economics of numbers with respect to its operational costs, it is essential that quality is not compromised.

#### **6.4 Equity-driven strategies at the UDSM**

The implementation of corporate strategies is bound to favour those who are willing and able to pay. This, in turn, highlights the need for equity-driven measures or strategies in the provision of university education.

##### **6.4.1 Affirmative strategies as a means of expanding access to and equity at the UDSM**

While one of the transformation goals was to expand the access to university education, it was also imperative that the critical issue of equity be addressed. In order to do this the university, under the ITP, employs affirmative strategies in order to expand access and equity, especially with respect to female undergraduate students. It is important to note that, in this regard, the UDSM operates within the national policy frameworks, including the Education and Training Policy of 1995 and the Higher Education Policy (1999), among others. Thus, these documents provide a framework of how the existing gender imbalances in higher education institutions may be addressed. For example, the Higher Education Policy places emphasis on ‘redressing the gender imbalance through some affirmative mechanisms as long as female candidates academically qualify for entry’ (URT, 1999a, p. 5). With the context of the UDSM, one of the university’s values, as stipulated in the UDSM Five-Years Rolling Strategic Plan 2008/2009–2012/2013, states that: ‘Equity and social justice by ensuring equal opportunity and non-discrimination on the basis of personal, ethnic, religious,



gender or other social characteristics’ (UDSM, 2009b, p. 7). This priority is reinforced in section 2 (d) of article 4 of the University of Dar es Salaam Charter, 2007, which states that an aim of the university is ‘to ensure and promote gender balance, equality and equity in its policies, programmes and regulations relating to teaching, research, consultancy and public services’ (UDSM, 2007d, p. 8). In view of this it is, thus, not surprising that the transformative agenda of the UDSM emphasises the promotion of gender awareness and gender sensitivity and also gender as a factor in the university’s quantitative and qualitative endeavours (UDSM, 2005a, p. 72).

While the global landscape of higher education has changed with the increased participation of female students (Michael, 2005, p. 13; Kearney, 2010, p. xi), there is evidence to confirm that the enrolment of female students varies across countries, institutions and fields of study. For example, in 2007, female enrolment in the public higher education system in South Africa was 55.5% (Council on Higher Education, 2009, p. 22). When examined in terms of field of study, 57% of the students enrolled in science, engineering and technology were men. Other fields of study where the number of women enrolled exceeded that of men included education where 73% were women (ibid., p. 23). In contrast, the enrolment of female students in higher education institutions Tanzania is generally low and particularly so in science, engineering and technology programmes. The effort to increase the number of female students enrolled at higher education institutions is undermined by obstacles at the primary and secondary education levels (UDSM, 2005b, p. 47) that have led to poor performance and under-achievement on the part of the female students. This, in turn, has created the gender imbalance in higher education institutions. Within the UDSM context, at the beginning of the ITP, gender imbalance was the only area which was evident and, therefore, it was given special attention in the strategic plans. Luhanga (2009) observes:

The gender context at the University of Dar es Salaam in the 1980s and early 1990s was characterized by very low access rates (between 10 and 20 percent) for both undergraduate and postgraduate female students. The rates were also monotonically decreasing with time. The rates for science, science-based subjects, and mathematic-based courses were even lower (p. 156).

Thus, according to this quote, the gender imbalance was not only in terms of numbers but also as regards specific academic programmes. Accordingly, as part of the ITP, the corporate strategic plan of the university planned to address gender issues at the university. Table 6.2

presents the trend in the ratio of male and female students admitted to the University of Dar es Salaam for the 18-year period from 1992/93 to 2009/10.

**Table 6.2:** Male: Female ratio for the admitted undergraduate students admitted to the UDSM for the years 1992/93–2009/10

Year	Male	Female	Total	Ratio male: female	% Female
1992/93	784	189	973	4.1	19.4
1993/94	936	161	1,097	5.8	14.7
1994/95	924	162	1,086	5.7	14.9
1995/96	1,128	172	1,300	6.6	13.2
1996/97	1,203	228	1,431	5.3	15.9
1997/1998	1,406	344	1,750	4.1	19.7
1998/1999	1,627	347	1,974	4.7	17.6
1999/2000*	2,362	679	3,041	3.5	22.3
2000/01	2,281	971	3,252	2.3	29.9
2001/02	2,340	950	3,290	2.5	29.2
2002/03	2,607	1,294	3,901	2	33.2
2003/04	2,483	1,202	2,685	2.1	44.7
2004/05	2,727	1,723	4,450	1.6	38.7
2005/06	2,800	1,691	4,491	1.7	37.7
2006/07**	4,126	2,585	6,711	1.6	38.5
2007/08***	3,752	2,023	5,775	1.9	35.0
2008/09	3,499	2,200	5,699	1.6	38.6
2009/10	4,072	2,568	6,640	1.6	38.7

Source: UDSM (2004a, pp. 107-108); UDSM (2008a, p. 8); UDSM (2010, p. 10); UDSM (2011a, p. 9).

\*The University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLAS) become a constituent college of the UDSM

\*\*As from 2006/07 Mkwawa University College of Education (MUCE) and Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) were included.

\*\*\*The two constituent colleges: The University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLAS) and the Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences (MUCHS), were elevated to the status of fully-fledged universities.

As indicated by the data presented in Table 6.2, the overall admission rate for female students during the period in question has improved significantly, as reflected by the declining ratios of male to female students admitted. In addition, with some varying percentages, the number of female students admitted improved from 14.9% in 1994/95 to 38.7% in 2009/10. The university target is to reach gender equity by 2015 (UDSM, 2002c, p. 49). However, despite the fact that the proportion of female students attained thus far represents a significant achievement, the trend suggests that the target may not be reached. For example, it was envisaged that the proportion of female students would increase from 25% in mid 2003 to

45% by mid 2008 (UDSM, 2004a, p. 73). However, at the target date, the proportion of female students was 40%, thus 5% short of the target (UDSM, 2011a, p. 11). It should be mentioned, however, that the statistics depict the institutional situation in its entirety. However, the percentage of female students varies from one faculty/college/institute to another with females being overrepresented in the social sciences and underrepresented in the science, engineering and technology programmes. For example, by 2001/02, the percentage of female students in certain faculties such as the Arts and Social Sciences was 48% (UDSM, 2002c, p. 49). In addition, the review of the university documents indicated that, with the exception of the School of Journalism and Mass Communication (SJMC), which had 61.4% female students, the percentage of female students in other academic units was less than 50% in 2009/10. For example, the College of Engineering and Technology (CoET) had 18.4% female students (UDSM, 2011a, pp. 39-40). Jacqueline had this to say about the situation:

I remember in the first year we said the admission of female students will be a minimum of 30%. The idea was to push the faculties to admit more female students. As I said the university admitted only 30% and therefore about 70% of the qualified students were not admitted. Definitely you could find fewer female students in that 30% admitted.

From a gender equity perspective, the immediate the university's response was to correct the imbalance by progressively increasing the number of female students admitted. As already mentioned, the government determines the number of students admitted by the university. It is obvious that the admission policy could favour male students who perform well academically (see Table 6.2). Accordingly, overall enrolment pattern at the university included an extremely small proportion of female students. This, in turn, highlights the question of gender imbalance which disadvantaged female applicants. One of the aims of the interviews was to establish how the university had responded to the issue of gender imbalance. Kitila shared his views as follows:

Before the transformation the enrolment of female students was very low compared to their counterpart male. One of the strategic objectives in the strategic planning of the university was to progressively increase the number of female students. I think by 2010, the enrolment of female students was expected to reach 50%.

Expressing a similar view Anne noted:

The inclusion of gender mainstreaming in the corporate strategic plan was an outcome of the on-going debates all over the world and in Tanzania on the rights of

female to get equity of access to education. With those debates, the aspect of gender was incorporated in the university plans with the intention of making the university to have a different outlook in terms of opening up access, and how to increase equity in the whole system of education.

Thus, according to both Kitila and Anne, gender equity was an integral component of the fundamental institutional transformation programme. Therefore, at this point, there was justification for the university to institutionalise affirmative mechanisms when admitting students in order to redress the gender imbalance at the institutional level as well as in specific academic units. Accordingly, since the inception of the ITP in 1994, the university has tried systematically to address gender inequities and has institutionalised affirmative action strategies to enhance social justice in order to attain gender equity with respect to student numbers. In other words, the implementation of affirmative admission strategies was deemed essential so as to lay the foundation for an equitable social landscape at the university. The following affirmative strategies were employed by the university during the transformation programme in order to redress gender inequity as regards participation in higher education.

#### 6.4.2 Special-entry programme

As in other parts of the world, access to higher education in Tanzania is closely linked to the performance at the lower levels of education and access to higher education is competitive based on academic performance. In view of the low student intake capacity, the selection criteria at the University of Dar es Salaam were very stringent and, as a result, a significant number of potential candidates were unsuccessful because of the high cut-off points. More recent statistics from the admissions office reveal it was/is mainly the female applicants who are compromised by the stringent requirements and that the problem was/is more pronounced in the science as well as the engineering and technology programmes. In view of the fact science, engineering and technology are becoming important drivers of the global knowledge economy, it is imperative that women be empowered to take up the challenges in science and technology (UDSM, 2004b, p. 79). As part of the National Development Vision 2025, the Higher Education Policy emphasises the importance of correcting the gender imbalance and improving the rate of female participation in science, mathematics and technology (URT, 1999a; UDSM, 2011b, p. 3). However, this is possible only if more women are admitted to higher education and, more importantly, to the science-based disciplines. In an effort to achieve this, , in 1997, the UDSM, established a well known programme known as the Pre-

Entry Programme (PEP) with the aim of expanding the female student intake in science courses (UDSM, 2004b, p. 87). The guiding principle that informed the programme was based on the assumption that emphasising academic criteria as a prerequisite for admission was restrictive because such a policy did not take into account the disadvantages to which an individual may have been exposed during schooling.

The programme started as a pilot scheme under a Teacher Education Assistance in Mathematics and Science (TEAMS) project which was managed collaboratively by the Faculties of Education and Science and with the aim of addressing the relatively small number of female students in the Faculty of Science (Nawe, 2002). The following example will serve to illustrate low enrolment in science programmes. During the 14<sup>th</sup> Consultative Meeting on the UDSM Institutional Transformation Programme, Mosha, the then Principal of the Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE), reported that inadequate numbers of students were being admitted in the sciences even after the cut-off points had been lowered. For example, he stated that, in the 2006/7 academic year, the College had planned to admit 500 students in the sciences but had, in fact, admitted 173 qualified candidates only (Mosha, 2007, p. 69). While this statistic illustrates the situation at the college, it is also obvious that the number of female students joining the science programmes would be extremely small. Thus, in order to increase the female intake, the UDSM, through the Faculty of Science, invited applications from female candidates who had failed to meet the admission cut-off points but who possessed the minimum required entry qualifications. The PEP was intended to help the students selected to improve their academic skills by giving them the opportunity to attend lectures and laboratory sessions in science subjects for six weeks and, thus, to acquire the qualifications required to be admitted by the university. In other words, the aim of the programme was to facilitate the successful applications of the students who participated and, thus, to improve the chances of the potential pool of female students who had failed to meet the minimum cut-off points for admission but who had attained the basic qualifications in their A' level or equivalent grades to be admitted to the university. The study participants indicated that the university gave priority to female students, who had not met the cut-off points for admission, to attend a bridging programme to improve their capacity to succeed at the university. Specifically, the participants viewed the 'Pre-Entry Programme' as a strategy aimed at addressing specific gender gaps in science related academic programmes. The participants indicated that the female students who sat

and passed the end of programme examination were admitted to join the university. In the following quote, Max, a senior academic expresses the importance of the programme:

The access to education has been an issue in the transformation programme especially in science and engineering programmes. The participation of female students in higher education has been low. Quite a few steps have been taken. One is highly efficiency programme called pre-entry academic programme where girls who did not met the minimum required qualifications to join the university were invited to come and study before the start of an academic year to go through a study programme and do an examination. Those who passed were admitted in regular programmes.

The participants recognised that the introduction of the programme had been useful in ensuring that the university succeeded in its effort to redress the gender imbalance. According to Tolly, there was a compelling logic behind the programme. He considered it as a remedial measure to address the weaknesses inherited from the lower levels of education:

The female Pre-Entry Programme was useful because apparently lack of facilities in the lower levels of schools hindered female students from performing to the expected level. Mind you, those students did pass marginally in their high level secondary examinations. They stayed at the university for only six weeks where they were provided with foundation courses and get exposure to the university environment. The successful students were admitted into science-based degree programmes depending on their choices.

Since its inception, the programme has succeeded in increasing the rate of enrolment of female students in the Faculty of Science from 15% (1997) to approximately 30% in the 2003/2004 academic year. Based on its positive impact on the Faculty of Science, the programme was extended to other science related fields, including engineering, the medical disciplines as well as architecture (UDSM, 2005a, p. 75, Nawe, 2002). For example, in the 2004/2005 academic year, the programme was extended to the Faculty of Engineering with the same aim of addressing the gender imbalance in science subjects. In terms of operation, the programme in the Faculty of Engineering was similar to the Pre-Entry Programme in the Faculty of Science although the former was conducted for a period of eight weeks. Table 6.3 summarises the number of female students selected to join the Faculty of Engineering through the Pre-Entry Programme from 2004/2005 to 2006/2007.

**Table 6.3:** Enrolment of undergraduate students in Engineering, 2004/2005–2008/09

Entry Year	Number				Progress as of 2007/2008
	Applied	Selected	Reported and enrolled	Successfully completed programme and admitted	
2004/2005	161	80	64	61	39 students were in 4 <sup>th</sup> year in 2007/08
2005/2006	133	73	64	63	46 students were in 3 <sup>rd</sup> year in 2007/08
2006/2007	141	91	80	80	68 students were 2 <sup>nd</sup> year in 2007/08
2007/2008	209	108	96	95	87 students were in 1 <sup>st</sup> year in 2007/08

Source: Data obtained from Gender Centre, University of Dar es Salaam in May, 2012

The data in Table 6.3 illustrates that the number of students who had successfully completed programme and gained admission was increasing. However, as indicated in the table, the number of students in each cohort decreased after admission. For example, 39 out of 61 students in the 2004/2005 cohort were in their fourth year during the 2007/2008 academic year, thus indicating that 22 (36.1%) students had dropped out. In addition, 17 (26.9%) out of 63 students in the 2005/2006 cohort had dropped out before they entered their third year. The interview with Jonathani helped to explain this trend as he stated that ‘Once female students passed and get admitted they received similar treatments like other students’. This, in turn, implies that the programme focused ‘only on the point of admission to the university’ (Onsongo, 2009) and underlies the assumption that the institution provides a suitable learning environment. However, Jonathani’s statement seems to suggest that there was a lack of support programmes to facilitate the retention of female students and enable them to cope with and complete their studies. Unlike the UDSM, the University of Cape Town in South Africa adopts a comprehensive approach which ensures the provision of support services to disadvantaged students who have been admitted in terms of preferential admission criteria (World Bank, 2002, p. 57). It is also important to note that this programme benefited female students with natural science backgrounds only. In addition, the programme lasted for an extremely short period as a result of a lack of financial support as the programme had been a donor funded project with a limited time frame.

The discussion above provides the historical context that led to the institutionalisation of the Pre-Entry Programme while also explaining how the programme operated. The contribution of the programme as regards realising its goal of redressing the gender imbalance, as

stipulated in the UDSM's mission and purpose will now be assessed. I relied on both documents and interviews to obtain relevant information as to whether it had succeeded or not. Firstly, the institutional documents were reviewed. The data indicated that the implementation of the PEP had contributed significantly in redressing the gender balance in the Faculty of Engineering. The statistical data on enrolment illustrate the trend presented in Table 6.4.

**Table 6.4:** Impact of Pre-Entry Programme on redressing gender imbalance in Engineering, 2002/2003 – 2008/09

Academic year	1 <sup>st</sup> year enrolment			Total undergraduate enrolment		
	Female students	Total students	% Female	Female students	Total students	% Female
2002/03	22	369	6.0	86	1,185	7.3
2003/04	31	312	9.9	95	1,237	7.7
2004/05*	129	452	28.9	198	1,270	15.5
2005/06	116	497	23.3	276	1,441	19.1
2006/07	145	560	25.9	383	1,699	22.5
2007/08**	101	388	26.0	386	1,573	24.5
2008/09	59	386	15.3	360	1,604	22.4

Source: Gender Centre, University of Dar es Salaam, May, 2012

\*Indicates the year when the Pre-Entry Programme was launched in the Faculty of Engineering.

\*\*Indicates the year when the programme was terminated in the former Faculty of Engineering.

A summary of the table indicates that the introduction of the Pre-Entry programme had contributed significantly in increasing the proportion of female students in the Faculty of Engineering. For example, the statistics reveal that the percentage of female students enrolled was 15.5% of the total population of students enrolled when the programme started in 2004/05 and continued rising to 24.5% in the 2007/08 academic year when the programme was phased out. It may be of interest at this point to report on the success of the programme. With regard to the achievements of the programme, Luhanga (2009) writes:

So far the programme has enabled over 600 students to gain entry into the university. There is no significant difference in performance between pre-entry girls and those who entered the university under normal channels. In fact, in some cases, the pre-entry girls have outperformed their colleagues who had obtained first division passes at A-level (p. 162).

In addition to the document review, I obtained the views of the participants with interviews being conducted to establish the achievements of the programme in terms of redressing the gender imbalance. It was widely agreed that the programme had had a positive impact on



promoting a gender balance in the science based fields. The following quotations from the participants bear testimony to this. Kitila clearly articulates the achievements of the programme in increasing the number of female students at the university:

The institutional transformation programme came up with a special programme called pre-entry programme for the purpose of positively improving the number of female students admitted to join the university. The programme enrolled female students who had lower cut-off points compared to their counterparts. This managed to increase the number of female students. When the ITP began, the number of female intake was below 20% but as we speak, the enrolment of female students is closing around 40% of the total enrolment and the idea is to make it 50% by 2015.

Like Kitila, Tolly expressed the view said that the academic progress of the female students who had joined the university through the programme was impressive. He observed:

The experience shows that the students who joined the university through the Pre-Entry Programme became the best students in their classes. It just demonstrated the shortfalls that are at the lower levels of the education.

Max reinforced Tolly's assessment of the programme. He verbalised the contribution made by the programme:

I think the number is not huge but it has provided a good lesson because those who joined academic programmes through this programme have been very successful. This means that social limitations in terms of backgrounds of the students had a factor and if affirmative strategies are taken, improvement of female students has recorded success.

Collectively the participants' opinions suggest that there were and still there are weaknesses in the provision of education at the lower levels and which are likely to prevent female students from excelling in higher education. This would, thus, seem to suggest that the affirmative action interventions should start at the lower levels of education instead of only when students reach higher education.

Despite its significance achievements the programme was terminated in the 2007/2008 academic year. A far-reaching consequence of the phasing out the programme has been the declining proportion of female students in the College of Engineering and Technology. For example, in the 2009/10 academic year, the percentage of female students admitted constituted only 10.6% of the 611 students admitted to the CoET (UDSM, 2011a, p. 38). In

the same year, the female student population constituted only 18.3% of the 1682 students enrolled at the CoET (ibid., pp. 39–40). The trend indicates that the proportion of female students enrolled at CoET has declined sharply since the Pre-Entry Programme ended and, thus, it would appear that the declining number of female students calls for the reintroduction of the programme. Viewed from this perspective, it is not surprising that the recent study conducted by the Chancellor's Visitation Panel Report endorses the UDSM's plans to re-establish the programme and also extend it beyond the initial target group. More specifically, the report suggests:

The pre-entry courses to top up numbers in the sciences such as the one conducted for women, for example, should be stepped up and extended to include other deserving students regardless of gender (UDSM, 2011b, p. 30).

Clearly, an effort must be made to remove the barriers that affect the academic progress of female students at the lower levels of education. In addition, an improvement in the provision of the quality education will also enable female students to perform better in their final examinations.

#### 6.4.3 Preferential admission criteria

Another strategy within the ITP framework which was adopted by the university to promote access and equity for female applicants involves special selection criteria for its various academic units. It is important to note two important points before discussing the details of the strategy. Firstly, the number of students selected to join a particular degree programme is determined by the enrolment capacity of that programme and, secondly, the selection process is informed and regulated by both the Advanced Secondary Certificate Education performance and other entry procedures.

In view of the fact that the overall enrolment capacity of the university is low relative to the number of eligible applicants, the cut-off points are used as a criterion for selecting the required number of students for each degree programme. The university documents indicated that the cut-off entry points used in the admission process were so high that they prevented a significant number of eligible candidates, the majority of whom were female, from enrolling in certain programmes (cf. UDSM, 2004b, p. 88). Thus, the strict implementation of these cut-off points during the admission process definitely posed a challenge to gender equity. In order to address the challenge, in 1997, the university adjusted the admission criteria as an

affirmative intervention by deliberately lowering the cut-off level by 1 to 2 points for eligible female students (UDSM, 2005a, p. 76). The policy was and is still largely regarded as an equity-driven measure aimed at enabling the admission of comparatively more females at slightly lower cut-off points as long as the cut-off points are within the framework of grades for university admission. Initially, the policy was applied throughout the university although the cut-off point advantage is no longer implemented throughout university and especially not in the arts and humanities-based disciplines where the female students are capable of obtaining the required cut-off points. This policy does give the female applicants a competitive edge as compared to their male counterpart applicants. The cut-off points for the selected degree programmes and admission years are presented in Table 6.5.

**Table 6.5:** Direct admission cut-off points for selected degree programmes by year and gender

Degree programme	2004/05		2005/06		2006/07		2007/08		2008/09	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
BSc Education	8.5	6.5	8	7	5.0	5.0	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
BSc with Computer Science	9.0	7.5	8	7.5	8.0	7.0	6.0	6.0	5.0	5.0
BSc in Computer Science	10.5	9.0	9.0	8.5	8.0	8.0	5.0	5.0	7.0	6.0
BSc General	8.0	6.5	7.5	7.5	-	-	-	-	4.5	4.5
BSc Eng. Geology	5.0	5.0	7.0	-	6.0	6.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0
BSc Molecular Biology & Biotechnology	9.0	7.5	8.0	8.0	8.0	7.0	5.0	5.0	6.5	5.0
BSc Electronic Science & Communication.	9.5	8.0	8.5	8.5	9.0	8.0	5.0	5.0	8.0	8.0
BSc Wildlife Science & Conservation	9.0	7.5	8.5	8.5	8.0	8.0	5.0	5.0	7.0	6.5
BA (PS & PA)	10.5	9.5	11.5	11.5	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	12.0	11.0
BA (PS & Sociology)	10.5	9.5	10.5	9.5	11.0	10.0	11.0	9.0	12.0	10.0
BA (Sociology)	10.5	9.5	11.5	10.5	10.0	10.0	9.0	9.0	10.0	10.0
BA(Statistics)	6.5	6.5	8.5	6.5	8.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	8.0	6.0
BA (Education)	9.5	8.5	9.5	8.5	6.5	5.5	8.0	7.0	9.0	8.0
BEd (ADE)	9.0	8.5	11.5	10.5	10.0	9.0	7.0	6.5	9.5	8.0
BEd (Commerce)	8.0	7.5	9.5	8.0	8.0	8.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	6.0
BEd (PESC)	7.5	5.5	7.5	7.5	8.0	7.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
LLB	12.5	11.0	12.5	12.0	12.0	11.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0
BCom (Business Stream)	10.5	8.5	10	8.0	9.0	8.0	9.0	6.0	8.5	7.0
BSc in Civil & Structural Engineering	6.5	6.5	6.5	-	8.0	8.0	3.5	-	5.0	-
BSc in Civil & Transport Engineering	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.5	6.0	6.0	3.5	3.5	5.0	5.0
BSc in Mineral Processing Engineering	7.5	-	6.5	-	7.0	7.0	4.5	-	5.0	5.0
BSc in Industrial Engineering & Management	-	-	-	-	8.0	7.0	3.5	3.5	4.5	4.5

Source: Admission office (various years).

The data in Table 6.5 reveals the following in relation to the overall cut-off points. Firstly, in general, the cut-off points for females were slightly lower as compared to those for male students. Secondly, with the exception of the Bachelor of Arts in Statistics, the cut-off points for the selected Social Sciences, Commerce and Law degree programmes were consistently higher as compared with the natural sciences, engineering and technology related degree programmes because the number of applications for these disciplines were generally higher as compared with the other disciplines. It is important to note that, in Tanzania, the maximum number of points possible in the Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education Examinations is 15.5 points: accumulated from three principal subjects and one subsidiary subject. Thus, a cut-off point of 12.0, as used in the Bachelor of Law programme, is considered to be extremely high. In addition, it was established through the admission records that, even after giving the advantage of one point less, there were few and/or sometime no female students admitted to some of the engineering programmes. For example, in 2004/05, there were no female students admitted in the following programmes in the Bachelor of Science degree: Electrical Engineering, Electrical Power Engineering, Production Engineering, Electro-Chemical Engineering and Mineral Processing. In the same academic year, 3% only of the female students were admitted to the Bachelor of Science in Civil and Structural Engineering degree (one out of 32) and the Civil and Transport Engineering degree (one out of 33) respectively. Furthermore, the records indicated that, in the 2007/2008 academic year, there were no female students admitted to the following programmes: Bachelor of Science in Electro-Mechanical Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Mechanical Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Mineral Processing Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Mineral Engineering as well as Bachelor of Science in Civil and Structural Engineering. Thus, an important point with respect to the low female enrolment trend is the need to maintain affirmative action programmes such as reduced cut-off point strategy while complementing the strategy with a Pre-Entry programme (as discussed previously) so as to ensure equal gender representation in the degree programmes which are regarded as pivotal to the national development strategy in respect of the natural sciences and engineering and technology. However, it is argued that, while the implementation of affirmative action programmes is a short term plan, improving and the opening of more secondary schools specialising in science subjects as well as encouraging girls to study science subjects would offer a longer term solution to the problem.

I conducted the interviews to complement the information on the cut-off point strategy which had been gleaned from the document review. Generally, the participants appeared to

acknowledge that the university's plan of lowering cut-off points was, and still is, a useful strategy to ensure gender equity. As Juliet explained, 'in certain degree programmes females were given a 1.5 point bonus as an advantage over their male counterparts to enable them to join the university'. Julius, Jehovaness, Marietha and Jonathani also expressed the view that lowering the cut-off points for female applicants during the admission process was a necessary process in order to prevent further gender imbalances. However, although the cut-off point policy was used as a strategy in order to improve both access and equity, its implementation faced stiff resistance. Jacqueline, former CACO, offered an example of the type of resistance encountered from some faculties. Referring to admission in relation to gender, she explained:

The university through its corporate strategic plan came up with a very specific objective of increasing the number of female students. I remember in the first year we said the admission of female students will be a minimum of 30%. The idea was to push the faculties to admit female students.

The use of the word 'push' in her narration above indicates that there was internal resistance to the university's plan to admit female students who did not meet the formal admission criteria. The Faculty of Law was one of the academic units which refused to implement the directive on the basis that no female applicants who met the admission criteria were excluded. However, based on the admission records, Jacqueline, by virtue of her position as chairperson of the University Admission Board, revealed that there had been many more qualified female students who had applied to join the Faculty of Law than in other units because of their educational background, that is, the faculty had selected students with History, English and Geography in their subject combinations. These are the subjects in which, in the main, girls perform extremely well. Thus, it was not possible that there were no female students who had met the minimum admission requirements. Based on this fact, she had used the university regulations that guide the admission process to instruct the Dean, Faculty of Law, to review the admission document. The achievements of the affirmative action strategies with respect to the increased percentage of female students enrolled at the university are depicted in Table 6.6.

**Table 6.6:** Percentage of undergraduate female students at the main campus in selected years

Year	Male	Female	Total	% Females
1993/94	2424	410	2834	14.5
1996/97	3055	606	3661	16.6
1999/00	2871	1235	4106	30.1
2002/03	5362	2497	7859	31.8
2005/06	7520	4427	11947	37.1
2008/09	7034	4737	11771	40.2
2009/10	6469	4176	10645	39.2
2010/11	7602	4336	11938	36.3

**Source:** UDSM Facts and Figures (various years from 1995/96–2010/11).

As Table 6.6 indicates, the university has succeeded in increasing the number of female students since the 1993/94 academic year. However, while the implementation of affirmative action strategies are believed to have a positive impact on equity, there was, a concern about how the students admitted through affirmative action would be perceived by staff and their fellow students. The tendency was that those students admitted to the university through affirmative action strategies were regarded as academically inferior. There is the belief that although affirmative action ensured equity, it also compromises excellence. For example, it has been argued that opening access to those who did not meet the traditional admission criteria would lower the academic standards of the institution (Buckley & Hurley; 2001, p. 549), while Woodrow (1999) posits that ‘equity is the enemy of academic excellence. Low status students will lower standards’ (p. 343). If I reflect on my own experience as a student, it was common to hear students who had joined the university through the normal admission criteria or procedures calling their counterparts who had joined through affirmation strategies ‘*Viwango Duni*’ (VD), literally meaning students with lower academic qualifications or otherwise ‘second rated students’. Nevertheless, despite such labelling, there is little doubt that the affirmative action programmes, as discussed above, all attest to the university’s awareness and willingness to redress the gender imbalance at the institution. In particular, the implementation of PEP and preferential admission criteria is premised on the university’s mission of contributing to the national development goal by ensuring greater accessibility to the university.

In short, there is little doubt that the affirmative strategies have improved the equity of access. It is important to note, however, that these strategies were effective only at the entry point to the university because, after admission, the beneficiaries were treated in the same

way as their fellow students. Arguing from the point of view of economies of scale, the affirmative strategies have improved the effective utilisation of resources. In addition, they were also in alignment with the goal of the institutional strategic plan to produce highly-skilled human resources to aid the socioeconomic development of the country.

### **6.5 Student loans as a strategy for expanding access and equity**

It has been argued, particularly by the World Bank and donors, that public universities in Africa are elitist, benefiting only a few (cf. Mamdani, 2008, pp. 7–8). Thus, in order to counteract such view, the World Bank advocates the decentralisation of financial policies in public higher education, emphasising that the beneficiaries of higher education should bear the cost (Michael, 2005, p. 20). This, in turn, implies a shift of the financial responsibilities from the government to individuals/families. Accordingly, public higher education reform introduced cost sharing in the form of tuition fees and user charges (Johnstone, 2009, p. 11; World Bank, 2010). As Ishengoma (2004) purports, as elsewhere, the main rationale behind introducing cost sharing in Tanzania was to ‘increase participation at and accessibility to all institutions of higher education’ (p. 106). However, it has been contended that the implementation of the market approach and/or a cost sharing policy with its emphasis on the ability to pay is incompatible with equity concern with many students being unable to gain access to higher education institutions because of an inability to pay the fees. In this regard, the Education and Training Policy of 1995 recognises disparities in the accessing of education. In particular, it states:

Despite all efforts to make education accessible, certain groups of individuals and communities in society have not had equitable access to education (p. 18).

Thus, in this case, an enabling policy framework which fosters social equity was imperative. In pursuit of correcting the situation the policy states:

Government shall promote and facilitate access to education to disadvantaged social and cultural groups (ibid.).

The manner in which this policy goal was to be achieved was discussed in explicitly in chapter 6 in the section 6.3 on the National Higher Education Policy of 1999:

Taking into account the prevailing socio-economic conditions, not all students may have immediate ability to meet the cost of higher education. The government shall

provide financial assistance to students who require it on loan basis (URT, 1999a, p. 19).

Thus, intending to address social inequity, the government established the Higher Education Student Loans Board to facilitate access to higher education and also to ensure equity between the rich and poor with its main objective being to assist ‘needy students who secure admission in accredited higher education learning institutions, but who have no economic power to pay for the costs of their education’ (retrieved from [www.heslb.go.tz](http://www.heslb.go.tz)). Clearly, student loans improve accessibility and, thus, promote equity. The Higher Education Student Loans Board formulated a means test as a framework for approving loans to students. Based on the principles contained in the policy, it was expected that the overall purpose of the means test approach would facilitate equity in accessing loans and this, in turn, would guarantee the access of needy students to higher education. However, in reality, this often remains somewhat unrealistic with this policy goal being possible only if there is an effective means-testing student loans scheme which is supported by adequate government funding. However, it became apparent that there is general public dissatisfaction with the functioning of the loans system, especially in respect of the criteria used to allocate loans. The majority of the participants were extremely concerned that the means testing which was used to allocate loans had, instead of correcting the inequality based on socioeconomic classes, widened it. For example, Joshua, a junior academic and once a beneficiary of the Loans Board, stated that the means test had not been consistent with its intended objective. While the loans scheme and means testing had been expected to help needy Tanzanian students to gain access to higher education, it appeared that the approach had benefited students from the upper and middle socio-economic classes because of their good education backgrounds. Juma, a student leader, expressed more or less the same view when he said:

Sponsorship of students in Tanzania is problematic. The majority of poor students depend on bursaries provided by the HESLB. The means testing used by the Loans Board has not proved that children from poor families will access education.

A similar sentiment was reported by the Chancellor’s Visitation Panel report:

Many students from poor socioeconomic backgrounds are denied loans or receive inadequate amounts while those from economically privileged backgrounds are awarded more generous rates (UDSM, 2011b, p. 55).



The following conclusions may be drawn from the quotations cited above. Firstly, it would appear that the fund allocated by the government for student loans is inadequate to meet the actual demand for funds. Secondly, it is possible that the criteria set by the Loans Board for allocating loans are not been met There is anecdote evidence suggesting that the allocation of loans has been the source of the frequent student boycotts and unrest that have impacted negatively on the functioning of higher education institutions, including the UDSM.

## **6.6 Student support systems**

The preceding sections discussed the strategies which were implemented to expand access and equity. However; efforts to increase the participation in higher education are not sufficient and other, concomitant support policies and/or systems are required to ensure the retention of students and, eventually, their completion of their studies. It is worth reporting what Juliet said because her comments convey the message that more needs to be done in respect of support systems. She said:

I think the university has been very good in terms of trying to open up access to the university for disadvantaged groups like female students. I think we could do more in terms of looking at maintaining them and ensuring that they perform well. Of course, most of them do well but still there can be more ways to make them perform better.

Accordingly, a question was posed to explore whether there were institutional support policies and/or strategies in place to facilitate both the learning process of the various groups of students admitted to the university and success in their academic careers. For the purpose of this discussion, the support services are categorised into two broad groups, namely, academic support and material (physical) support.

### **6.6.1 Academic support**

This chapter discussed the various strategies used by the university to expand its student intake. It is, however, relevant to examine whether the university had plans in place to ensure that the students admitted as a result of the corporate and equity-driven strategies succeeded in their studies or not. It was revealed that the university had implemented several strategies to address the needs of students. In the first place, the university had put in place a system of allocating an academic advisor to each student. However, as will be discussed in chapter seven, this proved not to be feasible because of the increased numbers of students. In addition, it was revealed that, with respect to the affirmative action strategies, there were no

follow up academic programmes to help the female students to cope with academic life. With respect to students with disabilities, the university environment has not succeeded in meeting the needs of students with disabilities. However, based on equity considerations and in order to raise the level of awareness, the university has started to put in place support services for students with disabilities. For example, the university has a Special Education Unit which is housed in the School of Education. The unit has trained personnel and equipment that cater for various types of disabilities. Commenting on the way in which students with disabilities are assisted, Lucy, a student leader, revealed that students with disabilities are assisted with study and transport facilities. She maintains that the other students are also supportive in assisting students with disabilities to attend classes and also visit the library and other places. In addition, the university gives students with disabilities an extra 15 minutes when writing tests or end of semester examinations.

#### 6.6.2 Physical/material supports

The expansion of the student intake has created a serious shortage of physical resources, including accommodation facilities. The inadequate accommodation facilities has not only been a hindrance to the expansion programme but has also posed a formidable challenge to students. Although the problem impacted on all the students, it was the female students who were more likely to be exposed to the risky environment. In an effort to alleviate the problem, the university, under the auspices of its semi-autonomous agency, the University Student Accommodation Bureau (USAB), gives priority to both first year and female students as regards room allocation. In the words of Sikujua ‘female students, especially those from up country, are normally given first priority during rooms’ allocation’. Similarly, Julius indicated that female students were given with preferential treatment when it comes to accommodation. Thus, although accommodation is a problem, it would appear that the university employs a humane approach during room allocation in order to help female students to cope with academic life.

As mentioned earlier, while student loans are meant to cover subsistence and books, the students often used the meagre loans to pay for their tuition fees. What, then, have been the effects of this funding arrangement on students? The Chancellor’s Visitation Panel report (UDSM, 2011b) revealed that, in addition to the delayed disbursement of the loans, the money provided is not adequate to meet students’ basic needs, including food and

accommodation (p. 55). Certainly, the delayed disbursement of the loans has adversely affected students. For example, Lucy expressed her experience as a student leader:

Students get loans from the Student Loans Board but the experience shows that they used their meals and accommodation allowances to pay fees to the university. Towards the end of the semester students faced serious life hardship and some went without food throughout the day. I think their studies are affected very much.

However, she spoke positively about the support from the Dean of Students Office (DOS) which provided food coupons to the needy students on the agreement that, once they had received their allowances, they would pay back the money loaned to them. As regards alleviating the problem, Jehovaness, a senior academic, holds the pragmatic view that ‘the university has not done much to assist them. It is better if the university could offer part time jobs for students from poor backgrounds’. However, while this appears to be a good idea, it has not been put in to practice by the university.

Concerning students with disabilities, the university is making an effort to ensure that these students achieve their education goals. The participants spoke about the efforts made by the university to create an environment that would help the students with disabilities. For example, at the institutional level, Julius indicated that the Estate Department had been instructed to ensure that all new buildings had facilities for people with disabilities. Tolly drew on his experience as a PMU manager to explain the situation:

No consideration was made to students with special needs during the transformation. We were criticised for not giving this group special attention. With time their needs were streamlined in our plans. For instance, the university provides various facilities like bicycles.

In common with the other participants Joshua also mentioned that the university, through its special education unit, provides all possible support to students with special needs. However, he observed that knowledge of inclusive education on the part of the academic staff was minimal and, as a result, it was difficult to assist students with special needs. While support is extremely important, a number of participants felt that the university had not done all it could in terms of taking care of students with special needs in various fields.

In explaining the situation Max says:

Most buildings are not accessible for physically impaired students because they were built in early 1960s and during that time nobody ever thought about such category of students. My general feeling is that the assistance they are getting is not sufficient in terms of supplies and assistance. Generally, the university has not been in the fore front in terms of helping students with special needs.

Levina, a senior academic, also spoke of similar problems faced by students with disabilities.

I haven't seen any restructuring of the buildings. They are still using the same buildings we used during our studying time. They don't have lifts to enable them access to offices or lecture rooms. I think we haven't done enough in the library to provide people with disabilities with access to library resources like books, journals etc. Only new lecture theatres have special facilities like toilets and entrances.

Juliet concurred with other participants and provided an example that indicated that the infrastructure was a problem to physically impaired students. She said:

Last year I was invited in the College of Engineering and Technology to award a student who assisted her fellow student with physical disability for three years to attend lectures which were conducted in an up stair room. Well you admire the student doing that but it exposes the challenge that more need to be done. Most of buildings are old and their construction did not take into consideration students with disabilities.

In short, the narratives above demonstrate the importance of creating a learning environment that, through the construction of the infrastructure, allows easy accessibility and mobility to disabled students. Many of the consequences of the student expansion programme with respect to academic and material/physical support will be discussed in detail in chapter seven.

## **6.7 Conclusion**

In chapter five it was established that both access and equity remain a challenge to higher education in Tanzania. In this chapter, I discussed corporate and equity-driven strategies which have been implemented by the university to facilitate access to university education and equity in the provision of such education. The discussion revealed that the implementation of corporate strategies has enabled the university to expand its student intake beyond government-supported students by enrolling privately sponsored students. This was made possible through strategic measures such as the introduction of semesterisation, evening programmes and the efficient and effective utilisation of resources. It was presumed that the

adoption of corporate strategies would make education affordable to students from the various socioeconomic groups. However, it is possible that the implementation of such strategies may precipitate further inequity because they are wholly based on the ability to pay. In this respect, I argue that the implementation of corporate strategies alone is insufficient in addressing both access and equity concerns. Therefore, in order to balance the issues of access and equity, equity-driven strategies have been implemented at both the institutional and the national levels. At the institutional level, the university employs affirmative strategies aimed at expanding the access of female students and also equity for female students. However, it is worth noting that the affirmative strategies lasted for a short time only because of a lack of sustainability as a result of the fact that they depended on donor funds. At the national level, the government established the Student Loans Board to ensure the equitable access to higher education of students from various socioeconomic groups. I argue that a combination of corporate and equity-driven strategies is crucially important to meet the need for equity, efficiency and effectiveness. Indeed, a combination of these strategies would improve both the internal and the external efficiencies of the university. On one hand, the university will achieve internal efficiency through the efficient utilisation of its human and physical resources while, on the other hand, the university will produce a greater number of the graduates (external efficiency) needed for national development despite the reduced government subsidies.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### Consequences and challenges of the implementation of corporate strategies

#### 7.1 Introduction

In chapter six I present the strategies used by the university to improve access and equity. This chapter continues the discussion on the reform programme and pays particular attention to practical issues, namely, the consequences and challenges involved in the implementation of the programme. The chapter begins with a discussion of the consequences of the expansion of the student intake. This is followed by a discussion on the consequences of the reform programme for both the university community and the academic programmes offered at the university. The chapter also examines specific challenges which were encountered during the implementation of the corporate strategic plan under the ITP, namely, funding and decentralisation. In this chapter I argue that the transformation programme implemented by the University of Dar es Salaam had both positive and negative consequences which were also either anticipated or unexpected and that the programme encountered challenges.

#### 7.2 Expansion of the student intake and the consequences of this expansion

##### 7.2.1 Expansion of the student intake

There is evidence suggesting that the ITP succeeded in meeting the target set in Strategic Objective No. 3 of increasing the expansion of the student intake at both the undergraduate and the postgraduate levels. With regard to the enrolment of undergraduate students, the institutional documents indicated that, since the start of the expansion, the enrolment had increased from 3,164 in 1993/94 to 12,264 in 2003/2004 – a 287.6% increase. By the 2003/2004 academic year, the university had already achieved 94.3% of the target set of 13,000 undergraduate enrolments by 2006/2007 (UDSM, 2004b, p. 14). In addition, the enrolment of undergraduate female students increased from 17% in 1993/94 to 30.7% in 2003/04. The enrolment continued to expand from 14,254 in 2004/2005 to 17,166 in 2008/2009, with an overall enrolment of 19,905 students in 2009/2010 (UDSM, 2010, p. ix). In terms of gender, the data revealed that an increased proportion of female students had been admitted to the university. For example, from 2004/2005 to 2009/2010, the number of female students increased from 34 to 40%. The corresponding figures for postgraduates indicated that enrolment increased from 114 (17.5% female) in 1993/94 to 1,669 (30% female) in 2003/04 (UDSM, 2004a, p. 99). This number continued to expand from 2,797 (27% female)

in 2006/07 to 3,125 (27% female) in 2007/2008 (UDSM, 2010, p. 13), with an enrolment of 2,646 (39% female) in 2010/11 (UDSM, 2012, p. 11). Based on the discussion in chapters five and six it would appear that the university's corporate strategic plan under the ITP has resulted in an increase in the number of students enrolled at the university. From a policy perspective, it would seem that ITP has succeeded in increasing the number of students and of female students in particular and, hence, addressed the gender disparity at the UDSM. In addition, the implementation of the student intake strategies has achieved two simultaneous objectives. Firstly, from a human capital perspective, expanding the student intake evidently plays an important role in meeting the high level human resource needs in the country and, secondly, from an economic perspective, the expansion of the student intake is helping the university to reap the advantages of the economies of scale because the unit cost is gradually decreasing, thus bringing about internal efficiency.

### 7.2.2 Consequences of the student expansion

It is acknowledged that one of the major objectives of the ITP was to expand the student enrolment. While the ITP has achieved this goal of expanding student enrolment, one would expect a simultaneous expansion of additional physical facilities and welfare services to meet the demands of the expanded enrolment. However, the marked expansion of the student enrolment has taken place without an increase in the above-mentioned services. Accordingly, a question was posed to ascertain whether or not the increase in the number of students at the institution as a result of the implementation of corporate strategies had impacted on the student academic and welfare services. It is worth noting that, in the beginning, the plan to expand student enrolment did not take into account the availability of important facilities and resources. For example, in a recently published book entitled *In Search of relevance: A history of the University of Dar es Salaam*, Lawi (2008) writes that:

[...] the expansion of student intake, unquestionably a relevant response to growing demand and the need for cost effectiveness, has obviously had negative effects on the quality of teaching and other student services at the University (p. 57).

Expanding student enrolment inevitably results in challenges to the resources in terms of physical infrastructure, social services and academic staff. One of the obvious consequences of the student enrolment expansion was the inadequacy of the teaching and learning facilities, including lecture theatres, laboratories and library facilities. In addition, the expansion also exerted pressure on the welfare services, including the accommodation, catering and

counselling services. In discussions on the student expansion the shortage of teaching and learning facilities was widely reported in many of the university documents (UDSM, 2004a, pp. 26–27; UDSM, 2005a, p. xi; 32, 34, 39, 42; UDSM, 2009b, pp. 10–11, 17; Lawi, 2008, p. 54). While the documents revealed the status of the resources in relation to student intake, I conducted interviews in order to ascertain the consequences of expanding the student enrolment on both the academic and the welfare services. The welfare services will be discussed in a separate section. In the analysis of consequences for academic services, they are discussed in relation to students and academic staff.

#### *7.2.2.1 Consequences of the student expansion for teaching and learning*

There is little doubt that the transformation facilitated the access to university education and also widened participation in such education. However, this growth had certain impacts, both positive and negative, with the university not being able to meet the demands posed by the increased enrolment in many respects. For example, when I enrolled as a student at the university in 2001/02, there was a well-established system of assigning academic advisors or mentors to students. These advisors or mentors were responsible for advising the students on all kinds of issues. I was also assigned an academic advisor. It is unfortunate that the advisory/mentoring system is no longer practicable because of the expansion of the student intake. The participants in various academic units reported that the culture of assigning academic advisors is disappearing rapidly because of the large numbers of students. For example, Juma, a student leader argued:

Academic mentoring is important because it helps to shape or guide student's academic career development. Each first year student is assigned an academic mentor but given the number of students, it is very difficult for academic mentors to provide sufficient advisory support to all students.

Closely linked to the academic mentoring is the system of conducting student seminars/tutorials. According to university requirement, each course is offered for 45 contact hours of which 15 hours are allocated to seminars and/or practical training sessions. During my own studies we had in-depth student seminar discussions on selected topics in each course. These student seminars or tutorials had several advantages as Wangenge-Ouma (2008) illuminates:

They ensure that students have understood the lecture, and are places for developing broader intellectual and analytical skills in presenting and communicating ideas, as



well as working in a team, nurturing critical thinking, creative reflection and promoting independent learning (p. 463).

Although some academic units such as the Department of History and Archaeology do still conduct student seminars, the level of efficiency and effectiveness is declining. Experience has shown that such seminars are scarcely possible because of the shortage of physical facilities of an adequate size, as well as a shortage of staff members as compared with the number of students in a course. In certain courses, such as education, where a foundation course is offered to approximately 1,500 students, it is difficult to conduct meaningful student seminars. Sikujua had the following to say:

We have a problem with handling student seminars because of the large number of students. Some students stand outside and not every student gets an opportunity to participate fully during seminar discussions. Students' speaking and argumentation skills are very much affected. I think, if our students cannot express themselves adequately, they will be losers in the labour market.

She added that:

Methods of teaching and techniques we used to evaluate students' skills and competences mastering have been all affected. Increasingly, the trend in social sciences has been moving away from open-ended questions to restricted type of questions.

Sikujua appears to be suggesting that, while the discontinuation of seminars/tutorials and the change in the modes of teaching and evaluation could be regarded as strategies with which to cope with the shortage of resources, they had, nevertheless, had negative consequences for the students' academic development. She was of the opinion that the expansion in student numbers was preventing students from developing and practising basic skills in the various fields and/or subjects. In addition, as part of developing such skills, the university had conducted individualised courses with varying names, for example, 'independent study', 'special project', 'dissertation' or 'final project', and which required students to investigate, write and submit a report on a particular problem. Table 7.1 presents examples of individualised courses from various departments.

**Table 7.1:** Individualised courses offered by department and purpose

Course code	Course title	Department	Purpose
RE 300	Special Project	Rural Economy	Investigation of special problems involving field and library study and the preparation of written reports in any of the branches of Rural Economy.
ED 305	Independent Study	Education	Students identify a researchable problem and investigate the problem under the direction of a supervisor. At the end of the course the student produces a research report.
GE 306	Dissertation	Geography	A small scale research project involving library research or field work under the supervision of a member of staff.
CE 499	Final Project	Civil Engineering	Preparation of a realistic solution to a real world problem on an individual basis, with a minimum of supervision and direction and where the students are expected to identify sub problems and deal with them in a logical sequence, organise their time to produce the results by a specified date, and present the results in both written and oral forms.
PH 416	Project	Physics	A project whereby a student will design and construct some instrument for a specific application or write a dissertation based on a thorough literature survey of certain selected topics.
ZL 316	Zoology Project	Zoology	Individual study and research on a special problem to be chosen in consultation with a member of staff and leading to the preparation of a paper and the presentation of a seminar.

Source: UDSM (1982), Calendar for Academic Years 1982/83–1984/85

Contrary to the information presented in Table 7.1 above, Anne, a senior academic and the Director of the Gender Centre, described an example from the Sociology unit:

[In] Sociology we had been brought up in a tradition that every undergraduate student is supposed to do a practical kind of mini dissertation. So one of our courses with three units was done by conducting a field work and finally writes a dissertation. With the expansion of student intake following the transformation of the university and given inability of the government to cater for field work, practical work has been neglected or stopped. This has affected the quality of the students we produce because we are bringing up sociologists who cannot even practically use a questionnaire.

As a consequence of the increase in the student intake, the following observations may be made in relation to the academic development of the students. Firstly, it is obvious that the participation of students in seminars and field studies would enable them to improve their

speaking, presentation and report-writing skills. Before the expansion this was possible because the number of students was manageable. However, as the data shows, such arrangements are seldom or never put into practice any more. In addition, there has been a shift both in terms of the methods of teaching as well as the evaluation techniques used at the university. As regards teaching methods, the lecture method continues to be widely favoured under the corporate strategies because it is cost effective. However, it is also criticised academically for being less effective in terms of the active involvement of students. With regard to evaluation techniques, restricted questions such as multiple choice and matching items are preferred to essay questions, with lecturers using such restricted questions as a coping strategy in large classes because they are easy to mark. However, the use of restricted questions clearly has implications for the students' study skills, including argumentation, the organisation of ideas as well as language proficiency. In short, the lack of seminars/tutorials and independent studies, as well as changes in evaluation techniques have created a significant challenge in respect of the attainment of quality higher education for students. Based on the above it is likely that graduates with a low quality education and who are unable to withstand labour market competition will emerge from their higher education studies.

It would appear that the same problem is evident in the field of natural sciences. According to the interviews, the lack or inadequacy of essential teaching facilities such as laboratories and laboratory facilities in the practical courses limits effective teaching and learning. The interview with Godwin, a senior academic from the College of Engineering and Technology revealed that it is common practice to find a lecturer or just few students setting up and conducting a practical experiment, with the rest of the group watching because there is not enough equipment and chemicals to enable all the students to participate. In addition, Ben, a senior academic from the same college, indicated that, before transformation, he used to teach a class of 20 students but that the number has risen to approximately 180 students. He stated that:

The programmes which involved practical components have been affected. The effectiveness has decreased because you cannot accommodate large number of students into a small laboratory without essential facilities or equipment. Most of laboratory work is currently done in large groups.

Similar concerns were voiced by Ali, a senior academic from the College of Natural and Allied Sciences:

We are a bit stretched in terms of facilities like in laboratories. For example, in science and engineering our laboratories cannot accommodate the current number of students in the system. It is now very common to find between ten and twenty students sharing a single microscope!

In wanting to obtain the view of the University of Dar es Salaam Academic Staff Assembly (UDASA) on the expansion of the student intake under the ITP, I identified Kitila as a potential interviewee because of his position as the General Secretary of UDASA. According to Kitila, the assembly had been sceptical about the institutional transformation programme as the members had regarded the programme as an innovation that would affect the academic affairs of the university. Essentially, UDASA had not wholeheartedly embraced the concept of the ITP. Specifically, Kitila reasoned:

UDASA from the very beginning mounted fierce opposition to the introduction of the ITP. UDASA was fundamentally and philosophically opposing the programme because it thought that the programme was diluting the core mission of the university.

He further observed:

UDASA was not opposing the increase in number of students but it did not find it proper to increase the number of students without addressing the critical shortage of physical facilities and human resources.

By all accounts, it would appear that there was shortage of important resources and that was the reason why UDASA had been critical about the university's student expansion plan. According to UDASA, increasing the student intake without making available key facilities would have undesirable consequences in terms of the quality of the education provided. A similar situation had been widely documented, reporting that there was shortage of teaching and learning resources. For example, one document made reference to a situation where 'only 40 in a class of 140 students conduct their practicals while the rest just stand and watch' (UDSM, 2005a, p. 39). Another document, a strategic plan (2008/09–2012/13), had indicated that space shortages were still evident in terms of seminar/practical rooms and staff offices at the Main Campus (UDSM, 2009b, p. 17).

It is possible to draw certain conclusions based on the discussion above. It would appear that university's plan to expand student enrolment had proceeded without taking into account the facilities available. It is possible that the lack of essential teaching and learning facilities predated the student expansion under the ITP primarily as a result of the decline in financial

assistance from the government. The expansion had then exacerbated this lack. As the findings suggest, the teaching has tended to concentrate more on theory at the expense of practical or professional competencies. While science and technology is a priority in the national development plan, the absence or shortage of facilities in higher education institutions and at UDSM, in particular, makes its achievement almost impossible. Although the quality of teaching encompasses several factors, the research findings appear to suggest that the shortage of basic teaching and learning resources has led to a decline in the quality of education and has consequently undermined the contribution of higher education to fostering national development. In other words, the graduates produced will not be adequately equipped with the skills and knowledge required to contribute to the national economy or to participate in the labour market.

#### 7.2.2.2 *Consequences of the student expansion on the welfare services*

In this subsection I discuss the status of the welfare services in relation to the student expansion. I linked the student expansion with the provision of welfare services, physical and social facilities, because such facilities affect student life on the campus. The underlying assumption is that, if the welfare services are adequate, then the students will be more relaxed and intellectually productive while, on the other hand, if they are inadequate they cause problems for the students. In addition to broadening the participation in higher education, the infrastructure and support services are a prerequisite to enable students remain at the university and progress in their studies. This study will focus on the following welfare services, namely, accommodation, counselling services and catering services.

### **Accommodation**

The history of the University of Dar es Salaam indicates that it was established as a residential university. At the time of its establishment virtually all the students resided in halls of residence. The residential space provided was not only adequate but also comfortable and conducive to private study (UDSM, 2011b, p. 51). However, this policy of providing accommodation for all students admitted to the university was regarded as a major constraint to the enrolment expansion plan. In one of his recently published books titled *The courage for change: Re-engineering the University of Dar es Salaam*, Luhanga (2009) writes:

One of the priority objectives of the Institutional Transformation Programme was that of student enrolment expansion. A realization had been made by the University

Management that achievement of this objective would not be possible if the University was to guarantee accommodation to each student admitted into the university. A policy was, therefore, adopted where the University gave no guarantee of providing accommodation to any student admitted into the University (p. 106).

The quote above seems to suggest that student accommodation was not a central priority during the transformation programme. With time and with the expansion of the student intake under ITP in particular, accommodation became a serious problem. It was pointed out in chapter five that the halls of residence had the capacity to accommodate approximately 3,100 students. However, as the number of students grew so did the shortage of accommodation. The review of the institutional documents established that there are three broad categories of accommodation facilities, namely, on-campus halls of residence, off-campus hostels and rented private housing facilities (UDSM, 2010, p. 63). It is worth noting that the accommodation facilities provided by the university were not sufficient to accommodate all the students. For example, the percentage of students on the Main Campus who did not live in the university facilities was 39%, 38%, 36%, 37% and 38% in 2004/05, 2005/06, 2006/07, 2007/08 and 2008/09, respectively (UDSM, 2004b, p. 26; UDSM, 2010, p. 63). This trend clearly implies that there is a shortage of accommodation services on the campus. It is also important to note that, if the university was to succeed with its expansion plan, a paradigm shift had to take place among the stakeholders and, especially, among the students to the effect that accommodation is not a prerequisite for admission.

Interviews were conducted with participants from the various academic units to ascertain their views on student accommodation. The first such interviews were conducted with the student leaders because they handle the day-to-day student affairs. Juma, a prime minister of the students' government explained that, from 2000, the student enrolment had increased rapidly but that the transformation had not prioritised accommodation as an important service to the students. He added that the available halls of residence which had been constructed in the early or mid 1970s could barely accommodate one fifth of the students admitted to the university. As he reflected on the situation, he stated:

The Government through the Students Loans Board allocates 800 Tanzanian shillings per day per student for accommodation within the university residence but the Board did not consider students who are living outside the university residences. The amount is far very little. This posed a challenge to many students. You may find up to six students staying in a single room as a strategy for sharing house rent. As a result,

occupancy rate per room within and outside the university campus is very high. The transformation has not improved accommodation services.

While Juma reported on the impact of the inadequate accommodation allowance on the students, Anne referred to the negative impact of the shortage of accommodation facilities on female students as she described:

Living facilities is a big problem. Student accommodation services are very poor but the university is struggling to support. This has a very negative implication particularly to female students in terms of exposing them to risky environment like sexual abuse and health related consequences in places where they are renting.

Nemes is a senior administrator who has been working with the university for more than thirty years. He was sympathetic to the plight of the students as regards accommodation. He was quoted as saying:

The halls of residence are not sufficient to accommodate the current number of students. The room which was meant for two students is now accommodating up to six students. In a way it has affected the efficiency of the students to perform well in their studies.

Nemes's views were supported by Ben who described the situation as follows:

For students, the biggest snag is accommodation. Leave a part shortage of teaching facilities like in science and engineering and technology, accommodation is a hassle to many students. They lived in a bit difficult situation. I can't estimate the carrying capacity per room now.

These narratives suggest that the expansion of the student intake under the ITP had not been matched by the provision of adequate accommodation facilities. According to the participants, it had been a mistake to overlook the issue of student accommodation from the onset of the ITP. In view of the fact that it is difficult to find accommodation on the campus the only option available to students is to rent accommodation off the university campus. My experience at the UDSM, first as a student and currently as an academic, suggests that it is difficult to find affordable housing with appropriate facilities because the university is located in an isolated area away from the residential areas. Even if one secures a house in the vicinity of the university the rent is usually exorbitant. If the students opted to rent, as Juma reported, the money allocated by the Students Loans Board for accommodation would not be sufficient. The issue of student accommodation was mentioned in a recent report of the

Chancellor Visitation Panel which stated that many off-campus students are accommodated in housing that is inappropriate for their needs. In addition, the report revealed that a large number of students were ‘illegally’ accommodated by their fellow students in the halls of residence (UDSM, 2011b, p. 52) – a practice commonly known on the campus as *kubebana*, literally meaning ‘carrying one another’. Lawi (2008) describes the practice as follows: ‘students who have formally been allocated University accommodation invite their less fortunate colleagues to share the facility illegally’ (p. 55). However, this causes overcrowding in the halls of residence. Such a state of affairs affects the students’ studies and is likely to result in many forms of inappropriate behaviours on the part of the students.

It was mentioned earlier that, although the university policy was not to guarantee accommodation to any student admitted to the university, the problem of accommodation has caused the university management to rethink the policy. It is worth mentioning the continuing efforts and strategies adopted by the university to improve the handling of student affairs so as to be in line with the strategic objectives of the ITP of improving the welfare of the students. The initial step involved the university acquiring two hostels – Kijitonyama and Ubungo – which were owned by two local banks – the Cooperative and Rural Development Bank (CRDB) and the National Bank of Commerce (NBC) respectively. However, these hostels are currently occupied by university staff. Previously, the ITP, accommodation was handled by the university administration but, in 2000, the university established the University Student Accommodation Bureau (USAB), a semi-autonomous agency fully owned by the UDSM, to oversee the effective management of campus accommodation as well as to assist students to secure affordable accommodation facilities off campus (cf. UDSM, 2000, p. 104). In the same year, a new hostel, with the capacity to accommodate 4,000 students, was constructed at Mabibo by the National Social Security Fund (NSSF) (UDSM, 2004b, p. 11). However, despite the fact that the university has implemented various strategies aimed at providing additional accommodation space, much still needs to be done to reduce the shortage. As recommended by several of the participants and as mentioned in the Chancellor’s Visitation Report there is the need for the university to rehabilitate the halls of residence and also construct new ones on the Main Campus. However, the realisation of such suggested plans will depend on the financial prosperity of the university.



## Counselling services

Counselling services for students are as important as the availability of teaching and learning facilities. Strengthening student counselling and consultations has been mentioned as one of the strategies under the strategic objective of ‘Improved staff and student welfare’ (UDSM, 2009b, p. 38). In an effort to do so the university took the following steps. Firstly, it established a system of allocating each student to an academic advisor to counsel the student should the student experience academic problems. However, as mentioned elsewhere in this chapter, this system is no longer in force because of the large number of students. Secondly, the university employs hall wardens at each hall of residence whose main responsibilities include, among the others, the provision of counselling services to the students residing in their respective halls. However, experience has shown that not all wardens possess counselling skills. During her interview, Jehovaness acknowledged the effort made so far but she cautioned that students are still experiencing several problems that call for a well-established counselling unit. As Jehovaness, a senior academic, correctly reports, the counselling provided by the Dean of Students Office (DOSO) is not enough:

Change in the life patterns, declining living standards as well as meeting education costs have put many students at risk. I suggest that the Dean of Students Office to be staffed with enough and trained personnel who will assist in providing counselling and guidance services. Halls of residence wardens should have similar background. I will also be happy if lecturers will be empowered to provide counselling services.

Jehovaness’s response seems to suggest that there are too few counsellors as compared with the student population and the diverse problems which they experience. This view was endorsed by Marietha, who said ‘I think even the office of Dean of Students is not well staffed to identify needy students’. My own experience with the institution revealed that there is a shortage of facilities for counselling services at the university, including special rooms which provide sufficient privacy for counsellors and their clients. The research findings also suggest that the university should organise counselling programmes to empower staff members to offer advisory services to students. In short, the pattern of the research findings suggests that the absence of guidance and reliable support services on the campus result in the students lacking life coping strategies and that this, in turn, affects their careers. It is essential that, as part of the institutional transformation the adequacy and quality of student welfare services are improved as a strategy with which to improve the quality of the education offered.

## **Catering services**

As discussed in chapter five, one of the steps taken by the UDSM Transformation Programme, as part of resource rationalisation and cost-cutting measures, was to outsource all non-core university functions, including the catering services (cf. Luhanga *et al.*, 2003, p. 107). This meant that the university privatised the student services and employed private caterers with the aim of improving the efficiency and sustainability of the service provided, as well as generating income. In addition, it was mentioned that the expansion plan had led to the conversion of one of the cafeterias into lecture rooms and staff rooms. In practice, however, this strategy impacted negatively on the provision of catering services to the students. As far as the issues of adequacy and provision are concerned, the catering services are still not adequate to meet the needs of the current student population on the campus. In this regard, Juma indicated that the catering services are inadequate to meet the population of the university and, in addition, they are of a poor quality. It is clear from the research findings that the students waste considerable time waiting for the service. This, in turn, has consequences academically as it affects the students' studying timetables.

### **7.3 The consequences of the ITP for the university staff**

This section discusses the consequences of the implementation of the corporate strategies on the university staff. The discussion starts by focusing on the consequences of the ITP for the academic staff and this, in turn, is followed by a discussion on the administrative staff.

#### **Academic staff**

By the time ITP was underway the number of academic staff members was not sufficient to match the rate of student intake. In addition, it was a time when the ten-year hiring freeze policy was imposed by the government in the 1990s as part of the World Bank's conditions under the Structural Adjustment Programmes (UDSM, 2011b, p. 64). The policy had two negative consequences for the university. Firstly, it froze the employment of staff in all public sectors, including the university, on account of the acute financial constraints. As a chief academic officer (CACO), Jacqueline was one of the people who were aware that the policy had affected the university's expansion plan. In her view, the policy should not have been applied to the university because it takes many years for an academic staff member to become fully qualified in terms of training and mentoring.

Although there was a policy in place to increase student numbers there was no complementary policy to increase the number of staff members. However, even if there had been, it would have been difficult in view of the freeze on staff development and recruitment and the time required to develop suitable academic staff. As a result, the university experienced a shortage of academic staff and this, in turn, increased the workload of existing staff members. The situation was exacerbated by the lack of classrooms large enough to accommodate the large numbers of students. This, then, compelled the academic staff members who taught large classes to group their classes based on the carrying capacity of the available rooms. In placing this situation into context, Lawi (2008) concludes:

During the academic year 2004/2005, a basic first year course in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences had over 1400 students and, as none of the existing lecture theatres could accommodate this number of students, the lecturer concerned had to spilt the class into three groups. This has meant that the lecturer would deliver the same lecture three times (p. 54).

However, there some initiatives have been undertaken to respond to the situation. Based on my experience both as a student and lecturer, it is common practice to find lecturers administering tests and sometimes examinations over weekends. In particular, this was a response to the shortage of large rooms, tight teaching schedules as well as the need to ensure the quality of the student outputs. Another strategy involved the extension of the teaching schedule from 7h00 to 20h00 with the aim of optimising the utilisation of both human and physical resources. Finally, recently, the university, with donor support, has constructed two large, multi-purpose lecture halls with a carrying capacity of 1,000 students each at Yombo. However, although the university has constructed new lecture theatres, the teaching and learning facilities available still do not match the expansion in the student enrolment. In addition, it merged from the interview conducted with Ben that, though the government has frozen employment, the university, with the assistance of its development partners, has in place an internal system of recruiting a limited number of staff. Ben revealed that university identifies and recruits the best undergraduates and enters them into postgraduate studies on the understanding that, once they have completed their studies, they will join the academic staff of the university.

The second adverse effect of the SAP policy was evident in the late 1990s and early 2000s in the staff shortages and in the face of the number of senior staff who were retiring in the absence of a staff succession plan. As a result, the SAP policy created a significant gap

between the senior and junior academic staff in the university profile. For example, it emerged that, in terms of age and experience, junior staff, namely, tutorial assistants and assistant lecturers, comprised more than 60% of the academic staff, (UDSM, 2011b, p. 65). In addition, the academic profile of the university indicates that the majority of senior staff who are competent to run postgraduate programmes, provide leadership in research and act as mentors to the junior staff, and have the relevant experience to do this, have either formally retired or are about to retire (ibid.). This will clearly impact on the transformation plans in the future.

While the university had a shortage of academic staff, the implementation of the ITP exacerbated the problem with the implementation of the programme nudging many senior academic members of staff into administrative positions. The review of institutional documents reinforced this assertion. For example, the 2004 UDSM Academic Audit Report (UDSM, 2005a) observed that leadership positions had been taken up by academic staff members (p. 15). However, the report suggested that, in view of the fact that the university is an academic institution, for efficiency purposes, it is important that academic positions be held by academics and that the purely administrative positions be filled by persons qualified in the respective fields. The involvement of academics in the management of the university has reduced the potential of competent academic staff to concentrate on teaching, research and public service (UDSM, 2005a, p. 54).

The participants echoed this view when they responded to the question that required them to give their views on the way in which changes in the constitution of the administrative organs of the university had affected the teaching and research functions of the university. In relation to teaching, Mwasanga, a senior academic from the University of Dar es Salaam Business School, stated that there are a number of positions in the university which could be held by non-academics. He cited as examples the position of marketing officer at the university, positions in the Directorate of Finance and Planning and the University Consultancy Bureau, and which are currently held by academics. In his opinion, such positions should be filled by people with relevant experience. Similar to Mwasanga, Athumani described the university administration as being heavily depending on the academic staff. Mwasanga and Athumani both represent academics who felt that it is crucially important not to involve the academics in management and administrative positions and to utilise their academic potential in teaching and conducting research and consultancy. This, in turn, suggests that, if academics were to be

exempted from administrative duties, this may reduce workload in their respective academic units.

### **Administrative staff**

The adoption and implementation of the corporate strategies had negative consequences for the administrative staff of the university with the administrative staff falling victim to the outsourcing of non-core university services of the university. It is worth noting that, before the implementation of the ITP, all the university services were centrally coordinated and financed by the university. However, the organisation and maintenance of these services were costly and absorbed a large proportion of the university budget. As mentioned earlier one of the suggestions made to the University Council was to outsource or privatise all non-core university services because they were considered to be peripheral to the core mission and objectives of the university. One of the members of the Programme Steering Committee, Shombo, had the following to say:

We made a recommendation to the Council that the university had core functions and subsidiary functions. We recommended that the subsidiary functions should be privatised. We said privatise all services providing departments within the university such as cleanliness, cafeteria, and accommodation. We thought that these were not the university core business.

In light of the recommendation made by the university, there are two possible reasons for the privatisation of the subsidiary functions. Firstly, the provision of the subsidiary functions was costing the university a substantial sum of money and, thus, outsourcing these services was seen as a way of trimming the running expenses. This implied that the university would receive a return in the form of user fees by privatising the services. The decision to privatise the service departments was followed by a downsizing of the number of workers, thus also reducing the running costs. Unfortunately, the majority of workers affected by the decision to downsize were administrative staff members and the decision led to internal tension among the affected workers. According to one source, between 1994 and 2002, a total of 1084 support staff was retrenched – 40% of all non-academic staff (Luhanga, 2009, p. 139). Luhanga *et al.* (2003) documented the reactions of the affected workers. For example, it was reported that the retrenched workers viewed the ITP as a ‘bad omen’ (p. 108) or a menace because it was affecting their lives. There are two conflicting perspectives in respect of the retrenchment of the workers, namely the economic perspective and the human perspective.

The economic perspective is purely managerial, that is, there was an economic justification for privatising the subsidiary functions as it was expected that the university would make savings by cutting down its running costs and this would, in turn, improve efficiency. However, from the human perspective, the ITP had a negative effect on the lives of the workers who lost their jobs. As such it was a painful decision because it affected the survival of the retrenched workers and that of their dependants. In order to minimise the impact of the retrenchment, the university tried to negotiate with private investors for the possible employment of the retrenched workers.

The second reason for the privatisation of the subsidiary functions is based on the belief that outsourcing the municipal services to private investors would improve the efficiency and quality of the services provided because of the profit motivation. This reason received support from George who said:

It has made able to bring efficient and effective delivery of services in the campus like banking system, outsourcing of catering services and, hence, contracting of other university services which are not related to core mission of the university.

The interview conducted with Athumani revealed two contrasting perspectives with respect to the outsourcing of the non-core functions of the university. According to Athumani, there was a group of people who believed that the university should not be involved in business related activities. This group regarded such involvement as tantamount to commercialising the university. Based on the history of the country, this group probably represents the old generation which still supported the socialist ethos. In terms of the second perspective, the declining flow of public funds to the university meant that income generation activities should be one of the functions of the university. Clarifying this perspective, Athumani stated:

It doesn't mean that if the university is engaged in investments the professors will be selling shops. That is not the issue. The issue is for the university to invest in businesses that do not in anyhow affect the core mission of the university. It will employ people to oversee investment activities and that is done globally. Universities have earned up amount of resources out of investment activities. Business can even generate money to do research but if you concentrate on teaching and research you find that you have waste too much of your effort.

Like Athumani, Tolly acknowledged that there had been people who had not supported the notion of inviting investors to invest in the university land. He cited the construction of the big shopping centre known as the Mlimani City Mall which had been challenged by people

within the university on the grounds that the university would not benefit from the investment. However, Tolly maintained the university was receiving revenue and that the investment would come under the full control of the university at a later date. Allen, a union leader, shared the belief that participation in investment ventures such as Mlimani City is one of the areas in which the ITP had succeeded. Like others, Deo maintained that investment in the university land was beneficial to the institution. He stated:

You see, the university has invited the investors to build hostels, banking, petroleum station and a mall on the university land. The university gets a substantial amount of money which helps in the running of the university.

While the interviews cited above suggest that the university had benefited from the investments, there were concerns that the benefits accrued had been very minimal. For example, with reference to Mlimani City, the participants who had attended the 16th Annual Consultative Meeting observed that ‘Mlimani City was not contributing sufficient amounts of money to the university considering the amount the mall is spinning a day/month’ (UDSM, 2009a, p. 10). In short, the research findings tend to confirm that economic imperatives were a driving motive behind the outsourcing of municipal services and the retrenchment of administrative staff.

#### **7.4 The consequences of the ITP for academic programmes**

The impact of the ITP is also evident on the academic programmes offered by the university. The number of academic programmes has expanded in terms of diversity, nature and numbers since the expansion programme was launched at the UDSM. This increase in the number of programmes and also the diversification of the academic programmes are in line with Strategic Objective No. 4 of the Five Years Strategic Plan (FYSP-2003/04-2007/08) which calls for ‘improved teaching and relevance of teaching and learning’. One of the strategies used to achieve this Strategic Objective No. 4 involved increasing the number of accredited programmes offered by the university. For example, the number of academic programmes offered was 176, 193 and 242 in 2004/2005, 2005/2006 and 2006/2007 respectively. However, as from 2007/2008, the number decreased to 150 following the departure of two constituent colleges<sup>3</sup>: the Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences (MUHS) and the

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<sup>3</sup> Constituent college denotes a semi-autonomous institution empowered to offer university-level education under the tutelage of a university with a view to establishing it as an independent university (UDSM, 2009, p. 9)

University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLAS) which were transformed into the Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences (MUHAS) and the Ardhi University (ARU) respectively (UDSM, 2008a, p. 8; UDSM, 2010, p. ix, 10). The strategic reason behind allowing the two constituent colleges to become independent universities was to increase the student intake. However, the plan had a negative impact on the UDSM. However, as the premier university in Tanzania, the UDSM is not offering any degree programmes in life sciences or in architectural studies. After the departure of the two colleges, the university was offering a total of 169 academic programmes in 2009/10 (UDSM, 2011a, p. 9) although the number decreased further to 151 in 2010/2011 (UDSM, 2012, p. 9). Of particular importance to this study is the recognition that the expansion of the number of academic programmes has been in line with the university's goal of meeting labour market needs with the university's academic units reviewing their programmes and/or establishing new programmes. As a result, many of the new programmes have been designed in terms of their marketability and relevance to the development of the country.

In addition to the regular programmes the academic units of the university have also introduced parallel/evening degree programmes. Reporting on the achievements of the corporate strategic plan during his 16 years of Vice Chancellor, Luhanga indicated that the number of evening programmes on the Main Campus had increased from 36 in 1993/94 to 127 in 2005/06 (Luhanga, 2009, p. 56). There were three reasons behind the introduction of parallel/evening degree programmes. Firstly, in view of job security and the tendency of employers to contract arrangements, many people who have secured employment are not prepared to surrender their jobs for the sake of a full time study programme at the university. Thus, the university adopted a flexible schedule by introducing evening degree programmes so as to give access to a university education to working people without compromising their income earning capacity. This, in turn, has improved access to the university. Secondly, the introduction of the evening degree programmes has increased the income-generating opportunities of the university with this, in turn, has supplementing the formal financial assistance from the government. Referring to the success of the ITP, Sikujua mentioned the introduction of new programmes such as executive master programmes and evening programmes and which had considerable revenue for the university. A similar observation was made by Max who indicated that some units have introduced evening courses that have attracted many people to studying at the university and that such units have collected substantial fees from the students.



In terms of the current university policy, academic units (Schools, Institutes and Colleges) are allowed to retain 85% of the earnings from continuing education and remit the balance to the central administration (UDSM, 2011b, p. 59). This was considered to be motivation because the proportion of the money retained by the respective units is used to cover running costs, including paying the lecturers who run the courses. On the other hand, running of evening programmes presents a challenge to those units which are not innovative because they are not generating an income of their own. The example of the University of Dar es Salaam Business School (UDBS) is particularly striking. The school is running several parallel/evening programmes ranging from certificates to degrees such as an Advanced Certificate in Entrepreneurship and Business and Management (ACEBM), Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA), Bachelor Degree in Tourism, Masters in International Business and Masters of Business Administration (MBA). Using the income it derives from its continuing education activities, the Business School has been able to embark on a major expansion of its physical infrastructure (ibid.). Thirdly, the rationale behind offering evening programmes is viewed as a strategic way of ensuring the optimal utilisation of resources as the programmes are offered during the evenings, over weekends and/or during vacation periods.

### **7.5 The challenges of the institutional transformation programme**

This subsection presents the challenges encountered during the implementation of the institutional transformation programme. I considered this aspect as an important element that both affects and determines the achievements and sustainability of the transformation. Interviews and institutional documents were used in order to obtain a better understanding of the situation and, thus, a research question that sought to understand the shortcomings of the corporate strategic planning as applied with the context of the administration of the university was posed. In the course of responding to the question, the participants preferred the use of the term ‘challenges’ to ‘shortcomings’. They associated challenges with the constraints which had been encountered during the implementation of the corporate strategic plan and not as arising from the document itself. Accordingly, I adopted the term ‘challenges’ to explain the circumstances that had limited the corporate strategic plan in the realisation of the envisaged goals. The implementation of the ITP had encompassed several challenges but these are not covered in this study. Instead, the discussion will be confined to two challenges, namely, funding and decision making process.

### 7.5.1 Funding mechanisms

As mentioned in chapter five, underfunding has been a major constraint in the implementation of the ITP. As a public university, the University of Dar es Salaam still depend on the government for financial and material support to finance most of its operations. While this remains theoretically true, it is also true that the decreased financial assistance from the government had made it difficult for the university to survive. This, in turn, suggests that, as indicated in one of the institutional documents, the decline in government funding has significantly affected the realisation of the concrete and well-prioritised objectives of the university:

Funding has remained to be a major bottleneck to the university. Under-funding has retarded the speed of the transformation by either failure to implement all planned activities or by being very selective in prioritizing areas of focus (UDSM, 2004a, p. xii)

A similar situation was reported in the UDSM Five-Year Rolling Strategic Plan 2008/2009–2012/2013 (UDSM, 2009b, p. 53). Responding to the question that intended to explore the challenges faced during the implementation of the strategic plan by the management of the university, Jacqueline stated that, although the university had formulated sound plans, the government, as the key stakeholder and the owner of the university, had not provided financial support. Hence, the initial financial support for the ITP had come mainly from the donors. However, while donor support is widely acknowledged, Jacqueline considered it as a barrier to the implementation of planned activities:

The whole process remains largely donor dependent because of lack of local fund. You can't run transformation by depending on money from outside. What will happen when they withdrew? I think if we had our own local resources to support the transformation we could have gone further than we did. It is important to implement the idea by using local finance.

Tolly also said that the government did not provide financial support to the university. Based on his experience, the money from the government to cover other charges such as paying water and electricity bills had been declining. Like Tolly, Anne felt that the government has been positive in encouraging the university to transform but that it has not been able in providing adequate fund. She maintained that 'this is a shortfall because, despite having well elaborated plans, the university can't implement or maintain such plans because of lack of financial resources'. In respect of government support to the university, the Chancellor's

Visitation Panel Report indicated that, between 2000/2001 and 2005/2006, the annual average financial assistance from the government had been 36%, although this had dropped significantly to an average of 9.8% between 2007/2008 and 2009/2010 (UDSM, 2011b, pp. 57–58). In this regard, Mwasanga had sounded a note of caution to the university in relation to planning process when he had said ‘It is important to note that, although the university prepares plans, there are a number of actors who, though seeming to be peripheral, had a direct impact in the university plans’. In clarifying his position he mentioned the government and donors as ‘actors’ who, as the main funders of the university plans, should be involved in the planning process.

It is, thus, clear from the discussion above that the shortage of funds from the government to implement the programme had resulted in the implementation being dependent on the funding from donors. However, although donor support played a significant role in the implementation of the plan, they were not allowed to dictate the areas or projects to be funded. Thus, the corporate strategic plan was used by management to guide the development of the university because the plan indicated priorities and also how the university intended to meet these priorities. As regards donor involvement in the development plans of the university, the university management set out the following guidelines:

- Funding must address the needs of the university in a holistic manner.
- Determination of the needs must be demand-driven by the UDSM.
- Support must be programme-centric rather than project-centric.
- Gender concerns must always be considered (Luhanga, 2009, p. 126).

Based on the above guidelines, donor support was in line with the strategic plan framework, while such support has been in the following strategic areas: infrastructure development, human capital development and research. For example, two big lecture theatres with a carrying capacity of up to 500 students each were completed in the 2000/01 academic year with donor support. This has helped to reduce pressure in terms of the shortage of rooms for teaching large classes. Table 7.2 illustrates the ratio of donor to government financial support to the UDSM Main Campus for the five years from 2004/05 to 2010/2011.

**Table 7.2:** Government and donor operating budget for the main campus by year

Year	Government operating budget [USD]	Donor operating budget [USD]	Total operating budget [USD]	Donor to govt ratio
2004/05	18,619,623	9,693,411	28,313,034	50.3
2005/06	24,709,956	8,086,957	32,796,913	32.7
2006/07	23,040,000	6,076,990	29,116,990	26.4
2007/08	27,278,670	5,555,114	32,833,784	20.4
2008/09	30,072,829	11,110,400	41,183,229	36.9
2009/10	36,230,512	27,761,186	63,991,698	77
2010/2011	34,998,628	25,780,300	60,778,928	74

Source: UDSM (2010, p. 139); UDSM (2011a, p. 129); UDSM (2012, p. 121).

Exchange rates from 2004/5–2010/2011: TZS 1,080.00, 1,150.00, 1,250.00, 1,250.00, 1,250.00, 1,350.00 and 1,350.00 respectively.

The information presented in the table above indicated that donor financial support to the Main Campus had declined from 2004/05 to 2007/08 although the figure had increased substantially in 2008/09 following the introduction of World Bank support (UDSM, 2011a, p. 129). As the trend reveals, depending on external sources has hampered the implementation of the university plans. Against this background, the university has always been in need of additional financial and material resources to be able to maintain the level of excellence it has already attained and also to exceed this standard. To this end, the university tried to find different methods of cutting costs as well as generating additional sources of funding in order to ensure the constant availability of resources to compensate for the underfunding from the government. From the outset the diversification of sources of funding was one of the key elements of the corporate strategic plan with the need to acquire additional sources of funding being stipulated in ITP Goal K ‘Sources of funding increased and diversified’. This, in turn, was addressed under Strategic Objective Number 9: ‘Enhanced Capacity for Financial Management, Diversification of Resources and Sustainability’ (UDSM, 2004a, p. 4, pp. 82–83). In order to achieve this objective the university, through the ITP, encouraged its academic units to make optimal use of their resources and capacities in order to improve the efficiency of their respective operations. In order to ensure that the university succeeded in its efforts to raise revenue, the university established units to manage its business aspects. For example, the university established the Income Generation Unit (IGU) in 1998. The task of this unit was not only to improve the efficiency of the university’s operation but also to coordinate all the income generating activities of the university as a way of supplementing the dwindling financial support from the government (cf. Chungu, 1998, p. 77). In 2004 this unit was transformed into the Directorate of Investments and Resource Mobilisation (DIRM).

In addition, in order to attract investors, in 1997, the University Council approved a land use policy master-plan for the university. In terms of this policy, 17.5% of the land on the Main Campus was to be allocated for commercial use by third party investors (Luhanga, 2009, p. 145). In the same vein, the university leased out the underutilised infrastructure to commercial service providers, especially those services which were in high demand by the university community. The document review and the interviews both provided information on how the corporate strategic plan had helped the university to diversify its income sources. According to institutional documents the main sources of internally-generating income sources include, *inter alia*, the following.

- Student fees (application, registration and annual fees) derived from offering continuing education programmes (bachelors, masters, postgraduate diplomas and PhDs).
- Fees collected through the publication of academic transcripts for graduate students.
- Expanded locus of user fees and rented premises such as mobile telephone systems on the university tower buildings
- Hill Park (shop and restaurant)
- Competitive branches of banks (The National Bank of Commerce, The National Microfinance Bank and the Cooperative and Rural Development Bank)
- External investment in the university land such as the GH Group from Botswana which has invested in the Mlimani City Project – a complex consisting of a shopping mall, a conference hall, office blocks and rental apartments (UDSM, 2004a, p. 40).
- The university cafeteria
- The Total petrol station
- The Silversands Hotel which is owned by the university and located on the shores of the Indian Ocean
- Research flats which accommodate staff, both local and expatriate
- Consultancy activities
- The University Computing Centre which offers continuing education courses (UDSM, 2011b, p. 59)

The income generated from the sources listed is used by the university to finance other university operations. For example, from 2000/2001 to 2009/2010, the average annual proportion of internally-generated resources was 10.3%. However, the situation has improved

substantially, with an annual average of 18.4% in 2009/2010 (UDSM, 2011b, p. 58). Table 7.3 depicts the trend displayed by the internal sources of income of the university for six consecutive years.

**Table 7.3:** Internal sources of income, 2000/01–2005/06

Income sources	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006
<b>Business Income (USD)</b>						
Tuition fees	597,909	510,358	473,805	474,857	1,261,111	1,527,391
Examination fees	39,645	36,034	40,344	46,952	153,333	88,870
Registration fees	0	29,890	34,895	36,952	29,722	41,913
Application fees	0	28,024	29,828	32,952	35,185	49,043
Academic transcripts	0	5,402	6,501	9,810	12,963	13,913
Sundry income	79,521	451	1,147	5,429	7,593	6,783
<b>Sub-total</b>	<b>717,075</b>	<b>610,159</b>	<b>586,520</b>	<b>606,952</b>	<b>1,499,907</b>	<b>1,727,913</b>
<b>Non-operating income [USD]</b>						
Rental receivable	108,212	43,289	94,073	92,762	87,130	55,739
Staff housing	91,911	78,549	80,593	61,809	61,852	75,130
Medical	73,279	53,614	44,072	56,286	153,148	217,565
Interest receivable	38,337	17,102	23,518	20,381	26,019	15,044
Sales of fixed assets	19,545	4,866	2,007	4,190	9,444	19,130
Sundry income	22,040	25,062	8,222	10,286	11,481	14,348
<b>Sub-total</b>	<b>353,324</b>	<b>222,482</b>	<b>252,485</b>	<b>245,714</b>	<b>349,074</b>	<b>396,956</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,070,399</b>	<b>832,641</b>	<b>839,005</b>	<b>852,666</b>	<b>1,848,981</b>	<b>2,124,869</b>

Source: UDSM (2005b, pp. 131–132).

Exchange Rates from 2000/2001–2005/2006: TZS 950.00, 1,050.00, 1,046.00, 1,050.00, 1,080.00 and 1,150.00 respectively.

The data in Table 7.3 indicates that there has been an increase in the income generated since 2001/02 with tuition fees constituting the largest proportion of the internally generated income. Tuition fees will continue to be the main source of internally generated income because the students pay their fees directly to the university bursar and there are no collection costs incurred. The table indicates that the income generated from economic projects is relatively small and, thus, the university should improve the management of its investments and, at the same time, continue to mobilise more local sources of funds in order to ensure the sustainable implementation of its envisaged plans. In short, it is clear that the university diversified and increased the locus of its income-generating sources after the culture of

corporate planning was introduced and, in so doing, it has reduced its dependency on the government.

### 7.5.2 Decision making process

This subsection examines the impact of the institutional transformation on both decision making and the implementation of the university plans. It was mentioned in chapter five that, in accordance with the Act that established the university, the organisational structure of the UDSM was highly centralised. However, this causes delays in the making of important decisions on many of the university's operational issues. It was anticipated that the transformation would facilitate, among others, the decentralisation and implementation of decisions to other levels of the university management. In other words, it would streamline the decision making to the lower structures of management, but in such a way that the executive management would retain the task of overseeing and harmonising the implementation of decisions made. The intention was both to reduce bureaucracy and to improve efficiency. At its inception, one of key elements of ITP was the 'development of a legal framework that facilitates greater autonomy, flexibility and efficient management through coordinated decentralisation' (UDSM, 2002a, p. 19). Based on the above, I was interested in ascertaining whether this aspiration had been realised in the course of implementing the programme. Responding to the question that guided this section, several of the participants indicated that they felt that the structure was still centralised, as was the decision making process. The interview with George, a senior academic, revealed that ITP has not succeeded in decentralising the institutional structure. Articulating this concern, George said:

Devolution has not taken place really to the departments or units. We still depend on the central administration for so many things. For example, till now permission to travel outside the country is granted by executive university management, a responsibility that could be performed by heads of departments. Furthermore, the level of decentralized management of fiscal resources has not been achieved. I think the level of trust has not gone down to the lower levels due to lack of capacity on the ground. The system of governance is still duplicating what is happening at the national level.

It would appear that George is suggesting that decentralisation is being hindered by two factors, namely, a lack of trust and a lack of capacity at the lower structures of management. As we continued with conversation, George seemed to acknowledge that the ITP had, to a

large extent, managed to eliminate what he called the ‘come tomorrow syndrome’. He attributed such success to the establishment of various directorates which carried out different functions of the university. For example, he maintained that the supervision of teaching and research had become more effective following the establishment of the directorates of research and publications, undergraduate studies and postgraduate studies. Jonathani appeared to support George’s views on decentralisation. He agreed that the university structure had changed but stated that it had not given a mandate to the units to decide on certain issues. He lamented:

It was expected that by this change in the university structure decision making on certain issues would be decentralised. But most of the things are still centralised. For example, when you talk of research, we are still hosting research under the Directorate of Research and Publications at the university level. It was expected after transformation that the structure would have been flattened. But the decision making is still centralised.

The views voiced by George and Jonathani were also supported by Willy, a senior academic in the Economics department. Like the others, he seemed to suggest that the locus of a number of routine activities was still centralised. He suggested:

I expect that certain functions would be devolved from the central administration. For example, permission to travel outside the country should be left to college/school administration and leave the top management to focus on strategic issues.

Athumani appeared to offer a solution to the problem voiced by the others. It would appear that the main reason why decisions are still centralised is because decentralisation was not followed by empowerment within the lower structures. He maintained that the reliance on top executive management delayed the implementation of plans. When decisions are made by the top executive management, the following three outcomes are possible. Firstly, the process takes too long time before the final decision is made and this, in turn, delays implementation. Secondly, there are economic consequences to the delay in approving plans as, by the time the plans are approved, the estimated figures are no longer scientifically viable, economic-value rates. Finally, the reliance on executive management often means that potential inputs from the lower units may be lacking. Max suggested, that in order to avoid this happening, strategic planning should start at the basic units, that is, the departments and, thus, the ideas generated at the departmental level could then be used to inform the planning at the school/institute/college level and, eventually, at the level of central management. It appears



that Max agrees with George that the capacity for developing planning at the level of department is missing. This, in turn, suggests that, while improving the effectiveness and efficiency of internal management was one of the focus areas of the ITP, there is still no capacity building at the activity centres, namely, the colleges, schools, institutes and Departments. Like Max, Juliet had expected a decentralised governance system to emerge after the advent of the University Charter and the resulting new organogram. However, according to her, certain matters only have been decentralised, for example, academic matters, but others issues, such as finance, are still centrally controlled. It is clear from the discussion above that the system of depending on central management for decision making has hampered the lower university structures as regards the planning and implementation of their own priorities. As a result, it is possible that the basic units will offer minimal cooperation or support in the implementation of the university plans because their priorities are not adequately represented in the institutional plans. Thus, the centre of gravity of strategic planning should shift to a more decentralised university functioning. However, the implementation of this plan has not materialised because of the administrative inefficiency which is caused primarily by a lack of professional and technical skills. However, it is essential that this need be addressed if the ITP is to achieve its goals. On the other hand, it is also important to emphasise that, from economic the perspective, it is sometimes prudent to centralise certain aspects because this ensures that running costs and building capacity become more economical.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

This chapter reported on the consequences and challenges associated with the implementation of the ITP in the context of the corporate strategies which the university adopted. The chapter attempted to demonstrate that the adoption and implementation of the corporate strategies had not taken place uniformly and without any consequences. The corporatisation of the university had both planned and unintended consequences. On one hand, the reform has enabled to the university to function more efficiently and cost-effectively. Firstly, the university managed to expand the student intake following the admission of privately sponsored students, the introduction of evening programmes as well as the efficient utilisation of resources. Secondly, the university has been able to improve the efficiency in the provision of municipal services by privatising and/or outsourcing these services. In addition, the university has been able to generate income from its diversified income-

generating projects. This has enabled the university to subsidise the university budget in various areas, including paying the water and electricity bills.

On the other hand, either by design or default, the implementation of the corporate strategies has had several unexpected consequences for the university community. Unfortunately, the efforts to expand the student intake have had adverse effects on both teaching and the welfare services. While students are important for the existence of the university, the research findings have indicated that the transformation has not succeeded in providing adequate support services to meet the needs of the vastly increased student numbers and this, in turn, has affected students' social and academic development. As regards the academics, the reform has increased workloads in terms of the expanded student intake as well as the other activities which have resulted from the ongoing transformation process. Consequently, this has reduced the time available for academics to conduct research and consultancy activities. In addition, the outsourcing of municipal services to private companies has had adverse effects on the socioeconomic lives of the retrenched workers. This chapter also established that, despite the fact that the university had formulated sound plans, the shortage of funds had hindered the implementation of these plans. In the same vein, the ITP has not succeeded in devolving decision making to the lower levels of the university management – the very problem it had intended to address. Nevertheless, although much still remains to be done, the university has continued to improve its operations in order to ensure that the ITP goals are achieved without compromising the quality of the outcomes.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### Transformation through corporatisation and national development

#### 8.1 Introduction

This chapter set out to address the role of the university in addressing national development goals. In investigating this link the chapter reports on the findings arising from the responses to the research question: ‘How did corporatisation at the University of Dar es Salaam address national development priorities? As I mentioned in the previous chapters, the UDSM is a public institution whose functions and operations have been shaped and influenced by the socioeconomic and ideological changes which have taken in place in the country since independence in 1961. Until the mid-1980s the state was solely responsible for the functions and operations of the university. However, during the mid-1990s, Tanzania underwent socioeconomic and political reforms which led to the adoption of the market economy. The introduction of the market economy sparked the debate between two ideologies, namely, socialist and neoliberal. The socialist debate focused on the need to transform Tanzania into a ‘socialist and economically self-reliant state’ (Bailey *et al.*, 2011, p. 18). In accordance with the socialist ideology socialism and self-reliance were the cardinal features of the national development strategy that guided the social and economic development of the country (URT, 1999a, p. 6). On the other hand, the neoliberal debate was rooted on the neoliberal approach which was aligned with a stronger allegiance to the power of the market (Yokoyama, 2006, p. 524) which was intended to guide Tanzania towards a strong and competitive economy, reduce the reliance on the state for funding the provision of social services and encourage entrepreneurship. This, in turn, led to liberalisation and privatisation of public sector including management in the provision of higher education. In 1994, the university initiated a reform process which led to the adoption of the market model.

This chapter, therefore, tries to compare what happened before the reforms of the 1990s and what had happened afterwards in the provision of higher education. Firstly, however, the chapter discusses the debate on the introduction of the market approach in higher education, concentrating on understanding how the reform shifted the focus of the core functions of the university, namely, teaching, research and public service toward meeting market demands. The underlying assumption in the chapter is that, in order for public higher education institutions to remain relevant and to contribute to national development, they should adopt

‘asymmetrical balance’, a strategy that enables them to respond to both national and market demands and, hence, to become an efficient, effective and responsive university.

## **8.2 The state control model versus the market model of running the university: A debate**

The discussion on the role and functions of the university has varied with time and also within the socioeconomic and political contexts of a particular country. In Tanzania, the debate on the role and functions of the university started after independence when the country adopted a socialist development strategy. The debate resurfaced again following the major shift in the late 1980s which led to the adoption of a market economy and political pluralism (cf. Lawi, 2008, p. 15). This shift, in turn, had implications for both the core operations of the university and for its focus on national development. The purpose of this section is to discuss the debate that centred on the role of public higher education and the public university, in particular, within the context of the introduction of the market model. As noted briefly in the introduction, the debate was between two opposing ideologies which were rooted in the state-controlled and market-driven models respectively. In particular, the debate focused on the possible outcomes associated with the application of the market approach to the provision of higher education. In other words, the debate focused on the role of higher education in national development (Lynch, 2006). In order to conceptualise the debate, it is important to understand the premises on which each perspective is based. On one side of the ideological divide were the proponents of the state-controlled model who perceived public higher education and the university, in particular, as a social institution whose function was ‘the development of individual learning and human capital, the socialisation and cultivation of citizens and political loyalties and preservation of knowledge and the fostering of other legitimate pursuits for the nation-state’ (Gumpert, 2000, p. 74). In his work *American higher in the twenty-first century*, Altbach (2005) argued that public higher education should serve as an agent of national development by fulfilling its role of producing knowledge for both the public benefit and for the educated citizens. It is, thus, clear that the state and the university have a symbiotic relationship, that is, while the government funds and employs graduates, the university trains the human resources and produces knowledge for public consumption.

The proponents of the state-controlled model argued that the introduction of the market model had changed the role of public higher education institutions from that of acting as agents of national development to that of market agents (cf. Bok, 2003; Rhoades & Slaughter,

2004; Mamdani, 2007). They further argued that the acceptance of the market model pushed through the neoliberal approach to a social institution such as a higher education institution would be a betrayal, especially in the case of the developing countries. Such a situation would be typical of the scenario presented by Mamdani (2007) demonstrated in his work, *Scholars in the marketplace*, namely, that the direction of the reform towards commercialisation at Makerere had reversed the relationship between public and private in the organisation of the university, ‘thereby subordinating the public university, mainly or wholly, to the logic and dynamic of the market’ (p. 4). Mamdani’s argument is similar to Bok’s (2003) observation in his work, *Universities in the marketplace*. Writing specifically in the context of American tertiary education, Bok argued that it is not always the incentives for commercial competition which produce benefit outcomes but, instead, they merely yield what the market wants (p. 103). This argument would, in turn, lead to the conclusion that the adoption and implementation of the market model at the public higher education institutions have a negative effect on the university’s role in the national development. In short, it would appear that market model detaches the university from fulfilling its social obligations of providing service to the public and aligns it with the neoliberal practices and ideology that serve the market. Another conclusion which may be drawn from the analysis above is that allowing the market to determine the success of the university appears to be inconsistent with the long cherished imperative of the social responsibility of the university in respect of the broader demands of the community. The orientation to market and economic goals in higher education has implications for both social and public benefits which arise from acquiring higher education. In fact, as Kezar (2004) states, ‘these trends have now overbalanced the other purposes of higher education and the wholesale adaptation to market pressures compromises the longer-term public and democratic interests that have always characterized higher education’ (p. 430), for example social development and social justice.

The literature indicated that neo-liberal approach had emerged as a response to the decline in public funding which had adversely affected the ability of the government to maintain and regulate the provision of social services, including higher education. To a large extent this situation explains the shift away from the state-controlled model to the neoliberal approach which embraced the ethos and principles of the market. In such a case, as Giroux (2002) argues, neo-liberalism replaces state sovereignty with market sovereignty (p. 428). The decline in funding led to the emergence of the neo-liberal approach and this, in turn, led to public universities falling victim to the marketisation of higher education. Arguments

situating the transition to market approach maintain that ‘public institutions are best operated on market principles’ (Carroll & Beaton, 2000, p. 71). Adherents to this perspective even go so far as to claim that ‘universities must compete, and that the market should determine the success of universities’ (ibid., p. 73). This view is shared by other scholars, including Schwartz, in Ginsburg, Espinoza, Popa and Terano (2003), who argues that public universities are inefficient institutions and, thus they ‘need the discipline of the market to get them in shape’ (p. 415). The proponents of the market approach also argued that the application of this approach would lead to greater efficiency, accessibility and equity (Johnson & Hirt, 2011, p. 487) by increasing the diversity in the educational provision (Middleton, 2000, p. 548). This seems to be particularly important in that it shifted the university from the elitist and exclusive model which had been evident until the mid-1980s to mass higher education. Once implemented, it was expected that market approach would lead to the expansion of the student intake and, hence, enable the university to benefit from the economies of scale: expanded outputs while reducing unit costs. This appears to suggest that the introduction of the market approach to higher education would result in ‘greater efficiency, effectiveness and relevance’ (Naidoo, 2007, p. 3).

Both the proponents and the critics of the market model alike they shared the similar assumption that the university played an instrumental role in promoting economic development through its supply-side policies: research and skills which improve the prospects of the individual and enhance national competitiveness within the global knowledge economy. However, in my view, there is a need to balance the needs of the state and the needs of the labour market without compromising the broader, fundamental purpose of the university as ‘an agent of national development’. Within the context of the public university, I advocate an ‘asymmetrical balance’ – an approach which public higher education institutions could apply to ‘balance competing goals and enable the pursuit of equally desirable goals’ (Badat, 2009, p. 462) within the context of both the state and the market imperatives (multiple imperatives) in the provision of higher education.

### **8.3 The role of the university during the socialist era to the mid-1980s**

This section examines the role played by the university in the national development during the socialist era. It is a well-known fact Tanzania adopted the socialist ideology after independence in 1961. In such a socialist country, the government played a key role in defining the national development objectives, including education. Thus, the government had

direct and absolute control over the operations of the higher education institutions. This may be explained, on one hand, by the ownership context, that is, the university was established and financed by the state and, thus, the government had direct control over university affairs. On the other hand, the government, as a key stakeholder and the prospective employer of the graduates, had decisive powers not only as regards the teaching curriculum, student intake but also the entire system of higher education. It was, thus, in this context that the university had to conform with state policies within the framework of the socialist state in order to meet social expectations. Within this policy context, the university was perceived as an integral part of the broader context of the country's social, political and economic objectives. Accordingly, and based on Nyerere's (1963) view, the university was not established for the purposes of prestige but rather 'it has a very definite role to play in this era and, to do this effectively, it must be in, and of, the community it has been established to serve' (p. 218). This, in turn, placed the university closer to the community. This relationship, which linked and fused the university and the state organically, was extensively elaborated upon in the University Act No. 12 of 1970, under the section entitled 'The objects and functions of the university'. According to this section the objects and functions of the university are as follows:

- To preserve, transmit and enhance knowledge for the benefit of the people of the Tanzania in accordance with the principles of socialism accepted by the people of Tanzania.
- To create a sense of public responsibility in the educated and to promote respect for learning and the pursuit of truth.
- To prepare students to work with the people of Tanzania for the benefit of the nation.
- To co-operate with the Government of the United Republic and the peoples of Tanzania in the planned and orderly development of education in the United Republic.
- To stimulate and promote the intellectual and cultural development of the United Republic for the benefit of the people of Tanzania (UDSM, 1982/83, pp. 656–657).

According to a widely accepted philosophical view, the objects and functions of the university were coloured and dominated by a country's ideology. For example, in the early 1970s, Marxism and Leninism as well as socialism and self-reliance were highly emphasised. This was reflected in the majority of the courses offered at all the education institutions and which were framed in line with both the development path and the ideology of the state,

while a review of the courses was aimed at ensuring that the curricula were more relevant to the development needs of Tanzania. This was reflected in Nyerere's (1971) speech as Chancellor of the University of Dar es Salaam at the inauguration of the university in 1970:

In its teaching activities, and in its search for new knowledge, therefore, the aim of the University of Dar es Salaam must be service to the needs of a developing socialist Tanzania. This purpose must determine the subjects taught, the content of the courses, the method of teaching, and the manner in which the university is organised, as well as its relations with the community at large (p. 110)

The following examples indicate the way in which the state's socialist ideology was infused into the courses offered at the university.

#### **Department of Economics:**

- *EC 100: Introductory to Political Economy:* To introduce students to Socialist and Capitalist theory and practices relating to the allocation and utilisation of resources with special reference to the problems of development in East Africa.

#### **Institute of Development Studies:**

- *DS 603: Socialist Transformation in Tanzania:* To examine the political economy of Tanzania, taking into account various historical periods, the prospects and problems of the socialist transformation and the changing strategies in the implementation of socialist policies.

#### **Department of Sociology:**

- *SO 320: Socialist Rural Development:* To examine, among others, the specific condition for socialist rural development in Africa and to compare the Tanzanian *Ujamaa* experience with the experiences of other countries such as Algeria, Guinea etc.

#### **Department of Education:**

- *ED 307: Workers Education in Tanzania:* To explore the nature, scope and organisation of workers' education in Tanzania and also to briefly cover workers' education in other socialist countries.



As may be seen in the examples cited above, the country's political ideology influenced the curricula of the university. Ideologically, socialist ideas were infused into the course content in order to prepare graduates for and orient them in respect of the development of a socialist country. It is perhaps not surprising that participants such as Anne remembered how politics had influenced the teaching of courses when she was a student. She said that, as students, they had been taught Sociology and Political Economy based on Leninist and Marxist perspectives. Many of these courses have been discontinued. However, as recently as the 1990s, there were changes in the national, social, economic and political orientation with new perspectives emerging, including the epistemological dimension of knowledge, that is, what to teach and in what context, while social values changed altogether. Indeed, the changes created major challenges for 'the appropriateness of the existing curricula in terms of their ideological and practical relevance to the needs of the new era' (UDSM, 2011b, p. 8). The result of the changes appears to have been a shift in the courses and programmes from an emphasis on development within the socialist planned economy towards the market-driven that emphasised practical and applied skills that met the demands of society. This will be discussed later in this chapter.

As a parastatal the university played an important role in carrying out various government policies in order to achieve the national development priorities (Brooke-Smith, 1978, p. 143). In particular, the university had to help the country to become self-sufficient by producing highly trained human resources. The literature indicated that the immediate national priority identified in many African countries, including Tanzania, soon after independence was to overcome the shortage of human resources in the government and civil service (Cloete *et al.*, 2011, p. 4). This, in turn, implied that the education offered by the university provide training for managers and administrators as well as other professionals (Brooke-Smith, 1978, p. 143). One of the university documents elaborated on this at length as follows:

The institution was meant to satisfy the needs and interests of the government in training the high-level manpower required to man the political and administrative structures that were created by the new administration. In such circumstances, it is understandable that political considerations did have great influence on all decisions regarding priority in the establishment of academic units as well as the academic programmes of some units (UDSM, 1998, p. 110).

One obvious example of the role of the university as a supplier of highly trained manpower was first reflected in Nyerere's speech at the inauguration of the University of Dar es Salaam as an autonomous national university in 1970:

To provide through its teaching for the high-level manpower needs of the society and in this way make its contribution towards the self-reliance and self-sufficiency of the country in respect of human resources both qualitatively and quantitatively (Nyerere, 1973, p. 101).

Thus, it is not surprising that the University of Dar es Salaam, in common with other universities of its time in Africa, was viewed as a 'developmental university' and, thus, as 'a symbol of national development'. Nor is it surprising that university activities during this period were intrinsically conducted in accordance with the developmental strategy of the country. In short, the philosophical position inherent in the objectives and functions of the university was more internal, demonstrating the aspiration of the socialist state to educate graduates in the manners and beliefs that would equip them to fit into a socialist society. The provision of service to the public was a particular theme emphasised in the three pillars of the university, namely, teaching, research and public services. This, in turn, implied that, since the national economy was part of central planning, higher education and the university, in particular, would be included in such a plan and, thus, that the university would assist in meeting the needs and aspirations of society at large and also the nation.

#### **8.4 The role of university under the market model**

The university started to play a role under the market model after the mid-1980s and following the shift in the developmental paradigm from 'a centralised economy into a more market oriented economy' in Tanzania (UDSM, 2004a, p. 2). The decline of the centrally planned economy under the socialist state created a political environment that was favourable to market reforms in the broad direction of increased liberalisation and privatisation. Thus, the country also witnessed a transition from state-funded and state-directed development to a market-oriented approach to the provision of social services. As opposed to what had happened during the socialist era, during this period the role of the government changed from that of directing economic activities to coordinating and regulating policy formulation (UDSM, 2002b, p. 10). This trend was also evident in the educational policies with the defining feature of this shift being reflected in the major change in the focus of educational policy in Tanzania. According to Buchert (1997):

The major contrast in the context for education policy marking in Tanzania during 1967–1990s is the move from emphasising the formulation of a socialist state and development of a market economy which blends public and private initiatives (p. 35).

Buchert's observation describes the fundamental shift in the ideological orientation from the socialist ideology to the market ideology which encourages liberalisation and privatisation policies in all spheres, including that of education. This shift marked an important phase in the development of higher education institutions in the country, including the University of Dar es Salaam as it meant that the government role in higher education changed in favour of market principles. One notable change, as explained in chapter five, was the amendment of the University Act of 1970 which reduced political control over the university. This change transformed the university into an autonomous entity, while endowing on it the capacity to respond quickly to emerging social realities. It was, thus, imperative that the university rethink and reorient its functions and objectives in order to play a role in realising the national socioeconomic and political goals as well as meeting the evolving demands of the growing global knowledge economy. The statement that exemplifies the need for the reform on the role of the university is summarised in the vice-chancellor's address to the 2001/2002 incoming undergraduate students at the University of Dar es Salaam:

The role expected of a university in a knowledge economy goes beyond its traditional roles of knowledge creation, training of young minds, and service to the community and transference of culture. The University is seen as an agent of economic growth; a knowledge factory, as it was, at the heart of a knowledge economy – one in which ideas and the ability to manipulate them counts for far more than the traditional factors of production (UDSM, 2001a, p. 9).

In seeking ways in which to respond to this challenge and respond adequately to the needs and aspirations of the people for whom it had been founded, the university reformulated its objectives and functions as indicated in the University Charter, 2007 (selected):

- To advance the frontiers of, enhance, preserve and transmit knowledge.
- To be a producer and supplier of key policy makers, experts and personnel in charge of key positions in industry, public and private institutions as well as governmental and non-governmental institutions.
- To prepare students for work as scientists or professionals by providing academic and professional or vocational courses of instruction and to take such other steps as may be

necessary or desirable towards ensuring an output of mainly job creators who possess professional qualifications or skills as opposed to job seekers.

- To provide, promote and maintain centres of excellence and exemplary good management in terms of knowledge creation, skills development, effective entrepreneurship and the formation of a responsible attitude for the betterment of the society as well as its mode of governance.
- To cooperate with the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania and the peoples of Tanzania in the planned and orderly development of education, science and technology in the United Republic.
- To stimulate and promote intellectual, cultural, scientific and technological development (UDSM, 2007d, pp. 7–9).

It is evident from the objectives and functions listed above that, although there are fundamental differences between the purposes as stipulated in the Charter as compared to the original purposes as stipulated in the Act (see page. 2001), there is, nevertheless, continuity. In other words, the current functions of the university are both an extension and an elaboration of its original functions, with a further emphasis on service to the community and to the nation in their need for empowerment to ensure developmental progress. While, originally, the focus of the university had been almost exclusively on meeting the national needs as a public institution, this focus has now been extended to accommodate the modern developments of globalisation and the highly competitive nature of the knowledge society. Lawi (2008) argues that ‘this shift obviously reflects the recent general policy change in the country from direct government control over all public affairs to relative institutional autonomy and enhanced individual private or corporate initiative’ (p. 46). Within this setting, the focus of the university is on empowering its graduates to be competitive in the global labour market through the teaching of professional skills as well as science and technology. Admittedly, as Duderstadt, Taggart and Weber (2008) assert, this is a global trend: ‘We were witnessing across the globe a shift from general to vocationally orientated higher education aimed at supporting career development’ (p. 276).

## **8.5 Adoption and implementation of corporate strategies**

The previous section presented the debate surrounding the introduction of the market model which had led to the marketisation of public higher education. In addition, the section also

discussed the purposes and functions of the University of Dar es Salaam under the socialist state as well as after its transformation within the context of the market approach. This section extends the discussion by examining whether, in the light of the intensification of globalisation and the adoption of the market-oriented approach, the role and mission of the university are fostering the attainment of the national development goals. Accordingly, the following sections discuss the dichotomy between the traditional role and mission of the university (under the state-controlled model) and the role of the university in responding to the social and economic demands within the context of neo-liberalism in order to argue in favour of the perception of balance. In particular, the analysis will interrogate the core activities of the university, namely, teaching, research/consultancy and public service in the context of the corporatisation of the university with aim of analysing the university's transformative stance within a global context.

#### 8.5.1 Teaching

Teaching is one of the traditional roles of the university. Any change in teaching is driven by two imperatives. Firstly, the need to train human resources in the important areas as encapsulated in the national priorities and, secondly, the need to review curricula to ensure that they demonstrate the relevance of the academic programmes offered to national development aspirations.

##### *8.5.1.1 Training of human resources*

This subsection adopts a human resource approach to examining the contribution of the university to the training of skilled human resources for the nation. It was reported in the previous chapters that the training of human resources was in accordance with the manpower requirement approach. The university continues to train human resource but, now, the training is based on the supply and demand in the labour market. While previously the university had responded to the manpower required for national development, the current focus is on producing the more multi-skilled human resources required by the labour market within the context of the global knowledge economy. In other words, the purpose of higher education and the university, in particular, is no longer to train graduates in order to equip them for the state bureaucracy and public sector but for the market. Accordingly, based on the need to produce greater numbers of trained human resources, the university increased its student intake:

Indeed, such expansion of student enrolment is crucial as it demonstrates the University's aspiration to assist the nation in obtaining the critical mass of professionals required to spearhead the various interventions for growth and poverty reduction (UDSM, 2009b, p. 9)

The following examples illustrate the way in which the university responded to the shortage of manpower in the country. The first examples cited refer to the production of teachers for the education sector – one of the national priorities. In the early 1990s the country initiated a nation-wide campaign to establish a secondary school in each ward.<sup>4</sup> These schools were commonly known as 'community secondary schools' or 'ward schools'. One of the challenges encountered by the campaign was the lack of sufficient teachers to meet the needs of this expansion of the secondary education system. The 2004 Academic Audit report summed up this particular challenge as follows: 'The output of university trained teachers is inadequate to meet the existing demand in the public and private sectors of secondary education' (UDSM, 2005a, p. 81). It recommended that 'the output of graduate teachers should be raised to enable the nation to meet teacher requirement in schools and colleges' (ibid., p. xiv). The shortage of teachers increased in the early 2000s following the launch of the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP), which was implemented under the auspices of the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) and the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP).<sup>5</sup> In order to accommodate the impact of the envisaged reforms as regards an expanded student intake, the university adopted a strategic measure to increase its intake of education students. In particular, the university established two constituent colleges, namely, the Dar es Salaam University College of Education (DUCE) and the Mkwawa University College of Education (MUCE), in 2005 with the following aim: 'The two colleges focus on the training of teachers for secondary schools in response to the needs of the Primary Education Development Programme and Secondary Education Development Programme' (UDSM, 2011a, p. 1). The available statistics indicate that these two colleges admitted 2,494 out of the 6,952 (35.9%) students admitted by the UDSM in 2009/2010 (ibid., p. 8). In addition, the School of Education, in collaboration with the two Campus Colleges, namely, the College of Arts and Social Sciences (CASS) and the College of Natural and Applied Sciences (CoNAS), also produced graduate teachers.

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<sup>4</sup> Ward is the next smaller subdivision of a district which is headed by a councillor.

<sup>5</sup> The number of secondary schools increased from 1,202 in 2005 to 2,300 in 2006 and to 4,260 in 2011. Total secondary pupil enrolment increased from 675,000 in 2006 to 1,638, 699 in 2011 while the staff shortage increased from 10,000 in 2006 to more than 22,500 in 2011 (Mukandala, 2012, p. 11, citing Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2010).

Another area in which the university has contributed positively is the specialised graduate training of higher level personnel for the various emerging higher education institutions in the country. This was emphasised and, indeed, accorded priority in the UDSM Five-Year Rolling Strategic Plan, 2008/2009-2012/2013 (UDSM, 2009b, p. 11):

This is particularly important considering the fact that the University has obvious comparative advantage over the other universities in the country when it comes to postgraduate training and research, and this situation is bound to remain that way for quite some time. It is an obvious fact that most of the other HEIs will depend on UDSM for the development and recruitment of their staff.

The available records indicate the university's achievements as reflected in the number of postgraduate students which increased from 1,733 in 2005/2006 to 2,646 in 2010/11 (UDSM, 2012, p. 11). The plan is that postgraduate students will comprise 40% of the student enrolment at the UDSM. However, it is also likely that the expanding numbers of postgraduate students will increase the burden of supervision as a result of the shortage of senior and experienced staff.

For the first time, science and technology has been recognised by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) as a 'tool for socio-economic development' (Hamilton, Mahera, Mateng'e, & Machumu, 2010). With respect to Tanzania, one document stressed 'it is therefore imperative for developing countries like Tanzania to embrace science and technology as a vital tool for accelerating their social economic development' (URT, 1996, p. 3). In its Rolling Strategic Plan (2009/10–2013/14), the Tanzania Commission for Universities (2009) directs 'university institutions to offer training that will stimulate the development of scientific and technological inventions and innovations for socio-economic development' (p. 17). In light of the above, it is expected of the university that it will teach science and technology in order to enable its graduates to acquire the required problem-solving skills. However, the university has not recorded any significant achievements in this area. With reference to science and technology, Sikujua, a senior academic, stated that the nation is experiencing a great demand for human resources specialised in the fields of science and technology. As a premier university in Tanzania, UDSM is expected to promote a scientific culture and, as such, the university has introduced a number of academic programmes in science and technology, including a Bachelor of Science in Computer Engineering and Information Technology and a Bachelor of Science in Computer Science.

Nevertheless, the university has not yet succeeded in producing sufficient graduates in the fields of science and technology to meet the needs of the Tanzanian economy. There is a host of reasons to explain this situation. Firstly, there is, as yet, very little emphasis in the university on science and technology. For example, not one of the ten strategic areas in the current strategic plan 2004/2005–2012/2013 focuses on science and technology with science and technology receiving minimal mention in the strategic plan with one reference only to which states the aim of ‘reviewing the curriculum to give greater attention to science and technology in line with market needs’ (UDSM, 2009b, pp. 53–54). Furthermore, there is no institutional policy regarding the admission ratio between the science and non-science disciplines and this, in turn, creates an imbalance. For example, the number of undergraduate students enrolled in the science and technology programmes comprised 3,199 (28.4%) of the 11,281 students enrolled at the Main Campus in the 2009/2010 academic year (UDSM, 2011a, pp. 39–40). As a result of the low number of students specialising in the science disciplines, the Chancellor’s Visitation Panel (UDSM, 2011b) suggested that ‘the UDSM’s plans to re-establish the ‘lost’ disciplines’ (p. 30). In this context, ‘the lost disciplines’ are science, technology and engineering. With reference to the issue of gender equity in the science and technology related fields, the Higher Education Development Programme (2010) makes the following observation:

Performance in science subjects at A level examinations from which the pool of female students qualifying for science, mathematics, engineering and technology programmes are picked is low and the pool is small (URT, 2010b, p. 24).

This deficit clearly transfers to the higher education institutions. For example, Luhanga (2009) posits that ‘for years the College of Engineering and Technology has been failing to find enough qualifying applicants to match its capacity’ (p. 67). In the same vein, Mwapachu (2010) observes that, in 2004, for example, 28% only of tertiary students were enrolled in science and technology education in Africa (p. 19). In addition, and specific to Tanzania, UNESCO (2010) indicated that, in 2005, the number of students enrolled in tertiary level ‘engineering education’ was 4,589 as compared to the 69,028 students enrolled in South Africa (p. 87). From a gender perspective, in 2008/09, the College of Engineering and Technology enrolled 386 students, of which 59 were female students (Hamilton *et al.*, 2010, p. 24). This indicates a worrying trend and poses a threat because Tanzania is in urgent need of science and engineering graduates if it is to realise its Vision 2025 development plan. Chapter six discussed the fact that the affirmative strategies which had been intended to



increase the number of female students in the science and engineering degree programmes had not been sustainable as a result of a lack of funds.

#### *8.5.1.2 Introduction of market-driven programmes*

One way in which the corporatisation of the university assisted the country to produce competitive human resources was by introducing new academic programmes which were tailored to meet the demands of the labour market. This section explains the rationale behind the introduction of these market-driven programmes and also discusses the dichotomous views surrounding the introduction of these programmes. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the goals and values of education had been formulated to serve the socialist ideology. However, from the mid-1980s and early 1990s, the country experienced a transformation in its political and economic orientation from socialism to liberalism. This, in turn, led to the emergence of the neoliberal ideology in terms of which the values and goals of the university education were shifted to meet market needs. This epistemological paradigm shift implied fundamental changes that obliged the university to train its graduates to acquire the interdisciplinary skills required to fit them for the rapidly changing global socioeconomic and political landscape. One of the significant obstacles which the country faced in its effort to meet the development imperatives was the lack of quality education. For example, with respect to the quality of education, the National Development Vision 2025 stated that it ‘has not been able to innovatively engage Tanzanians in entrepreneurship and self-employment’ (URT 1999b, p. 9). Implicit in this statement is the urgent need for higher education institutions and universities, in particular, to create a culture of conducting regular tracer studies and curricula review in order ‘to make curricula more congruent with the knowledge, expertise and skills needs of a changing economy’ (Badat, 2009, p. 8). This has led to, among other initiatives, the introduction of market-driven programmes.

#### **Reasons for the introduction of market-driven programmes**

In chapter seven, I showed that one of the consequences of the reform process had been the introduction of the market-driven programmes which were offered under the parallel degree programme system. The introduction of market-driven programmes was intended to create entrance opportunities to the university for working adults, diversify the university’s sources of income and improve the efficient use of resources, both human and physical. In this section, the specific focus is on the introduction of market-driven programmes as a response

to the changing labour market and the impact of this changing labour market on the students' knowledge and skills development. The main reason for the introduction of market-driven programmes has been both the changing labour demands and also the growing unemployment among the university graduates. In chapters five and six I discussed the fact that the manpower plan was one of the criteria used by the government to dictate the number of training places available in Tanzania. This reason for this was the fact that the public sector, including the parastatal organisations, was a major employer of the university graduates. Within such a context, graduates were guaranteed employment by either the government or state-owned parastatals. However, the slow growth of the formal economy led to an increase in the unemployment rate among university graduates. In such a case, and particularly from the mid-1980s, the public sector was no longer able to employ the university graduates because many parastatal organisations had collapsed or had either been liquidated or privatised, thus leading to a decline in job opportunities. Within that context, Luhanga *et al.* (2003) observe:

While in the earlier days the central establishment allocated jobs, the market-led economy and privatisation of the public sector institutions has led to a decline in labour market opportunities for graduates in the public sector (p. 108).

As a result, in order to secure employment in both the public and private sectors, graduates had to compete for the available job vacancies based on their skills and knowledge. At the same time, the labour market demands were becoming increasingly more competitive and dynamic. It has been argued, based particularly on the World Bank's policy edicts, that public universities were 'offering outmoded curriculum and graduating large numbers of graduates with minimal relevance to the prevailing labour market needs' (Munene & Otieno, 2008, p. 464). In addition, Samoff and Carrol (2003) observed that 'unemployment among graduates was the primary evidence of the mismatch between education and the labour market' (p. 9). A similar concern was voiced by the World Bank (2009, p. 45). This is clear evidence of a mismatch 'asymmetry' between the job market needs and the outputs produced by public higher education institutions, thus implying a 'demand-response imbalance'. This also suggests that the university graduates lacked the practical and entrepreneurship skills required for success in the job market. Thus, as a remedy, the teaching of marketable or employability skills in line with labour market requirements was imperative, not only in training students to acquire the knowledge and working skills which would increase their ability to secure better job opportunities but, above all, to transform them from 'job seekers' into 'job creators'. The

teaching of employability skills would have significant benefits not only for individual graduate but also for national development. Consequently, higher education institutions, including UDSM, are required to tailor their curricular options to the burgeoning labour market demands and technical changes. In 1999 President Benjamin Mkapa called for ‘reviewing and updating the curricula offered so that it becomes relevant to the changing economic, technological and labour market needs of Tanzania’ (cf. Mwamila & Diyamett, 2009, p. 17).

With this demand comes pressure as regards the academic programmes that would be needed to equip graduates with the appropriate knowledge and skills required to address the development deficits in both the public and the private sectors. One national document directs that ‘universities and other higher education institutions will introduce/strengthen courses and other programmes to prepare students towards enterprising and self-employment’ (URT, 2007, p. 44). As a response to this policy directive the university is expanding, diversifying and reconfiguring its programmes while also eliminating the outdated programmes in order to align its programmes to the needs and demands of the public and private sectors. However, the following challenge was noted with respect to this aspiration and, indeed, the key question centred on ‘How to change the students’ mindset from the public-sector mentality of dependency and wastefulness to the private-sector mentality of entrepreneurship, frugality and value for money’ (Mkude, Cooksey & Levey, 2003, p. 37). In seeking to change the students’ mindset, Luhanga *et al.* (2003) explain how the university’s strategic plan is aimed at preparing its graduates to fit into labour market:

As part of the efforts to change the students’ mindset and in response to changes in the economy and declining labour market, the University has created a multi-disciplinary Entrepreneurship Centre. Accordingly, an object has been introduced into the RSP requiring all University programmes to be oriented towards producing job creators rather than job seekers (p. 109)

In an effort to respond to these changes, the university has introduced cross-cutting academic programmes/courses designed to acquaint students with a wide range of both practical and soft skills. However, perhaps more important has been the review of the curriculum to ensure its congruency with the needs of the labour market. This, in turn, entailed introducing courses that help the students to acquire skills in entrepreneurship, computer literacy, and communication skills, among the others. The following are examples of the courses introduced and their justification:

- **Entrepreneurship:** To prepare graduates for work creation and self-employment.
- **Computing and ICT:** To ensure that graduates are computer literate and to produce a future generation of ICT-literate workers and citizens.
- **Communication skills:** To equip graduates with language competency as regards speaking and writing.
- **Research method courses:** To provide graduates with research skills and competencies.

According to the participants it would appear that the university is focusing on and orienting itself toward the teaching of technology and entrepreneurship in order to produce human resources who are capable of creating self-employment while, at the same time, contributing to the nation development. In making this claim, Deo states:

The university introduced a programme called entrepreneurship to make students to be job creators than job seekers. The course tried to switch their minds that don't fight very much to be employed because there are very few job opportunities but rather try to create your own employment.

Within a contemporary context, the argument is that the university's mission has changed from the traditional role of training personnel for the public sector to offering the courses that encourage entrepreneurship, that is, employability skills, to its graduates. It is worth noting that the adoption of a market-oriented model, as regards the academic programmes offered and also fee paying students, has triggered considerable debate. The interview with Sikitu, a senior academic, illuminated the debate raging about the marketisation of the academic programmes at the university. In her analysis of how the courses offered addressed national development priorities, she theorised:

I think there was some kind of mixed or misunderstanding amongst academic members. Somewhere people talk of offering courses that meet the market needs and others said 'wait a minute we know the behaviour of the market'. Market is the same whether is for human labour or other items. Some people think that the university should actually address the needs of the nation rather than addressing the needs of the market where nobody knows who controlled the market.

Sikitu's comment illustrates the dichotomous nature of the tension surrounding the marketisation of the academic programmes. The first perspective gets support from those participants who idealised the historical public good model which is premised on the

assumption that the university's exclusive aim is to fulfil the national development goals. Perhaps the deepest concern was voiced about the 'commercialisation of the university', as manifested in the market-driven programmes being offered. More importantly, as the participants argued, public higher education and the university, in particular, should continue to contribute to meet the national development goals through its role in knowledge creation and the production of highly skilled citizens. In addition, the participants expressed doubts about the consequences of market orientation as regarded the academic programmes offered. From the World Bank's perspective, the market is considered to be 'the most reliable indicator of the skills shortages' and, thus, higher education institutions should respond to changes in the labour market (George, 2006, p. 599).

However, there are limitations in responding to the labour market only. Arguably, this tendency has undermined the traditional role of the public university by decreasing both critical inquiry and access to knowledge (Lynch, 2006). Anne, in particular, was one of the academics who felt that the transformation had made a significant mistake in terms of knowledge creation. Indeed, she went so far as to claim that 'transformation introduced market-oriented programmes instead of producing a mass of critical thinkers who could be able to inform the government'. In her view, there will come a time when the nation will miss people who are capable of conceptualising, questioning why certain things are happening and why they are happening in that particular way. Duderstadt *et al.* (2008) attributed the demand for specific skills to the marketisation and globalisation which have shifted 'university offerings away from broader academic studies and towards narrower vocational programmes' (p. 275). This dissatisfaction was further voiced by Jonathani, a junior academic, who was of the view that most of the new courses are moving away from the traditional role of the university in training strategic thinkers towards a polytechnic orientation which focuses on addressing market based needs. In making this claim, Jonathan said:

If you see most of the courses been restructured here they address immediate problems. I have a view that this move is contrary because the university exist to ensure that we build capabilities among students who can think broadly. That is why we emphasis on teaching theories or perspectives which would later on help students to handle all the industrial needs. Of course the university is moving towards industrial needs and government needs but I think a caution has to be taken that the role of the university should remain.

This comment from Jonathani serves to highlight a fundamental tension between the changing focus of increasing the number and types of academic programmes as outlined in the university strategic plan and the need to provide basic competencies to undergraduate students. Consequently, Jonathani's statement requires further explanation. The use of the term 'immediate' in the quote denotes or illustrates the context in which the adoption of corporate strategies that bow to the market cannot or does not have long term goals. In other words, while the state control is inherently goal-oriented – involves planning in order to attain certain predefined ends – the market 'produces unintended consequences and the market does not always have the same policy goals as the government' (Michael, 2005, p. 16). Thus, the teaching of market-driven programmes does not provide students with the skills that would enable them to think beyond getting jobs but rather as a route towards certain careers. In addition, market-driven academic programmes do not provide them with the tools that would enable them to solve complex societal problems. It may be further argued that, while market-driven programmes ensure employability skills, they also alienate or weaken the ability of the students to engage in critical issues relevant to the community of which they are part. Tilak (2008) observes that the 'marketization of higher education will result in a rapid extinction of some of the important disciplines of study that serve as a basic foundation for the development of any humane society' (p. 460). Similarly, Duderstadt *et al.* (2008) maintain that:

There is a discernible commercialization of universities, defining their purpose increasingly in terms of their role in economic development, sometimes at the expense of more fundamental roles such as challenging the norms of society, securing and transmitting cultural heritage from one generation to the next, mentoring entrants into the professions, accrediting competency and skills, and striving to provide their students with personal understanding and the tools for societal transformation (p. 275).

It would, thus, seem that the introduction of market-driven programmes indicates a paradigm shift that has narrowed the role of the university as regards the teaching of academic competencies such as critical thinking and problem-solving skills while, at the same time, moving the university towards increasingly teaching vocational-oriented subjects and courses which are aimed at operational competences and which are narrowly tailored to the needs of specific business or the labour market. This trend, in turn, fosters the belief among students that certain skills are more important than others, thus suggesting that the university is producing commercially oriented professionals rather than public-interest professionals

(Handlon, 2000, in Lynch, 2006, p. 3) because the students are made to feel that the sole role of the university is to teach them career skills. This is consistent with the assertion of Molesworth, Nixon and Scullion (2009) that, under marketisation, the focus is to ‘satisfy a consumer culture which negates even the possibility that higher education changes the individual’s outlook’ (p. 278). This, in turn, suggests that programmes and courses such as those in humanities and arts and that are focused on areas such as critical theory and social issues are undermined and become disadvantaged because their role and values are regarded as peripheral and not relevant to the commercial needs of the market (Trust Africa, 2011). It is worth noting that skills such as critical and original thinking and which have been traditionally the hallmark of higher education are not acquired in highly specialised courses (Hammer & Star, 2004). Studies have shown that students who follow vocationally oriented curricula are less likely to be exposed to a variety of disciplines and, as a consequence, they fail to develop multi-disciplinary knowledge (Kezar, 2004, p. 448). This has further ramifications because highly specialised programmes and courses do not necessarily guarantee that their graduates will be successful in a competitive job market. As Hammer and Star (2004) argue, one of the important unintended consequences of the impact of the emphasis on vocational skills on general knowledge is that ‘while universities have increasingly focussed on the development of vocational skills in students and disregarded traditional academic values, businesses lament the loss of citizenship values in their employees’ (p. 371).

In connection with the encroaching demands of a market-driven logic, Kitila, a senior academic, argued that emphasising market-driven programmes would transform the university into a ‘vocational institution’ that produces artisans or low level skills and relinquishes its core mission of producing knowledge. During his address at the inauguration of the University of Dar es Salaam, the late Nyerere (1973) reminded us of the role of the university when he argued that ‘the university is a place where people’s minds are trained for clear thinking, for independent thinking, for analysis, and for problem solving at the highest level’ (pp. 192–193). On line with this view, Clawson and Page (2011) argued that the values of traditional higher education should maintain ‘a passionate pursuit of truth, a commitment to nurturing students and helping them to develop a defence of free speech and freedom of research, a dedication to decisions based on long-run collective values rather than short-run self-interest’ (p. 17). I argue that, in the context of increasing competition, critical and original thinking skills remain crucial to both graduates and employers in order to ensure

competitiveness in their endeavours. It is important to ensure that the teaching at the university level extends beyond the development of the marketable skills that render graduates employable to include the creative and innovative skills that enable students to be critical and innovative in face of the major issues and/or problems confronting the community at large and also the nation. It is, thus, essential that university education is relevant and that it equips graduates to develop new ways of thinking that will contribute to solutions to the problems facing society at large and also the nation.

According to the second perspective, which advocates the introduction of market-driven programmes, it is not possible for the university to remain conservative. This implies that the historical nation building/public interest approach to higher education is old fashioned, conservative and outdated. The advocates of this second perspective maintain that the vision of the university should change in order to accommodate both internal and external changes. Informed by the market-driven discourse, some scholars argue that universities should be viewed as business organisations whose expenditures are regarded as a ‘social investment that yields some tangible return in the form of productive knowledge, technical innovation and marketable skills’ (ibid., p. 74) and that will ensure greater competitiveness in the global economy. This perspective receives support from the World Bank suggestion that universities in Africa should be ‘trimmed and restructured to produce only those skills which the market demands’ (Banya & Elu, 1997; p. 161). However, the World Bank recently changed its thinking, insisting in its report ‘*Constructing knowledge society: new challenges for tertiary education*’ that (World Bank, 2002):

A meaningful education for the 21st century should stimulate all aspects of human intellectual potential. It should not simply emphasize access to global knowledge in science and management but should also uphold the richness of local cultures and values, supported by the time-honored and eternally valuable disciplines of the humanities and social sciences, including philosophy, literature, and the arts (p. 31).

In short, there continues to be a tension on the role of the university in response to national and market demands. In the contemporary context it would appear that it is the rise of the hegemony of the market that is determining the role of higher education. I argue that, in view of the fact that the government does not have the capacity to offer employment to all the university graduates, the introduction of entrepreneurial courses will enable graduates to develop the skills required to start their own businesses. Accordingly, public higher education institutions and public universities, in particular, should strive to achieve a balance between



professional programmes that focus on specific skills and basic academic disciplines that promote general knowledge, including critical thinking as both are crucial in preparing appropriately skilled graduates for self-employment, national development as well as the knowledge economy.

#### 8.5.2 Nature of research and consultancy activities

The discussion in this section focuses on whether the paradigm shift in the direction of marketisation has altered the university's research and consultancy activities in such a way that they benefit both the university and the nation. It has been argued throughout this thesis that the university activities, including research, depend on central government for funding. It is also worth noting that, since its establishment, the University of Dar es Salaam has been conducting research focused on specific areas of social and economic development. The literature indicated that such research was being conducted by institutes and bureaus (UDSM, 1982, p. 366, 370–371). Previously research was conducted as an integral aspect of the traditional role of the university, namely, 'the pursuit of the knowledge for its own sake' and, in order to improve teaching.

Research activities, however, encounter several challenges. There is little doubt that research is an expensive endeavour, whether in the developed or in the developing countries, and, thus, it requires vast amounts of money (Atuahene, 2011, p. 323). The research conducted at the UDSM also faces this challenge. The previous chapters discussed the issue of funding in detail, indicating that the decline in government funding had been one of the reasons for the reform initiated at the university. Effective research has also been affected by the decline in public funding. For example, the 1998 Academic Audit report (UDSM, 1999b) cited a lack of funding as one of the ongoing problems affecting research activities. As discussed in chapter five the decline in government funding was clearly reflected in the decline in the funds allocated to the university. In the interview conducted with Julius, it was revealed that the university received an extremely small budget from the government with which to support research and development activities. The interview with Max confirmed the situation:

There has been very little research fund for major research. This is a public institution but research budget has always been very small and at some time non-existence at all. We realised that it is a problem to continue relying on external sources for research because research is one of the core activities of the university. Our understanding has always been that this function needs to be funded in the same way as other functions.

It is evident that the lack of funds has had significant consequences. For example, it has made it difficult for the university to plan research activities in line with both its priorities as well as the national development needs while it has also had ramifications not only for the nature of the research conducted but also the control of the research findings. With regard to the nature of the research, the shortage of funds has deflected the focus away from conducting the basic scientific research that lead to innovation and development to applied and contracted research. Jacqueline indicated that there is very little basic research of the type conducted at the university that leads to innovations and has industrial application. This has had profound consequences because, as Shombo said, academics were concentrating on research that focused on the ‘recycling of knowledge and not for advancing or creating knowledge’. Clearly, the research funding is inefficient to sustain major research activities that focus on the developmental problems facing the country. This lack of sufficient funds to finance research has increased and reinforced the reliance on donor support in order to conduct research activities. The data available indicated that donors provide a large proportion of the funds allocated to research activities and development costs. Table 8.1 presents statistical data on research funding from 1999/00 to 2004/05.

**Table 8.1:** Research funding levels at the UDSM-Main Campus by year and source

Year	Exchange Rates [USD:TSH]	Government funding [USD]	Donor funding [USD]	Other funding [USD]	Grand Total [USD]	Percentage of donor funding
1999/00	950	408,421	1,789,473		2,197,894	81.4
2000/01	980	10,204	2,043,877		2,054,081	99.5
2001/02	1,050	8,571	1,511,428		1,520,000	99.4
2002/03	1,046	10,516	1,002,868	479,205	1,429,589	70.2
2003/04	1,050	12,380	2,097,142	384,807	2,494,331	84.1
2004/05	1,080	12,962	2,779,629	281,481	3,074,074	90.4

*Source:* UDSM (2005b, p. 54).

Exchange Rates from 1990/91–2004/2005: TZS 800.00, 950.00, 1,050.00, 1,046.00, 1,050.00 and 1,080.00 respectively.

The data in Table 8.1 indicates that the funds allocated by the government to research were insufficient to finance major research in development related projects. It is also clear from the table that donors played a significant role in funding the research activities conducted on the Main Campus. While it is important to acknowledge the important of donor support to the university, there is, however, a danger involved in depending entirely on external sources of funding to conduct research. Although this study was not able to document the total extent of donor influence on the research activities conducted by the university, it is important to highlight the impact of such donor support. Firstly, as one document revealed, ‘the over-

reliance on external funding has affected research priorities' (UDSM, 1999b, p. 86). It would appear that the lack of funds has enabled donors the opportunity to assert their research agendas and interests. Indeed, the concern has been expressed that donors tend to dictate and/or influence the research priorities in line with their own agendas and that this situation has created a mismatch between priorities set by the university and the country on the one hand and those of the donors on the other hand. Levina's argument is fairly representative of the views of the other participants:

Most of the research that is going on here are commissioned to individuals by funders and therefore they don't work on their own priorities but in accordance with the priorities of the funding agencies.

This trend, as expressed in the quote above, suggests that there are reasons indicating that the research conducted under donor funding does not necessarily contribute to and/or address the national development goals. Firstly, donors tend to focus on their own priorities and take little account of the specific internal problems and development needs of the country. In addition to the necessity of complying with the demands of donors, it is suggested that the researchers or academics contracted to conduct research projects financed by donors would not be able to produce results which would be contrary to what the funders want. In other words, they may have to produce predetermined outcomes. This situation was clearly articulated by Samoff (1999) in his paper entitled 'When research becomes consulting' (p. 18). When discussing donor support, Kitila, stated that 'depending on donors' support will divert your research agenda. For that matter, we cannot say that our research has directly addressed national development priorities'. Not only do donors choose to use their resources to fund certain research projects which are of interest to them but also, as Teferra (2003) notes 'they dictate the direction of research that is not often at the top of the list of national priorities' (p. 41), adding (Teferra, 2013) :

Unfortunately, the contribution of many academics involved in consultancy has been heavily restricted by the regimes governing these undertakings, often a tendency towards subservience to the interests of commissioning entities that subsequently diminishes contributions further.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>6</sup> Teferra, D (2013). African universities moderating development paradigms: The quest for 'honest brokers'. Inside Higher Ed. Retrieved 29 November 2013 from <http://www.insidehighered.com/blogs/world-view/african-universities-moderating-development-paradigms-quest-%E2%80%9Chonest-brokers%E2%80%9D#ixzz2m1AaZble>.

In line with this observation, Tilak (2008) argues that the interest of the corporate sector determines research priorities and outcomes. He went further, adding that ‘research supported by the corporate sector may satisfy the perceived present demands, but may fail to look at society’s long term needs (p. 460). For example, while donors would prefer to fund basic research, the university and the country would probably regard applied researches as a priority because they are seeking solutions to immediate problems. The gist of this argument is simple: the basic reason for undertaking research in a developing country such as Tanzania is to trigger development. Nevertheless, in the past, Tanzania, with its historical socialist history, was a strong supporter of research for the sake of research. However, economic realities and national development demands have put an end to this idealistic notion.

It was expected that the introduction of marketisation as a response to the declining public funding would enable the university to achieve the correct alignment between research and economic development in an efficient and effective manner. However, anecdotal evidence suggests that the marketisation of the university has been accompanied by the displacement of the fundamental aim of research practice, namely, the creation of fundamental new knowledge, by consultancy which is characterised by short-term financial gain. Mamdani (2011) termed this ‘the consultancy model’ (p. 3). In illustrating its impact on research, Mamdani described the trend as ‘the spread of corrosive consultancy culture’ (ibid.). The main reason why people prefer consultancies is because the return is immediate. Thus, as Deo, a senior academic, explained people see little perceived value in conducting research:

If you conduct a research you are not awarded. You don’t get money out of it. The only thing you get out of it is writing academic papers and promotion but that takes a long way and promotion does not give you something substantial. So people don’t want to conduct research and instead they went for what is called ‘contracted research’, that is, a research which is a consultancy of some kind.

Deo’s views are supported by Samoff (1999), who argues that ‘research as consulting transforms the academic reward system’ and that ‘promotion in university rank is less important and far less remunerative than securing another consulting contract’ (p. 19). Munene and Otieno (2008) reported a similar trend in Kenyan public universities as follows: ‘the undertaking of research is no longer an important consideration for promotion and tenure’ (p. 476). The discussion above indicates a shift in the intellectual paradigm from engaging in original research for the pursuit of ‘the truth’ toward money-oriented research ‘consultancy’. In other words, while, traditionally, research was regarded as social good,

consultancies, as one scholar argues, have dismantled the notion of ‘public’ in the public university (Thornton, 2008, p. 6). This suggests that the growing ‘consultancy culture’ has had negative consequences on research, as well as on the overall contribution to economic and social development. It is an established fact that research focuses on problem-solving and, thus, leads to the creation of new knowledge, but not consultancy. Unfortunately, consultancy has even endangered the critical and theoretical perspectives upheld by academics and, at some point, even erased them completely. Mamdani (2011) suggests the following possible reason why consultancies threaten the academic ethos: ‘consultants presume that research is all about finding answers to problems defined by a client’ (p. 3). In line with this argument of Mamdani, there is increased evidence suggesting that the consultancy trend holds true for the present situation at the UDSM. The culture that prevails in the market is one that perceives knowledge as a commodity with commercial value and, hence, research is undertaken in order to make a profit. This is typical of the market model in research. David (1997) argues that knowledge production for its own sake has been replaced by the ‘pursuit of useful knowledge’ (p. 4). The use of the term ‘useful’ suggests that knowledge production has commercial value. Badat (2009) cautions that basic scholarly research should not be sacrificed in the name of ‘relevance’ and reduced ‘to market or economic relevance’ (p. 11). At the institutional level, the anecdotal evidence suggests that commissioning research from individual academics has deprived the university one of its potential sources of income while, at the individual academic, consultancy poses a challenge as it undermines scientific inquiry. Consistent with this view, several scholars such as Polayi, (cited in Thornton, 2008, p. 7) argue that, while ‘freedom is central to the pursuit of knowledge’, consultancies have ‘thwarted it because of constraints imposed by end-users’. Confirming this standpoint Bok (2003) argues that the commodification of higher education has changed universities into ‘knowledge factories where academic ideals are routinely compromised for the sake of money’ (p. 16).

Another challenge facing research is the lack of capabilities in terms of expertise. As evidence of the current capacity, the university records reveal that, in 2009/2010, approximately 523 (47%) of the permanent academic staff on the UDSM Main Campus had doctorates (UDSM, 2011a, p. 88). This proportion was similar to those universities in South Africa with a strong research base (Cloete, Bailey, Pillay, Bunting, & Maassen, 2011, p. 145). It would be expected that this level of expertise would be utilised in conducting the research in various areas that would contribute to the national development goals. However, this

expectation has not materialised as '[t]he UDSM experts do not have enough skills in preparing winning proposals' (UDSM, 2005b, p. 59). Shombo suggested as a possible reason for this the fact that people were entering the research and consultancy services earlier but without the basic knowledge and skills. This is typical of consultancy. According to Mamdani (2007), 'a consultant has no expertise' because his/her task is restricted to 'gathering data and writing reports' (p. 4). This, in turn, casts doubt on the use of research findings in shaping the transformation in the country in various areas, including education, environment, poverty reduction, among others. At this point, it is important to consider the implications of the lack of the prerequisite knowledge and skills for research. A comparative figure will help to put this into perspective: the reality that the university research output is low. For example, in 2007, the ratio of publication units per staff at the UDSM was 0.08 as compared with the 0.50 target set in research universities in South Africa with the same capacity (Bailey *et al.*, 2011, p. 105, Cloete *et al.*, 2011, p. 145).

In addition, more recent data show that the number of the research projects at UDSM increased from 203 in 2005/06 to 247 in 2009/10 (UDSM, 2011a, p. 17). Nevertheless, notwithstanding this increase in the volume of research output, in real terms it is marginal and the research output is actually declining. This suggests that the university is contributing little to research and development. In addition, a lack of skills leads to the poor research work that not only tarnishes the reputation of the university staff but has also led to the castigation of the university by both the government and by other agencies. Finally, but linked to the previous point, it would appear that the link between the university and industry is weak, either because of a lack of publicity about the university strengths or a weak industrial sector. As indicated above, the university's research output is too small to constitute a major conduit for transmitting the knowledge which could stimulate economic development. Thus, the discussion above shows that, while research is one of the university's core functions, it would appear that the marketisation of the research findings has not improved the efficiency of the research activities and, instead, it has led to what Mamdani termed the 'galloping of (the) consultancy culture' (p. 2). As Luhanga (2009) observes, this 'galloping consultancy culture', which benefits individuals, has resulted in the fact that 'a considerable number of staff in the Institutes was concentrating on consultancy activities which were not registered with the university' (p. 191). Thus, it would seem that it may be true that consultancy activities within the operational logic of the market model, in this respect at least, are more profitable to

individuals than they are beneficial for the development and progress of the university and the country at large.

In short, the discussion showed that research activities are faced by several challenges: namely, a shortage of fund which breeds donor dependence, the lack of research culture as a result of a lack of basic research skills and, lastly, the marketisation that foregrounds the consultancy culture. Neither the university nor the government has benefited from the commercialisation of research because individuals are accruing the substantial amounts of revenue. The research findings revealed that the market approach has transformed research into consultancy and that academics are conducting contracted research instead of basic research. Viewed from this vantage point, the commercialisation of the university has encouraged a consultancy culture which is not providing real solutions to the social and economic problems of the country.

### 8.5.3 Public services

This section examines how the corporatisation changed the focus of the university engagement with its stakeholders from that of service to that of consultancy services. Until the mid-1980s national planning, including educational planning, was geared towards transforming Tanzania into a socialist country. There is evidence to suggest that, during the socialist period, the university was viewed as part of the larger society and that it participated in community activities in ‘the spirit of egalitarian sharing of skills and resources’ (Lawi, 2008, p. 52). As described by Max, the university has a long history of involvement in the provision of services outside of its basic premises:

This university was created as a people’s university. It has always been trying very hard to make its presence felt by people in various ways. Officially the university is supposed to present itself to general public through public services window. The public service window is supposed to consist mainly of contributions of the academicians and other qualified staff in advising, providing professional advice to government and other organisations in the country within their own relevant fields.

In terms of engagement, the interviews revealed that, after independence and during the socialist period, the university had close links with the community. For example, Sikitu, a senior academic, mentioned that the university students had gone out to teach Adult Education as well as participating in development projects in the country. Max also reported during the ‘Ujamaa’ era students had gone out and helped villagers to construct their houses

or lay down pipes to improve their water supply. The first president of Tanzania, Julius Nyerere, frequently echoed and emphasised this social function of the university. He challenged the youth, including students, to reach out and offer their services to the community as follows:

How many of our students spend their vacations doing a job which could improve people's lives but for which there is no money-jobs like digging an irrigation channel or a drainage ditch for a village, or demonstrating the construction and explaining the benefits of deep-pit latrines, and so on? A small number have done such work in the National Youth Campus or through school-organised, national-building schemes, but they are exception rather than the rule. The vast majority do not think of their knowledge or their strength as being related to the needs of the village community (Nyerere, 1967, p. 15).

Nyerere emphasises two points in the above quote. Firstly, according to government, it was not a favour but a social responsibility or obligation on the part of the youth as members of the community to participate in community activities. Secondly, community engagement offered both the staff and students of the university with the opportunity to apply their knowledge, that is, to test theories as well as to participate in solving the immediate problems facing the community (The UDSM Consultancy Policy and Operational Procedures, 2010, p. 2). This suggests that there is reciprocity between scholarly activities and community services, that is, community service is supplemented 'through scholarly activity and that scholarly activity, particularly student learning, is enriched through service to the community (Council on Higher Education (CHE) in South Africa, 2006, p. 15). However, as mentioned earlier, from the mid-1980s, Tanzania embarked on a process of liberalised reform in her socio-economic and political systems. The shift from a socialist to a neoliberal ideology caused the university to redefine its role in society. In writing about consultancy services, Lawi (2008) describes this shift to a focus on society:

It is important to note that while the current approach borrowed the general concept of service to the society from the ideas recorded in the UDSM Act of 1970; there is profound difference between the two. While the original idea was to serve society in the spirit of egalitarian sharing of skills and resources, the current effort aims to develop and sell consultancy services to customers outside the university, primarily for the sake of generating income and strengthening the University's financial sustainability (p. 53).

The quote indicates that the adoption of the market model was marked by a shift in the role of the university from that of assuming social responsibility through community engagement to



that of devolving responsibility through consultancy. In other words, the direction of the social responsibility or community engagement changed from that of a free service to the community during the socialist period under the state-controlled model to that of consultancy services with an exchange value under the market model and which ‘generates income for the University and supplements staff members’ income’ (UDSM, 2005b, p. 57). As implied in the following phrase, the shift from a ‘service’ to ‘consultancy’ denoted and promoted a culture that nurtured individual benefits instead of the community: ‘forcing researchers to disregard aspects of public service that do not offer attractive material rewards’ (UDSM, 1999a, p. 86). The interview conducted with Jonathani confirmed the changing nature of the community service provided by the university. His argument was simple, subtle yet relevant:

We are offering community services but the bulk of it is under consultancies. It is not like it used to be in the old years where the university went out and did proper community activities.

These words highlight the shift in practice as reflected in the changing notion of the university’s engagement in development activities from being a ‘service’ to a ‘consultancy’. This shift, in turn, placed a distance between the university and the community. While the adoption of the market approach was intended, among others, to demolish the ‘ivory tower perception’ that separated and insulated universities from ‘the mundane concerns of the large community’ (Banya & Elu, 1997, p. 161), it has, instead, created ‘a new episteme of public service through the reshaping of deep social relations which involve the subordination of moral obligations to economic ones’ (Leys, 2001, p. 2 & Walzer, 1984 cited in Ball, 2012, p. 20). In addition, it also seems to suggest that the increasing adherence to the market model has ‘replaced commitment with contract’ (Musisi & Muwanga, 2003, p. 24). In other words, the market approach has changed the notion of the university as a public institution that offered service to that of an institution whose activities are intertwined with those of the private sector. This, in turn, implies that the university was adopting ‘an elitist or isolationist stance’ and, thus, failing not only to market itself but also to initiate the desired strategies in order to address the real problems facing the general community. The result was an erosion of public confidence in the role of the university in social development and, thus, the stakeholders were ignorant of what the university had to offer. In short, it has been shown that the university’s connectedness with the community changed from service during the socialist era to consultancy under the market approach. As the discussion indicates, this shift detached the university from providing public service.

## 8.6 Conclusion

In this chapter I showed how the adoption of the market approach led to a profound shift in ideological thinking about the role of the university in national development in Tanzania. It is the contention in this chapter that the adoption of a market approach changed every aspect of the university's existence as manifested in its mission, goals and functions. The discussion indicated that, while there is continuity in the role of the university in national development, the scope and nature of the relationship has changed. Within a short space of time – from the mid-1990s to early 2000s the UDSM moved from being a university situated in the community to a university that stood outside the community, looking at it from distance and with the focus on itself and the benefit of its individuals. Perhaps the most significant change was a shift from the perception of the university as a 'social institution', which had a social responsibility towards the state and the government, to a perception of the university as an 'industry' that produces and sells goods and services, trains an important part of workforce and fosters economic development (UDSM, 2007b, p. 4). With regard this shift, Lawi (2008) noted that, while 'the university is to continue to pursue its initial object of providing high level competences in teaching, research and consultancy services, the current plan emphasises the need to strive for 'quality outputs' in these areas' (p. 47). The use of the term 'output' suggests the emergence of the market discourse in the university activities. While the research findings indicated that some of the changes may be positive, it is, nevertheless, essential that a public university such as the UDSM should not be allowed to become captive to the imperative of a narrow economic responsiveness at the expense of the socioeconomic and political transformation needs of the country. This argument contains two key elements.

Firstly, the adoption of the market approach should be used to complement the government efforts to address the challenges which are undermining the provision of higher education. Secondly, the national development challenges call for public higher education institutions in Africa and Tanzania, in particular, to take on a new and dynamic role. For example, the decline in job opportunities in the government has induced the university to introduce an entrepreneurship course as part of all its curricula in an attempt to equip its graduates with both self-employment skills and creativity (job creation) while the shortage of financial resources has forced the university to search for alternative sources of income in order to survive.

I have expressed the view in this chapter that it is important and, indeed, imperative that public universities in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular, identify an appropriate balance between meeting the national development needs and the market priorities. It has become evident in this study that both the national and the market imperatives are challenging the university to meet their seemingly different, but complementary, demands. In the context of this study I introduced the concept of ‘asymmetrical balance’ to denote a blend of the state-controlled and market models in the provision of higher education. I argue that this will result in a university which will, potentially, be efficient, effective and responsive but without undermining the national development objectives.

## CHAPTER NINE

### Summary, conclusions and recommendations

#### 9.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine and analyse the adoption and implementation of corporatisation at the University of Dar es Salaam with the aim of facilitating greater access and equity as central features of national development. The study was based on the argument that widening access to and equity in higher education will contribute to the development and prosperity of a nation. The study also paid close attention to the co-existing demands of the state for national development and the market demands for corporatisation. The purpose of this chapter is to synthesise the main findings of the study and to analyse these findings in terms of the conceptual framework used. The chapter begins by revisiting the main tenets of the conceptual framework that guided and informed the study. This is followed by a summary of the main findings of the study which emanated from the responses to the research sub-questions. These main findings are then linked to the conceptual framework and to the relevant literature. In this study, I advocate the concept of ‘asymmetrical balance’ as a way forward for the development of higher education in a developing country such as Tanzania in which market and state demands are often perceived to be competing with each other.

#### 9.2 The conceptual framework revisited

Chapter three contained a detailed explanation of the two complementary theoretical approaches which were used to develop the conceptual framework adopted in this study. I combined resource dependency theory (RDT) and the market approach in order to develop the conceptual framework. As discussed by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978), RDT postulates that organisations interact with their environment in order to obtain the resources required for their survival. Thus, a shortage of resources creates a misfit between the resources available and priorities to be fulfilled. According to RDT, any change in the flow of resources from the ‘source’ would therefore jeopardise the functioning of the organisation. I used RDT for the purposes of this study because it offers an explanation as to why an organisation such as the University of Dar es Salaam initiated changes in its operations and, thus, it also explains the situation which prevailed at the UDSM during the economic crisis that affected Tanzania in the 1970s and the 1980s and which resulted in the decline of the financial allocations made to the university. In light of the poor macroeconomic performance, it became difficult for the

government to continue to subsidise the university in its efforts to achieve its desired objectives and purposes, including the expansion of the student intake (UDSM, 2004b, p. 1). Writing in the context of the UDSM, Lawi (2008) describes the situation, pointing out that the ‘continuing budgetary deficits, proliferation of public universities in the country and the just adopted economic neo-liberalism, make it impossible for the university to survive only on government subventions’ (p. 39). This implies that the dependency on one source of funding, that is, ‘the government’, in terms of the state-controlled model, meant that the public higher education institutions were no longer receiving the financial resources they required.

The financial cutbacks initiated by the government jeopardised the survival of the public higher education institutions (Wangenge-Ouma, 2008, p. 458) and, thus, new sources of funding, outside of government funding, had to be found. In terms of RDT, in order to supplement the declining financial resources received from the government, the organisations had to engage with their environment either by ‘adapting to it, changing the environment to suit their circumstances or doing both’ (Singh, Power & Chuong, 2011, p. 52). Faced with the problem of resource supply, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) argue that organisations, in this case, public higher education institutions, should initiate various adaptive strategies ‘to change their environment’ in order both to survive and to carry out their mandate effectively. Accordingly, the market approach, within the context of corporatisation, was adopted as a reform framework to address the problems linked with the declining financial resource supply to public higher education institutions and to the University of Dar es Salaam, in particular.

Under the rubric of the market approach, the marketisation of public higher education was stressed. The proponents of the market approach to higher education argue that ‘large-scale public funding is no longer tenable and is regressive’ (Wangenge-Ouma, 2008, p. 458). They argue that ‘generous public funding of higher education undermines equitable access, efficiency and even quality’ (Johnstone, Arora & Experton 1998). Oketch (2003) developed this argument further, maintaining that the higher education system in Sub-Saharan Africa exhibited distributional problems. He indicated, for example, that the use of a standard model of public funding was expected to be progressive, suggesting that it would transfer the burden of funding from the rich to the poor. Conversely, there is a strong argument in the literature suggesting that the model created equity distortions because public subsidies to education

benefit the rich more than the poor and, thus, ‘transfer[s] from lower income groups to higher income groups’ (Oketch, 2003, p. 89; Tilak, 2004, p. 8; Munene & Otieno, 2008, p. 465).

From an efficiency point of view, Oketch argued that the state funding model was criticised because of the low graduation rate and the prolonged studying duration (*ibid.*). Apart from the access and efficiency arguments, the decline in funding has also been blamed for the deterioration in the quality of education. This, in a sense, then justified the fact that the introduction of tuition fees and other market-driven activities under the market approach provided additional resources for expansion, as well as for improving the quality of education (Oketch, 2003, pp. 95–96).

Young (2002) offers another reason for the marketisation of higher education, stating that ‘to improve efficiency and make institutions more adaptable to the changing expectations of the global economy, importing market mechanisms are viewed as a superior means to achieving these changes than were more traditional ways’ (p. 89). In short, as Jongbloed (2003) in Wangenge-Ouma (2008) argues, the adoption and implementation of the market approach which led to marketisation was viewed as a therapy to ‘the crises of inefficiency, inequitable access and poor quality’ (p. 458).

### **9.3 Main findings of the study**

Having briefly revisited the conceptual framework, the main findings are now summarised using the research sub-questions as an organisational tool. The research sub-questions are cited below.

- What was the nature and character of the transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam?
- How did corporatisation address the imperatives of access and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam?
- How did corporatisation at the University of Dar es Salaam address the national development priorities?

### 9.3.1 Nature and character of transformation

The genesis of, and impetus for, the transformation of the University of Dar es Salaam are similar to those of reforms initiated by other public universities in developing countries, especially in Africa. The transformation at the University of Dar es Salaam was caused and shaped by the interplay of both internal and external factors. Internally, the University Act of 1970 conferred on the government strong control of the internal governance of the university, including the appointment of the top executive management. One of the weaknesses associated with this system was the centralisation of the decision-making process which limited the efficiency and effectiveness of the management of the university.

Externally, the financial crisis that affected Tanzania, as it did to other African countries, played an important role in the reform process initiated at the UDSM. The funding of public universities was, and still is, a core responsibility of the government. However, in an effort to redress this situation, the university pushed for ‘a new legal framework that is in line with the fast changing, global and socio-economic environment’ (UDSM, 2004b) This new legal framework ‘The University of Dar es Salaam Charter of 2007’ granted the university both external and internal autonomy in such strategic aspects including finance management (UDSM, 2005b, p. 26). In other words, it allowed the university to explore the potential resources of ‘finance’ it needs from its operating environment in order to ‘arrive at an equilibrium that guarantees a continuous flow of the critical resources’ (Gornitzka, 1999, p. 7).

Thus, to borrow from RDT, the change in the environment that controlled the vital resources, namely, ‘the government’, threatened the flow of the critical resource, namely, ‘finance’, to the university. RDT further contends that ‘changing the resource flows and how they are structured will then bring about organisational change’ (ibid., p. 6). In response to a changed fiscal environment, the university initiated a reform programme, the ‘Institutional Transformation Programme (ITP)’, as a strategy in order to revitalise the performance of the university. The University Charter enabled the university to react strategically to ‘the demands and challenges of the current global changes in the nature of higher education’ (Mwapachu, 2010, p. 24). I used the motives and outcomes of the ITP as a lens through which to interrogate whether the initiation of the Institutional Transformation Programme (ITP) had been purely economic, purely moral, or something of both.

The discussions in chapters five, six and seven indicated that the motives and outcomes of the ITP revealed both economic as well as moral characteristics of the programme. Drawing on both RDT and relevant literature, I argue that one of the factors that spurred the reforms in public higher education institutions, especially in Africa, was the financial constraints which were caused by a drastic decline in the funds received from the government and which weakened the operations of the universities. Driven by an economic motive, the university sought diverse sources of income in order to reduce its dependency on both the government and on donors. Thus, it was in response to the financial austerity that the UDSM initiated various market-driven activities and cost-cutting measures in order to overcome the deficit in government funding and the amount the university required to function optimally. The measures taken indicated a strong movement toward privatisation, for example, outsourcing all non-core university services – cafeteria, staff canteen, accommodation facilities, the Silversands Hotel and cleaning. Other examples include the introduction of evening programmes which enrolled privately sponsored students as well as the retrenchment of administrative staff. Similar strategies have been adopted by other public universities in Africa in the implementation of their reforms (Aina, 2010, p. 31), for example, Makerere University and University of Nairobi.

The finding of this study confirms the fact that economic rationality was embedded in the institutional transformation programme and that it drove the university to function as a market-like organisation within ‘the context of fiscal constraints’ (Ng’ethe & Mwiria, 2003, p. 12). Tilak (2004) also indicated that ‘privatisation is being pursued in higher education as a very efficient measure of improving efficiency and as an important measure of easing financial crisis’ (p. 3). Nevertheless, the introduction of the market model and the way in which it operated triggered some internal tensions and conflicts between various groups within the university community. I linked findings of the study with the resource dependency perspective which emphasises the importance of understanding intra-organisational factors as they explain ‘how organisations react and interact with their environments’ while they constitute ‘important aspects of how the context of an organisation affects its actions’ (Gornitzka, 1999, p. 8).

Within the organisational operating environment, the RDT cautions that ‘sub-units will seek to enact environments to favour their position’ (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978, p. 261). Similarly, sub-cultures were also strongly evident from the onset of the institutional transformation



programme and they manifested in different forms. This clearly illuminates the role of the organisational culture as a fundamental component of a reform process that can either facilitate or inhibit institutional transformation, depending on ‘the fit between existing and the proposed changes’ (Keup, Walker, Astin & Lindholm, 2001, p. 2). Burnett and Huisman (2010) argue that the culture of an organisation has a profound impact on ‘how it operates, what it achieves, and how those who work in the organisation feel’ (p. 120). The findings of this study indicated that elements of organisational culture were reflected in the existence of the resistance which was rooted mainly in the conflicting priorities of achieving national development and that of the market. In chapters five and seven I indicated that the transformation programme had been received and interpreted in different ways by various sub-cultures within the university community. In essence, the different interpretations of the transformation process of the various groups depended on how the position and status of each group were affected. This symbolises the existence of asymmetries that manifest through the reactions or resistances from the sub-cultures. For example, while retrenchment as a result of ITP was viewed as a strategic measure aimed at reducing costs, the administrative staff viewed it as a threat because it endangered their survival. Another example of the conflict between opposing sides emerged during the introduction of the market-driven programmes. On one hand, there were academics who resisted the idea, based on the assumption that it would lead to the marketisation of the university which would be incompatible with its traditional role. Based on the country’s political ideology, this group consisted of academics who still upheld the socialist ethos. On the other hand, there were academics who supported the idea by arguing that the plan was timely and that it would make the university more responsive to the ever-changing labour market demands and, thus, ensure that the university remained relevant.

There is no doubt that an assessment of the institutional environment prior to transformation efforts provides ‘rich information about the environment, the fit between the change initiatives and existing organisational culture, and institutional readiness for change’ (Keup *et al.*, 2001, p. 3). Although the UDSM had conducted the Management Effectiveness Review in order to obtain relevant information about the ‘organisation culture’ with respect to management efficiency as regards planning and finance, organisational structure, staffing, management information systems and student services and used this information as a basis for the institutional transformation; it is still not surprising that conflicts arose. The discussion in chapter seven that focused on the consequences of the implementation of ITP confirmed

the existence of conflict. For example, the expansion of the student intake caused conflicts about the utilisation of resources with the engineering students expressing their feelings that the shared resources utilisation under the ITP was a mechanism aimed at destroying their ‘sphere of ownership’ in relation to the use of teaching facilities. In addition, there were academics who were dissatisfied with the expansion programme because it increased their workloads while they also felt it may compromise quality. The next section discusses the conflict over quality issues.

The following question still remains with respect to the narrative above: ‘How could organisational culture best be exploited in order to achieve the desired transformation goals?’ Based on the conceptual framework, relevant literature and the findings of this study, I suggest that leadership is a critical ingredient that determines either the success or the failure of the transformation process. As reasoned by Gornitzka (1999), ‘a central aspect of a resource dependency perspective is the attention it gives to the role of active agents and strategic choice in organisational responses to environmental change’ (p. 10). Extending this thinking further and citing Cerych and Sabatier (1986), Gornitzka emphasised the importance of ‘fixers’ – ‘key person who are able to hold an implementation process together and exercise governance’ (p. 21). Writing on the role of leadership with respect to organisational culture, Schein (1985, in Niemann, 2010) argues that ‘the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture’ (p. 1007) and, more importantly, that culture which sustains the innovation.

In chapter five I discussed strategies which were used by the leadership to create a readiness for change, including, *inter alia*, individual efforts, seminars/workshops and consultative meetings. I argued that the success of the ITP may be attributed primarily to the use of the above mentioned strategies because the management used them as platform in order to create trust among the members of the university community. This is in line with Keup *et al.* (2001) who emphasised that the ‘use of planned strategies that are open, participative, aligned with campus culture and goal and long-term’ (p. 3) creates an environment that is conducive to the success of the transformation change efforts. It is, thus, essential that leadership create a fit between the organisational culture and the transformation goals while, once a balance has been attained, this balance is likely to achieve and sustain the transformation. Levin (1980, cited in Keup *et al.*, (2001) uses the two terms ‘compatibility’ and ‘profitability’ to explain the success and failure of innovation in higher education (p. 5). On one hand, the term

‘compatibility’ denotes the ‘degree of congruence between the innovation and the norms, values, while, on the other hand, ‘profitability’ denotes ‘a measure of the effectiveness of an innovation in satisfying the adopters’ needs’ (ibid.). In short, Levin seems to suggest that, if they are to avoid failure, higher education institutions should maximise both profitability and congruence. The discussion above indicates that, if public higher education institutions are to achieve success with their plans, there must, as demonstrated by the ITP in this study, be progressive leadership. I argue that strong and effective leadership provides a mechanism (or arena) through which asymmetries within the organisation may either be resolved or negotiated in order to optimise achievements. Thus, I argue for a leadership that recognise the asymmetries and utilises them in order to realise transformation goals. In short, the leadership of a university may facilitate changes that reverberate in the day-to-day activities of the university.

There is anecdotal evidence that suggests that the university is yet to optimally realise the economic benefits of its investment ventures because ‘the university has not done well in terms of marketing its outputs, programmes, strengths and capabilities’ and, as a result, there are ‘low outreach programmes, low volume and earnings from consultancies’ (UDSM, 2009b, p. 16). For example, the interview with Athumani revealed that the university has not benefited from the internationalisation of higher education because it has not been able to attract international students who are able to afford the fees required to enrol in the programmes offered by the university. In addition, contrary to the market approach, which emphasises autonomy, the reform has not facilitated decentralisation in management. For example, the government still has control over university affairs because it remains the main funder. A limited number of issues, for example, the academic programme structure, have been decentralised to lower levels, although finance is still under centralised control in the institution. In short, this section argues that it is unlikely that a reform programme would succeed without the presence of effective and innovative leadership that aligns the asymmetries caused by the organisational culture with the attainment of the transformation goals.

### 9.3.2 Strategies to increase access to and equity at UDSM

Chapter six focused on the strategies adopted by the university to facilitate access to and equity in university education. The discussion focused firstly on the corporate strategies used to expand the student intake. These corporate strategies which were implemented by the

university to expand access and equity included, among others, the enrolment of privately sponsored students into regular and evening programmes, a change in the residential model that had restricted the student intake based on the university accommodation facilities available, the use of marketable technologies and the efficient and effective utilisation of the institution's resources, In particular, these strategies had had both social and economic benefits. From a social perspective, these strategies had created additional opportunities for accessing university education and, thus, they met the increased social demand for higher education. In so doing, the university is producing the number of graduates needed to spur national development. From an economic point of view, the increased student numbers enabled the university to reap economies of scale as the increased numbers reduced unit costs while the admission of privately sponsored students in regular and evening programmes have generated additional source of income for the university. However, while these strategies expanded access, there is a strong argument that they did not address the equity concerns as the ability to pay was one of the criteria for admission.

In taking the discussion further, I refer to the following policy framework observations with respect to the issues of access to and equity in higher education in Tanzania. Firstly, the state-controlled model which was used in the provision of education determined the rate of admission because it restricted the student intake based on the government's financial ability and also manpower requirements. Secondly, the admission to higher education institutions, including UDSM, is competitive as it is based primarily on academic criteria. In other words, it is the academic performance in high school which determines the eligibility of the student to gain access to the university. This, in turn, reflects the assumption that, once such criteria have been met, admission is guaranteed irrespective of the race, gender or socioeconomic background of the applicant. However, this is an argument for meritocracy and suggests that the direct entry is considered to be a fair route. Nevertheless, as experience has shown, this route has limitations with respect to equity issues. It has been argued that the exclusive implementation of meritocratic admission criteria is likely to exclude members of certain social groups and, thus, create an imbalance. In order to mitigate against the exclusionary consequences of a meritocracy approach, both the Higher Education Policy (1999) and the National Development Vision 2025 sought, *inter alia*, to correct the gender imbalance and to improve female participation, especially in science, mathematics and technology. Thus, it would appear that the national development imperatives of redressing the imbalances as regards the access to education were driving the ITP. In an effort to comply with policy, the

university is committed ‘to promote equity of access and fair chances for success to all who are seeking to realise their potential’ (UDSM, 2003b, p. 23). In line with this goal, the university implemented affirmative action strategies in order to balance the issues of merit and equity, primarily among the female students. It is worth noting that the affirmative action strategies were not corporate in nature but that they emerged during the implementation of the ITP.

I indicated in the previous subsection that the implementation of the market-driven strategies had encountered resistances. Indeed, resistance as a manifestation of asymmetries, continued to affirm the role of organisational culture as a possible barrier to the reform process. In particular, the participants in this study voiced their complaints about/dissatisfaction with the university’s plan to expand the student intake, pointing to its detrimental effect on the quality of education. For example, UDASA discussed the expansion of the student intake under the ITP in relation to the decline in the quality of education while the Faculty of Law viewed the enrolment of female students below the cut-off points as contravening the established discipline standards. Both UDASA and the Faculty of Law were concerned that quantity-driven education, without adequate resource, was potentially harmful to higher education. It is, however, worth noting that it is possible to expand the student intake without compromising quality but that one should not overemphasise one at the expense of the other. Indeed, as trade-offs, expansion and quality enhancement will create tension in higher education. Both are linked to institutional performance in terms of efficiency and effectiveness. In other words, while, on the one hand, an increased student intake may improve internal organisational efficiency in terms of doing more with less, on the other hand an increased student intake may lower the quality of education if the resources are inadequate with this, in turn, leading to lower institutional effectiveness.

Arguing within the African context, Oketch (2003) observed that both access and quality are fundamental but that it is difficult, or almost impossible, to achieve both. This is the reason why Teferra (2013) noted that ‘the uneasy relationship between access and quality in African higher education cannot be clearer’. Oketch (2003) noted that, on the one hand, the principle of access is important because Africa has the lowest enrolments in higher education as compared with other regions, while, on the other end, the quality principle is vital in the global knowledge economy because knowledge is considered to be a major driver of economic growth (p. 91). Tanzania is no exception. While I do not dispute the need for an

expansion in student numbers, as Teferra (2013) argues, the significant challenge to higher education, particularly in Africa, is how ‘to strike a healthy balance between expanding access and advancing competitiveness’,<sup>7</sup> I propose that the university should introduce a needs-based strategy during admission, that is, a balance between the basic educational facilities and the expansion of the student intake (quantity) in order to ensure that the quality of education is not compromised. This, in turn, would ensure that the students who have enrolled would receive a quality education that would equip them to fit into the labour market. Clearly, the sub-cultures as delineated in this study, viewed the transformative innovation as a threat to their survival or status quo. Based on the idea of AB, the conclusion may be drawn that paying attention to the contestations, ‘asymmetries’ caused by the sub-cultures would lead to a desired balance that would promote the realisation of the organisational transformation goals. This could be achieved through dialogues and collaborations with the leadership creating a healthy space for the negotiation and mediation of the conflicts with this, in turn, facilitating the organisation’s achievements.

The research findings revealed a significant expansion in the student intake since the implementation of the reform. From a gender perspective, the number of female students had increased significantly during the implementation of the ITP. Nevertheless, this encouraging expansion rate should be interpreted with caution as, despite the institutional and national interventions aimed at redressing the gender imbalance, gender disparity continues to be a major challenge, especially in the science, mathematics, engineering and technology programmes. In this respect, two conclusions may be drawn with respect to the persistence of the gender imbalance in SET programmes. Firstly, while access at the entry point is a target, there was a lack of follow-up or support programmes to ensure the progression and eventual success of those students who had enrolled at the university because of equity-driven measures. Secondly, and as a consequence of the first point, it is argued that the optimistic view that national development depends on science, engineering and technology is, in practice, unrealistic. Therefore, I suggest in chapters six and eight that preparing female students for the successful completion of SET programmes at the higher education level should begin at the school levels that feed the post-secondary institutions.

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<sup>7</sup> Teferra, D. (2013). Unleashing mass access: Tallying collateral losses. Inside Higher Ed. Retrieved 29 November 2013 from <http://www.insidehighered.com/blogs/world-view/unleashing-mass-access-tallying-collateral-losses#ixzz2m1jpfYXV>

At the national level, the government introduced cost sharing as a strategy in order to expand the student intake in higher education. Student loans were the main vehicle for operationalising the cost sharing strategy. The main argument underpinning cost sharing was that the government would be able to meet the demand for higher education without too much strain on the public purse (UDSM, 2011b, p. 4). The major aims behind the introduction of the student loan scheme included assisting eligible and needy students who had secured admission to accredited higher education institutions to meet their expenses. However, the findings from this study point to the fact that the use of student loans, instead of promoting access to and equity in higher education, actually exacerbate the inequities and it is, thus, argued that, in the Tanzanian context, the expansion of the student intake through the cost sharing scheme did not necessarily leads to social equity. Bailey *et al.* (2011) summed up as follows:

Higher education financing policies, especially the current student loans scheme, appear to be exacerbating the already existing inequalities in higher education in Tanzania. Empirical studies on equity in higher education reveal that higher education is inequitable because of the disproportional representation of children from upper and middle class families in both public and private higher education (p. 23).

In addition to exacerbating the inequities, it is also argued that the allocation of loans derailed the university calendar, causing delays at the start of the academic year, the closure of the university or the interruption of teaching because of student protests. Thus, as discussed in chapter seven, the student loan scheme affected the academic and social lives of the students.

The findings of this study also revealed that the teaching and learning facilities of the university were too inadequate to accommodate increased access and equity. In addition, the working conditions of the academics were unfavourable. This, in turn, suggests that increased student intake had not been accompanied by concomitant increases in staffing and infrastructure development while even the resource utilisation was not sustainable because of the lack of replenishment and/or investment. I argue that the increased student intake with the limited resources available had an adverse impact as it compromised the quality of the education provision. In short, it appears that, while transformation programme was intended to address the shortfalls in the provision of the university education, it has created new demands which are not necessarily mutually inclusive with the ITP goals. In furthering the performance of public higher education I argue in favour of asymmetric balance as a strategy with which to address and integrate the fundamental organisational asymmetries into the

reform programme, despite the challenges of meeting national development and market imperatives.

### 9.3.3 Corporate strategies and national development

This section examines the reform programme implemented at the University of Dar es Salaam as regards its achievements in relation to the national development priorities. It is necessary to point out that, after independence, many African countries – ‘Developmental States’ – regarded their national universities as ‘developmental universities’. Tanzania was no exception. Thus, the University of Dar es Salaam enjoyed the status of a national university funded solely by the government until the mid 1980s. As Aina (2010) pointed out, this period coincided with the implementation of ‘the State-controlled model’ (p. 31) as regards the provision of public higher education. It was within this context, and based on the country’s socialist ideology, that the role and mission of university was closely linked to the national development plans and that the presence of the university manifested in the community through its research and public services. In conceptualising the contribution of the university to the community, Nyerere (1967) emphasised that: ‘Its research, and the energies of its staff, in particular, must be freely offered to the community, and they must be relevant’ (p. 3). According to Coleman (1984), the developmental university was involved in the ‘solution of the concrete problems of societal development’ (p. 477).

An African university is widely viewed as ‘a key instrument for national development’ (Sawyer, 2004, p. 5; Mwapachu, 2010, p. 5). With regard to the concept of the developmental university, I argue that it is still alive and relevant, especially for developing countries such as Tanzania. However, it would appear that Mwapachu is sceptical as to ‘whether the concept of a developmental university in Africa and Tanzania has stood the test of time’ (p. 7). He framed his discussion within an understanding of a developmental university within the context of ‘the intensification of globalisation and the adoption of the neo-liberal social and economic ideology in most African nations and Tanzania, in particular’<sup>8</sup>. The basis of his argument is that the developmental university ‘has not only been challenged but has also fallen victim to the commodification of higher education, ostensibly in response to the demand that universities satisfy the demands of the market place’ (p. 8).

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<sup>8</sup> Mwapachu (2013). Developmental university: Responsive to new times? Retrieved 6 October 2013 from [www.the.citizen.co.tz/oped/-/1840568/2021052/-/npew93/-/index.html](http://www.the.citizen.co.tz/oped/-/1840568/2021052/-/npew93/-/index.html).



The thinking is that the introduction of the neo-liberal approach to public higher education which embraces the market ethos destroys the concept of the developmental university.

Chapter five discussed the transformation programme initiated by the UDSM in 1994 within the context of corporate culture while chapter eight revealed that the adoption of the corporate strategies under the neo-liberal approach had created the tension between the traditional role of the university in terms of furthering national development and the new demands imposed by the market imperative. This conflict has created a challenge for the public higher institutions as regards determining the degree to which they carrying out the functions of their mandate.

Within the context of the socialist ideology the University of Dar es Salaam was initially considered as a social institution with a social responsibility to the community at large and also to the nation. However, the adoption of the neo-liberal approach shifted the role of the university towards that of meeting market needs (cf. Bok, 2003; Mamdani, 2007) and, thus, ostensibly eroding the concept of the ‘developmental university’. It would, therefore, appear that public higher education institutions are confronted with the momentous task of establishing an appropriate and sustainable balance between these two set of demands which are heterogeneous and also not necessarily compatible. In other words, public universities, especially in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular, should strive to achieve a balance between the two set of demands if they are to remain relevant. Referring to UDSM, Nyerere may be perceived as a futurist when, in 1971, he stated ‘it must be our university – relevant to the present and future society of Tanzania’ (p. 110). He emphasised that ‘Tanzania does not exist on a planet by itself’ and, subsequently, ‘it is increasingly affected by what happened outside its own borders’ (p. 111). With these words, Nyerere captured the idea of nation building (our), development for the future and the need to respond to the global world. In this connection, I argue that it is essential that the university helps to ensure that the country becomes competitive in the global knowledge economy. Indeed, I argue further that the relevance of the university of the future will depend on how it manages to resolve the apparent dichotomy between traditional role of national building versus meeting the evolving demands of the market. Mwapachu found it prudent to suggest that striking a balance would determine the ‘nature and character of the Tanzanian university of the future’ (ibid.). This is in line with the argument of Maassen and Cloete (2004) who observed that ‘the success or failure of institutional strategies for dealing with this imbalance will determine whether an

institution will belong to tomorrow's winners or losers' (p. 10). However, such a balance is difficult to attain as is evidenced by Marginson (2007) referring to it as an 'unstable balance' (p. 315) and Mwapachu (2010) terming it a 'delicate balance' (p. 11). It is, thus, clear that it is difficult to attain a stable balance because the demands made by higher education are different and vary overtime.

The issue of balance leads to the question 'Where should the balance be struck?' I argue that understanding the strengths and weaknesses of both the state and the market models in the provision of higher education would inform the appropriate balance. Indeed, the desired balance should recognise the strengths of both the state-controlled model and the market model. It may be expected that achievement of the desired balance would result in a strong public higher education institutions in terms of its efficiency, effectiveness but responsiveness without compromising the long held role of public higher education in national development. This, the proposed balance, 'asymmetrical balance', may be achieved when public higher education institutions realign and incorporate the traditional and new demands in their mandate operations – teaching, research/consultancy and public services. For example, in view of the fact that financial stringencies were the main force that engineered the reforms in public higher education, I propose that striking an appropriate balance between economic (generation of additional revenue through market-driven activities in order to ensure survival) and non-economic motives (equity concerns as regards student intake) is desirable. As for the curriculum, I argue that the university should thrive to create an appropriate balance between the so-called "market-driven" courses and the more traditional academic disciplines because both contribute to national development (UDSM, 2011b, p. xi). In this context, I agree with Mwapachu (2010) that the public university should 'better focus on academic programmes that fit national development priorities' (p. 32).

Situating Tanzania within the global context, Mwapachu (2010) linked his recommendation to 'the development of new skills and expertise that fit the new global economic landscape' (p. 21). Above all, however, I argue for the need to strike a balance between the traditional role of teaching and research and the new role under the market approach which emphasises professional teaching and applied research (cf. Mok, 2005, p. 551). The need for public higher education institutions to meet the changing demands, which are not mutually exclusive, poses a challenge as regards the attainment of sustainable development goals. In view of the fact that the demands are changing the equilibrium moves over time to

accommodate the demands emanating from both the state and the market. However, this, in turn, makes it difficult to attain a stable equilibrium. It is against this background that I argue for asymmetrical balance as a strategic approach for public higher education institutions to enable them to attain the national and market demands in an optimal way.

#### **9.4 Analysis of the findings**

Public universities were traditionally viewed as social institutions that train graduates and equip them with the various skills and competencies required for national development. However, based on the literature and the theoretical framework, it is not possible for the state-control of higher education alone to overcome the challenges facing public higher education, including access, equity, affordability and relevance. The ‘demand-response imbalance’ created by the inefficient state-controlled model has led to the adoption and implementation of the market model as a reform strategy in public higher education institutions. Indeed, the intersection between the state and market models has created competing, but seemingly complementary demands that have resulted in a significant challenge for public higher education institutions, especially universities, because the institutions are obliged to meet demands which are not fully aligned. This, in turn, has resulted in an asymmetry. Puutio, Kykyri and Wahlström (2008) define asymmetry as ‘an objective lack of proportion between the two parts of an object’ (p. 36). Thus, asymmetry is characterised by ‘status inequality’ (ibid.). They further argue that asymmetry is one of the characteristics that define the relationships within an organisation, adding that ‘organisations are asymmetric in many ways’ (ibid.). It would, thus, appear that asymmetries are common in any organisational context, especially where the parties involved differ in terms of ‘status, competence and responsibilities’ (p. 37). It also suggests that asymmetries are both embedded and manifested within the organisation processes or activities. The implementation of the transformation programme at the University of Dar es Salaam was no exception.

Based on the research findings, I argue that neither the state nor the market alone is sufficient to stimulate and embrace the trade-offs and synergy that is required for national development. I further argue that, in order for public higher education institutions to be efficient, effective and responsive, a balance that seeks to resolve the ‘asymmetry’ created by the state and market demands is imperative. In light of the above one question arises, namely, ‘Which balance would enable public higher education institutions to maximise the benefits from both the state and market ethos?’ However, identifying a stable balance poses a challenge because

the demands posed by the state and market are different and they vary over time. This is certainly the root of the argument raised by Puutio, Kykyri and Wahlström (2008) to the effect that asymmetry, like symmetry, is an organisational characteristic which is not fixed but rather varies over time within the relationship in terms of hierarchical position, knowledge or formal power (p. 36). It follows that attaining a stable and desirable balance, where balance refers to the two sides being equal, between the demands of the state and market would not always be possible. In view of the fact that the state and the market demands are different, any attempt to balance them would, inevitably, lead to an “asymmetrical balance” (AB) or ‘informal balance’, where equilibrium, and not equality, is the goal. This concept is given credibility in the field of mathematics. The term ‘asymmetrical balance’ is a mathematical metaphor that explains a type of balance that does not rely on symmetry (Krasner, 2013). In other words, asymmetrical balance describes the relationship between two or more entities, which are not of the same size and shape (Winstein, Gardner, McNeal, Barto & Nicholson, 1989, p. 3), but which move towards a state of attaining equilibrium.

In meeting the demands of the state and market, I make a case in this study for the application of the concept of AB within the context of public higher education in order to balance the competing and, simultaneously, important demands of the market for skilled higher education graduates and the need for increased access and equity as a means of realising national development. Indeed, the emerging relationship that is bringing together the state and the market in the provision of public higher education converges toward ‘asymmetrical balance’ – the mathematical metaphor that propose a strategy which public higher education institutions could utilise to mediate the asymmetry caused by competing state and market imperatives. In other words, the application of the concept of AB argues that both the value and the importance of national development and the marketisation of higher education institutions in furtherance of increased efficiency and effectiveness are mutual goals. Thus, achieving AB would lead to efficient, effective and responsive public higher education institutions in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular. Underpinning this approach is the belief that the attainment of AB would lead to an optimal level of performance which would embrace a combination of government and market principles. Government and market principles in this context refer to both the intervention/policies and the intervention forces of demand and supply in higher education that impact on access and equity, in particular. In short, I suggest that the concept of ‘asymmetrical balance’ would offer a viable strategic

approach in terms of which both state and market strengths could effectively be harnessed in order to address the challenges and concerns of higher education and of the nation at large.

As discussed earlier, within their specific contexts organisations are characterised by asymmetries. This, in turn, renders extremely significant the presence of strong and innovative leadership as well as an effective policy environment. In such a case, leadership becomes a mechanism for dealing with organisational asymmetries. In realising AB strong and innovative leadership is viewed as a critical bridge that brings together or reconciles the two seemingly opposed forces in a space for mutual benefit. This, in turn, suggests that the market approach and national developmental needs may be brought together and mediated through effective and innovative leadership. In other words, I argue for strong, innovative and effective leadership as the mechanism that brings the two sides of the ‘scale’ into AB. In this respect, the role of leadership is to recognise, regulate or balance the asymmetries that may influence organisational performance. Furthermore, I suggest that, in addition to strong and effective leadership and the presence of decision-making structures, a conducive policy environment is another fundamental element in achieving AB. It is from this perspective that I argue that effective leadership, supported by an effective policy environment, would help public higher education institutions to resolve the asymmetries that would have emerged during the implementation of their reforms. In my view this would ensure that public higher education institutions were efficient, effective, responsive and, hence remain relevant and sustainable. Accordingly, and perhaps more importantly in the context of this study, I argue for the role of leadership in the reform process that speaks to increasing access to and equity in higher education.

## **9.5 Recommendations for further research**

As is the case with the concept of globalisation marketisation in public higher education is a relatively new concept in the African context and one that require thorough and rigorous research and debate. Thus, based on this reality and also on the key findings of this study, several areas for further research become evident. Firstly, future research could focus on comparative case studies. This recommendation is based on the fact that case studies in higher education are extremely powerful in ‘shedding light on facts and trends that may not leap out from the available data’ (Bloom, Canning & Chan, 2006, p. 32). Africa provides a fertile ground for comprehensive comparative studies that seek to ascertain whether the adoption of the market approach in public higher education institutions has improved the

provision of education, based on the history and location of the specific country. Such studies are certainly warranted in order to compare findings and to draw informed conclusions. Furthermore, I recommend extending this study by widening its scope to encompass private higher education institutions.

Secondly, a number of previous studies conducted in Africa on the marketisation of public higher education have focused predominantly on university staff or on document analysis with a minimal involvement of the students. For example, studies conducted by Ntshoe (2004a), Munene (2008), and Johnson and Hirst (2011), among others, involved university staff and student leaders. However, in order to obtain both a well balanced picture and an analytical understanding of the consequences of the market approach in public higher education, future research is needed that focuses exclusively on students.

## **9.6 Conclusion**

In this thesis I discussed how the adoption and implementation of the market approach through corporatisation provides a new context for public higher education in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular. The study revealed that the adoption and implementation of the market approach in public higher education created the need for debate about the role and mission of the public university in meeting the expectations of the nation. I argued that, while some changes are desirable, for example, expanding the student intake and teaching employability skills, public higher education in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular, should be extremely aware of the expectations of the university with respect to national development. In other words, economic imperatives should not be allowed to overshadow the other purposes of public higher education. Indeed, the findings of this study illustrate a trend that warrants a fair assessment with respect to the envisaged goals of the ITP.

The careful analysis of the findings provided an understanding for the need to combine the state and market approach in the provision of public higher education with the use of the market approach complemented government's efforts in the provision of public higher education. This paradigm shift posed a challenge to the university as regards playing its traditional role in respect of national development while not obvious to market imperatives. I built on this understanding in order to posit that, if public higher education institutions are to succeed and achieve to realise their mandate and, hence, sustain their relevance; there is a need for a balanced approach that is responsive to both the national development goals and

the market needs. I argued for the need to generate a new vision for higher education that embraces the concept of ‘asymmetrical balance’ as the strategy that ‘acknowledges the need for a balance between the demands of market forces and the public good’ (Kezar 2004, p. 453). Such a balance is imperative for the public universities in Africa and in Tanzania, in particular, which are seeking to respond to the changing contexts of public higher education. Finally, I attribute the achievement of ‘asymmetrical balance’ both to the presence of effective and visionary leadership at the public higher education institution level and to a conducive public policy environment at the national level.

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## Appendix A: Letter to University of Dar es Salaam



September 16, 2011

Director of Research and Publications,  
University of Dar es Salaam,  
P.O.Box 35091,  
**Dar es Salaam.**  
Tanzania.

Dear Sir,

### RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A STUDY IN YOUR INSTITUTION

I am a PhD student at the University of Pretoria, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies. I am working on a study titled "**Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania**". The study intends to establish how the transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the challenges of equity and access as central signifiers of national development.

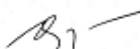
For the purpose of this study, I kindly request permission to conduct interviews with selected members (30) in your institution. Purposeful and snowball sampling techniques will be used to select participants based on their role/responsibilities and experience in the institution. Categorically, interviews will involve senior administrators at institutional, college and school levels, senior academic staff and union leaders. Interview sessions will be flexible to accommodate participants' working schedule. I also need access to secondary data in form of documents such as strategic plans, annual reports, institutional policies, admission records, evaluation reports and tracer studies that would be useful to the study. The study will be conducted in accordance with the University of Pretoria research guidelines. All information provided will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Furthermore, any participant will be free to withdraw from the study any time he/she wishes to do so. With this, you are kindly requested to confirm your acceptance through a written feedback.

Your co-operation in this regard will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,



Afrael M Sarakikya  
PhD student (Education Management and Policy studies)  
University of Pretoria  
**Pretoria.**  
**Republic of South Africa**  
Mobile: +27716142005  
Email:kisali2007@yahoo.co.uk



**Prof. Venitha Pillay**  
Supervisor  
Department of Education Management and Policy Studies  
University of Pretoria  
**Pretoria.**  
0002  
Republic of South Africa.  
Mobile: +27824624400  
Mail: Venitha.Pillay@up.ac.za

## Appendix B: Letter to Legal Agency



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA  
Faculty of Education

September 12, 2011

The chairperson  
Legal Aid Committee  
School of Law [Formerly Faculty of Law]  
P.O.Box 35093,  
**Dar es Salaam.**  
Tanzania

Dear Sir/Madam,

### **RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN TANZANIA**

I am a Tanzanian PhD student at the University of Pretoria, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies. I am working on a study titled '**Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of university of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania**'. The study intends to establish how the transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the challenges of equity and access as central signifiers of national development.

The purpose of this letter is to kindly request for your support through writing to ethics committee, Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria to confirm that this study will not contravene any law in the United Republic of Tanzania.

Your co-operation in this regard is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Afrael M Sarakikya  
PhD student (Education Management and Policy studies)  
University of Pretoria  
**Pretoria.**  
**Republic of South Africa**  
Mobile: +27716142005  
Email: [kisali2007@yahoo.co.uk](mailto:kisali2007@yahoo.co.uk)

**Prof. Venitha Pillay**  
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**Pretoria.**  
0002  
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Mobile: +27824624400  
Mail: [Venitha.Pillay@up.ac.za](mailto:Venitha.Pillay@up.ac.za)

## Appendix C: Letter of permission from University of Dar es Salaam



**UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM**  
**OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR**  
P.O. BOX 35091 + DAR ES SALAAM + TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/3(B)  
Date: 28<sup>th</sup> September, 2011  
To: The Deputy Vice Chancellor (Administrative),  
**University of Dar es Salaam.**

### UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Afrael M. Sarakikya** who is a bonafide member of staff of the University of Dar es Salaam and who is at the moment conducting research. Our staff members and students undertake research activities every year especially during the long vacation.

In accordance with a government circular letter Ref. No.MPEC/R/10/1 dated 4<sup>th</sup> July, 1980 the Vice-Chancellor was empowered to issue research clearances to the staff and students of the University of Dar es Salaam on behalf of the government and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, a successor organization to UTAFITI.

I therefore request you to grant the above-mentioned member of our University community any help that may facilitate him to achieve research objectives. What is required is your permission for him to see and talk to the leaders and members of your institutions in connection with his research.

The title of the research in question is "**Corporate Strategies as a means to Increasing Access and Equity in Higher Education: A Case Study of University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is from **December, 2011 to May, 2012** and will cover the following areas/offices: **University of Dar es Salaam.**

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.

  
**Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala**  
**VICE-CHANCELLOR**

**VICE CHANCELLOR**  
**UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM**  
**P.O. BOX 35091**  
**DAR-ES-SALAAM**

Direct +255 22 2410700  
Telephone: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001  
Telefax: +255 22 2410078

Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM  
E-mail: [vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz](mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz)  
Website address: [www.udsm.ac.tz](http://www.udsm.ac.tz)

## Appendix D: Research clearance



# UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM

OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR  
P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

Ref. No: AB3/3(B)

Date: 28<sup>th</sup> September, 2011

### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

### RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Afrael M. Sarakikya** who is a bonafide member of staff of the University of Dar es Salaam.

**Mr. Sarakikya** has been permitted to conduct research entitled **"Corporate Strategies as a means to Increasing Access and Equity in Higher Education: A Case Study of University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania"**.

The period for which this permission has been granted is from **December, 2011 to May, 2012.**

It will be appreciated if you will grant the researcher any help that may facilitate him to achieve research objectives.

  
**Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala**  
**VICE-CHANCELLOR**

**VICE CHANCELLOR**  
**UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM**  
**P.O. BOX 35091**  
**DAR-ES-SALAAM**


Direct: + 255 22 2410700  
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Telegraphic Address: UNIVERSITY DAR ES SALAAM  
E-Mail: [vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz](mailto:vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz)  
Website address: [www.udsm.ac.tz](http://www.udsm.ac.tz)

**Appendix E: Letter of permission from Legal Agency**

**UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM**  
SCHOOL OF LAW [FORMERLY FACULTY OF LAW]  
LEGAL AID COMMITTEE  
**P.O. BOX 35093, DAR ES SALAAM**  
**TANZANIA**

Telephone: +255-22 -2410196.  
Fax... 0255-22-2410078



Telegram: UNIVERSITY  
DAR ES SALAAM  
E-mail: laws@ucc.ac.tz

29<sup>th</sup> September 2011

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

**RE: AFRAEL M. SARAQIKYA**  
**PhD STUDENT**  
**UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA**


I hereby certify that, the above named person is known to me.


That, the said AFRAEL SARAQIKYA is a bonafide PhD student at the University of Pretoria and he has already successfully defended his PhD proposal in August 2011.

That, AFRAEL SARAQIKYA is working on a study titled '**Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of university of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania**'.

That, I confirm that, to the best of my knowledge this study will not contravene the government laws.

Kindly assist the student.

**Name:** Perfect Melkiori  
**Signature:**   
**Address:** P. O. Box 35093, Dar es salaam  
**Qualification:** Advocate



## Appendix F: Letter of informed consent to participants



DATE.....

### INTRODUCTION

I am a PhD student at the University of Pretoria, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies. I am working on a study titled '**Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of the university of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania**'. The purpose of the study is to establish how transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the challenges of access and equity as central signifiers of national development.

For the purpose of this study, I kindly request you to participate in interview. Your participation will facilitate the collection of relevant information on transformation of public higher education institutions in the context of corporatisation. Kindly read the information provided below to guide you to make an informed decision regarding your participation in this study.

### RESEARCH PROCEDURE

#### THE STUDY

1. **Title:** Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania.

2. **Purpose of the study:** The purpose of the study is to establish how transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the challenges of access and equity as central signifiers of national development.

3. **Procedures:** Semi-structured interviews will be conducted within 60-90 minutes. During the interview, you are allowed to withdraw either yourself and/or your contribution any time you wish to do so. In any how you will not be forced to provide information that is not relevant to this study. All information you supply will remain confidential and your identity will not be revealed to other participants or in the all drafts of this report. Furthermore, with your consent I would record our conversation during the interview to be used later on to cross-check the authenticity of the information recorded. A written draft of our interview will be sent to you to amend or confirm before I use it as data in my study.

4. *Benefits*: The findings of the study will be useful to scholars, administrators, policy makers other stakeholders to inform policy formulation that will foster future development of hi education as well as national development in developing countries.

### DECLARATION

I..... (Name) of.....  
 (Address) declare to participate in the study mentioned above. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from participating in the study, if I am not comfortable during the interview process.

YES	NO
-----	----

I understand that the information will be kept confidential as it will not be released without my authority.

YES	NO
-----	----

I understand that there are no risks associated with this study

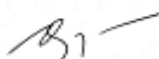
YES	NO
-----	----

Respondent's name.....Signature.....Date.....

College/School/Directorate/Department/Section/Unit.....



Afrael Mark Sarakikya  
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## Appendix G: Interview guide for University Management



### Introduction

The following instrument seeks the views of the University Management on the implications that transformation in the context of corporate strategic planning has had on the academic and administrative culture of the public university. The purpose of the information sought is for a study that seeks to document how transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the imperative of access and equity as central signifiers of national development. Please be assured that your responses and identity will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Any person will be free to withdraw from the research any time he/she wishes to do so.

### Part A: Administrative Related Issues

1. What key developments have marked the adoption of a corporate strategic planning culture in this institution?
2. Briefly explain the issues that led to the adoption of corporate strategic planning in this institution.
3. Comment on how inclusive and consultative the process of corporate planning has been in this institution.
4. How has corporate planning affected the constitution of the following administrative organs of the university (probe for the following)?
  - i. The university council
  - ii. The university senate
  - iii. The university management board
  - iv. The Deans' committee

v. The student council

5. In your view, in what ways have changes in the constitution of administrative organs of the university affected the teaching and research functions of the university?
6. Comment briefly on the process of financial planning and forecasting for the university before and after the adoption of corporate planning was introduced in 1994?
7. Comment on any other areas of university administration that have been changed, modified or adjusted by the introduction of corporate strategic planning?
8. In your opinion, what are the shortcomings of corporate strategic planning as applied in the administration of this university?

**Part B: Academic Related Issues**

1. In what ways has the introduction of corporate planning led to the introduction and/or reshaping of academic programs? (Probe for the following).
  - i. New academic programs introduced and justification
  - ii. Old academic programs de-established and justification
2. How has the university's corporate planning changed the terms and conditions of service for teaching members of staff? (probe for the following)
  - i. Teaching workload
  - ii. Staff development opportunities and conditions
  - iii. Research and consultancy opportunities
  - iv. Other allowances such as health, insurance, housing and transport

3. What mechanisms has the institution put in place to ensure that the quality of academic programs is enhanced in the context of corporate planning?
4. What institutional policies have been put in place in the university to enhance the overall quality and relevance of its academic programs?
5. In your view, how has the adoption of corporate planning strategies in this institution addressed the national development priorities/challenges? [probe for the following]
  - i. Nature of courses offered.
  - ii. Nature of research activities.
  - iii. Community services.
  - iv. Institutional guidelines that guide research.
  - v. National guidelines that guide research.

**Part C: Student admission and welfare issues**

1. Comment on the admission criteria that are applied for the different groups of students in this university (probe for the following):
  - i. Government sponsored/Regular students.
  - ii. Private/Parallel students
  - iii. Students from Regional/ International countries
2. What learning support policies does the institution have in place to ensure smooth learning for the different groups of students?
  - i. Female students
  - ii. Students from poor backgrounds
  - iii. Students with disabilities
3. Are there any institutional affirmative policies that are being applied to increase access and equity of students from the above groups to this institution?

4. If the institution operates an affirmative action policy for the above categories of students, indicate the average percentage of students accessing the institution and professional degree programs in the last five years [To be presented in the tabular form]?
5. In your opinion, how has increase of students in the institution and implementation of corporate planning strategies affected students' academic and welfare services?

**Part D: Institutional sources of Income**

What are the main sources of income in the last five (5) years?

**Part E: General reflection and Summary**

In your own assessment of the experience with corporate planning and the culture of transformation of the University, would you say that the University's attempt has been useful and worth continuing? What would you say are the main reasons for its success/failure?

**Thank you for your responses.**

## Appendix H: Interview guide for senior academic staff



### Introduction

The following instrument seeks the views of academic staff on the implications that transformation in the context of institutional planning has had on academic and administrative culture of public university. The purpose of the information sought is for a study that seeks to document how transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the imperatives of access and equity as central signifiers of national development. Please be assured that your responses and identity will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Any person will be free to withdraw from the research any time he/she wishes to do so.

College/school/faculty.....

Department.....

1. What key developments have marked the adoption of corporate strategic planning culture in this institution?
2. Briefly explain the issues that led to the adoption of corporate strategic planning in this institution.
3. Comment on how inclusive and consultative the process of corporate planning has been in the institution.
4. In what ways has introduction of corporate strategic planning changed the terms and conditions of service for teaching members of staff? (probe for the following)
  - i. Teaching workload
  - ii. Staff development opportunities and conditions
  - iii. Research and consultancy opportunities
  - iv. Other allowances such as health, insurance, housing and transport
5. In what ways has corporate planning changed appointment and promotion criteria for teaching members of staff?
6. What mechanisms has the institution put in place in order to ensure that the quality of academic programmes is enhanced in the context of corporate planning?
7. What institutional policies have been put in place in the university in order to enhance the overall quality and relevance of its academic programmes?

8. In your opinion how has increase of students in the institution and implementation of corporate planning strategies affected students' academic and welfare services?
9. In your view, how has the adoption of corporate strategic planning addressed the national development priorities/challenges? (probe for the following)
  - i. Nature of courses offered
  - ii. Nature of research activities
  - iii. Community services
  - iv. Institutional guidelines that guide research
  - v. National guidelines that guide research
10. In your opinion, what are the shortcomings of corporate planning strategies as applied in the administration of this University?
11. In your own assessment of the experience with corporate planning and the culture of transformation initiative of the University, would you say that the University's attempt has been useful and worth continuing? What would you say are the main reasons for its success/failure?
12. How has your life changed since these transformation strategies were put in place in 1994?
13. Is there anything you would like to say that I have not asked about?

**Thank you for your responses.**

## Appendix I: Interview guide for academic association leaders



### Introduction

The following instrument seeks the views of academic association leaders on the transformation in the context of institutional planning has had on academic and administrative culture of the public university. The purpose of the information sought is for a study that seeks to document how transformation taking place in public higher education addresses the imperatives of access and equity as central qualifiers of national development. Please be assured that your responses and identity will be treated confidentially and anonymously.

**Name of the organisation/association/union:**.....

### Part A: Administrative Related Issues

1. What key developments have marked the adoption of a corporate strategic planning culture in this institution?
2. Briefly explain the issues that led to the adoption of corporate strategic planning in this institution.
3. Comment on how inclusive and consultative the process of corporate planning has been in the institution.
4. In your view, how has corporate planning affected the relationship of your organisation/association with administrative organs of the university?
5. Comment on any other areas of university administration that have been changed by the introduction of corporate cultures?
6. In your opinion, what are the shortcomings of corporate planning strategies as applied in the administration of this university?

### Part B: Academic Related issues

1. In what ways has introduction of corporate strategic planning changed the terms and conditions of service for teaching members of staff? (probe on the following)
  - i. Teaching workload
  - ii. Staff development opportunities and conditions
  - iii. Research and consultancy opportunities
  - iv. Other allowances such as health, insurance, housing and transport
2. In what ways has corporate planning changed appointment and promotion criteria for teaching members of staff?
3. What mechanisms has the institution put in place in order to ensure that the quality of academic programmes is enhanced in the context of corporate strategic planning?

4. What institutional policies have been put in place in the university in order to enhance the overall quality and relevance of its academic programs?
5. What learning support policies does the institution have in place in order to ensure smooth learning for the different groups of students?
  - i. Female students
  - ii. Students from poor backgrounds
  - iii. Students with disabilities
6. Are there any institutional affirmative policies that are being applied to increase access and equity of students from the above groups to this institution?
7. In your opinion, how has increase of students in the institution after the implementation of corporate strategic planning affected students' academic and welfare services?
8. In your view, how has the adoption of corporate strategic planning addressed the national development priorities/challenges? (probe for the following)
  - i. Nature of courses offered
  - ii. Nature of research activities
  - iii. Community services
  - iv. Institutional guidelines that guide research
  - v. National guidelines that guide research

**Part C: General reflection and Summary**

1. In your own assessment of the experience with corporate planning and the culture of transformation of the University, would you say that the University's attempt has been useful and worth continuing? What would you say are the main reasons for its success/failure?
2. How has your life changed since these transformation strategies were put in place in 1994?
3. Is there anything you would like to say that I have not asked about?

**Thank you for your responses.**



## Appendix J: Interview guide for workers union leaders



### Introduction

The following instrument seeks the views of workers union leaders on the transformation in the context of institutional planning has had on academic and administrative culture of the public university. The purpose of the information sought is for a study that seeks to document how transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the imperatives of access and equity as central qualifiers of national development. Please be assured that your responses and identity will be treated confidentially and anonymously.

Name of the organisation/association/union:.....

### Part A: Administrative Related Issues

1. Comment on how inclusive and consultative the process of corporate planning has been in the institution.
2. In your view, how has corporate planning affected the relationship of your organisation/association with administrative organs of the university?
3. Comment on any other areas of university administration that have been changed by the introduction of corporate cultures?
4. In your opinion, what are the shortcomings of corporate planning strategies as applied in the administration of this University?
5. In your opinion, how could you rate the quality of the welfare services to workers before and after the implementation of corporate strategic planning?

### Part B: General Reflection and Summary

1. In your own assessment of the experience with corporate planning and the culture of transformation of the University, would you say that the University's attempt has been useful and worth continuing? What would you say are the main reasons for its success/failure?
2. Is there anything you would like to say that I have not asked about?

**Thank you for your responses.**

## Appendix K: Interview guide for student association leaders



### Introduction

The following instrument seeks the views of student association leaders on the transformation in the context of institutional planning has had on academic and administrative culture of the public university. The purpose of the information sought is for a study that seeks to document how transformation taking place in public higher education institutions addresses the imperatives of access and equity as central qualifiers of national development. Please be assured that your responses and identity will be treated confidentially and anonymously. Any person will be free to withdraw from the research any time he/she wishes to do so.

Name of the organisation/association/union:.....

### Part A: Administrative Related Issues

1. Comment on how inclusive and consultative the process of corporate planning has been in the institution.
2. In your view, how has corporate strategic planning affected the relationship of your organisation/association with administrative organs of the university?
3. Comment on any other areas of university administration that have been changed by the introduction of corporate cultures?
4. In your opinion, what are the shortcomings of corporate planning strategies as applied in the administration of this University?

### Part B: Academic Related Issues

1. In your opinion, how could you rate the quality of the following services to students in the context of corporate planning? [probe for the following]
  - i. Guidance and counselling
  - ii. Academic mentoring programs
  - iii. Catering and accommodation
  - iv. Lecture rooms
  - v. Libraries
  - vi. Laboratories
  - vii. Recreation facilities

2. What learning support policies does the institution have put in place in order to ensure smooth learning for the different groups of students?
  - i. Female students
  - ii. Students from poor backgrounds
  - iii. Students with disabilities
3. Are there any institutional affirmative policies that are being applied in order to increase access and equity of students from the above groups to this institution?
4. In your opinion, how has increase of students in the institution after the implementation of corporate planning strategies affected students' academic and welfare services?

**Part C: General Reflection and Summary**

1. In your own assessment of the experience with corporate planning and the culture of transformation of the University, would you say that the University's attempt has been useful and worth continuing? What would you say are the main reasons for its success/failure?
2. How has your life changed since these transformation strategies were put in place in 1994?
3. Is there anything you would like to say that I have not asked about?

**Thank you for your responses.**

## Appendix L: Summary of participant's profile

Name (pseudonym)	Category	Sex	Position/role
Julius	Academic	M	Former Chief Administrative Officer, one of the architect of institutional transformation programme
Jacqueline	Academic	F	Former Chief Academic Officer, one of the architect of institutional transformation programme
Tolly*	Academic	M	Former Programme Management Unit manager, one of the architect of institutional transformation programme
George	Academic	M	Participate in various committees on institutional transformation programme
Shombo	Academic	M	Participate in various committees on institutional transformation programme
Juliet	Academic	F	Participate in various committees on institutional transformation programme
Deo	Academic	M	Acting Principal, College of Engineering and Technology
Levina	Academic	F	Director, Library services
Ben	Academic	M	Director, Postgraduate Studies
Sam	Academic	M	Participate in various committees on institutional transformation programme
Max	Academic	M	Director, Vice Chancellor Office
Sikujua	Academic	F	Participate in various committees on institutional transformation programme
Marietha	Academic	F	Participate in various committees on gender
Jehovaness	Academic	F	Held various positions in the university
Kitila*	Academic	M	Held various positions: President, students government, General Secretary, UDASA
Athumani	Academic	M	Deputy director, Resources Mobilisation and Investments
Anne	Academic	M	Director, Gender Centre
Mwasanga	Academic	M	Dean, University of Dar es Salaam Business School
Ali	Academic	M	Director, Quality Assurance Bureau
Jonathani	Academic	M	Junior academic staff
Godwin	Academic	M	Leader, University of Dar es Salaam Academic Staff Assembly
Nemes	Admin. staff	M	Administrator, long serving staff
Sikitu	Academic	F	Dean, Students Office
Luca	Academic	M	Deputy Director, Planning
Willy	Academic	M	Head, Economic Department
Joshua	Academic	M	Junior academic staff
Juma	Student	M	Prime Minister, students government
Lucy	Student	F	Vice President, students government
Tido	Admin. staff	M	Leader, Workers Union
Allen	Admin. staff	M	Leader, Workers Union

### Legend:

\*Indicate real name. Participants permit to use of their name. See appendices P-Q.

## Appendix M: Request email to participants to use their names in the report

Dear participant. Good day.

In 2012, I conducted a study titled, 'Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of university of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania'. In this study you were one of the participants. The university of Pretoria research guidelines require, among others, that research participants be fully informed about the research process and purposes and must give consent to their participation. In addition, researcher is required to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of the information collected and the identities of the participants at all times. All these principles were thoroughly observed during data collection stage when, as a requirement, you signed an informed consent form. The transcription of our interview was done with integrity (and selected participants were sent copies of their interview transcriptions to check credibility and authenticity of the information collected).

Since the information collected had no any harm to participants, my supervisors suggest that using real names of participants whose interviews were rich would make the report more interesting and informative. Thus, the purpose of this email is to request for a permission to use your real names when reporting the findings of the study. I have attached a request letter to accompany the informed consent form which indicates your willingness to participate. Of course if I do not receive this consent from you I shall use a pseudonym as discussed with you in our interview.

Your participation is highly appreciated.

Regards,



*Mr. Afrael M. Sarakikya*

## Appendix N: Request letter to use participant's names



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA  
Faculty of Education

September 10, 2013

Dear participant

### RE: Request to use your real names in the final report

I am a PhD student at the University of Pretoria, Department of Education Management and Policy Studies. In a period from January-June 2012, I conducted a study titled, *“Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania”*. In this study you were one of the participants interviewed. After transcription, data was scrutinised by my supervisors as part of ethical consideration to ensure that no harm is caused to participants. In the course of report writing, they suggested that since I am writing a true story about an institution which had undergone reform it would be useful to use real names of key people who played key roles during the institutional transformation programme.

Based on the foregoing and in accordance with the University of Pretoria research guidelines, I am kindly requesting you to sign the accompanying consent form which indicates your willingness to allow me to use your names in the final report and email it to me.

Of course if I do not receive this consent from you I shall use a pseudonym as discussed with you in our interview.

Yours sincerely,

**Afrael M. Sarakikya**  
PhD student  
Department of Education Management and Policy studies  
University of Pretoria  
Mobile: +27716142005  
Mail: kisali2007@yahoo.co.uk

**Prof. Venitha Pillay**  
Supervisor  
Department of Education Management and Policy Studies  
University of Pretoria,  
Republic of South Africa.  
Mobile: +27824624400

**Appendix O:** Letter of informed consent to use participant's names



DATE.....

**DECLARATION**

I..... (Name) of.....  
(Institution) declare that I participated in the study titled, '*Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania*' conducted during the period of January-June, 2012. That, I confirm that, I voluntarily participated in this study as I understand that there are no risks associated with this study.

I hereby granted permission to use my names in the final report of this study.

Respondent's name.....Signature.....Date.....

College/School/Directorate/Department/Section/Unit.....

**Appendix P: Permission letter from participant to use his names**



DATE .....

**DECLARATION**

I...**Dr Kitila Mkumbo**.... (Name) of....**University of Dar es Salaam**.. (Institution) declare that I participated in the study titled, '*Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity in higher education: A case study of the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania*' conducted during the period of January-June, 2012. That, I confirm that, I voluntarily participated in this study as I understand that there are no risks associated with this study.

I hereby granted permission to use my names in the final report of this study.

Respondent's name...**Kitila Mkumbo**..Signature.....Date..**11 September 2013**

College/School/Directorate/Department/Section/Unit **School of Education**

Signature





**Appendix Q:** Email response from participant to use his names in the report

On Friday, 13 September 2013, 1:37, tolly mbwette <tsambwette@yahoo.com> wrote:

Dear Arael,

Noted your mail. This is to give formal consent to use myname in your dissertation. I would love to get a soft copy of the final product bearing in mind the open access policy of your University. Regards and Good luck.

Tolly

## Appendix R: Ethics clearance certificate



UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA  
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA  
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA  
Faculty of Education

### RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

**CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

**DEGREE AND PROJECT**

**INVESTIGATOR(S)**

**DEPARTMENT**

**DATE CONSIDERED**

**DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE**

**CLEARANCE NUMBER :**

EM 11/10/02

PhD

Corporate strategies as a means to increase access and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam

Afrael Mark Sarakikya

Educational Management and Policy Studies

23 April 2014

APPROVED

Please note:

*For Masters applications, ethical clearance is valid for 2 years*

*For PhD applications, ethical clearance is valid for 3 years.*

**CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS COMMITTEE**

Prof Liesel Ebersöhn

DATE

23 April 2014

CC

Jeannie Beukes  
Liesel Ebersöhn  
Prof V Pillay  
Prof MT Seoole

This ethical clearance certificate is issued subject to the following condition:

1. It remains the students' responsibility to ensure that all the necessary forms for informed consent are kept for future queries.

Please quote the clearance number in all enquiries.

**Appendix S:** Letter from the editor

*Alexa Barnby*  
*Language Specialist*

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Editing, copywriting, indexing, formatting, translation

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Tel: 012 361 6347

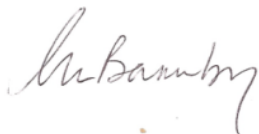
barnbak@unisa.ac.za  
alexabarnby@gmail.com

32 Camellia Avenue  
Lynnwood Ridge  
0081 Pretoria

2 May 2014

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that I, Alexa Kirsten Barnby, ID No. 5106090097080, a fulltime language practitioner with the University of South Africa and a member of the South African Translators Institute, have edited Afrael M. Sarakikya's thesis entitled, 'Corporate strategies as a means to increasing access and equity at the University of Dar es Salaam'. The onus is, however, on the student to bring about the changes suggested and address the comments made.



**AK Barnby**