

379  
N816  
No. 3177

THE ROLE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA: A STUDY OF  
THE ATTITUDE OF AFRICAN EDUCATORS TOWARD  
THE TANANARIVE RECOMMENDATIONS

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the  
University of North Texas in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Evans A. Laryea, BTh, ThM

Denton, Texas

December, 1989

Laryea, Evans. A., The Role of Higher Education in Africa: A Study of the Attitude of African Educators Toward the Tananarive Recommendations. Doctor of Philosophy (Higher Education), May, 1990, 167 pp. 13 tables, references, 70 titles.

This study concerns the perceptions of African educators concerning the role of higher education in Africa. The study investigates African educators' awareness, understanding, opinions, and reactions to the role of higher education as defined by the Tananarive Conference on the development of higher education in Africa. The data were collected through personal interviews with 80 educators affiliated with the universities of the English-speaking countries in Middle Africa.

The findings of the study reveal that (a) the Tananarive recommendations are still realistic and relevant to the African situation; (b) African educators agree that universities in Africa must contribute to the definition and development of African economic, social, and cultural goals; (c) African universities are judged mainly by how successfully their objectives and achievements improve society; (d) the critical problems confronting the African universities are finance, colonial origin, attachment to metropolitan models and standards, training of staff in

overseas institutions, brain drain, and government interference; and (e) mutual trust and understanding of role-expectation between African governments and universities is required for universities to fulfill their developmental role in African societies.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	v
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS . . . . .	vi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Statement of the Problem	
Purposes of the Study	
Research Questions	
Significance of the Study	
Methodology	
Definition of Terms	
Presuppositions	
Delimitations	
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE . . . . .	15
The University's Role in Development	
Criticisms and Problems of Universities	
The University and Research	
Inter-university Cooperation	
University and Government Relationships	
Conclusion	
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES . . . . .	58
The Population	
Selection of the Sample	
Pre-interview Process	
Pilot Study	
Interview Process	
Post-interview Process	
Explanation of Methodology	
IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA . . . . .	101
Characteristics of the Participants	
Familiarity with the Tananarive	
Recommendations	

Evaluation of the Tananarive Recommendations	
Elucidation of and Appreciation for African Culture	
The Effect of the Recommendations on Educators	
Educators' Implementation of the Recommendations	
Institutions' Implementation of the Recommendations	
Implementation by the Nations	
Problems Encountered	
Solutions for the Problem	
Roles of Universities	

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . .	140
---	-----

Summary	
Conclusions	
Recommendations	

APPENDICES

A . . . . .	147
B . . . . .	149
C . . . . .	156
REFERENCES . . . . .	159

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1.     Structure of Ethnoscience Explanation for Analysis of Data . . . . .	75
2.     Characteristic of the Participants of the Study . . . . .	84
3.     Selected Indices of the Expansion of Universities . . . . .	86
4.     Kanyanization of Academic Staff at the University of Nairobi . . . . .	88
5.     External Examiners from Nairobi to other African Universities . . . . .	89
6.     External Examiners from Other African Universities to University of Nairobi . . . . .	90
7.     Post-graduate Students from Various African Countries Admitted 1975-83 to the University of Nairobi . . . . .	92
8.     Students by University . . . . .	93
9.     Number of Students by Countries . . . . .	95
10.    Students by Field of Study . . . . .	96
11.    Cooperation Within Institutions in Africa . . . . .	97
12.    Transportation and Communication Projects . . . . .	126
13.    List of Problems of Universities in Ranked Order and Number of Participants Who Suggested Them . . . . .	127

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure		Page
1.	Components of Data Analysis: Flow Model . . . . .	78
2.	Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model . . . . .	78

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

On May 15-25, 1961, the first predominantly African international conference on education held on the continent of Africa was called at Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The main goal of the conference, which was attended by representatives from 39 African nations and delegates from five European countries, was to provide a forum for the African countries to formulate their own educational development plan for the future. This conference was significant because it recognized that the entire African educational system plays a crucial role in the economic, social, and cultural development of the nations in Africa (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1962).

A follow-up of the above conference led to the most important stimulus for development of higher education in Africa, a conference held at Tananarive (now Antananarivo), Madagascar, in September 1962. The Tananarive conference, as it is generally called, was attended by representatives from 31 African nations and 14 non-African nations, including both the United States and the Soviet Union.



These representatives met solely to formulate plans for the development of higher education in Africa.

This conference produced a detailed and comprehensive plan of development for higher education in Africa over a period of 20 years. As with the plan of the Addis Ababa conference, 1980 was proposed as the target year for implementation of the Tananarive development plan. To facilitate the implementation of the details of the Tananarive development plan, the following seven roles were assigned to the universities in Africa:

1. To teach and advance knowledge through research;
2. to maintain adherence and loyalty to world academic standards;
3. to ensure unification of Africa;
4. to encourage elucidation of and appreciation for African culture and heritage and to dispel misconceptions about Africa through research and teaching of African studies;
5. to train the "whole man" for nation-building;
6. to develop human resources for meeting manpower needs; and,
7. to evolve over the years truly African institutions for higher learning dedicated to Africa and its people, yet promoting a bond of kinship to the larger human society (UNESCO, 1963, p. 9).

Hence, in addition to the traditional role of teaching and research, the Tananarive conference assigned to African universities a role as major agents of national development and recognized them as the main vehicles for social, cultural, and economic development in Africa. Higher education, on the whole, was accepted as the main instrument of national progress, the chief guardian of the people's heritage, and the voice of the people in international councils of technology and scholarship (Kajubi, 1984).

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study concerns the perceptions of African educators about the roles of higher education in Africa. Specifically, the study investigates African educators' perceptions of the intentions, successes, shortcomings, and future implications of the Tananarive recommendations on higher education throughout Middle Africa.

#### Purposes of the Study

The overall purpose of this study is to investigate the awareness, understanding, opinions, and reactions of African educators to the roles of higher education in Africa as set forth by the Tananarive conference recommendations. Therefore, the specific purposes of the study are:

1. To determine educators' awareness of the Tananarive recommendations on higher education;

2. to determine whether educators consider that the Tananarive recommendations are realistic to the African situation;

3. to determine how the recommendations have affected educators' educational objectives;

4. to determine what individual educators have done with regard to the recommendations;

5. to determine how educators assess what their institutions have done with regard to the recommendations;

6. to assess what the nations have done with regard to the recommendations;

7. to determine what educators consider has been achieved with regard to the recommendations;

8. to determine the problems educators face with regard to the recommendations;

9. to determine educators' suggestions for the resolution of the problems;

10. to determine what individual educators think should be the role of higher education in Africa today.

#### Research Questions

The study is designed to find answers for the following questions:

1. Are educators familiar with the roles of higher education as recommended by the Tananarive conference?

2. Do educators evaluate the Tananarive recommendations as realistic to the African situation?
3. Have these recommendations affected the educators' educational objectives?
4. Have the educators done anything personally to implement these recommendations?
5. Do educators feel that their institutions have taken any steps to implement these recommendations?
6. Do educators feel that the nations have done anything to implement these recommendations?
7. What do educators feel has been achieved in the light of these recommendations?
8. What are the problems encountered by educators with regard to implementation of these recommendations?
9. How do educators feel that these problems can be resolved?
10. What do educators personally think should be the role of higher education in Africa today and in the future?

#### Significance of the Study

More than 25 years have elapsed since the Addis Ababa and Tananarive conferences on education in Africa. In 1988, eight years beyond the target year (1980) for the educational development plans of both conferences, it seems timely to take a closer look at what African countries and institutions have done with regard to the recommendations

for higher education which were outlined at the Tananarive conference. More specifically, an investigation and critical analysis of educators' attitudes toward these recommendations and of the obstacles that educators perceive that they face as they attempt to implement the Tananarive pronouncements is important because of the significant influence educators have upon the achievements of higher educational institutions. Discovering and analyzing what educators personally think should be the role of higher education in Africa could contribute important information to understanding of higher education in Africa today, particularly with regard to the successes and shortcomings of the Tananarive objectives. Such an investigation might also stimulate interest in further research on higher education in Africa.

#### Methodology

The qualitative research methodology (Dobbert, 1982; Spradley, 1979; Miles & Huberman, 1984) was closely followed for data collection, analysis, and writing of the research in this study. Qualitative research method is "an umbrella term covering an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world" (Van Maanen, 1983, p. 9). In the present study qualitative

research method is understood in the context of ethnoscientific research. The study was designed to determine what the African educational situation is like from the point of view of participants. The fourteen largest universities of the English-speaking countries in Middle Africa were selected for the study. Eighty educators connected with these universities were interviewed. An interview schedule was designed and used during the interview.

#### Definition of Terms

The following definitions are stipulated for use in this study:

Nation, as used in this study, means a people or community associated together and organized under one civil government and ordinarily dwelling together in a district or territory of its own; an organized politic; or a state (Funk & Wagnells' New Standard Dictionary, 1952). Most African nations are composed of peoples of diverse ethnic, religious, and cultural backgrounds brought together recently by colonial accident and not yet having interacted with one another long enough to evolve a common language, let alone a shared universe of ideas and values (Taylor, 1984).

National Development is conceived as action initiated and developed by the people of a nation to provide the poor

majority with minimum needs such as food, safe drinking water, clothing, housing, health care, family planning, and primary and adult education (Mazrui, 1970). This development is primarily dependent on a nation's ability to define, and determination to carry out, those measures that are essential to its economic growth and its social and cultural advancement (UNESCO, 1962).

Culture refers to the acquired knowledge that people use to interpret experience and generate social behavior (Spradley, 1979, p. 5).

Nation-Building is the uniting of the different ethnic, religious, and cultural entities of Africa which existed before the modern states were invented, for the purpose of establishing a sense of national identity and cohesion in all citizens (Taylor, 1984). Present day realities deem that the type of nation-building appropriate to Africa is not one of "homogenized, monolithic, and monolingual polity," but rather that which was specified at the Tananarive; "to weld people speaking different languages and having different traditional cultures into one state" (UNESCO, 1963, p. 17).

National Integration refers to the bridging of the gulf that exists or strengthening the relationship between the university, governmental circles, the public sector, and the private firms, with a view to facilitating the interaction

of higher education in the economic and social life of the country (UNESCO, 1963).

Developing Manpower is the training of teachers, pre-service and in-service planners, the executive personnel, and the managerial staff required in the public and the private sectors of the economy and the preparation of doctors, engineers, agriculturists, nurses, and other technicians for the rapid social and economic development of a country (UNESCO, 1963).

Training the "Whole Man" refers to a full and complete development and enrichment of the individual. This involves training an individual to have moral and spiritual values, "developing in him a sense of social and civic responsibility as well as appreciation for beauty in art, music and ethics" (UNESCO, 1963, p. 18). It also involves developing in the individual an awareness of local problems and aspirations, cultivating the ability to analyze and seek a solution to problems, and helping to realize objectives (UNESCO, 1963).

African Unity is the removal of both national and regional ethnic barriers that have fragmented African society in the past. It encourages the interchange of ideas and resources in Africa, regardless of tribal affinity or national origin. African unity also involves inter-African cooperation in all departments of the political, economic, social, and cultural life of the continent (UNESCO, 1963).



Political Integration refers to the ability of people in one nation to identify with each other as compatriots and to feel a sense of sharing a common nationality (Mazrui, 1970).

Political Legitimacy is the sense of establishing and consolidating institutions of authority (in a nation) accepted as legitimate by the general primary consensus (Mazrui, 1970).

De-tribalization is a process by which a person loses not only the customary mode of behavior of the tribe, but also any compelling loyalty towards it (Mazrui, 1970).

De-traditionalization is a process by which a person may lose the sense of conformity to tribal ritual and tribal custom, but still retain a potentially active loyalty to his tribe (Mazrui, 1970).

African Studies refers to a "group of disciplines that have a bearing on the study of the African milieu and on the knowledge of the natural and social environment in Africa, or the group of disciplines which are more specifically concerned with the African heritage in its traditional and modern form" (UNESCO, 1963, p. 51).

African Educators, as used in this study, refers to people who are associated with universities in the various countries in Africa. These include university administrators, university faculty members, and government officials who deal with higher education.

Higher Education in Africa refers to the third level of African education which demands, as a minimum condition of admission, a completion of the second level, or evidence of the attainment of an equivalent level of knowledge. Higher education includes all post-secondary institutions such as the universities, teacher's colleges, and specialized or higher professional schools (UNESCO, 1963).

Brain Drain is defined as the desertion from Africa of many trained Africans who have acquired higher degrees and qualifications to find employment in the more developed countries such as Western Germany, Britain, France, Canada, and the United States. Brain drain includes those individuals who were trained abroad in advanced countries and who refuse to return home after their training, as well as an increasing number of those who were trained in African universities, but who, for various reasons, leave to find employment in more developed countries (Yesufu, 1973).

Africanization of the University refers to the reorientation of the African universities from the European pattern (or an American pattern) to a pattern deeply rooted in the socio-cultural realities of the African continent (Mazrui, 1970). Africanization means that the role of African universities should be conceived in terms of the problems facing the countries of the African continent, and that "their structure, rules and curricula should be determined in the light of those concerns, as well as, the

culture and unique character of the peoples of Africa" (Kingue, 1980, p. 39).

Staff Localization is the orientation of the staff of the university to their environment and dedication to the promotion of the university as an institution of higher learning and as one totally committed to the community at large (Yesufu, 1973).

Staff Indigenization means the staffing of the university with indigenes or nationals of the country in which the university is located.

University Autonomy is defined as the university's "power to conduct its affairs and to use its resources as it determines, without interference or regulation by outside bodies" (Fisher, 1988, p. 136).

Academic Freedom refers to "the right to hold and to express opinions, the right to teach and to be taught without external interference, the right of access to academic knowledge, and the right to participate in expanding the frontiers of knowledge" (Mazrui, 1978, p. 235).

Academic Democracy has to do with the process of decision-making within an academic institution. It is interested in the width of the right of participation in decision-making and how the different interests within the institution are effectively represented within the structure of power. In other words, academic democracy is concerned

with how much power is wielded by the top administrators and senior staff, and what influence junior staff and students exercise on policy making. While academic freedom involves the matter of interference, academic democracy is concerned with the right to participate (Mazrui, 1978).

Academic Truancy is the tendency for trained degree holders to refuse to go into teaching careers, expressing preference for work in the industries and private corporations.

Academic Tribalism is defined as the frustration of young academics by certain practices of their senior colleagues which affect staff development and often cause the former to resign from the university (Yesufu, 1973).

Academic In-Breeding refers to the recruitment of the majority of staff from the former students of a faculty or university (Yesufu, 1973).

Ethnography is the "systematic approach in the social sciences that leads us into those separate realities that others have learned and to make sense out of their worlds" (Spradley, 1979, p. 6).

Middle Africa refers to all the Sub-Saharan African countries south of the Sahara desert and north of the Republic of South Africa.

Attitude refers to a "predisposition to react negatively or positively in some degree toward objects,

institutions, persons, or ideas. The reaction may be affective, cognitive, or behavioral" (Wilson, 1977, p. 9).

#### Presuppositions

This study is based on the presuppositions that: (a) higher education can play a significant role in nation-building in Africa; (b) the attitude of educators toward the roles of higher education can have a significant influence upon the achievements of universities in a particular country; and (c) educators' knowledge and understanding of the roles assigned to higher education can have a significant influence upon their attitude toward these roles.

#### Delimitations

The study recognizes the following limitations:

1. The study was restricted to educators of the English-speaking countries in Middle Africa.
2. The participants in the study were limited to educators affiliated with universities. These included faculty members, administrators, and the government representatives of higher education for the different countries.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This study is concerned with the attitudes of African educators toward the roles of higher education in Africa. The following synthesis of literature includes the university's role in national development, criticisms and problems of the university, the university and research, inter-university cooperation, and government and university relationships.

#### The University's Role in Development

In studies on the role of the university in development, there is a growing feeling that university education in Africa must be relevant to African conditions and must equip African students with the concepts and tools necessary to deal with African problems. African universities are expected to contribute much to the definition of African economic and social goals. The literature is filled with reports of what prominent Africans have to say about the role of the university. Cowan, O'Connell, & Scanlon (1965) reported how Emperor Haile Selassie articulated the fundamental objectives of the university in Africa. In his address at the inauguration of the Haile Selassie I University (now the University of Addis

Ababa), he explained the fundamental role of the university to be the safeguarding and developing of the culture of the people it serves. Being fully aware of the importance of the university in national development, he explained that the future of Ethiopia is largely dependent upon increasing agricultural development, mineral exploitation, and industrial expansion. The survival of the nation depends on these factors, but they, in turn, depend upon the competence of those who have been trained in the universities. He adds that it is the hope of Ethiopians that the university, which had been planned for many years, will provide Ethiopian youth the higher education and specialized training required for such development (Cowan, O'Connell, & Scanlon, 1965).

Kwame Nkrumah, the first president of Ghana, speaking of the role of the university at the University of Ghana, exclaimed that the university should become the "academic focus of national life, reflecting the social, economic, cultural, and political aspirations of the people" (Cowan, O'Connell, & Scanlon, p. 314). He added that the university must kindle national consciousness in the youth and uplift the citizens and free them from ignorance, superstition, and indolence.

In his speech delivered on the occasion of laying the cornerstone of the Abijan University, President Felix Houphouet-Boigny attributed to the university a prominent role in national development. He pointed out four functions

of the African university. First, he thinks that African universities must fulfill the traditional functions of the university, that is, to enlarge the field of knowledge through instruction, research and to promote liberal education, without which there can be no culture for either individuals or nations. Secondly, African universities must put at the disposal of men and women, the technical knowledge that will permit them to participate fully and usefully in the economic and social development of the country. Thirdly, African universities should lay bridges across political frontiers and correct the dangers to the future of African unity that stem from differences in culture, language, and habits of thought. Fourthly, the university must function as guardian and defender of the national patrimony of the African community in which it exists, both in the religious, philosophical, and linguistic spheres as well as in the domain of the arts, literature, and music (Cowan, O'Connell, & Scanlon, 1965).

President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania described the role of African universities as the torch bearers of the African society and the protectors of the flame (Taylor, 1984). Again, in his address at the inauguration of the University of East Africa, he explained that one of the functions of the university is to foster the spirit of federal unity and international (African) unity. He pointed out that "the university has not been established purely for prestige



purposes. It has a very definite role to play in the development of this area, and to do it effectively, it must be in and of the community it has been established to serve" (Cowan, O'Connell, & Scanlon, p. 310).

In the foreword of Education, Development, and Nation-Building In Independent Africa, Kenneth Kaunda, President of Zambia, expresses his view on the role of African universities in nation-building. He points out that African universities would be ungrateful and ignorant if they only succeed in stratifying society by creating an elite which is remote from the masses of the nations. He adds that African universities should avoid the "ivory tower" concept and orient themselves to be in touch with the national aspirations of the countries in which they operate. They ought to train men and women to solve problems of Africa because those who best understand and can best solve the political, social, and economic problems of Africa are the Africans themselves. He advises that African universities should avoid trying to be replicas of foreign universities, but educate people capable of defining the human needs and purposes of their societies. They must graduate men and women who are committed to what everyone in the nation is fighting for; those who know in which direction the country is going; and those who do not shun working on the land and, in fact, see in the land the ultimate solution to all the

trial and tribulation plaguing most developing countries (Makulu, 1971).

Makulu (1971) cautions that African universities should realize that education is basic for economic development, but should not, because of this, lose their freedom and become mere instruments of the government of the nation. He closes his study by acknowledging that African problems are enormous, but he is also optimistic that they are surmountable and that education is the key to the resources the African states have to solve these problems.

In his opening address at the Third General Conference of the Association of African Universities, Yakubu Gowon, former federal head of state of Nigeria, expressed his opinion about the role of the university in nation development. He points out that the university is also the main agent for the improvement of the economic, social, and cultural conditions of the people of Africa, in addition to being a center of learning and research, a store house of knowledge, and a community of scholars. He emphasizes that everything that is essential in the African society is embodied in the university as an institution. He asserts also that the universities must assume the responsibility of passing on to students the knowledge that will enable them to develop a just and prosperous society for all African people. He adds that universities have the responsibility to see that this knowledge be related to the needs, hopes,

and aspirations of the people of Africa (Association of African Universities, [AAU], 1973,).

According to the literature, not only political leaders, but leading scholars also consider the universities to have a prominent role in achieving of national goals. George Kirya, Vice Chancellor of Makerere University, states that the African university should respond to the dictates of its nation's developmental campaign and must produce high-level manpower with skills and knowledge relevant to the society. In addition, it must make the effort to develop courage and integrity in its graduates (Kirya, 1987). Akilagpa Sawyerr, Vice Chancellor of the University of Ghana, warns that in the struggle for relevance, practicality, and mass assessment, the African university should be careful not to minimize or ignore the fact that the university is primarily a learning center. He describes three areas in which the university can respond to the needs of the society. First, he thinks that university graduates should get a general education comparable to that of any other university anywhere. However, their areas of competency should be relevant to the particular needs of their own societies. Second, he asserts that universities should be leaders in the development and propagation of new knowledge and ideas. This leadership is to be based on studies of the societies' specific circumstances, "particularly the roots of the current crisis and the most

effective measure for alleviating it" (Sawyer, 1987, p. 5). Finally, he states that universities must be actively involved in the analysis of the current economic and social crises, and fashion means for resolving them.

Michel Kingue, Assistant Secretary General of United Nations Organization (UNO) and Regional Director of the United Nations Development Plan (UNDP) for Africa, maintains that the role of African universities in development is so crucial that there is a need for Africanization of all universities in Africa. He suggests that African universities should be centers for "social advancement and at the same time be in the position to participate in training the middle level cadres which the country needs" (Kingue, 1980, p. 39). Consequently, he recommends an open recruitment policy. He thinks that secondary studies represent only a small segment of the population; hence, restriction of university recruitment to secondary studies limits the university's involvement in national development. He argues that the university should be concerned about raising the intellectual level of all the population, improving the status of education, and making available to the greatest number of people training opportunities which will enable them to become agents of development (Kingue, 1980).

Alexander Kwapong, former Vice Chancellor of the University of Ghana and currently Vice Rector of the United

Nations University, asserts that in the world of universities, the African university is relatively new. The nationalistic awakening of Africa in the late 1950s was the impetus of their birth. They were thus designed predominantly as national strategic instruments to help in the liberation of the Continent. Universities in Africa thus have to contribute to the liberation by finding solutions to Africa's problems, such as the effects of colonization, political instability and disorder, the threat of military coups and oppression, economic disorder, endemic diseases, starvation and malnutrition, infant mortality and low adult mortality, and some of the highest levels of illiteracy in the world. However, the contribution by universities toward the solutions to these problems vary from country to country, according to their particular circumstances. In conclusion, he recommends that for universities to fulfill the above role, they will have to "examine and formulate theories and policy options for their societies and to throw fresh light upon the development needs of their countries on the basis of high quality research and analysis" (Kwapong, 1980, p. 54).

Kwapong, unlike many of his colleagues, postulates that African universities, like their counterparts worldwide, should operate at three levels. They must be concerned with the immediate problems of the university; they must be involved with the community or the country in which they are

located; and they must collaborate with other universities of the world in dialogues, debates, and research to find solutions to the urgent problems which face the world and those which may arise tomorrow.

In a somewhat similar vein, T. M. Yesufu, Director of the Human Resources Research Unit of the University of Lagos, asserts that a true African university must have six major functions. First, it should pursue, promote, and disseminate knowledge. This knowledge must be practical and immediately useful to the general population. Second, the university must be dedicated to fundamental and applied research which will contribute to the amelioration of the conditions of the common men and women of Africa. Third, it must provide intellectual leadership for government, industry, commerce, and the rural population. Fourth, it must develop middle-level manpower for skilled personnel. Fifth, it must contribute by promoting social and economic modernization. Sixth, it must promote intercontinental and international understanding. That is, the university must "rediscover Africa and provide the intellectual and enlightened foundation to reinforce her image in the modern world" (Yesufu, 1973, p. 42).

Levy Makany, the Secretary-General of the Association of African Universities, speaking on the future of African universities, asserts that the African university should be committed to the pursuit of knowledge that will help improve

the conditions of the majority of the population of Africa. The African university must reflect Africa and be motivated by its environment. He also states that the African university is an essential factor in the emancipation of the peoples of Africa. In addition, the African university is a privileged instrument which should cater to the service of the development and to the progress of Africa's wishes. It should not only decolonize itself, but should participate in the decolonization of the whole of Africa (Makany, 1983).

Arthur Porter, Head of the Planning Unit of the Kenya Ministry of Education, maintains that in addition to the three basic functions (transmitting knowledge through teaching, expanding the body of knowledge through research, and helping solve the problems of the society), African universities have additional problems and tasks because they are in the cross fire of politics; they are in a state of transition; and they have more direct responsibility for achieving the goal of nation-building. He adds that universities must also support and strengthen other educational institutions. For instance, they must help in educating and training teachers for secondary schools and teacher training colleges. They must cooperate with other primary and secondary educational institutions and with government ministries and departments of education. He emphasizes that the greatest challenge the African

universities face is not producing experts for the urban industries, but "how best to accelerate the development in the rural sector, the other 80% of the nation" (Porter, 1972, p. 77). The deciding factor of the fate of the nations, he argues, depends on the fate of the rural farmer.

After discussing the various models of developmental education, Mosha (1986) summarizes the role of the university to be primarily that of "initiating, supporting and accelerating development by promoting social modernization and inculcation of the skills and knowledge required for participation in modern economic enterprise" (p. 96). Harman (1976) states that developmental education should touch the whole area of developmental need and the experiences of the society, realizing that they are an integrated and coherent, indivisible set of circumstances. In light of this, African universities must plan and implement programs and projects that are relevant to national needs.

The university's role in national development has been greatly shaped by nationalism in post-independent Africa. African nationalism has risen steadily since the early sixties. The cause of this nationalism was the desire of the African people for nation-building coupled with the emotional backwash of the end of the colonial rule. Curle (1973) observes that African nationalism emphasizes education as one of its crucial tools for maintaining



itself. This was confirmed during the All-African People Conference in Accra, Ghana when, in discussing a resolution on Zanzibar, the conference emphasized that education is an essential factor in the liberation and development of Africa.

In 1977, the Nigerian federal government adopted education as an instrument par excellence for affecting national development. Education is seen by the Nigerian government as a tool for achieving national goals such as: a free, democratic society; a just and egalitarian society; a united, strong and self-reliant nation; a great and dynamic economy; and, a land of bright and full opportunities for all. The policy maintains that education would contribute to national development through (a) the inculcation of national consciousness and national unity, (b) the inculcation of the values and attitudes necessary for the survival of the individual and the Nigerian society, (c) the training of the mind in the understanding of the world, (d) the acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities, and competencies, and (e) the desire that Nigeria should be free, just, and a democratic society, a land full of opportunities for its citizens (Nigerian Federal Government, 1977). Victor Uchendu (1979), the Nigerian educator and writer, observes that the above educational objectives are shared by most African countries.

In his conclusion regarding the role of the university in national development, Mosha (1986) observes that universities in Africa "will be judged not only by their intelligent discussions, good experiments in the laboratory or greenhouses, or excellent research, but also by how far such achievements are being used to create a better society in which the people of Africa can lead decent lives" (p. 107).

#### Criticisms and Problems of Universities

In the late 1950s and early 1960s, a transition of power from colonial rule to self-government in the African countries brought with it a great responsibility on the part of the new independent countries to take control of their political, economic, and social problems. These countries needed to train some of their people to be in charge of this nation-building responsibility and saw the university as the main instrument of achieving their national aspirations and dreams. President Kwame Nkrumah pointed this out when he said, "in our time, we consider the universities as if they were the heart of the nation, essential to its life and its growth" (Ashby, 1966, p. 106). Hence, the newly independent nations put a lot of their resources and hopes into the universities. Makany (1983) indicates that African governments' spending on education increased from 940 million dollars in 1960 to 5 billion, 890 million dollars in 1974. Such an amount accounts on the average for 14% of the

national budget and 10% of the gross national product. The governments devoted such a colossal amount to education because they hoped that education in general, and universities in particular, will yield dividends for their investments. President Julius Nyerere of Tanzania, in his address at the inauguration of the University of East Africa, expressed the hopes and expectations of the African nations about their universities. He pointed out, "East Africa cannot spend millions of pounds, cannot beg and borrow for the university, unless it plays a full and active part in the urgent tasks of East Africa" (Porter, 1972, p. 75).

However, it is interesting that despite such high hopes for the universities, criticism of African universities has gathered momentum since the 1970s. There is a growing feeling that universities are not "justifying their high cost in a corresponding contribution to the improved well-being of national population and the transforming of their societies" (Court, 1980, p. 658). Makany (1983) states that a distressing question preoccupies the minds of the continent's political leaders about whether the universities have resolved, or are resolving, the problems of Africa. Harman (1976) points out that the implementation of developmental education in Africa has been frustrated by a number of problems. Ayandele (1982) shows by statistics that although enrollment in higher education institutes in

Africa grew from 180,000 in 1960 to 472,000 in 1969, and to 1,095,000 in 1977, this quantitative growth has not been matched by qualitative results. Such criticisms of the universities are numerous, touching almost every sphere of the university life.

Perhaps the biggest criticism leveled against the African universities has to do with the slow Africanization of the institutions. Most of the African universities were built on the basis of models imported from abroad, without much adaptation in respect to the particular socio-economic and cultural needs and potential for Africa (Sanyal, 1982). For instance, the Makerere University, the University of Ibadan, and the University of Ghana were overseas extensions of the University of London. Most such universities still adhere to this colonial model, a fact which has inhibited their ability to respond to the needs of their own societies, "leaving them as islands of unbecoming detachment in a sea of poverty" (Court, 1980, p. 658).

Again, since the political and socio-economic environments of African universities differ from the environments of foreign institutions, the African universities have become bad photocopies of the foreign institutions which were their antecedents. Critics see the programs of African institutions as paying more attention to foreigners than seeking relevance to the needs of their own countries (Court, 1980). Sawyerr (1987) states that the

above problem has resulted in African universities following an excessively external orientation in relation to course organization and content, general academic standards and criteria, and staff development. In addition, this external orientation has resulted in a social and psychological "distance" from the fundamental concerns of the countries in which the universities are located. Moreover, the above problem has resulted in a generally lecture-oriented method of teaching.

Corresponding with the problem of Africanization is that of accountability. The cost of higher education is high in any country, but especially for developing countries such as those in Africa. Under these circumstances, such a high cost demands special justification and confers special privileges which ought to carry special responsibilities (Sanyal, 1982).

Since almost all the African countries are poor compared to developing nations, their investment in higher education is also comparatively large. Yakubu Gowon, the former Nigerian Head of State, explains that the poor African nations' expectations from their universities are higher than the developed nations' expectations of their universities because African investment in higher education is comparatively large (AAU, 1973). This fact precipitates a great expectation, from all sections of the nations, that universities should play a significant role in providing the

skill and knowledge that will lead to the economic, cultural, and social development of the people. This expectation is reasonably great from the government who foots a large percentage of the university bills.

The critics point their fingers at all the areas where the universities fall short in their contribution to their societies. Ayandele observes that previously the African governments devoted a lot of their resources to education, believing and expecting that education would bring economic development and modernization. At present, however, judging from the results of education so far, many governments are realizing that "there has been no correlation between education and economic development, between production of human resources and jobs, between planning and training" (1982, p. 165). Many African politicians and educational commentators are, therefore, examining critically what universities are doing to justify their existence and the responsibility that has been entrusted to them. Their criticisms demand accountability from the universities. Mutiso (1973) for example, calls for decolonization of the African universities; Vita (1980) calls for nationalization of the universities; Wandira (1981) accuses African universities of holding onto romantic ideas of the past, thereby greatly detracting from their development; Mosha calls for the universities to come down from their ivory-towers as they feel the pressures of accountability and

produce not only educated elite, but prepared people "who can come down to earth and analyze and discuss the various problems facing our nations as objectively as possible, and find ways and means of solving them" (1986, p. 107). A great many critics obviously feel that this matter of accountability is the greatest problem facing universities in Africa (AAU, 1973).

Staffing is another colossal problem facing African universities. Yesufu (1973) asserts that the universities in Africa are tied up with the problem of providing fully qualified staff to meet the demands of increased numbers in the universities and of new areas of knowledge. Critics assert that if the universities are to achieve relevance and complete acceptance by the African people, they must retain and update their understanding of existing staff members.

Staff localization makes the problem of staffing more complex. The problem of staffing is not only limited to providing adequate and fully qualified staff, but also extends to ensuring that the staff consists largely of localized or indigenized personnel. That is, the staff must be fundamentally oriented to the environment and be dedicated to promoting the university as one totally committed to the community it serves. This mainly involves staffing the university with indigenes or nationals of the country in which the university is located. Yesufu (1973) explains that localization should not be confused with the

manifestation of African nationalism, nor does it mean complete expulsion of expatriates from the university. He further gives three reasons for localization of the university. First, localization gears the university system to African realities by facilitating the mental and the philosophical orientation of the outlook of both teachers and students. Second, it fosters mutual understanding between the staff and students and between the university and the community. Finally, localization is economical, for it costs much more to employ an expatriate than an indigene.

Moral development of university graduates is another area in which universities in Africa are attracting criticism. Some people are of the opinion that moral development in the universities is lagging behind the other achievements of the institutions (AAU, 1973). Critics assert that technological achievement and academic excellence by themselves are not enough; such accomplishments have to be imbued with moral development. These critics argue further that in addition to the humanistic outlook that universities imbue in students, which often leads to "materialism and the worship of Mammon" (Cowan, O'Connell, & Scanlon, 1965, p. 121), African universities must take it as an obligation to cultivate in the students respect for African traditions, concern for the masses, and love for the nation, all essential ingredients of good citizenship.



Ethnicity, a critical problem which has bewildered many African countries, represents the tensions, conflicts, and collective confrontations which divide the national society. The most disturbing fact about this problem is that it has reverberated within almost all the university communities of Africa (Young, 1981; Yesufu, 1973; Mazrui, 1983; AAU, 1970; Smock & Bentsi-Enchill, 1975). Yesufu (1973) points out that the tendency for certain tribal groups to dominate staff positions in some universities is very noticeable. He argues that the intentions for this tribalistic attitude could be accidental or historical. But whatever form ethnicity takes, its manifestation in an institution tarnishes the reputation of that university because inter-tribal animosity or suspicion among the staff results in internal instability and institutional inefficiencies. Mazrui (AAU, 1970) points out that although a university education does not basically de-tribalize people, it may de-traditionalize them. He argues that most of the radically de-traditionalized Africans include the academics at the universities, a point he proves by showing how this problem has been experienced in some of the universities in Africa, including the University of Ibadan, the University of Lagos, and the University of Nairobi. Smock and Bentsi-Enchill (1975) concur with this argument, stating that is the educated elite, those who are in direct economic and social competition with each other, that are most ethnically

inclined. They agreed with the testimony of a leading Nigerian intellectual that the worst peddlers of tribalism in the country are the educated Nigerians. Young (1981) discusses in detail how some of the African universities have fallen victims to this vice of ethnicity and are struggling with it in the area of admissions, examinations, and staff recruitments and promotions.

Academic tribalism is another phenomenon which critics hold against many of the universities in Africa. Yesufu (1973) indicates that in many universities certain practices by senior academics frustrate their junior colleagues, which often causes the latter to become discontented or resign from the university. For instance, senior expatriates, where they are predominant, often insist on unrealistic requirements and qualifications on the part of the local staff before the latter can be recruited or promoted. In some cases, the senior African academics are accused of feeling that their positions are threatened by their younger colleagues who are alleged to be frequently more productive in terms of research as well as being more radical in their views.

Brain drain is a problem of serious dimensions which has plagued the African nations as a whole and African universities in particular. Yesufu (1973) comments that many Africans who are trained abroad in the more developed countries such as the United States, Canada, Great Britain,

France, and West Germany, for various reasons feel reluctant to return home after completing their higher education. Many of them end up taking permanent employment overseas. Moreover, an increasing number of those trained in the African universities leave and find employment in the more developed countries.

Some critics accuse the African universities themselves of contributing to brain drain. The most important reason for brain drain, Yesufu (1973) asserts, has to do with the low salaries and the poorer conditions of service in the African universities. He alleges that salaries and the conditions of service have deteriorated relatively in African universities since the 1960s. In contrast with these conditions in African universities are the attractive salaries and the attractive life and living conditions in the countries abroad. Moreover, the political, social, and economic upheavals which have characterized many African countries since independence have contributed immensely to brain drain. Many qualified African academics have refused or are reluctant to return home because of fear of political victimization if they were known or suspected to hold political views different from those of the government in power.

The dearth of printed material such as textbooks, journals, and magazines is another issue to which critics of African universities point their fingers. Makulu (1971)

that African countries suffer from this scarcity of printed material on the continent's past, present, and future activities and aspirations. He adds that most of the publications that are found in Africa today are those which have been written and compiled by foreigners who often do not fully understand the African situation but "proceed to make supposedly objective assessments of African problems and diagnose solutions for them which in a number of cases, have ended up being far wide of the mark" (1971, p. 61). Sawyerr (1987) also argues that one of the drawbacks of localization of course content is over-reliance on the foreign textbooks which prevail today in African universities.

The overwhelming imbalance between science and non-science students in the universities is another issue which has drawn a lot of debate among African commentators. Kwapong (1980) examines a view which accuses the universities of being too oriented to liberal arts and general science training and of paying inadequate attention to pure science and technical education. He subscribes to a counter view, that universities push scientific and technical education too far and, in the process, have lost sight of the essential character and main function of the university which is to train students and provide them with the basic analytical skills to face concrete problems in their lives. He attributes the fault to the fact that

universities "are turning out engineers and technicians and economic and social scientists who are basically illiterate and who are taught from obsolete texts dumped by international publishers on to the neo-colonial markets" (Kwapong, 1980, p. 56). He describes these universities as mass factories and the graduates they turn out as unprepared to deal with the problems they will encounter on their jobs.

Several specific causes of the problems that hinder African universities from serving as agents of national development can be identified. Among the many reasons Mosha (1986) cites that African universities are still in a period of transition from colonial academic structures to effective African institutions. Therefore, innovations have been slow in order to facilitate a harmonious, smooth transfer of power to the nationals. Second, Mosha asserts that since most of the African universities were founded a few decades ago, they are still in their embryonic stage. Therefore, they are still in the process of building their institutions. Third, although the colonial inherited models of education are inadequate and inappropriate, they are yet to be dismantled. Fourth, instead of putting emphasis on severing dependency on metropolitan universities, universities emphasize developing local staff, attracting diverse sources of finance, and managing increasingly complex institutions. Fifth, it is difficult to weld together the ideas and goals of academic staff, recruited

from different nationalities, to think about and appreciate the problems of underdevelopment. (For example, according to Court (1980), the University of Dar es Salaam has staff comprised of 15 nationalities, a diversity that has caused problems for the university.) Sixth, welding together staff who have graduated from various institutions and programs to plan and implement institutional goals harmoniously is also difficult. Seventh, efforts have been focused on trying to find solutions for strife and division such as tribal chauvinism, parochial sentiments, religious and language barriers--which prevent cooperation among the staff. Eighth, traditional notions of education have persisted in the present universities. Davis describes it as "schooling in literacy and morals to fit the needs of the masters" (1976, p. 41). Mosha (1986) refers to it as education which "facilitates moving people out of the traditional sector into a modern sector which has yet not been created" (p. 98). Mazrui calls it education which is irrelevant to the objective needs of the society. He writes:

The cultural goods which African universities import include course content, language of instruction, and evaluation systems. Instead of teaching African language, music, and folk culture, the universities continue to sell cultural goods marked "made in Europe." (1978, p. 198)

As a ninth reason, Altbach says that the universities have depended on obsolete teaching and learning materials, which has in turn created "literacy colonialism and

servitude of mind" (1975, p. 90). Tenth, the universities plan activities which do not focus on the modes of socialization, behaviors, and normal practices of the African societies. Eleventh, too many universities insist on examinations that demand much regurgitation, which results in students cramming for examinations without reflecting on the usefulness of what they learn. Such testing does not help students to think scientifically and analyze problems objectively. Twelfth, the standard of students is too often judged by foreign standards to ensure that African students measure up to international standards. This involves a reliance on external examiners and expatriate professors. Thirteenth, a continued reliance on expatriate staff for professional consultancy and applied research also exists, a fact which denies national professors the opportunity to expand and develop. Fourteenth, funds and other resources are lacking to implement the desired innovations. Finally, the tendency of the government is to establish control over the university through its administration, either by a political appointment "congruent with the politics of the power elite, without due consideration of academic merit" (Mosha, 1986, p. 106) or through control of the funds that the government gives to the institution, which usually cripples the innovations of the university.

Other factors which hinder the African universities from serving their nations effectively can be described as follows. One factor is that while, by the 1970s, the alien nature of the universities had been recognized by African intellectuals, the intellectuals "were themselves products of the system and had difficulty in reconceptualizing the university into a model more relevant to African developmental needs" (Rathgeber, 1988, p. 401). Radical reforms have been attempted by a few African universities in their curricula and severance of relationships with the metropolitan universities in order to be independent and to give more relevance to their programs. However, since most academics still have to do most of their postgraduate work overseas, the dependency continues (Mosha, 1986). Another hindering factor, according to Rathgeber (1988), is that the African universities place too much stress on admission standards, which ensures that only a few students are admitted into the institutions. As a result, the graduates come to regard themselves as the rightful heir to elite status. That is, they feel they are not just ordinary citizens, but special ones entitled to special treatment in a privileged enclave. Hence, they feel that the society owes them good remuneration in the public sector or in some professional capacity, and many educators fail to see their responsibility to contribute to the society's developmental needs.



Gowon (1973) also put his finger on another factor by stating that African universities are faced with an unprecedented increase in the percentage of young people desirous of having a higher education. Hence, universities have to focus on the means to enlarge and accommodate more students. Again, African universities have the problem of keeping up with the explosion of knowledge and the attendant problem of how to update curricula and methods to keep up with the perpetual expanding frontier of knowledge. Fassi-Fihri (1973) adds that the universities face the problem of academic truancy, which compounds their problem of staffing. Furthermore, student unrest is very rampant on the campuses of the universities. It is another problem which universities are focusing on and for which they are trying to devise solutions. Corresponding with student unrest is political revolutions. Universities are seen as direct agents in the global revolutionary process, not excluding the recourse to violence. This affects all activities of the institutions. In the light of the above discussion, it needs to be said that many of these problems have been addressed but, as Mosha put it, "a satisfactory resolution is yet to be realized" (1986, p. 105).

#### The University and Research

African universities were established on Western models and their programs were organized and presented in strict

conformity with Western practices. They were originally created in response to local demand for higher education and to meet human resource needs. Soon after universities were started in Africa, there developed in the Western model, "a strong emphasis on conduct of research and contribution to knowledge as a legitimate and necessary occupation for university staff" (Rathgeber, 1988, p. 400). This emphasis on research in the West pressured African universities to conduct research of local relevance.

Rathgeber indicates that universities were not the first and only source of research in Africa. The colonial governments established research institutes which usually concentrated on agriculture and health. He points out that the research efforts during the colonial period were limited to immediate needs, especially to plantation economics. That is, cash crop agriculture was emphasized, and there was little interest in the food grown for domestic consumption. The influence of this practice can be seen even today because many African governments still focus on the production of cash crops, and food consumed by the indigenous population is grown only by the peasant farmers. Second, during the colonial period, the division of labor between the research institutes in the colonies and that of the metropolis was relatively clear and efficient. The former concentrated on improving the cash crops, and the latter trained the research scientists to do the work. Lack

of funding and qualified staff almost halted the work of government research institutes during the post-independence period. Today in most African countries, universities have taken over the work of the research institutes and assumed the responsibility for training research scientists.

Research is now accepted as a function of the universities, and research productivity is often tied to advancement in the academic profession. As Kwapong indicates:

It is, of course, the role of African universities, like their counterparts elsewhere, to contribute to the on-going global debate on development alternatives and concepts. It is their duty to examine and formulate theories and policy options for their societies and to throw fresh light upon the development needs of their countries on the basis of high quality research and analysis. (1980, p. 54)

Although research has been accepted as a function of the university, Sesay (1987) indicates that in most African nations, universities are not well integrated into the industrial and agricultural sectors of the economies. Consequently, many African scholars have been involved in applied research focusing on local problems, however, the results of their research have not been implemented, or, as in many cases, these research projects have had limited success.

Rathgeber (1988) postulates five reasons why university-based research in African often fails to contribute to improving society. First, there is the

assumption that the academic researchers (being Africans themselves) are able to identify with the problems of the African common people. However, according to Rathgeber this assumption is false because a barrier exists between the elite and the masses. The African academics are strongly enchanted with the elite of African society. Hence, research becomes a top-down process, and questions are formulated without the opinions of the people who could utilize the outcomes of the research. In many cases, the university develops technologies which are too costly and complicated for the peasant farmers. This practice demonstrates that there is no intimate understanding between the African research and the user agency in the society. Moreover, researchers often do not consider whether their technologies will be used by males or females. This is because research in science and technology is often carried on by males, although technologies are to be used primarily by females.

Third, university-based research is often carried on in a vacuum, and little effort is made to disseminate the results outside the university. Rathgeber points that although there has been a considerable emphasis on research among African academics, a large percentage of their research findings are not incorporated into the mainstream of African development planning. Fourth, government-sponsored research is often directed towards improving cash

crops, and little money is left for applied research on the problems of the peasant smallholder. Finally, African universities attach more importance to research projects which are similar to those carried on in highly developed countries than applied research geared toward the local problems. Therefore, researchers who concentrate on applied research stand the risk of little financial support and setbacks in promotion and recognition.

Lehtinen (1987) suggests a way to resolve the problems discussed above. He states that each researcher or research unit is obligated to present the results of the study for public examination and criticism. His reasons for this practice are twofold. First, the researcher could get feedback about the correctness and relevance of his research. In addition, this practice eliminates the waste of resources in unnecessary repetition of similar investigations.

Besides the problems identified by Rathgeber, Moshia (1986) asserts that another problem with research activities in Africa is that despite the attention given to research, there are no institutions specialized and coordinated to deal with the problem-oriented studies. Rathgeber (1988) also observes that research among African academics is done mostly by lower levels of the academic hierarchy. Many senior academics are often engaged in business activities. Another criticism of university-based research is that

although production of research is stressed as a means of promotion, the production of research is measured by publication output and has little to do with the relevancy or implementation of the research findings (1988).

Lehtinen (1987) explains that there are two kinds of research, fundamental and applied. Fundamental research is a theoretical investigation with the purpose of producing new generalizable knowledge. On the other hand, the main purpose of applied research is to solve some particular problem, and it is only indirectly concerned with production of new knowledge. Mosha (1986) notes that like other universities in the world, African universities are expected to undertake both fundamental and applied research. However, he cautions that universities should be able to discern which type of research carries greater priority for national development. The Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Co-operation (NUFFIC) (1978) argues that although current demands show that research should be geared wherever possible to development issues and should be directed at solving basic needs, "research in a problem-oriented context may, however, throw up fundamental questions requiring investigation by the university concern" (p. 65). Mosha agrees that "when answers to such questions are sought, there would be a significant contribution to theory" (1986, p. 104). In a similar vein, Long argues that:

Instruction and research is service of the highest order and places a high priority on service activities that link the university and community in further pursuit and search for knowledge. The service mission must always be kept in appropriate balance with instructional and research strengths and resources of the institution. (1977, p. 75)

In response, Mosha maintains that the chronic problems of Africa should be given the highest priority for research so that emerging data can be used to solve conditions. According to him, the urgent issues that require immediate attention in Africa include "acute food shortage and famine, disease, political instability, flux of ideologies and unguided political experimentations, ethnic and religious tensions, fast growing populations, drought, poor technological input, and sometimes laziness" (1986, p. 105). Rathgeber suggests that the university should do everything to break down the barrier between the elite and the masses.

#### Inter-University Cooperation

Many African writers on education are strongly convinced that one effective means by which universities can overcome their problems is an efficient system of cooperation and consultation among their institutions (Kirya, 1987; Makany, 1983; Tshibangu-Tshishiku, 1978; Mosha, 1986). Makany (1983) states that there is a strong conviction among African universities that cooperation is the present and future solution of university problems. Kirya (1987) points out that cooperation among universities

in Africa is a necessity because it will help to maximize the use of the limited resources in a manner that would enhance the social, economic, and cultural development of the countries. He explains that individually and collectively the countries and universities in Africa face critical shortages of manpower, finances, and facilities which adversely affect the work of higher education. Inter-university cooperation is the most cost-effective means of addressing these shortages.

Beder (1984) comments that cooperation among universities should be promoted by all possible means because it has a mutual reciprocal benefit, and it will promote continuous professional contact and communication. The Economic Commission of Africa (1982) explains that cooperation is required if Africa is to meet its own scientific and technical advice requirements and obviate the need for imported consultancy services which currently constitute a major foreign exchange drain.

Several areas have been suggested where cooperation among African universities is needed, for example in the production and dissemination of research findings. According to Beder, this would help to "maximize efficiency, reduce harmful competition, and mutually assist each others' efforts" (1984, p. 7). Cooperation in the production and publication of textbooks, journals, and magazines would help alleviate the acute shortage of printed educational



materials in Africa. Again, cooperation is desirable in the field of teaching and research through the exchange of students, staff, and staff development techniques (Makany, 1983). This will help to reduce dependence on expatriate academics and will provide the much needed university academics and manpower. Moreover, cooperation is needed in conducting external examinations. Many African universities look to Europe, America, Canada, and other overseas countries for external examiners. Cooperation in this area will help them depend on each other for external examiners (Kamba, 1984). Furthermore, cooperation is desirable in creating regional centers of research and specialization.

Inter-university cooperation in Africa is recommended at three levels: continental, regional, and bilateral. Inter-university cooperation at the continental level is required and is possible because of the number of universities in Africa. Makany (1983) explains that it is possible to think of programs covering all fields at the university level. He adds that cooperation at this level should create networks of institutions that specialize in specific fields and create scientific or professional associations. Cooperation at the regional level involves setting up centers or institutes of research and high level training for the benefit of countries in a particular region. It also involves association of the institutions and the academics of that region to provide a forum for

discussion on matter relating to higher education in order to help maintain high standards and to contribute to the development of that region (Murphree & Ngara, 1984).

Bilateral cooperation primarily involves two universities agreeing to be involved with each other in different areas, for example, student exchange programs.

Besides the above three levels of involvement, international cooperation is being discussed. This involves an African university relating with overseas institutions or agencies. Makany (1983) explains that instead of international assistance (which is common among overseas and African universities), universities should promote international cooperation, which means that each partner draws some benefit directly or indirectly from the cooperation.

Inter-university cooperation is a very popular topic; however, accomplishing it is not without problems. Makany observes that the first obstacle encountered in this endeavor is "a tenacious mistrust which was once created and maintained through colonialization--mistrust between writers who followed Belgian, English, and American university systems" (1983, p. 21). This problem makes it difficult to decide where the common facilities should be located. The second obstacle is the diversity of working languages in Africa: English, French, Arabic, and Portuguese. Obviously, the most important problem is insufficient funds

to finance the programs and projects that will significantly effect the cooperation. Another crucial problem is the attitude of the sponsoring government to the cooperative projects.

Continent-wide cooperatives should be undertaken cautiously because such projects can be superficial and may "concentrate on general issues that all the participants can easily decipher, and thus sacrifice disciplinary rigor" (Mosha, 1988, p. 104). Developing such cooperative projects takes time and requires the understanding and support of those involved at the different levels of participation. It also demands a reward system that is clear and roles, tasks, and relationships that are well structured and specified.

#### University and Government Relationships

The "honeymoon" of the "strange wedding" between the African governments and universities at the beginning of the post-independence era did not last very long. The burden of role expectation demanded from each other (which for various reasons, neither could adequately fulfill, led to an uneasy relationship between them. Court (1980) explains that in the early years of independence the responsibility of the universities to contribute to national policy demanded an intimate association between the university and the government. He also adds that because the governments finance the universities and employ most of the graduates,

the governments have assumed a dominant voice in decisions about what happens inside the universities. Rathgeber states that relations between universities and governments in Africa can "best be described as mutually suspicious" (1988, p. 405). Universities are faced with the problem of how they can fulfill their political obligation of helping the nations solve their political crises without converting into propaganda instruments or ideological institutes (Mazrui, 1970). In the process of fulfilling this obligation, African universities are becoming academically detached and are attempting to be apolitical in their ethos. However, Mazrui stipulates that the governments, on the other hand, in their desperation for change, may respond:

In our present state of underdevelopment, we want commitment and not detachment, involved creativity rather than academic objectivity. An institution of such important political consequences cannot afford to be apolitical in its ethos. (1970, p. 78)

MacKenzie (1986) cites several instances to demonstrate the suspicious attitudes of many governments toward universities and their activities. Most African political leaders suspect the reactions of universities to governments' policies as defiant and subversive. According to Makulu (1971), governments often see university academics and students as potential enemies waiting to pounce on the state and assume power. Moreover, some political leaders feel that universities have not endeavored to help governments establish realistic priorities nor advised them on the

effect of choices made (Mosha, 1986). If a large sum of money is spent on universities, the argument runs, then what they offer should be in line with what the government wants (MacKenzie, 1986).

Universities, on the other hand, see their autonomy and academic freedom being threatened by the governments. The universities fear becoming tools of the governments in power or merely departments of a government machinery, a state which will make them cease to be universities (Kwapong, 1980). In addition, many African governments often suffer political upheavals, and only few of them have been able to live up to their commitments. Moreover, a change of political leadership is often accompanied by a change from one ideology to another and a purge in the civil service. Close involvement with the overthrown government often makes one an enemy of the one in power. Hence, African academics tend to maintain a certain degree of distance from the government (Rathgeber, 1988). MacKenzie observes that the universities tend to "live rather uneasily in the shadow of their political masters and with a good cause" (1986, p. 119).

Abibi (1980) postulates that the mistrust between the universities and governments in some cases can be attributed to the fact that the attempt to create universities led to the creation of sovereign institutions and not instruments for development. MacKenzie also notes that universities

have always been vulnerable to government control because the government is always anxious to enhance or protect its power; hence, it becomes extremely interested in how higher education is managed.

The main reason why the governments in Africa are very influential in the universities is that the constitutions of the nations provide them the power over the universities. For instance, in many countries in Africa, the heads of state are also designated as the chancellors or the heads of the universities. In some countries, the chairman and the majority of the members of each university governing council are appointed by the government. In addition, the governments appoint the executive heads of the universities.

There are some inherent dangers attached to government control of the universities. MacKenzie identifies three such dangers: First, it can lead to an outrageous meddling of governments in the affairs of the universities. MacKenzie validates this argument by citing experiences from the University of Lagos, the University of Ghana, and Makerere University in Uganda. Second, the government's control may make the university become an "acquiescent and unchallenging part of the social fabric" (1986, p. 117), but that would deny the nation one of the most fruitful and historically beneficial functions of such an institution. The ability of the university to monitor and comment with a degree of freedom on the position and progress of the

society would be forfeited. However, it is the nation as a whole which suffers. MacKenzie argues that in the politicians' attempt to suppress dissenting voices within the society, with the view of promoting national progress and well-being, they "may be working to the detriment of the goals they seek to achieve" (1986, p. 181). The third inherent danger that surfaces from government control over universities is that it restricts the ability of the university to obtain funds from international agencies. MacKenzie points out that international funding agencies feel reluctant to channel funds into an institution that is shackled to ideological objectives.

#### Conclusion

From the above review of literature, it is evident that African politicians, educators, and commentators are convinced that their dreams of a better and developed Africa could be realized through the contributions of the African University. Hence, they are allotting a large percentage of Africa's scanty resources to the universities, hoping that universities will help solve African economic, social, political, and cultural problems. However, because of some critical problems, African universities have not been able to adequately fulfill this phenomenal obligation placed on them by their societies. This failure has caused the universities to arouse the criticism and suspicion of their

societies as a whole and their governments in particular. Nevertheless, the literature points out that the governments and the universities must share the responsibility for the inadequacies of the institutions of higher learning.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

#### The Population

The population of this study was the educators of higher education in English-speaking Middle Africa. The population consisted of 50 universities located in 15 countries. The countries and universities are listed below. Established date refers to the beginning of the institution, and founded date indicates when the institution received university status.

#### A. Botswana

##### University of Botswana

Established as a constituent college of the University of Botswana and Swaziland in 1976. Founded as a full university in 1982. Enrollment 1,700 full time, 357 part time (1986-87).

#### B. Ethiopia

##### 1. Addis Ababa University

Founded in 1961 as Haile Selassie I University. Present title was adopted in 1975. Enrollment 11,758 (1985-86).

2. University of Asmara

Founded as a university in 1958. Enrollment 604 (1985-86).

C. Gambia

None

D. Ghana

1. University of Cape Coast

Established in 1962 as the University College of Cape Coast. Founded in 1971 with full university status. Enrollment 1,492 (1986-87).

2. University of Ghana

Established in 1948 as University College of the Gold Coast. Founded in 1961 with full university status. Enrollment 3,421 full time, 56 part time (1986-87).

3. University of Science and Technology

Established in 1951 as Kumasi College of Technology. Founded in 1971 with full university status. Enrollment 3,085 (1984-85).

E. Kenya

1. Egerton University

Established in 1939. Founded in 1987 with university status. Enrollment 1,532 (1986-87).

2. Kenyatta University

Established in 1972 as Kenyatta University

College. Founded in 1985 with university status.  
Enrollment 5,241 (1987-88).

3. Moi University

Founded in 1984 with university status.  
Enrollment 112 (1985-86).

4. University of Nairobi

Established in 1956 as Royal Technical College.  
Founded in 1970 with university status.  
Enrollment 6,359 full time, 297 part time (1986-87).

F. Liberia

University of Liberia

Established in 1862 as Liberia College. Founded as a  
university in 1951. Enrollment 3,320 (1986).

G. Malawi

University of Malawi

Founded as a university in 1964. Enrollment 2,177  
(1986-87).

H. Nigeria

1. Ahmadu Bello University

Founded as a university in 1962. Enrollment  
18,227 (1984-85).

2. Anambra State University

Founded as a university in 1980. Enrollment 3,706  
(1986-87).

3. Bayero University  
Established in 1960 as Amado Bello College.  
Founded in 1977 with university status.  
Enrollment 3,948 (1986-87).
4. Bendel State University  
Founded as a university in 1981. Enrollment 4,182  
(1986-87).
5. University of Benin  
Founded as a university in 1970. Enrollment  
10,413 (1986-87).
6. University of Calabar  
Founded in 1975 as a university. Enrollment 4,780  
(1985-86).
7. University of Cross River State  
Founded as a university in 1983. Enrollment 2,985  
(1985-86).
8. Federal University of Akure  
Founded as a university in 1981. Enrollment 419  
(1984-85).
9. Federal University of Minna  
Founded as a university in 1983. Enrollment 568  
(1985-86).
10. Federal University of Owerri  
Founded as a university in 1980. Enrollment 1,010  
(1985-86).

11. University of Ibadan  
Established in 1948 as the University College.  
Founded with full university status in 1962.  
Enrollment 11,985 full time, 385 part time.
12. University of Ilorin  
Founded as a university in 1977. Enrollment 5,524  
full time, 293 part time (1986-87).
13. Imoh State University  
Founded as a university in 1981. Enrollment 2,660  
(1986-87).
14. University of Jos  
Established in 1971 as University of Ibadan, Jos.  
Founded in 1975 with full university status.  
Enrollment 5,449 (1985-86).
15. University of Lagos  
Founded as a university in 1962. Enrollment  
11,078 full time, 4,027 by correspondence (1985-  
86).
16. Lagos State University  
Founded as a university in 1983. Enrollment 2,695  
(1986-87).
17. University of Maiduguri  
Founded as a university in 1975. Enrollment 5,751  
(1986-87).

18. University of Nigeria  
Founded as a university in 1960. Enrollment  
12,011 full time, 287 part time (1986-87).
19. Obafemi Awolowo University  
Founded in 1961 as University of Ife. Enrollment  
113,582 full time, 1,225 part time (1986-87).
20. Ogun State University  
Founded as a university in 1982. Enrollment 2,393  
(1986-87).
21. Ondo State University  
Founded as a university in 1982. Enrollment 1,287  
(1984-85).
22. University of Port Harcourt  
Established in 1975 as a university college.  
Founded with full university status in 1977.  
Enrollment 3,521 (1985-86).
23. River State University  
Founded in 1980 with university status.  
Enrollment 2,932 full time, 126 part time (1986-  
87).
24. University of Sokoto  
Founded in 1975 with university status.  
Enrollment 3,487 (1986-87).

I. Sierra Leone

University of Leone

Established in 1876 as Fourah Bay College. Founded in 1966 with full university status. Enrollment 2,348 (1986-87).

J. Sudan

1. University of Khartoum

Founded in 1951 as a university. Enrollment 8,000 (1981-82).

2. Cairo University, Khartoum Branch

Founded as a university in 1955. Enrollment 9,000 (1981-82).

3. University of Gezira

Founded in 1975 as a university. Enrollment 807 (1981-82).

4. University of Juba

Founded in 1975 as a university. Enrollment 430 (1981-82).

5. Omdurman Islamic University

Founded in 1924 as a university. Enrollment 1,767 (1981-82).

K. Swaziland

University of Swaziland

Established in 1976 as University College of Swaziland, a constituent of the University of Botswana and Swaziland. Founded in 1982 as a full university. Enrollment 1,287 full time, 311 part time (1986-87).

## L. Tanzania

## 1. University of Dar es Salaam

Established in 1961 as University College of Dar es Salaam. Founded in 1970 as a full university. Enrollment 2,891 (1987-88).

## 2. Sokoine University of Agriculture

Founded in 1984 as a university. Enrollment 631 (1986-87).

## M. Uganda

## Makerere University

Established in 1922 as Makerere College. Founded in 1970 with university status. Enrollment 5,042 (1984-85)

## N. Zambia

## 1. University of Zambia

Founded as a university in 1965. Enrollment 3,618 (1986-87).

## 2. Copperbelt University

Established previously as constituent college of the University of Zambia. Founded in 1988 as a university. Enrollment 417 (1986-87).

## O. Zimbabwe

## University of Zimbabwe

Founded in 1955 (was incorporated as the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland). Enrollment 5,137 full time, 1670 part time (1986-87).



### Selection of the Sample

The sample consisted of the oldest and largest universities in each of the 15 countries. Because Gambia does not have a university, a total of 14 universities was selected. After the institutions had been chosen, a sample from three categories of educators associated with each of the universities was selected. The three categories of educators were university administrators, faculty members, and government representatives of higher education. From each of the 14 universities, two officials from each of the three categories (six per university) were selected to be included in the sample.

The universities selected for the study were the University of Botswana, Addis Ababa University, the University of Ghana, the University of Nairobi, the University of Liberia, the University of Malawi, the University of Ibadan, the University of Sierra Leone, the University of Khartoum, the University of Swaziland, the University of Dar es Sallam, Makerere University, the University of Zambia, and the University of Zimbabwe. After these institutions had been selected, a list of all the administrators and faculty members of each of the institutions was created using the Directory of Commonwealth Universities. From the list, faculty members were randomly selected as potential subjects of the study. The top four

administrators from each institutions were selected as potential subjects.

#### Pre-interview Process

After the sample was selected, letters were sent to the potential subjects requesting their participation in the study (Appendix B). The reasons for sending the request letter were as follows:

1. To explain the purpose of the study;
2. to explain to participants the vital role they could play as informants for the study;
3. to request their participation in the study;
4. to explain the data-collecting process;
5. to send material introducing the subject matter;
6. to send the study questions in advance so that participants could prepare before the interview;
7. to explain what benefits would accrue from the study;
8. to assure confidentiality to participants; and,
9. to inform participants of the date and length of time that the researcher would be in their area.

The representatives of higher education to be interviewed were not selected until the researcher was in each country. When the researcher arrived in each country, he went to the Ministry of Education in that country and inquired about those in charge of higher education. He

scheduled an appointment with the Minister of Higher Education, his assistant, or a representative in the Ministry. During the appointment, the researcher explained the nature of the study and its purposes to the officer. He then requested that the officer participate in the study. If the officer could not participate, he referred the researcher to one of his subordinates. The researcher then gave the official materials introducing the subject matter of the study, the study questions, and scheduled an interview with him or her.

In the case of the administrators and faculty members, on arrival on the campus of a particular institution, a direction was sought to the main administration offices of the institution. An introduction and the purpose of the visit were given to the secretary. After the introduction, the secretary was shown a copy of the participant letter which was sent earlier to the administrators. Then, an appointment was scheduled to see the official. During the appointment, the nature and purposes of the study were explained to the official. Then, the researcher requested the official's participation in the study. If the official consented, the researcher scheduled an interview with him or her and made sure that he or she had a copy of the materials introducing the subject of study and the study questions.

In many cases, the administrators referred the researcher to other administrators on the campus who they

felt were key informants on the subject of study. These people tended to be key informants because they often represented the institution in developmental issues, contacts with the community, and in conferences such as that of the Association of African Universities (AAU). In other cases, instead of an administrator scheduling an interview, or referring to a key informant, he gave the researcher an article or a report which he had written on the subject under study. The information from such articles or reports was included in the analysis of data.

In the case of the faculty members, an initial appointment was made with those to whom the participant letters were sent. In this initial appointment, the nature and purposes of the study were reviewed. Then, the faculty member was asked to be an informant or to refer the researcher to some key informants. If he or she were willing to participate, an interview was scheduled with him or her. If the faculty member referred the researcher to other informants, those other informants were contacted and interview appointments were requested after the researcher made sure they had been given a full explanation of the study's purposes. They were left the introductory material and the study questions.

An interview guide (Appendix C) was prepared to be used in the course of the interviews. The interview guide was prepared to make sure that essentially the same information

was obtained from all the interviewees. In addition, the interview guide was used to make sure that the time available during the interview was used efficiently. The interview guide also helped "make interviewing different people more systematic and comprehensive by delimiting the issues to be discussed in the interview" (Patton, 1987, p. 111).

### Pilot Study

A pilot study was carried on with four members of the staff of the AAU at their headquarters in Accra, Ghana. The pilot study was conducted to determine whether the planned interview questions (Appendix C) and procedures would produce reliable data for the study.

The pilot study helped the researcher determine that the planned interview procedures and schedule were adequate to produce reliable data for the study. It also helped the interviewer to modify the questions to be more effective for the interviews. It also alerted the interviewer to potential communication problems, length of average time needed for each interview, and the potential problems with tape recording in Africa. Furthermore, the pilot study helped to check the vocabulary, language, and the respondents' understanding of the study questions and their reactions to the interview. In summary, the pilot study helped the researcher to prepare adequately for the

interviews ahead. Because all the subjects of the pilot study were African educators and could be classified as key informants, the data collected from them were included in the data analysis.

#### Interview Process

On the day of an interview appointment, the interviewer went to the participant's office about half an hour early. After introductory interaction, a place was set for the interview. The tape recorder was then mounted, and care was taken that everything was set for the interview. The interviewer made efforts to build rapport and trust at the beginning of the interview in order to gain valid insight regarding informant's point of view. After that had been accomplished, the interviewer began by asking demographic questions, which were followed by the descriptive questions.

On the whole, 80 interviews were conducted within a period of 18 months; the first on March 12, 1987, and the last on September 21, 1988. All 80 interviews were conducted by the researcher. Apart from one which was conducted in the participant's home, all the interviews were conducted at the offices of the participants, and all were conducted privately. Likewise, all the interviews were recorded by note taking and tape recording except on two occasions in the same country when the interviewer had to turn off the tape recorder in the middle of the interview.

The reason for this action was that the interviewer discovered the participants were extremely uncomfortable with the tape recording, perhaps, because of the political tones of what they had to say.

Moreover, the researcher could not go into one country as originally scheduled because of political unrest at the time. However, he interviewed three educators from that country outside the country. In addition, the researcher had to abandon two interviews in a particular institution because of student unrest on the campus.

Generally, the interviews proceeded without appreciable interruption, but, periodically, they were interrupted by probes to clarify and explain some points. The interview schedule was followed carefully during the interview sessions. While attempts were made to allow the interviewee to digress to cover particular areas of experience, when possible, the interviewee was brought back to answer particular questions as accurately possible.

The average length of time for an interview was one hour and forty minutes. The longest interview lasted two hours and fifteen minutes. The shortest interview lasted half an hour. It was prearranged to be that short, because that was all the time the participant could spare. In some few cases, a lengthy discussion was held after the interview was closed. The discussion was usually about the subject of the study and the importance of such study. All interviews

were ended with questions about extra information or knowledge that some other key informant might contribute to the study.

#### Post-interview Process

Within a week of each interview, the investigator listened to the tape to make sure that his handwritten notes contained the essential data of the interview. The services of two part time secretaries were employed to transcribe the data from the tapes into transcripts.

#### Explanation of Methodology

Qualitative research methodology was the basis for the design of this study. Hence, the data collected from the personal interviews was analyzed qualitatively. Qualitative analysis involves organizing the data, breaking it into "manageable units, synthesizing the data, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what was to be learned, and deciding how and what would be explained to others" (Dobbert, 1982, p. 145). The qualitative explanation is sometimes known as the ethnoscientific explanation.

Dobbert describes the four levels of description, classification, comparison, and explanation of the data. Spradley (1979) describes other steps of the ethnoscience process as the Development Research Sequence. This involves twelve steps. The first three steps deal with the



techniques used for locating the informants and collecting the data. The next eight steps deal with the analysis of the data. The last step deals with writing of the ethnograph. Miles and Huberman (1984) also describe three concurrent flows of activities in doing qualitative data analysis. The three flows are data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing or verification.

All the three methods of doing qualitative data analysis are very similar, as illustrated in Table 1. Moreover, all three methods were used as reference sources, but the three flows of qualitative data analysis reported by Miles and Huberman (1984) were used in analyzing the data of this study.

Data reduction, the first flow of activity, refers to the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the raw data that appear in the written field notes and the transcribed recordings. This continued throughout the research until the final report was completed. The data reduction involved analytic choices such as to which data chunk to code, which to pull out, which patterns to summarize a number of chunks, and what the evolving story was. Therefore, data reduction was the form of analysis that was used to sharpen, sort, focus, discard, and organize the data in such a way that the final conclusions could be drawn and verified.

Table 1

Structure of Ethnoscience Explanation for Analysis of Data

Method of Spradley	Definition by Dobbert	Miles/Huberman Flow
Step 4. Asking descriptive questions	Level I. Description grouping terms elicited from participants into categories based on similarity and difference	Flow I. Data reduction: select focus, simplify, abstract, and transform data
Step 5. Analyzing interviews		
Step 6. Making category analysis		
Step 7. Asking structural questions	Level II. Classification, finding dimensions and boundaries of categories	
Step 8. Making taxonomic analysis		
Step 9. Asking contrasting questions	Level III. Comparison, uncovering relationships between categories and making meaning tables	Flow II. Data display: organize and assemble information, charts, tables
Step 10. Making componential analysis		

Table 1 --Continued

Method of Spradley	Definition by Dobbert	Miles/Huberman Flow
Step 11. Making theme analysis and writing brief statements of assertions	Level IV. Explanation, discovering principles behind meanings of participants shown in meaning tables for a picture of the overall cognitive orientation of the group under study	

Note. From The ethnographic interview by J. Spradley. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston, 1979, pp. 156-157. Ethnographic research by M. Dobbert. New York: Praeger, 1982, pp. 128-137. Qualitative data analysis by M. Miles and M. Huberman. London: Sage Publication, 1984, pp. 21-24.

Data display, the second flow of activity, refers to an organized assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action taking. This flow fosters the understanding of what is happening. The further action or analysis of the data is based on that understanding. The display flow includes many types of matrices, graphs, networks, and charts designed to present information in an immediately accessible, compact form so that the analyst can see what is happening and either draw justified conclusions or move to the next step of analysis.

Conclusion drawing or verification refers to the analyst's process of testing the meanings that emerge from the data. This is related to Dobbert's fourth level. It involves discovering principles behind participants' statements. It is also equivalent to Spradley's eleventh step of making theme analysis and writing brief statements of assertions. The flow model of the components of data analysis as reported by Miles and Huberman (1984) is illustrated in Figure 1. In this case the three streams of data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing verification are interwoven before, during, and after data collection in a parallel form to make up the general domain of analysis.

The three streams can also be represented by an Interactive Model, as shown in Figure 2. In this model, the three types of analysis and the activity of data collection

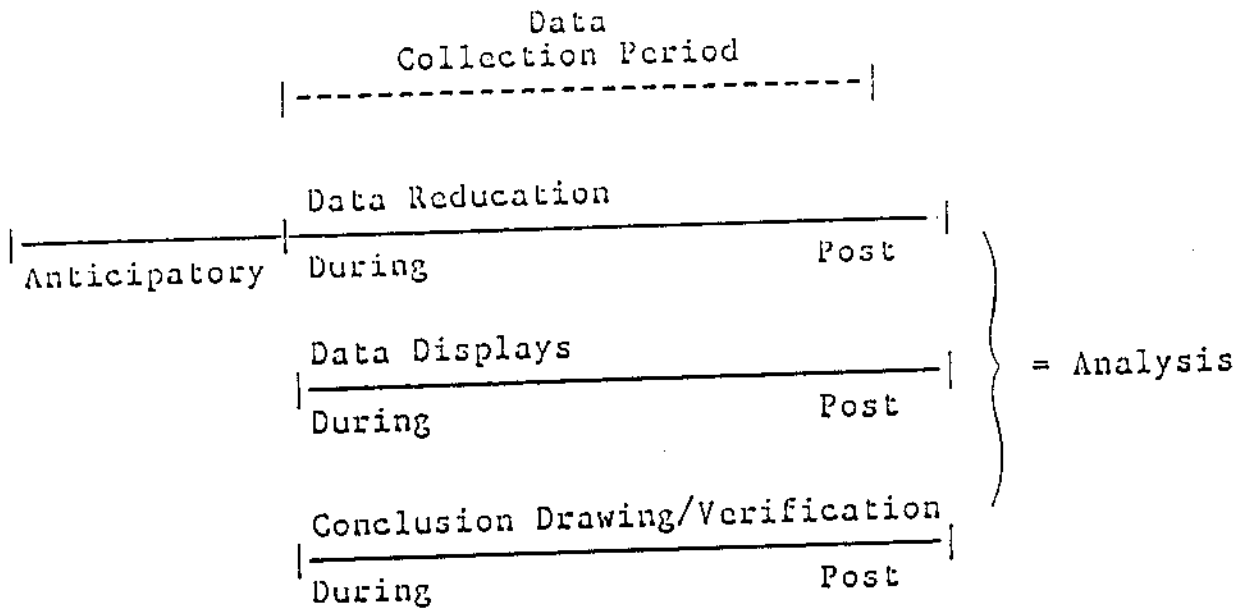


Figure 1. Components of Data Analysis: Flow Model

Source: Qualitative data by M. Miles & M. Huberman. London: Sage Publications, 1984, p. 77.

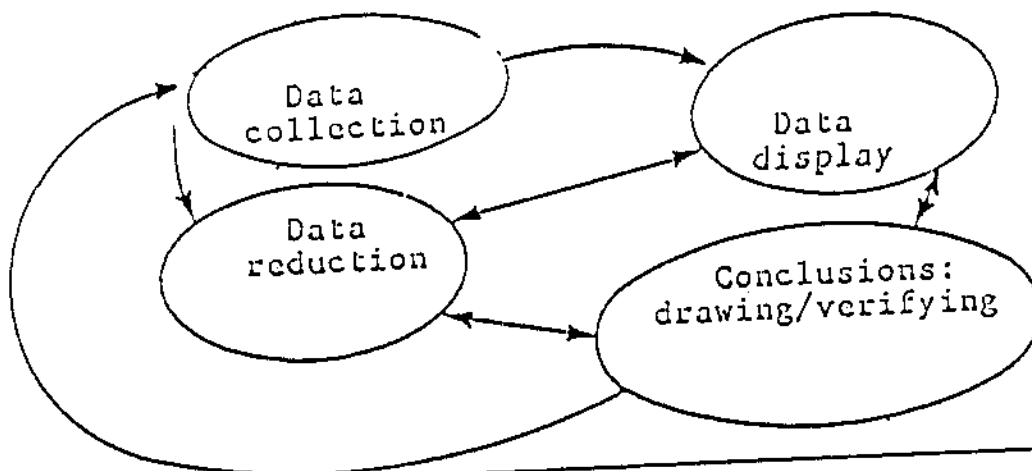


Figure 2. Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model

Source: Qualitative data by M. Miles & M. Huberman. London: Sage Publications, 1984, p. 23.

are components of an interactive, cyclical process. Thus, qualitative data analysis is a continuous interactive enterprise. Data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing come into figure successively as analysis episodes follow each other.

The interactive Model influenced the collection of the data, but basically the components of the Flow Model were used to analyze the data in this study. The Interactive Model influenced the data collection in the sense that when a new theme or issue was discovered in the coding of the data from an interview, that new idea was explored in more detail in the next interview. That new idea or theme also led the researcher to add another column to the matrix or chart for conclusion drawing. The following describes the way the Miles/Huberman Flow Model was used to analyze the data of this study.

#### Data Reduction

In this area of analysis, choices were made as to which data chunks to code. The various themes were chosen, and the data were organized under the various themes. The themes chosen were as follows:

1. The characteristics of the participants, that is, demographic data describing the participants. Their personal information, academic preparation, and professional information were coded. This was done to help the reader compare the participants and to gain insights into their

background and patterns of behaviors. Participants' reasons for becoming involved with universities were put under this theme. The numbers of participants who behaved in certain patterns and the various higher education clubs and associations to which they belonged were summarized. The differences between the various categories were also summarized.

2. Educators' familiarity with the Tananarive Conference was put under another theme. Distinctions were made between the participants who had previous knowledge of the recommendations from the original source, those who had previous knowledge of the recommendations from a secondary source, and those who had no previous knowledge of the recommendations. Those who had previous knowledge from the original source were those who were themselves at the Tananarive Conference or those who had read the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization's report on the Conference. Those who had previous knowledge from secondary sources were those who had heard about the recommendations from a colleague, or had read about it from some other book or article. Those who had no previous knowledge were those who saw the recommendations for the first time during this study.

3. Educators' evaluation of the recommendations. What different participants thought about each of the seven recommendations was summarized. Each of the seven

recommendations was put under a separate heading, and discussions were held on them. Participants' reasons for rendering the recommendation realistic or unrealistic for the African situation were also summarized. Quotations by some participants were used to validate the arguments in the summary paragraphs.

4. The effects of the recommendations on the participants' educational objectives. In this area too, the various ways the recommendations have affected different groups of participants were enumerated and paraphrased.

5. Educators' implementation of the Tananarive recommendations. The different areas where participants have been involved in implementation of the recommendations were summarized. In addition, the various organizations and associations through which participants have implemented the recommendations were listed. The fields in which implementation have taken place were also discussed.

6. The institutions' implementation of the recommendations. The general and specific areas in which the institutions have been involved in implementing the Tananarive recommendations were paraphrased. One of the specific means by which African universities are implementing their role on the Continent is through the Association of African Universities. Therefore, the background, purposes, and program of activities of the association were summarized. Involvement of institutions in



the various activities of the association was summarized. Some particular institutions were selected to illustrate the involvement of the institutions in some of the activities of the association.

7. Implementation of the Tananarive recommendations by the nations. The responses of the governments of the African nations to the Tananarive recommendations were noted. Subsequent involvement of some of the African nations in some of the activities of higher education in their countries were paraphrased. The organizations, associations, and groups, either political or educational, which the various African governments have used to contribute to the work of higher education in Africa were classified.

8. The problems encountered in the implementation of the Tananarive recommendations. All the problems of which the participants were aware were listed, and each was summarized, indicating how each affected the implementation of the recommendations.

9. Resolutions of the above problems. The resolutions suggested by the participants were paraphrased and listed according to the problems.

10. The role of higher education in Africa. Educators' personal opinions as to what the role of higher education should be in Africa were summarized and quotations from the transcripts were used to validate each summary.

### Display of the Data

Reduction of the data led to the display of data in the process of analysis. This section was designed to assemble the reduced data in an immediately accessible, compact form so the next stage could be easily discussed. The charts and figures were used to describe certain aspects of the themes that were coded in the data reduction. For instance, examination of Table 2 reveals certain information about the participants: their country of origin, age, sex, marital status, position in the university, academic qualification, field of study, country where participant was trained, position, and date of the interview are shown.

How some selected institutions have expanded to accommodate the growing needs of their various countries is shown in Table 3. It portrays how undergraduate enrollment in the combined institutions, for example, has risen from 2,193 to 11,073 during the last fifteen years. Table 4 indicates how the University of Nairobi, one of the institutions in the sample, has worked towards Africanization of the institution. The steady increase in the number of Kenyans on the academic staff of the institution is observed in this table. Table 5 shows how the same university has been involved in staff exchange programs to help ease the staff shortage problems in African universities. The table portrays the pattern of cooperation between external examiners from the University of Nairobi

Table 2

Characteristics of the Participants of the Study

Country	Sex	Category of Informant	Degree	Field	Country Where Degree was Awarded
Sudan	M	A	Ph.D.	Chemistry	Sudan
Chad	M	A	M.A.	English	Chad
Congo	M	A	B.A.	Education	Congo
Congo	M	G/A	Ph.D.	Botany	France
Ghana	M	G	M.Sc.	Math	Ghana
Ghana	F	G	M.A.	African Studies	Ghana
Ghana	M	F	Ph.D.	Botany	Holland
Ghana	M	F	Ph.D.	Agriculture	Canada
Ghana	M	A	Js.D.	Law	U.S.A.
Ghana	M	A	L.L.B.	Law	Britain
Zambia	F	F	Ph.D.	Linguistics	Britain
Zambia	M	F	Ph.D.	Education	France
Zambia	F	A	B.A.	Sociology	Zambia
Zambia	M	A	M.A.	Education	Britain
Zambia	M	G	Ph.D.		Britain
Zambia	M	G	B.A.	Education	Zambia
Malawi	M	A	M.Sc.	Administration	Britain
Malawi	M	A	M.A.	Administration	U.S.A.
Malawi	M	F	Ph.D.	Chemistry	Britain
Malawi	M	G	B.Soc.	Sociology	Malawi
Kenya	M	F	Ph.D.	Medicine	Britain
Kenya	M	F	Ph.D.	Medicine	Britain
Kenya	M	A	M.S.	Finance	U.S.A.
Kenya	M	G	MA	Education	Britain
Kenya	F	G	B.A.	Education	Kenya
Ethiopia	M	F	M.Sc.	Research	Britain
Ethiopia	M	F	M.Ph.	Philosophy	Britain
Ethiopia	M	A	Ph.D.	Education	U.S.A.
Ethiopia	M	A	Ph.D.	Education	Finland
Ethiopia	M	G	Ph.D.	Education	Britain
Ethiopia	M	G	Ph.D.	Education	Britain
Sudan	M	A	Ph.D.	Math	Britain
Sudan	M	F/G	Ph.D.	Economics	Britain
Sudan	F	F	Ph.D.	Social Studies	Britain
Sudan	M	G	M.A.	Anthropology	Britain
Nigeria	M	A	M.A.	U.S.A.	
Nigeria	M	F	Ph.D.	Agriculture/ Economics	U.S.A.
Nigeria	F	F	M.Sc.	African Studies	Nigeria
Nigeria	M	A	Ph.D.	Economics	Britain
Nigeria	M	G	Ph.D.	Education	Britain
Nigeria	M	G	M.A.	Education	Nigeria
Botswana	M	F	Ph.D.	History	Britain
Botswana	M	A	M.A.	Education	Britain
Botswana	M	F	Ph.D.	Statistics	U.S.A.
Botswana	M	A	Ph.D.	Education	U.S.A.
Botswana	M	G	B.A.	Economics	

Table 2--Continued

Country	Sex	Category of Informant	Degree	Field	Country Where Degree was Awarded
Botswana	M	G	M.Ed.	Education	U.S.A.
Swaziland	F	A	B.Com.	Communications	Swaziland
Swaziland	M	F	M.B.A.	Business	U.S.A.
Swaziland	M	G		Education	
Swaziland	M	F	Ph.D.	Biology	Britain
Swaziland	M	A	M.Ed.	Education	U.S.A.
Swaziland	M	G	B.Sc.	Economics	
Zimbabwe	M	A	Ph.D.	Geophysics	Britain
Zimbabwe	F	A	M.Sc.	Administration	U.S.A.
Zimbabwe	M	G	Ph.D.	Mining	Britain
Zimbabwe	M	F	M.Ed.	Education	Britain
Zimbabwe	M	F	Ph.D.	Agriculture/ Economics	S. Africa
Tanzania	M	G	Ph.D.	Education	Britain
Tanzania	M	G	M.A.	Education	
Tanzania	M	F	Ph.D.	Economics	U.S.A.
Tanzania	M	A	Ph.D.	Education	U.S.A.
Tanzania	F	F	Ph.D.	Botany	Britain
Tanzania	F	A	M.L.S.	Library	Britain
Liberia	M	A	Ph.D.		U.S.A.
Liberia	M	F	M.A.	Economics	U.S.A.
S. Leone	F	F	Ph.D.	Education	U.S.A.
S. Leone	M	F	Ph.D.	Political Sci.	U.S.A.
S. Leone	M	A	M.A.	Finance	Britain
S. Leone	M	A	M.A.	Education	U.S.A.
S. Leone	M	G	Ph.D.		Britain
S. Leone	F	G	M.A.	Education	Britain
Uganda	M	G	M.A.	Education	Uganda
Uganda	M	A	M.A.		Britain
Uganda	M	A	M.Sc.	Science	Britain

Note. A = Administrators, F = Faculty, G = Government

and other African universities between the years 1975 to 1983. Table 6 also shows the number of external examiners from other African universities to the University of Nairobi during the same period. Table 7 shows the number of post-

Table 3

Selected Indices of the Expansion of Universities

University	1964-65	1970-71	1978-79
<b>Nairobi</b>			
Recurrent expenditure (pounds)	676,631	2,597,483	8,319,040
Undergraduate enrollment	635	2,582	4,986
Established academic positions	101	373	890
East Africans in established positions	20	115	350
East Africans as per cent of academic establishment	19	31	39
<b>Dar es Salaam</b>			
Recurrent expenditure (pounds)	206,622	1,500,000	6,270,000
Undergraduate enrollment	227	1,814	2,433
Established academic positions	31	266	392
East Africans in established positions	5	86	211
East Africans as per cent of academic establishment	16	32	54
<b>Makerere</b>			
Recurrent expenditure (pounds)	938,480	1,929,489	6,532,300
Undergraduate enrollment	1,331	2,602	3,654
East Africans in established positions	147	353	617
East Africans as per cent of academic establishment	17	27	16

Note. From "The development ideal in higher education: The experience of Kenya and Tanzania" by D. Court, 1980, Higher Education, 9, p. 680.

graduate students from various African countries admitted to the University of Nairobi during the same period.

The activities of the Association of African Universities (AAU) are displayed in Tables 8 through 11. This association has been the means employed by all the universities in the sample to organize and run activities in the process of implementing some of the Tananarive

recommendations. Table 8 portrays the number of students participating in the Inter-African University Scholarship Program (INTERAF) by universities between 1973 to 1976. The INTERAF program is sponsored by the AAU. Table 9 also shows the INTERAF student program by countries within the same period. The INTERAF students are classified by field of study in Table 10. Table 11 shows the current areas of cooperation, problems involved, and the suggested areas of cooperation for the Inter-University Cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa in 1984.

Table 4

Kenyanization of Academic Staff at the University of  
Nairobi

Faculty	Est	Ks	%	Est	Ks	%	Est	Ks	%	Est	Ks	%
Agriculture	--	--	--	17	6	35	38	10	26	47	14	30
Architecture	21	5	24	32	1	3	39	5	13	41	8	20
Arts	47	21	45	62	35	56	102	50	49	118	67	57
Commerce	17	4	24	24	2	8	40	17	40	40	22	55
Engineering	45	11	24	59	15	25	59	16	27	62	24	39
Law	--	--	--	20	8	40	28	10	36	33	16	48
Medicine	54	10	19	61	22	36	172	45	26	203	77	38
Science	43	18	42	62	26	42	85	34	40	96	32	33
Veterinary Medicine	44	13	30	65	22	34	70	31	44	77	43	56
Institute for Developmental Studies	4	1	25	6	3	50	8	4	50	11	11	100
Institute for African Studies	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	8	6	75
Institute of Computer Science	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	11	1	9
School of Journalism	--	--	--	4	1	25	5	1	20	6	2	33
Institute of Adult Studies	--	--	--	28	20	71	30	25	83	32	28	88
Total	275	83	30	440	161	37	676	248	37	782	351	45

Note. Est = Established number of faculty, Ks = Kenyans, % = percentage of Kenyans. From "The development ideal in higher education: The experience of Kenya and Tanzania" by D. Court, 1980, Higher Education, 2, p. 680.

Table 5

External Examiners from Nairobi to Other African Universities

University	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Lesotho						1	1	1	2	5
Swaziland				1	1	1	2	2	1	8
Botswana					2	1	1	1	1	6
Zambia	1			2	1		3	4	3	14
Zimbabwe						1	2	1	3	7
Malawi				1	2	1	2	1		7
Dar es Salaam	1	1	1	1	7	11	13	8	7	50
Makerere	2	5	6	3	1	4	3	7	5	36
Rwanda										
Burundi										
Addis Ababa							1	1	1	3
Asmara										
Somalia										
Khartoum		1	1		1					3
Juba								1		1
Ibadan			1	2	3	2		1		9
Ife							1	2	1	4
Ahmadu Bello		1	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	15
Nsukka			1	1					3	5
Ghana					1		1	1		3
Lagos				1			1	1	1	4
Total	4	8	11	14	21	24	34	34	30	180

Note. From Inter-university cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa, by M. Murphree & E. Ngara (Eds.), 1984, p. 121.



Table 6  
External Examiners From Other African Universities to  
University of Nairobi

University	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Lesotho										
Swaziland			1	1	1					3
Botswana										
Zambia	4	1	2	2	3	1	2		4	19
Zimbabwe							2		3	5
Malawi				1	2		1		4	8
Dar es Salaam	10	12	17	12	15	13	11		10	100
Makerere	14	25	8	4	7	8	7		9	82
Rwanda										
Burundi										
Addis Ababa	1		1	1	1	2	2		4	12
Asmara										
Somalia										
Khartoum	1	1	2	3	2	3	2		4	18
Juba										
Ibadan	2	2	4	6	5	3	2		2	26
Ife	2	1		1						4
Ahmadu Bello				1	2				1	4
Nsukka	1	1		2	2	3	1		1	11
Lagos	2		3	2			1		1	9
Benin				1	1	2	1			5
Calabar					2	1	1		1	5
Other Nigerian Universities			1	1	1	1	1			5

Table 6--Continued

University	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Ghana	3	3	9	15	11	7	1		3	52
Sierra Leone	1		1	2	2					6
Egypt	1	1				1	1			4
Total	42	47	49	55	57	45	36		47	378

Note. From Inter-university cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa (p. 103), by M. Murphree & E. Ngara (Eds.), 1984, Harare: AESAU.

Table 7

Post-Graduate Students From Various African Countries  
Admitted 1975-83 to the University of Nairobi

Country	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	Total
Lesotho	-	-	-	2	4	3	3	-	4	16
Swaziland	-	-	4	1	4	2	1	-	2	14
Botswana	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
Zambia	-	-	5	1	6	5	4	-	10	31
Zimbabwe	3	1	1	2	1	4	-	-	3	15
Malawi	1	3	5	2	4	2	4	-	5	26
Tanzani	9	16	16	18	4	3	12	-	22	100
Uganda	16	28	18	19	21	15	25	-	29	291
Burundi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rwanda	-	-	1	-	2	1	1	-	-	5
Sudan	-	1	6	1	5	5	2	-	3	23
Somalia	-	-	-	-	7	-	2	-	9	18
Ethiopia	-	2	1	1	6	6	12	-	8	36
Nigeria	2	1	-	-	11	4	3	-	3	24
Ghana	-	-	1	-	4	3	1	-	6	15
Cameron	-	-	-	4	1	1	-	-	3	9
Gambia	-	-	-	-	3	-	1	-	3	7
Zaire	-	-	-	-	2	1	4	-	8	15
Sierra Leone	-	-	2	-	-	-	1	-	2	5
Liberia	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	5	7
	32	52	61	52	85	55	76	-	125	538

Note. From Inter-university cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa (p.111), by M. Murphree & E. Ngara (Eds.), 1984, Harare: AESAU.

Table 8

Inter-scholarship Students by University

University	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76
Abijan	35	44	35
Ahmadu Bello University (Zaria)	19	18	14
Alexandria	1	1	4
Ain Shams (Cairo)	11	11	19
American University of Cairo	17	16	13
Bamako	4	4	4
Benin (Lome)	29	43	53
Bujuumbura	--	9	12
Cairo University	9	11	16
Cameroum	38	32	26
Congo	--	3	5
Cape Coast Ghana	8	6	11
Cuttington College	10	11	14
National University of Benin	1	1	1
Dakar	93	95	78
Dar es Salaam	23	21	6
Fourah Bay College	32	39	35
Gabon	7	8	11
Addis Ababa	44	18	--
Ibadan	14	18	18
Ife	21	16	20
Khartoum	17	16	20
Lagos	13	10	8
Lagos College of Medicine	11	11	10
Liberia	7	11	12
Makrerere	15	28	33
Malawi	2	3	3
Katibougou	--	2	2
Mohammed V (Rabat)	10	7	6
Nairobi	33	41	46
Niamey	12	16	21
Njala	14	23	24
Nsukka	--	11	22
Ouagadougou	--	1	1
Rwanda	1	1	1
Tunisia	25	15	17
University of Botswana Lasoto and Swaziland	68	50	27
University of Science and Technology (Ghana)	17	29	32
Zaire (Three Campuses)	35	31	25

Table 8--Continued

University	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76
Zambia	34	36	30
Ghana (Lagon)	14	18	18
Kenyatta University College	--	2	3
Benin (Benin City)	--	1	1
Total	743	788	750

Note. From Report of the Third General Conference (p. 153),  
by the Association of African Universities Records, 1976,  
Accra: AAU.

Table 9

Inter-scholarship Students by University

Country	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76
Botswana	31	14	16
Cameron	21	14	16
Congo	--	1	8
Benin (People Republic)	53	60	59
Ethiopia	20	26	20
Gabon	11	9	6
Gambia	24	30	30
Ghana	31	36	40
Guinea	1	--	--
Ivory Coast	1	1	1
Kenya	21	26	34
Lesotho	51	61	56
Liberia	8	3	2
Malawi	8	5	5
Mali	--	--	1
Mauritius	29	26	28
Morocco	4	3	3
Niger	12	17	20
Nigeria	68	66	51
Organization of African Unity	37	53	41
Rwanda	11	9	10
Senegal	17	15	22
Sierra Leone	14	13	15
Somalia	5	2	1
Sudan	21	27	38
Swaziland	38	47	36
Tanzania	28	33	21
Chad	9	13	8
Togo	53	51	52
Tunisia	11	12	12
Uganda	23	32	32
Upper Volta	57	61	49
Zaire	21	7	5
Zambia	4	7	6
Central African Republic	--	--	6
Total	743	788	750

Note. From Inter-university cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa (p. 152), by M. Murphree & E. Ngara (Eds.), 1976, Harare: AESAU.

Table 10

Inter-scholarship Students by University

Field of Study	1973-74	1974-75	1975-76
Accountancy	--	4	4
Agriculture and Forestry	50	50	43
Architecture Design	15	22	24
Commerce	--	1	2
Computer Science	--	--	3
Dentistry	6	5	8
Economics	61	71	74
Education	68	39	38
Engineering	78	105	99
Home Economics	2	7	5
Humanities/Arts	16	30	18
Geology	--	1	2
Languages	39	46	55
Land Planning/Estate Management	1	--	3
Law	72	62	52
Library Studies	5	4	4
Math/Statistics	11	12	8
Medicine	131	148	168
Paramedical	4	4	4
pharmacy	25	27	28
Public/Business Administration	19	19	16
Science	100	96	63
Technology/IUT	100	96	63
Veterinary Medicine	39	32	26
Total	743	788	750

Note. From Inter-university cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa by M. Murphree & E. Ngara (Eds.), 1976, Harare: AESAU.

Table 11

Cooperation Within Institutions in Africa

Institution	Present Areas of Cooperation	Problem Areas	Possible Areas of Cooperation
Makerere	<p>1. Prior to 1970 as University of East Africa specialized in Medicine, Agriculture and Education</p> <p>2. Post 1970-- Librarianship, Forestry, Statistics especially in English speaking countries, Postgraduate studies in Medicine, Theology diploma</p> <p>3. Since 1977 the cooperation was institutionalized through Inter-University Council</p> <p>4. Other linkages exist with universities abroad</p>		Links within the region
Addis Ababa	<p>1. No formal collaboration with universities in Africa or between the two institutions</p> <p>2. Used to have African students but this ceased</p> <p>3. Informal linkages at departmental level and external examiners</p>	Lack of collaboration	More formal links for students from Southern Africa both at undergraduate and post-graduate level
Dar es Salaam	<p>1. Exchange of students, with Zambia, no foreign currency involved, pharmacists</p>		



Table 11--Continued

Institution	Present Areas of Cooperation	Problem Areas	Possible Areas of Cooperation
	<p>2. Cooperation with other universities abroad for staff development University of Copenhagen, funding by Danida University of Alberta, funding CIDA UK - British Council Netherlands Baghdad</p> <p>3. External examiners</p>	Finance	Use of universities in the region
Nairobi	<p>1. Links with other universities in BLS Southern regions through governmental cooperation in Medicine, Architecture, Veterinary Science</p> <p>2. Links with neighboring Burundi &amp; Rwanda, Juba</p> <p>3. Agreements with other overseas universities for post-graduate students in United Kingdom and Germany</p>		
Zambia	<p>1. Cooperation with University of Dar es Salaam in student exchanges in mining engineering Note: No chash exchange</p> <p>2. Linkages with universities abroad on the basis of aid rather than cooperation</p>	Staff Development, Finance	Cooperation on student exchange

Table 11--Continued

Institution	Present Areas of Cooperation	Problem Areas	Possible Areas of Cooperation
Swaziland	1. Regrouping of BLS staff consultation	Isolation	Staff/student exchanges
	2. Staff consultation	Lack of finance	
	3. Agriculture for BLS	Duplication of facilities (expensive)	
Botswana	1. Library Studies for BLS	Some duplication of facilities	Cooperation and consultation at both government level and university level
	2. Consultative Committee consisting of Permanent Secretaries, Chairman of Council, Vice-Chancellors		
	3. Sharing of costs for external examiners		
Inter-University Council of East Africa	1. Financed by the three governments		
	2. Maintain contact		
	3. Organize subject meetings/conferences		
	4. Exchange of staff and external examiners		
	5. Joint research and publications to enable staff to participate	Student exchange	Other systems of cooperation needed
	6. Student exchange scheme (both graduate and under-graduate) is difficult but there are professional organizations in Adult Education, Arts and Social		

Table 11--Continued

Institution	Present Areas of Cooperation	Problem Areas	Possible Areas of Cooperation
	Science, Education, Legal Education, Veterinary Science		
	7. Council membership; Permanent Secretaries, Vice-Chancellors, Presidential accord		

Note. From Inter-university cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa (p. 11), by M. Murphree & E. Ngara (Eds.), 1984, Harare: AESAU.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter presents an analysis of the data collected from personal interviews with the 80 educators affiliated with universities in Africa. The educators described their knowledge, reactions, and opinions about the roles of higher education in Africa. The characteristics of the participants are discussed first.

#### Characteristics of the Participants

Sixty-seven of the participants of the study were males and 13 were females. All but four were married with at least one child. Forty had doctoral degrees; 31 had master's degrees; and 9 had bachelor's degrees. All those with doctoral degrees earned their degrees at overseas universities. Apart from two participants, all those with doctoral degrees earned their undergraduate degrees from African universities. Fourteen of those with master's degrees earned them in overseas universities. All those with bachelor's degrees earned them from African universities, and they were either government officials or were involved in administrative work in the institutions. Those with bachelor's degrees who were involved in

administrative work had extensive experience at the institutions.

Each one of the participants had been affiliated with universities for at least four years. The average length of their involvement in the universities was 12 years. Their average age was between 45-50 years. All the administrators had held teaching positions before becoming administrators. In addition, 70 of the participants had been involved in outside work before or while they were involved in the university.

Nothing in particular generated interest for 35 of the participants to get involved with universities; they were appointed by their universities to teach at the end of their training. Later, some of them were given scholarships to go to overseas universities for further training in their fields. Sixteen participants became involved because they were interested in research activities. The rest of them saw the beginning of their involvement as means of employment or as means to an opportunity somewhere else. They applied to many places for employment, and the university was the first place to employ them. In the process of their involvement, 15 of the latter group were impressed with the prestige of university. The remaining 14 were still looking for employment elsewhere.

Sixty-nine of the participants were members of one or more associations or clubs related to higher education.

Most of these associations or clubs were related to the educators' field of study. Sixty-eight of the participants were Africans, and the remaining two were expatriates. Ten of the government officials had been involved in the university before accepting appointments with the government. Many of the administrators are still teaching one or two courses. All the government officials who were responsible for higher education have themselves been through some form of higher education.

#### Familiarity with the Tananarive Recommendations

Thirty-two participants were aware of the Tananarive recommendations because they had seen the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) report on the conference. Eighteen of them were aware of the recommendations, but had not actually seen the report on the conference. Either they had heard of it from other colleagues or had read about it from secondary sources. The remaining thirty participants learned of the Tananarive recommendations through this study. Despite having no formal knowledge of the Tananarive recommendations, some participants in the second and third categories acknowledged that certain aspects of the recommendations were being implemented in their institutions, but had no knowledge of the original source. One of the participants was so

familiar with the Tananarive Conference that he knew the objectives of the conference. He read as follows:

1. To identify possible solutions to:
  - a. Problems of choice and adaptation of higher education curriculum to the specific conditions of African life and development and training of specialized personnel for public administration and economic development techniques;
  - b. the problems of administration, organization, structure, and financing encountered in the creation of the institutions themselves from the wider angle of national policy;
2. to provide data to the United Nations and other organizations and bodies concerned with international cooperation and assistance in the development of the programs in aid to and use of the institutions of higher education in Africa (Administrator, 4).

#### Evaluation of the Tananarive Recommendations

All the participants except four agreed that the Tananarive recommendations were realistic for the African situation. They were realistic in the sense that if they were implemented, they could help the African situation. Some of the participants felt that most of the

recommendations were realistic but a few of them are questionable for today. One of the participants who felt that the recommendations are not realistic explained that the recommendations "sound good on paper but have no meaning to what is happening in Africa. Most of them, like Unification of Africa, cannot be implemented in present Africa" (Faculty, 5). Another also argued that the recommendations are not realistic in the sense that anything planned as broad as to cover a whole continent like Africa would be too general to cover the particular and detailed needs of each country. Another explained his reason for regarding the recommendations as unrealistic as follows:

As can be seen from the aims of the University of Ghana Act 1961 (Act 49), promulgated on 22nd August, 1961, the philosophy and objectives of the Tananarive Conference on development of higher education in Africa had been anticipated by the founders of the university and given concrete legal expression in the University enabling Act. The University of Ghana (and other universities in Ghana) were therefore working towards those objectives before the Tananarive Conference was held. This University's experience cannot therefore be properly related to the Tananarive Conference.  
(Administrator, 3)

All those who regarded the recommendations as realistic for the African situation went through the list of the seven roles ascribed to universities and made comments on each one of them, indicating why they thought the roles were relevant to the African situation. The seven roles and participants' comments on them are discussed below.



### Teaching and Advancing Knowledge Through Research

The first role is to teach and advance knowledge through research. The participants saw this role as an obvious one. Even the critics of the Tananarive recommendations agreed that research is the main function of the university. An institution which does not undertake this function cannot be classified as a university. One participant remarked that research is vital to the African situation because universities cannot be relevant and help solve the problems of the developing countries if they do not rely heavily on research. Another argued:

This role is the background for all universities all over the world. As a matter of fact, this role is also the basis for the remaining six roles, or any other role that could be attributed to universities. Without it, the university cannot accomplish the rest of its roles and it ceases to be a university. (Administrator, 1)

Another participant stipulated that in order for the university to meet the challenges imposed upon it by its society:

The university has to modify the content of its education in such a way that students will be used to making critical analysis and draw conclusions based only on facts. They have to learn methods of problem solving and, which is most important, analytical and logical ways of thinking. This may be impossible without teaching students how to do research. (Government official, 20)

### Adherence and Loyalty to World Academic Standards

The second role requires universities to adhere to and maintain world academic standards. Participants struggled

with the objective stipulation of this role before they responded to it. Many of them asked questions like, "What standard is regarded as the world standard?" or "Whose standard is the world standard?" One participant explained that this role means that the graduates of African universities should be able to function at the intellectual level that their qualifications indicate them to be. He stated that African universities should produce: "Graduates who have attained a general level of education comparable to any anywhere in the world, with competencies in areas of direct relevance to the particular needs of the societies they serve" (Administrator, 3). The majority of the participants agreed that this role was realistic and relevant to the African situation if the area of competence is relevant to the African situation and the standard is not set by outsiders but by Africans themselves.

#### Unification of Africa

The third role has to do with universities ensuring the unification of Africa. Almost all the participants agreed that this is an important issue that needs the urgent attention of all Africans. However, the majority of the participants felt that the unification of Africa is something Africans hope for, although it may not be immediately realistic as an educational objective. The reason is the idea has political tones and should be

addressed by politicians rather than treated as an academic endeavor. A minority of the participants felt that the recommendation is realistic, but expressed fears and doubts about its accomplishment. One participant said:

This is a target we have to reach, but unfortunately, up till now, that target has not been realized. Because in many countries and universities, all the emphasis is put on national activities without any continental interest. That is good to some extent; we must know first our nation before we know others. But the unfortunate part is when we fail to teach our students that we are part of Africa. It is too narrow to put the emphasis on nationalism only. Due to this fact, I tell the students that even though we are Ghanaians or Congolese or Sudanese, we are part of the big family of Africa. We should introduce in our curricula some views about African unity. We are focusing on apartheid and concerned about South Africa because we are Africans. While we are talking about apartheid, why don't we talk about our unity?  
(Administrator, 1)

Other participants expressed the fear that African educators cannot help accomplish the goal of African unity. Two reasons were given for the preceding assertion. The first reason is that educators themselves are not united and therefore cannot help unite Africa. Some of the participants argued that it is not uncommon for one to observe ethnic rivalry and inter-tribal tensions and animosity among the staff members of some of the universities in Africa. They wonder how educators can contribute to the unification of Africa if they could entertain and express such divisive attitudes. One participant commented:

We are further from unity than we were 20 years ago. Because if one goes through African universities today, one would find out that educators are biased to Oxford and Cambridge; others are biased to Harvard and other overseas universities. The educators of the English-speaking countries want to fall back on their English and American training heritage, while those in the Francophone countries want to relate with their colleagues in France and other Francophone countries. But they have little relation, if any at all, with their colleagues in other African universities. It always amuses me when I ask the African academics to list other African academics to their field of specialty. They often are able to list the academics of overseas universities but not those on their own continent. (Administrator, 2)

The second and more crucial reason why African educators cannot contribute much to African unity is that African politicians and governments have not permitted educators to contribute to this important issue. Some of the participants indicated that there are jealousies and even hostilities between the governments of some of the countries in Africa. There are border clashes and rampant closing of borders between some of the neighboring countries in Africa. A few examples mentioned by participants were the closing of the Ghana-Togo border, clashes and tension between the Ethiopian and Somalian governments, and the occasional tension between the Kenyan and the Ugandan governments. Participants argued that this matter is a great setback to the unification of Africa, and educators cannot do much about it until politicians change their attitudes and behaviors toward each other.

In spite of the above opinions, 3 of the 80 participants expressed the opinion that educators have a lot to contribute to the unification of Africa. Moreover, they are already doing much about it in the area of inter-university cooperation in Africa. Their main argument was that the activities of the inter-university cooperation, such as staff and student exchange programs, research cooperation, and workshops and seminars, are already opening the continent wide for interaction and discussions on common problems and issues which would eventually contribute to the unification of Africa.

#### Elucidation of and Appreciation for African Culture

The fourth recommendation requires universities to encourage the elucidation of and appreciation for African culture and heritage and to dispel misconceptions about Africa through research and teaching of African studies. Many participants felt that this is a realistic objective, and a few of them felt strongly that the concept of culture is a very realistic and dynamic attribute which is adaptive and recreative. They see culture as the basis for both constraint and determining objectives and strategies of development. They argue that, for its survival, every society has an obligation to renew itself culturally. Hence, they thought that the university should be an important and effective cultural organ and should serve as a

disseminating agent of cultural and educational material which it produces in the society it serves in particular and other societies in general. One of the participants quoted from the report of the Fourth General Conference of the AAU to support this argument:

The university as a community of scholars and people with a more developed sense of aesthetic appreciation should, without being elitist, act as patrons of arts and culture, set the pace for critical standards, provide man-power needed for the development of culture, create an intellectual as well as artistic climate that will allow the genius of the creative artist to surface and provide the necessary facilities for research and the dissemination of cultural materials. (1976, p. 79)

Another participant commented:

African culture is very rich, and it reflects what we are as a group of people. If we deny African culture, we deny ourselves. Unfortunately up till now in many countries, in many universities, and in many courses, not enough emphasis is put on the true value of the African culture. The emphasis is placed on certain aspects of our culture, such as dances, proverbs, songs, and few others. But, we have to go beyond that and instill in our youth strong feeling for freedom, respect, and human dignity which are an aggressive assertion of African cultural values. This assertion consists of an intense feeling, love, and loyalty for the family with a spirit committed to the elevation of the African from the abyss of sickness, poverty, disease, and contempt. It aims at a rebirth of a new man with a new spirit, a new mind, and in a new environment, all of which are authentically African. (Government official, 10)

A majority of the participants see this fourth recommendation as crucial to the survival of Africa, and educators should address the recommendation with full intensity. In support of that argument, one participant

quoted Sir Eric Ashby from his Gotkin Lectures delivered at Harvard University in 1964. He said:

The prime task of African intellectuals is to make African nationalism creative. To enable scholars to fulfill this task, the universities in Africa must not only preserve their loyalty to the Western tradition: they must also proclaim a loyalty to the indigenous values of African society. (AAU, 1976, p. 51)

Participants feel that the university's cultural education should include the teaching of African languages, oral literature, art, music, drama, dance, beliefs, religions, myths, legends, ethics, aesthetics, science, sociology, and philosophy. It should aim at helping to realize the aspiration of Pan-African cultural nationalism of a greater African unity and freedom.

One participant had some questions about the objective of this role. He thought that the recommendation was too concerned with the opinion of outsiders. He pointed out that energy and emphasis should not be placed on what outsiders think about Africa; Africans understand their problems better than outsiders (Faculty, 20).

#### Training the Whole Man

The fifth role recommended for African universities at Tananarive has to do with training of the whole man for nation-building. A majority of the participants had difficulty understanding this role. Before participants were asked for the relevance of that objective, they were asked to explain the concept of training the "whole man."

Some explained that it means to train the person properly for his or her job. Others saw it as training the person to fit properly into the society. After the participants had given their definitions, the meaning of the clause as explained at the Tananarive conference was discussed. This helped participants to understand the clause before they evaluated it. When the meaning of the concept was clear, about 90% of the participants rated the recommendation as a realistic educational objective because higher education should not only aim at training the mind, but should develop an integrated man who is intellectually alert, socially adapted, spiritually cognizant, and physically disciplined. Some of the participants explained that if the university does not train the whole person, then it may train people who are academically excellent but lacking in other areas which might allow them to contribute positively to society. One participant illustrated that there are some people who are highly trained academically but very weak morally. When such people get into positions of leadership, there are always problems. He wondered why universities should turn out graduates who cannot fit into the society. Therefore, universities should produce doctors, engineers, and agriculturists on whom the nations can depend, people who have moral and spiritual values, a sense of social and civic responsibility, respect and/or human dignity, as well as appreciation for beauty in art, music, and ethics.



### Human Resources for Manpower Needs

The sixth recommendation requires African universities to develop human resources for meeting manpower needs. All participants regarded this role as realistic for the developing nature of the African nations. They argue that the rapid social and economic development of the African nations requires teachers, planners, executive personnel, managerial staff, doctors, agriculturists, nurses, and other technicians with the expertise that is needed for development. Universities are the only institutions in the nations that can produce these human resources. Therefore, it is appropriate to assign this role to universities.

### Evolution of Truly African Institutions

The final role recommended for African universities at the Tananarive Conference was to evolve truly African universities dedicated to Africa and its people, while promoting kinship with the larger human society. Most participants felt that this educational objective is realistic because of the colonial nature of the origin of African universities and their continued attachment to metropolitan models and standards. One of them asserted that "there are universities in Africa, but there are no African universities" (Government official, 15). However, there is a need to have African universities. Therefore, African universities must make the effort to help their

institutions to become African universities. One of the participants explained that the historical factor and the continued dependence of African universities on metropolitan models have caused external orientation of their programs. It has also resulted in a social and psychological "distance" of African universities from the fundamental concerns of their societies. Hence, it is appropriate to make it an objective for African universities to reorient and restructure their institutions and programs toward the needs and aspirations of their societies. One participant commented:

In our developing countries the question of relevance comes into prominence. Universities can no longer afford the ivory tower isolation tolerated a few decades ago. Universities must push themselves into effective involvement in community affairs and among the poor. Therefore, research, which is a fundamental activity of the university, should be tailored to serve the community. (Government official, 12)

However, some participants expressed fear that in fulfilling this objective, if caution is not taken, African universities may change just for the sake of changing and become extinct as learning centers. Likewise, they cautioned that care should also be taken that in the process of Africanization and localization of the African university, standards are not lowered or that universities become second rate compared to metropolitan institutions.

### The Effect of the Recommendations on Educators

The participants who were aware of the recommendations before this study acknowledged that their educational objectives have been affected one way or another by the Tananarive recommendations. Some of them declared that their educational objectives were drastically revolutionized when they became aware of the recommendations. They were not satisfied with the metropolitan models on which their institutions were based, so they embraced the Tananarive recommendations, which motivated them to help transform their institutions. Some of them pointed out that they were already pursuing goals similar to those recommended at Tananarive, so their objectives were not drastically changed when they learned of recommendations. The recommendations just validated their objectives.

In contrast, a few of the participants felt that their educational objectives have not been affected very much by the recommendations. This view was shared by all those who felt that the recommendations were unrealistic for the African situation.

Those who saw the recommendations for the first time during this study expressed surprise that there were good objectives like these recommendations but that some African educators do not know about them. Some of them anticipated that the recommendations were going to affect their

educational objectives because they were going to find ways and means to implement some of these objectives.

On the whole, most educators felt that their educational objectives have been affected. They are oriented to research, and their attitudes about teaching and curriculum have become more appropriate to a developing economy. They are now thinking beyond the classroom to what the students will be doing in their societies after graduation.

#### Educators' Implementation of the Recommendations

A majority of the participants have directly or indirectly been involved in implementing the Tananarive recommendations. Some of them have been involved through research activities. A minority of them are working with the research institutes of their institutions. They are involved in both fundamental and applied research. Some of them are aware of the problems with which researchers in Africa are confronted, and the research institutes are trying to find answers to these problems. Apart from research, some of the participants are involved in organizations and associations that are planning and formulating strategies by which some of the Tananarive recommendations can be implemented in their institutions. Some of them are serving on consulting committees of UNESCO, the ECA, AAU, OAU, AESAU, and other organizations. Many of

them are also members of professional and scientific associations affiliated with higher education in Africa. Ten such associations are the Association of African Faculties of Agriculture, the Association of University Teachers of Political Science, the Association of African Schools and Faculties of Medicine, the Permanent Conference of African University Libraries, the Conference of University Professors of Civil Engineering of Central Africa, the Association of University Teachers of Education, the Association of Faculties of Science, and the African Mathematics Union. All these organizations and associations are in the front line formulating theories and strategies for the development of higher education in Africa.

Moreover, about 60% of the participants have helped in the implementation of the recommendations by contributing to the literature in the field. Some of them have written articles, reports, and books addressing some of the issues included in the recommendations.

#### Institutions' Implementation of the Recommendations

Participants felt that their institutions were doing much to fulfill their role in their societies, but financial and political problems were keeping them from doing their best. They maintained that some of these problems were beyond the control of the universities. They felt that their institutions were putting priority on Africanization

of university faculty. In addition, the formerly inflexible university structures patterned after the metropolitan models were being changed to reflect the needs and the aspirations of their people.

The participants also pointed out specific areas where their institutions were implementing the Tananarive recommendations. Africanization and development of the institutions to meet the needs of the societies are some key areas in which university institutions in Africa have implemented the recommendations. A large percentage of the institutions have carried out projects to expand, develop local staff, reform curriculum, and reorganize administration to meet the growing needs of the institutions. They are providing effective teaching, promoting research, and attracting diverse sources of finance to manage these increasing complex institutions. An examination of Table 3 (page 86) illustrates how universities in Nairobi, Dar es Salaam, and Makerere have expanded their programs steadily to meet the needs of their societies. The combined undergraduate enrollment in the three universities increased from 2,193 in 1964-65 to 11,073 in 1978-79. The number of teaching positions also increased from 279 to 1,899 in those fifteen years. Data presented in Table 4 (page 88) reflects how the University of Nairobi has moved toward Africanization of its programs. The University of Nairobi has steadily increased the number of Kenyans on

its staff. The University of Zambia has also made some improvements in implementing the recommendations. It has changed its admissions policy to broaden the base for student recruitment. It no longer requires a Cambridge Higher School Certificate (A-Level), or the Sixth Form as it was popularly known. It has also abolished the single-subject degree and has developed a degree program consisting of sixteen required courses. Most of the universities have developed community programs.

One of the ways that participants' institutions were helping to implement the recommendation was through their involvement in the Association of African Universities. That association is helping universities to contribute effectively to the needs of their societies and to resolve their common problems with concerted effort. All the institutions of the population of the study are now members of this association.

The Association of African Universities (AAU) was founded in November 1967, in Rabat, Morocco. The AAU was conceived as a follow-up organization of the Tananarive Conference in 1962. In September 1963, the heads of the higher education institutions in Africa met at the University of Khartoum, Sudan to appoint a committee responsible for drafting the association's constitution and organizing the founding conference. The Khartoum meeting gave birth to the association four years later. The

founding members included thirty-three African universities from 26 countries.

The purposes of the association include the following seven objectives: (a) to promote interchange, contact, and cooperation among university institutions in Africa; (b) to collect, classify, and disseminate information on higher education and research, particularly in Africa; (c) to promote cooperation among African institutions in curriculum development and in the determination of equivalence of degrees; (d) to encourage increased contact between its members and the international academic world; (e) to study and make known the educational and related needs of African university institutions and, as far as practicable, to coordinate the means whereby those needs may be met; (f) to encourage the development and wider use of African languages; and (g) to organize, encourage, and support seminars and conference between African university teachers, administrators, and others dealing with problems of higher education in Africa (AAU, 1980). The AAU is funded by membership subscription and interest from an endowment fund to which a number of African governments have contributed. The Organization of African Unity (OAU) also provides an annual subvention. Some of their scholarship programs are sponsored by donors such as the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the British Inter-University Council, the Canadian International Development



Agency, the German Agency for Academic Exchange, and the NUFFIC of Holland.

The program of activities of the association includes the Inter-African Program for University Scholarships (INTERAF), which provides opportunities for students to study at universities outside their own countries in fields of study not readily available at home. The aim of the program is threefold: (a) to encourage the exchange of students in African countries so as to promote a better understanding and thus promote African unity; (b) to enable African universities to extend their importance on the international plane; and (c) to contribute to the training of university cadres in disciplines considered of crucial importance for the development of the African countries.

The INTERAF program was started in 1967 with 18 students from three countries studying at six African universities. In 1975 the program was supporting about 650 students from 32 countries studying in 33 universities and institutions of higher learning. The program was primarily for undergraduate students, but in 1980, due to the shortage of African teaching staff in the African universities, the AAU decided to give priority to the training of teachers. The university institutions participate in the program by according to the AAU a certain number of scholarships or by receiving at their own expense students from sister

universities. Tables 2 and 3 (pages 84 and 86) show the INTERAF program and how the institutions have been involved.

Exchange of teachers is another program of the AAU. It enables the African universities which are short of teaching staff to take advantage of the services of available teachers from other member universities. In addition, it helps to establish permanent and fruitful contact between African teachers through the sharing of experiences. The AAU started the program as short-term visits in order to enable external examiners and research workers to discuss the various programs and to encourage various types of contact and cooperation which would lead to other types of exchanges. Tables 4 and 5 (pages 88 and 89) show the involvement of the University of Nairobi in this program. The number of external examiners from the Nairobi University to other African universities increased from 4 in 1975 to 180 in 1983. The number of external examiners from other African universities to the University of Nairobi increased from 42 in 1975 to 375 in 1983. As shown in Table 7 (page 92), the number of postgraduate students from various African countries admitted to the University of Nairobi increased from 32 to 538 within the same period.

The AAU also sponsors such activities as training technicians, organizing workshops and seminars, and convening of general conferences in which issues of higher

education are discussed. All these activities are organized by representatives of the universities in Africa.

#### Implementation by the Nations

Many of the participants felt that although the nations have contributed in diverse ways, they have not done all that they could do to implement the recommendations. However, some of the participants reported the various ways by which the governments of Africa have implemented the recommendations. They recounted that the roles assigned to universities at the Tananarive Conference were applauded and echoed by many nations and that many heads of state were designated as the chancellors or heads of the universities in Africa. In general, the subjects agreed that the government, which is the university's primary and largest funding agency in Africa, is mainly responsible for all that universities have done to implement the recommendations. In addition, they argued that the Association of African Universities, one of the vehicles universities have used to implement the recommendations, is funded partly by interest from an endowment fund to which a number of African governments have contributed.

Moreover, the Organization of African Unity (OAU), which has been in the front line in planning strategies for resolving the economic, social, cultural, and political problems in Africa, is organized by the governments of the

nations in Africa. The contribution of this organization to the needs of Africa is demonstrated in the outcome of the organization's Assembly of the Heads of State and Government held in Lagos, Nigeria, in April, 1980. The conference is popularly known as the Lagos Plan of Action (for the economic development of Africa 1980-2000). At the assembly, the leaders of Africa considered the crises facing Africa and proposed plans and strategies for dealing with them. Table 12 shows the commitment of US\$8.85 billion by the OAU to transport and communication projects in Africa.

#### Problems Encountered

Participants suggested many obstacles that are hindering the progress of the implementation of the Tananarive recommendations by the African universities. The list of the problems are shown in Table 13 in ranked order according to the number of participants who suggested them. The obstacle on top of the list is lack of funds to finance the projects undertaken and to procure adequate equipment and staff for the projects. Every one of the participants mentioned lack of funds as a serious problem.

The next item on the list is government control and interference in the affairs of the university. A majority of the participants expressed the opinion that the tendency of African governments to meddle with the activities of the university creates problems for the institutions in trying

Table 12

Transportation and Communication Projects

	U.S. \$ in Millions	Percentage
Transport		
Roads and Road Transport (ROP)	1,796.19	20
Railways and Rail Transport	3,223.10	36.5
Maritime Transport (SHP)	320.04	4
Ports (HAP)	2,240.76	25
Air Transport (AIP)	632.74	7
Inland Water Transport (INP)	86.20	1
Multimodal Transport (MMP)	43.15	0.5
	<u>8,342.19</u>	<u>94</u>
Communications Projects		
Telecommunications (TEP)	223.48	2.5
Communications by Satellite (SAP)	0.38	--
Broadcasting (Radio & Television) (BRD)	169.41	2
Manpower training in Telecommunications (MAP)	76.13	1
Postal Services (POP)	44.35	0.5
Subtotal	<u>513.75</u>	<u>6</u>
	<u>8,855.94</u>	<u>100</u>

Note. Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa, 1980-2000 (p. 76) by The Organization of African Unity, 1981, Geneva: International Institute for Labour Studies. Copyright 1981 by the Organization of African Unity.

to live up to their expectations. In many cases the politicians want to use the university to promote the ideologies of the government in power. Refusal to conform to the demands of the government often results in the dismissal of the leading administrators of the university.

Inadequate remuneration of university staff is another hurdle which faces universities as they seek to play their roles in their societies. This problem has severe

Table 13

List of Problems of Universities in Ranked Order and  
Number of Participants Who Suggested Them

Problem	Number of Participants
Lack of Funds	80
Government Interference	62
Inadequate Remuneration	60
Academic Truancy	52
Brain Drain	50
Inadaquate Staffing	46
Political Instability	44
Misfit Staff Members	30
Colonial Origin	28
Attachment to Metropolitan Models	20
Total Dependence on Public Funds	10
Concentration on Undergraduate Studies	7
Restricted Admission Intake	3
Ethnicity	3
Student Unrest	2

implications for the universities. One participant described one such implication as follows:

We realize that students are attracted by outside jobs more than postgraduate work. After the first degree, they go in for jobs that will fetch them more money. They are not coming back for postgraduate work, simply because the remuneration that they will get out of postgraduate studies is so meager and it is not able to support them. (Faculty, 10)

Academic truancy is another implication of this problem.

That involves staff members of a university leaving the institution to find work in private enterprise. The fourth item on the list is brain drain. Many participants have been concerned about this problem for many years. One respondent remarked that brain drain makes it difficult for his institution to do long term planning because it is difficult to know which of the members is going to remain on the staff from year to year. It is often the best and most qualified of the staff that are lost through brain drain. (Administrator, 25) The fifth item on the list is lack of adequate staffing. A majority of the participants explained that the two preceding problems, coupled with increased numbers of students and new areas of knowledge, make provision of fully qualified staff a major problem for African universities.

Political instability in African countries is the seventh obstacle that participants felt hinders universities from playing their role efficiently. One participant exclaimed:

The political instability is by a large measure the major factor responsible for Africa's economic, social, and cultural stagnation and deterioration. Every time there is change of government without a democratic process, many of the major projects which are not in favor with the new government have to be abandoned, and the nation goes back many years. (Faculty, 12)

Another participant comments on political instability in a particular African country:

In the 15 years from 1966 to 1981, the country experienced seven major changes of government. Of these, only two were through the democratic process and both civilian governments lasted for some two years only. In such a climate, issues of state security, which really means the survival of the regime in power, took precedence over all other matters, including considerations involving such "Utopian" ideals as university autonomy. There was not time to establish with any particular government, such conventions as have enabled British universities to operate in relative freedom. (Administrator, 3)

The eighth item on the list of obstacles that confront African universities is misfit staff members. Some participants explained that many of the staff in the African universities were trained in overseas institutions in a context that is different from their own. Often, many of them, after their training, find it difficult to fit into the African system. One of the participants remarked:

It is really astonishing to realize that the more Africans get educated, the more they depart from their culture and become strangers to their own culture. The main reason I can think for this problem is simply because most of them were trained outside their environment. When African universities want to train somebody on a higher level, the one is sent to an institution in the North [Western Countries]. But, at the end of the training, he or she is lost to that developed country or he or she returns a complete stranger to his or her culture. It is only a few of such people who are able to adjust back into the



African system and are able to make improvisation to use their skills and training in their own environment. Many of them want to get everything exactly like they had it in the Western institutions before they could do the research and assignments. But, it is impossible for the African institutions to make that kind of provision. (Administrator, 9)

The ninth item on the list is the colonial origin and continued attachment to metropolitan models by universities in Africa. Participants feel that this colonial inheritance has put African universities in a disadvantaged position to render effective services to their societies. One participant points out that this problem has created the distance between the universities and the fundamental concerns of their societies. It has also caused the universities to produce graduates who are foreign to the problems and the aspirations of their own people. This problem, according to some of the participants, has also resulted in the African universities depending heavily on lecture type of teaching and conducting examinations that demand mere recollection and reproduction of the lecture materials (Administrator, 4).

The next obstacle on the list is over-dependence on public funding to cover both capital and recurrent expenditures. Some of the participants expressed the view that the enormous power wielded by African governments and their desire to control the universities, coupled with the fact that they foot most of the bills of universities, and employ most of the graduates, render universities

susceptible to the whims of the governments. The problem is the whims of the governments are not always motivated by concern for their countries, but by their desire to promote self-serving ideologies in hopes of retaining their power. Opposing the policies of the government means no funding for the university programs and projects.

Another factor on the list of obstacles confronting universities is the concentration on undergraduate study. A few of the participants alleged that many of the African universities are focusing their energies on undergraduate studies "resulting in critically under-developed graduate programs." However, there is a great need for graduate students to undertake some crucial research and to provide the skillful and professional human resources that will affect the economic, social, and cultural developments in Africa.

The restricted admissions of African universities is another obstacle facing universities in Africa. Some of the participants assert that restricted admission reinforces the unduly "elitist" nature of higher education and contributes to its high unit cost. One of the participants asserted:

Restricted access to the offerings of the university poses a serious problem for national development. It should be the aim to make university-level education available to all who are capable of benefitting from it, in areas of greatest social need. In addition to the wildest possible intake consistence with the maintenance of adequate standards within the means available to the university. (Government official, 8)

Ethnicity is another obstacle that sometimes keeps African universities from effectively promoting national development. Some of the participants agree that ethnicity surfaces and proves a problem for universities during examinations and when personnel decisions about staffing are competitive.

Student unrest is another obstacle facing African universities. Some of the participants expressed dismay at the number of student boycotts of classes and demonstrations against government or university policies that have led to the closing of universities in Africa. Within the two years that data used in this study were collected, the universities in a particular country were closed three times because of student protest against the policies of government. One of the participants explained that student unrest, whether motivated by legitimate grievances or not, hampers and retards the work of the universities. One administrator pointed out that student unrest is particularly frustrating when the confrontation is between the students and the government. It renders university authorities helpless, and they have to be cautious how they mediate to find solutions (Administrator, 4).

#### Solutions for the Problems

Several suggestions were made by participants as to how some of the problems discussed above could be resolved.

The majority of the participants were optimistic that the problems of universities in Africa can be resolved. However, that resolution will demand a drastic change of attitudes and relationships on the part of African educators and governments.

In considering the resolution for the financial problem, some of the participants suggested that African universities have to find ways and means to generate funds to supplement funds allocated by the governments. One participant asserted:

Since the governments have failed to meet the budgets and to fund university projects, African universities must start innovative financial practices. They must find new and additional sources for university revenue. Such innovative financial practices may involve (a) commercializing part of the university programs, (b) creating an endowment fund for meeting specific academic needs of the university, (c) investing some of the reserves from university funds in the stock market, (d) writing of proposals to compete for local and international grants, and (e) private fund raising from philanthropic sources and the alumni. (Administrator, 4)

Concerning the university and government relationship, most participants felt that there is enough common ground between the aims of the government and the claims of the academician that they should work together without much tension. Participants suggested that the political authority ought to respect the honest and courageous opinions of the scholar, and the scholar ought equally to recognize that he cannot escape his social responsibilities. The university must do things to retain public trust and

support by relating their achievements to public needs. One participant commented:

The academic community must build a new relationship with the government, one that is fortified by trust and understanding. We must grow to know and appreciate each other better. There is room for reasonable compromise and honesty accommodation, which will enhance the well being of our nations and our institutions of higher learning. (Government official, 11)

Another participant, on the same subject, asserted:

Educators have to recognize that the cost of higher education is particularly high in Africa. This high cost demands special justification and confers special privileges which ought to carry corresponding special responsibilities. This high cost of higher education underlines the reasonableness of government concern to see that the choice of university curricula reflects national needs. However, this does not warrant government to make demands that universities should confine their attention narrowly to national practical matters. (Government official, 3)

The government and university relationship was described by another participant as follows:

The governments should recognize that independent inquiry if fearlessly pursued is, in the long run, one of the greatest strengths and most powerful guarantees an open society can possess. Critical comment on the conduct of public affairs ought always to be met by something more reasoned than force or oppression. Scholars also should display a basic sense of social responsibility. What the university owes to the government of the date is neither defiance nor subserviency. It is intelligent cooperation. (Faculty, 5)

Some of the participants suggested that universities must do things to retain public trust by relating their activities and their achievements to public needs. One of the participants pointed out:

There is a need for the university to strengthen and widen its public relations activities if it is to gain the sympathy and trust of the public at large. Sympathy and trust imply support, which is a requirement even universities in development countries cannot afford to be without. (Faculty, 6)

A large percentage of the participants feel that universities can resolve some of the above problems by generating new knowledge and developing new ways in which knowledge can be used for the benefit of mankind. One participant pointed out:

One of the responses of African universities to the African crisis should be a deliberate policy of favoring and promoting institutional research, preferably commissioned, and as far as possible in collaboration with other regional bodies or as part of regional projects. This would tend towards the pooling of resources of an institutional, national or regional basis, to address issues of national or regional importance, in a manner which favors ready applicability, especially if the project is commissioned. (Faculty, 20)

Another participant remarked:

African universities must set their research plans and priorities which ideally should be policy oriented and linked to the government planning objectives and requirements. Such research plans must also be closely linked with student training programs because trainees of today are the researchers of tomorrow. (Faculty, 6)

Almost all the participants feel that one of the most effective means by which universities can resolve their problems is through a concerted effort on the part of the universities in an inter-university cooperation. Universities need to have effective means of communication among them in order to exchange information and experience.

Participants felt that such inter-university cooperation would maximize the use of the meager resources of universities in a manner that would enhance development in the social, economic, and cultural areas in the African countries. One participant remarked:

It is known that, individually and even collectively, our countries and universities face critical shortages of resources (manpower, finances, and facilities). Faced with shortages of resources, there are, nevertheless, means of redressing these shortages, and through cooperation there are means of effecting cost effectiveness. (Administrator, 16)

Finally, many participants feel that one of the crucial means by which universities can resolve their problems and the problems of their nations is by shouldering the responsibility of training their students rather than by sending them abroad for training. One participant remarked:

African universities should come to the point when we don't send our people abroad to study. Sending our people abroad for training is like somebody else raising your children for you. They will grow alright but with somebody else's values. A lot of the people trained abroad think they are highly educated but do not know anything about Africa. (Administrator, 10)

Some of the participants explained that although few opportunities are given in the form of scholarships to study in Western countries, this training is not always tailored to the needs of the African situation. Therefore, there is a need to minimize such programs and strengthen programs in African universities. However, other participants felt that African universities should not abolish overseas studies completely. One participant remarked:

Clearly no one can propose a total abolition of foreign graduate study. The absence of local facilities in highly technical and specialized areas, and the undoubtedly beneficial nature of some foreign exposure will alone argue for the maintenance of a minimum level of support for such study under all circumstances. (Administrator, 4)

### Roles of Universities

The participants' personal view about what the role of universities should be in Africa today has not departed very much from those recommended at Tananarive in 1962. Almost all the participants felt that universities in Africa should play a major role in the economic, social, and cultural development of their societies. One participant asserted:

Personally, I think that higher education in Africa, and for that matter of the world over, should be the instrument of technological and therefore of social change, occupying a place as part of the economic foundation of society. Higher education should be the think tank of African countries, providing talent guidance for the solution of national problems. (Administrator, 3).

Another participant commented:

Higher education in Africa should, absolutely, be the bedrock of the development of a nation. A bedrock in the sense that all ideas are vested in the university and the universities in turn, should define these ideas and help the nation to apply the ideas to meet developmental needs. (Government official, 20)

Another participant also expressed the view that universities in Africa must provide precise and relevant opportunities to their societies:

primarily through their teaching and research programs, for keeping society in touch with the vast store of knowledge and ideas accumulated by mankind down the ages, and for enabling some of the ablest minds in



society to devote their time to fundamental thinking and research for the long-term solution of society's problems. (Administrator, 3)

Another participant explained that the strength of any nation depends on its people. People will contribute to nation-building only to the extent that their values, attitudes, skills, and motivations are consistent with the goals and aspirations of the nation. He (Government official, 16) concluded the discussion on the role of African universities by quoting from Taylor,

An important role of the university is to enhance this developmental process by directing adequate attention to formal as well as non-formal education at all levels, thereby helping to lift the aspirations of all the people for self-improvement and to close or narrow the gap between the elites and the masses. (1984)

Reflecting on the analysis of data, it can be concluded that participants feel that the Tananarive recommendations are still realistic and relevant to the African situation. The educators, university institutions, and African nations have, in one way or another, been involved in the implementation of at least some of the Tananarive recommendations in the institutions or in the countries as a whole. In addition, educators feel that there are still problems that are hindering African universities from contributing adequately to their societies. However, educators are optimistic that almost all these problems, in different ways, can be overcome. Finally, educators feel

that national development should be a crucial concern of African universities.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The problem of this study concerns the perceptions of African educators concerning the role of higher education in Africa. The problem was approached using a qualitative research design, personal interviews for collecting data, and the process of ethno-scientific explanation for analyzing data. The major findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. Many educators in Africa are not familiar with the Tananarive recommendations. The few who are aware of the recommendations are mainly administrators and the few faculty members who have the privilege of representing their institutions at interuniversity conferences and meetings. Information about the roles of universities in Africa has not been communicated properly from the administrative level to the faculty level. The main goal of faculty members is to teach their subjects well. Few teachers are able to teach well and accomplish the overall purpose of contributing to national development, as recommended by the Tananarive conference. The main reason for this failure is

the fact that educators are not familiar with the roles which have been attributed to universities in Africa.

2. African educators regard the Tananarive recommendations as realistic and relevant to the African situation. They are realistic in the sense that if they are adequately implemented, they will contribute to the resolution of the numerous problems of the economic, social, political, and cultural development in Africa.

3. The Tananarive recommendations have, to some extent, directly or indirectly affected the educational objectives of many educators in Africa. They have prompted some African educators to look beyond the classroom to what the students will be doing in their society after graduation. The Tananarive recommendations will also affect the educational objectives of African educators who become aware of its objectives.

4. Some African educators have attempted and are attempting to implement the Tananarive recommendations. Some are involved in research and are contributing to the literature in the field. Many of them are serving on committees and in associations that are formulating theories and strategies for the development of higher education in Africa.

5. In the eyes of many critics, African universities have not done much to implement the Tananarive recommendations; however, in reality, they have done and are

doing much to implement the objectives of the recommendations. Nonetheless, they have a long way to go and many obstacles to overcome in order to adequately fulfill the role that is required of them by their societies. The organization of the Association of African Universities and its activities are the main testimony to their efforts to fulfill their roles in their societies.

6. Although many African governments take much of the credit for what has been done to implement the Tananarive recommendations in Africa, they have also hindered universities from fulfilling their roles in their societies. Despite this interference, government funding of universities and their contributions to university projects through the organization of African Unity are crucial to the implementation of the Tananarive recommendations.

7. Many of the universities in Africa can point to projects and activities through which they have reached out to certain sections of their societies. They can also point to the significant ways many of them have moved towards Africanization of their institutions.

8. The critical factors that are preventing universities from playing their roles efficiently and hindering the implementation of the Tananarive recommendations are lack of funds to finance university projects; government interference in the internal affairs of the universities; inadequate remuneration of university

staff; academic truancy by the university staff; brain drain; lack of adequate staffing in the universities; political instability in the African countries; misfit staff members; the colonial origin and continued attachment to metropolitan models and standards by African universities; over-dependence of universities on public funding; concentration on undergraduate study; restricted admission; ethnicity; and, student unrest on the campuses.

9. The problems confronting universities can be resolved, but their resolution demands a drastic change of attitudes and relationships on the part of African academics and politicians. African universities have to find ways to generate funds to supplement funds allocated by the governments. In addition, the mistrust between academics and politicians has to be overcome. The academic community must recognize that the high cost of higher education demands special justification and confers special privileges which ought to carry corresponding special responsibilities. The politicians also should stop unnecessary interference in the internal affairs of the universities. Inter-university cooperation in Africa is a vital means for universities to combine their resources to resolve their problems. Moreover, universities in Africa should develop resources to train their own people because the university programs in the western countries are not always tailored to the needs of the African situation.

10. Apart from the primary function of teaching, research, and dissemination of knowledge, national development should be a crucial concern of African universities.

### Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions seem to be warranted.

1. The Tananarive recommendations are still relevant to the African situation.
2. African educators perceive that universities should adapt their programs to the needs of the African societies.
3. The lack of funds, government interference, and brain drain are the main problems of African universities.
4. African universities in their search for relevance and practicality have not had a drastic effect on social, economic, and cultural changes in their societies.
5. There is continual friction and mistrust between politicians and academicians in the universities.
6. The responses of the three categories of educators vary little except on the issue of the relationship between government and universities. Government officials do not see their interaction with universities as interference, while administrators and faculty members see government interaction with universities, to a great extent, as an interference.

7. Universities can resolve some of their financial burdens by starting innovative financial practices, such as commercializing some of the university programs, creating endowment funds, and investing reserves from university funds in the stock market.

8. There are a few steps which universities and the governments of Africa need to take to make universities relevant and effectively meet their responsibilities to their societies.

Universities must go beyond their regular academic programs and reach as many as possible through extramural and outreach programs, by public discussion through mass media, and by correspondence courses. In addition, university admissions requirements should be reformed to give weight to indigenous subjects. Admissions should formally require demonstrated competence in an African language and some knowledge of African history, literature, and cultural anthropology. Again, African universities must not concentrate only on the techniques of training individuals for specific jobs, but must concern themselves with the development of the student as a total person who, after graduation, not only works, but also lives and functions meaningfully in the society. Finally, African universities and nations need to be clear about their developmental priorities and ensure they work relentlessly towards their realization. They must overcome the



impediments that hinder them from fulfilling their roles. Inter-university cooperation can play a major role in allowing universities to overcome their problems and meet their responsibilities.

#### Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the results of the study and experience and knowledge gained by conducting the study.

1. The Tananarive recommendations are still relevant, thus educators and politicians in the various African countries should put more effort into implementing the recommendations.

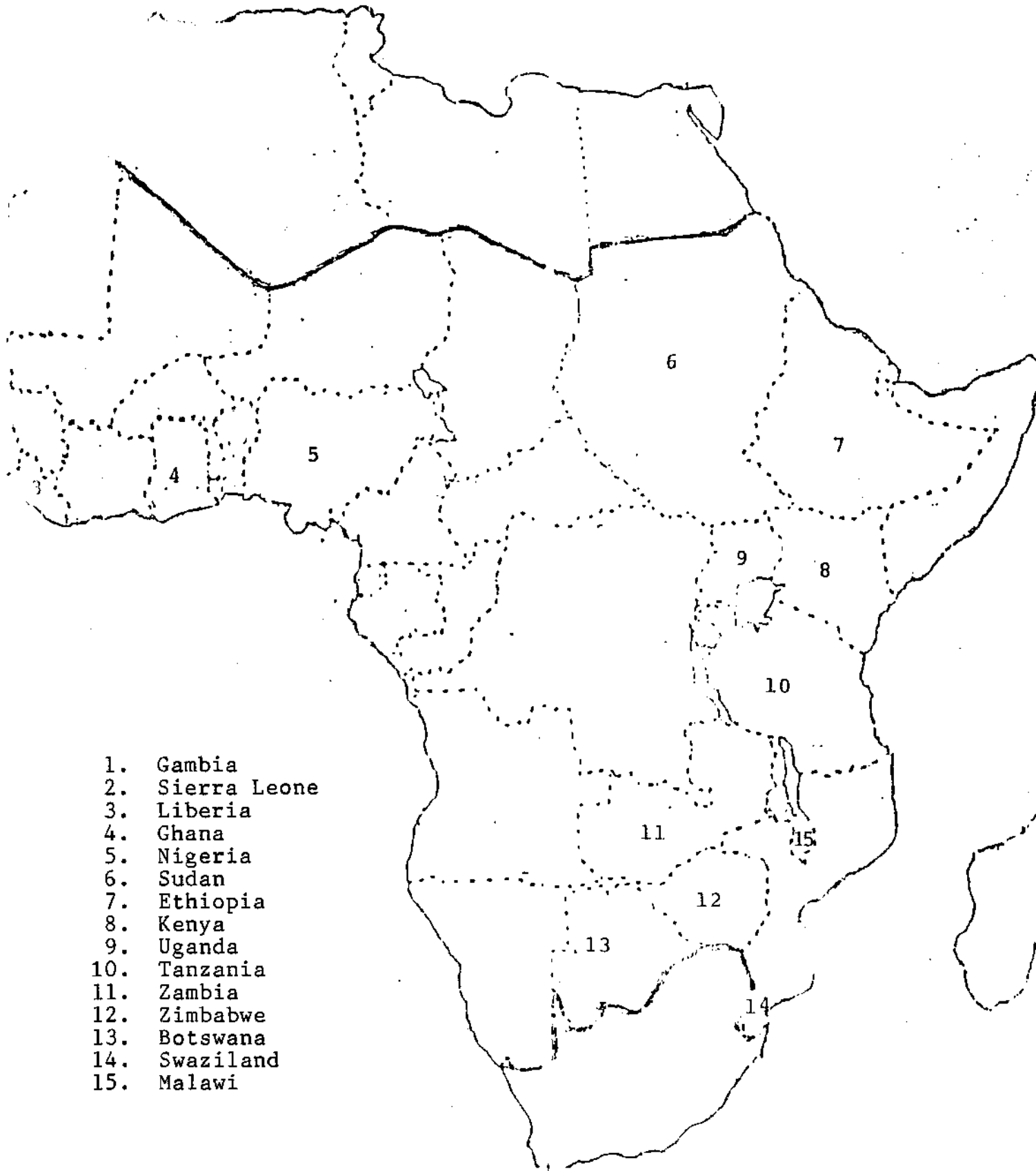
2. A similar, detailed study should be undertaken in each of the African countries since that would cater to some of the details that a study which covers the whole continent may have overlooked. Each African nation has a variety of cultures unique to that nation. These cultures must be analyzed individually in order to assess how each fits into national objectives and goals.

3. There is a need for a study covering the activities and the documents of the Association of African Universities (AAU). The documents of the AAU contain some crucial theories and strategies that, if implemented, could help resolve many of the problems facing African universities.

4. Findings in this study and other information may be designed and used for workshops for administrators and faculty members to inform them of the responsibilities of universities to their societies.

5. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization which is the main sponsor of the Tananarive Conference has conducted follow-up conferences on the Tananarive Conference. Research should be done to evaluate how these conferences have helped the implementation of the recommendations.

APPENDIX A  
COUNTRIES INVOLVED IN THE STUDY



1. Gambia
2. Sierra Leone
3. Liberia
4. Ghana
5. Nigeria
6. Sudan
7. Ethiopia
8. Kenya
9. Uganda
10. Tanzania
11. Zambia
12. Zimbabwe
13. Botswana
14. Swaziland
15. Malawi

APPENDIX B  
PARTICIPANT REQUEST LETTER

16 February 1987  
Box 5723  
Accra, Ghana  
W. Africa  
Ph. 220661

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

You have been selected as a representative of the educators of higher education in Africa. I would value your participation in a study which is investigating the attitude of educators towards the Tananarive Conference's recommendations on the roles of higher education in Africa.

This study is being conducted in partial fulfillment for the degree, Doctor of Philosophy, under the direction of Dr. Howard Smith, Professor of Higher Education, North Texas State University, Denton, Texas.

As an African educator, your experience, opinions and knowledge would be invaluable to this study. This investigation will include a personal interview. All information gathered will be treated confidentially. If you desire results of the study, a copy will be available upon request.

Enclosed is an agreement form and a self-addressed return envelope. If you agree to participate in this research study, please sign the form and return it to me. I will be in your area \_\_\_\_\_. If this is a convenient time for an interview, please note on the agreement form.

Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated. The results of the study will not only make a contribution to the literature in this area, but to the welfare and development of higher education in Africa.

Sincerely,

Evans Laryea

P.S. Enclosed are the study questions and the Introduction and the roles attributed to universities at the Tananarive Conference on the development of higher education in Africa.

## Participant Agreement Form

I agree to participate in the study on the roles of higher education in Africa. I will be truthful in all information that I give in the research interview in return for the promise of my confidentiality in the study.

\_\_\_\_\_

Participant

## Interview Schedule

Is the \_\_\_\_\_ agreeable with you? \_\_\_\_\_

## INTRODUCTION

On May 15-25, 1961, the first predominantly African international conference on education held on the continent of Africa was called at Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Attended by representatives from 39 African nations and delegates from five European countries, the main goal of the conference was to provide a forum for the African countries to formulate their own educational development plan for the future. This conference was significant because it recognized that the entire African educational system plays a crucial role in the economic, social, and cultural development of the nations in Africa (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1962).

A follow-up of the above conference led to the most important stimulus for development of higher education in Africa, a conference held at Tananarive (now Antananarivo), Madagascar, in September 1962. The Tananarive conference, as it is generally called, was attended by representatives from 31 African nations and 14 non-African nations, including both the United States and the Soviet Union. These representatives met solely for the formulation of plans for the development of higher education in Africa.

This conference produced a detailed and comprehensive plan of development for higher education in Africa over a period of 20 years. As with the plan of the Addis Ababa conference, 1980 was proposed as the target year for



implementation of the Tananarive development plan. To facilitate the implementation of the details of the Tananarive development plan, the following seven roles were assigned to the universities in Africa:

1. To teach and advance knowledge through research.
2. To maintain adherence and loyalty to world academic standards.
3. To ensure unification of Africa.
4. To encourage elucidation of and appreciation for African culture and heritage and to dispel misconceptions about Africa through research and teaching of African studies.
5. To train the "whole man" for nation-building.
6. To develop human resources for meeting manpower needs.
7. To evolve over the years truly African institutions for higher learning dedicated to Africa and its people, yet promoting a bond of kinship to the larger human society. (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1963)

Hence, in addition to the traditional role of teaching and research, the Tananarive conference assigned to African universities a role as major agents of national development and recognized them as the main vehicles for social, cultural, and economic development in Africa. Higher

education, on the whole, was accepted as the main instrument of national progress, the chief guardian of the people's heritage, and the voice of the people in international councils of technology and scholarship (Kajubi, 1984).

#### Study Questions

The study is designed to find answers for the following questions:

1. Are you familiar with the roles of higher education as recommended by the Tananarive conference?
2. Do you evaluate the Tananarive recommendations as realistic to the African situation?
3. Have these recommendations affected your educational objectives?
4. Have you done anything personally to implement these recommendations?
5. Do you feel that their institutions have taken any steps to implement these recommendations?
6. Do you feel that the nations have done anything to implement these recommendations?
7. What do you feel has been achieved in the light of these recommendations?
8. What are the problems you encountered with regard to implementation of these recommendations?

9. How do you feel that these problems can be resolved?
10. What do you personally think should be the role of higher education in Africa today?

APPENDIX C  
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

## Interview Schedule

### I. Demographic Inquiry

1. Personal information (married/single, children and age).
2. Academic preparation (Schools attended, degree/diploma earned, special preparation for higher education).
3. Professional information (years in teaching/administration, internship, what generated the interest for higher education, personal objectives in the profession, annual salary, number of employees under direct supervision, and program size, membership of any higher education association or club).

The study is designed to find answers to the following questions:

1. Are you familiar with the roles of higher education as recommended by the Tananarive conference?
2. Do you evaluate the Tananarive recommendations as realistic to the African situation?
3. Have these recommendations affected your educational objectives:
4. Have you done anything personally to implement these recommendations?
5. Do you feel that their institutions have taken any steps to implement these recommendations?

6. Do you feel that the nations have done anything to implement these recommendations?
7. What do you feel has been achieved in the light of these recommendations?
8. What are the problems you encountered with regard to implementation of these recommendations?
9. How do you feel that these problems can be resolved?
10. What do you personally think should be the role of higher education in Africa today?

## REFERENCES

- Abibi, D. (1980). Discussion and recommendation. Fifth General Conference of the Association of African Universities. Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Ashby, E. (1966). African universities and Western tradition, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Altbach, P. G. (1975). Literacy colonialism: Books in the third world. Harvard Educational Review, 45, 226-236.
- Association of African Universities. (1973). The report of the third general conference. Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Association of African Universities. (1976). The report of the fourth general conference. Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Association of African Universities. (1980). The report of the fifth general conference. Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Ayandele, E. (1982). Africa: The challenge of higher education, Daedalus, 111, 165-178.
- Barkan, J. (1975). An African dilemma. London: Oxford University Press.
- Beder, H. (1984). International cooperation: Why and how? New Directions in Continuing Education, 23, 3-22.

- Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. (1982). Qualitative research for education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Budwig, G. A. (Ed.). (1981). Higher education surviving the 1980. West Virginia University Press.
- Court, D. (1980). The development ideal in higher education: The experience of Kenya and Tanzania. Higher Education, 9, 657-680.
- Cowan, G., O'Connell, J., & Scanlon, D. (1965). Education and nation-building in Africa. New York: Frederick A. Praeger.
- Craig, T. (1988). Commonwealth universities yearbook. London: The Association of Commonwealth Universities.
- Curle, A. (1973). Educational problems of developing societies with case study of Ghana, Pakistan, and Nigeria. New York: Praeger.
- Davis, L. G. (1976). Education and work: Prospects for change. New Directions for Higher Education, 42, 37-50.
- D'Aeth, R. (1978). Education and development in the third world. Aldershot: Gower Publishing Company.
- Disselkoen, J. (1987). The departing experience: A qualitative study of personal account by women who are former directors of intercollegiate athletic programs for women. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Texas.
- Dobbert, M. (1982), Ethnographic research. New York: Praeger.



- Dodoo, E. O. (1982). Governmental intervention in university management. A written study, University of Manchester.
- Doublans, J. D. (1985). Creative interviewing. London: Sage Publication.
- Economic Commission of Africa. (1982). Annual Economic Report. Geneva: United Nations Economic Commission of Africa.
- Fassi-Fihri, M. (1973). Report on Mohamed V University. In T. M. Yesufu (Ed.). Creating the African university. Ibadan: The Caxton Press.
- Fisher, L. A. (1988). State legislature and the autonomy of college and universities. The Journal of Higher Education, 59(2), 132-162.
- Gowon, Y. (1973). Opening Address. Report of the third general conference of the Association of African Universities. Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Harman, D. (1976). Nonformal education and development. New Directions for Higher Education, 42, 7-20.
- Ike, V. A. (1976). University development in Africa: The Nigerian experience. Ibadan: Oxford University Press.
- Kajubi, S. (1984). Higher education and the dilemma of nation-building in Africa. In A. Taylor (Ed.), Insights into African education (pp. 17-48). New York: Teacher College Press.

- Kamba, W. (1984). Improving teaching and learning.  
Keynote Address at Roma: University of Lesotho.
- Kaunda, K. (1971). Foreword. In H. F. Makulu, Education, development, and nation-building in independent Africa.  
London: SCM Press.
- Kingue, M. (1980). The African university and development.  
In the Report of the fifth general conference of the Association of African Universities (pp. 39-47). Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Kirya, G. (1987). Possible areas of cooperation among universities in Eastern and Southern Africa. A Report at the Conference of the Association of Eastern and Southern Africa Universities in Tanzania. Harare: AESAU.
- Kwapong, A. (1980). The relevance of the African university to the development needs of Africa. In the Report of the fifth general conference of the Association of African Universities. (pp. 48-61). Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Lehtinen, J. (1987). Institute of educational research.  
Unpublished material, Addis University.
- Lewis, L. J. (1973). Education and political independence in Africa. Westport: Greenwood Press.
- Long, D. (1977). The university as commons: A view from administration. New Directions for Higher Education, 18, 75-85.

- MacKenzie, C. (1986). Prisoners of fortune: Commonwealth universities and their political masters. Comparative Education, 22, 111-121.
- Makany, L. (1983). Fifteen years of interuniversity cooperation in Africa. Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Makulu, H. F. (1971). Education, development and nation-building in Independent Africa. London: SCM Press.
- Mazrui, A. (1970). The role of the university in political development in Africa. In the Report of the second general conference of the Association of African Universities (pp. 65-82). Accra: Association of African Universities.
- Mazrui, A. (1978). Political values and the educated class in Africa. Los Angeles: University of California Press.
- Mazrui, A. (1984). The African university as a multinational corporation: Problems of penetration and dependency. In P. Altbach & G. Kelly (Eds), Education and the colonial experience. New Brunswick: Transaction Books.
- Miles, M., & Huberman, M. (1984). Qualitative data analysis. London: Sage Publication.
- Mosha, H. (1986). The role of African universities in national development. Comparative Education, 22,(2), 92-109.

- Murphree, M. W., & Ngara, E. A. (1984). Inter-university cooperation in Eastern and Southern Africa. Harare: Association of Eastern and Southern African Universities.
- Mutiso, G. C. (1973). The future university: Towards a multidisciplinary research and teaching approach. In T. M. Yesufu (Ed.), Creating the African university. Ibadan: The Caxton Press.
- Netherlands University Foundation for International Co-operation. (1978). Seminar on the role of universities in national development. Higher Education and Research in the Netherlands, 22.
- Nigeria Federal Government. (1977). Policy on education. Lagos: Federal Ministry of Education.
- Organization of African Unity. (1981). Lagos plan of action for the economic development of Africa 1980:2000. Geneva: The International Institute of Labor Studies.
- Patton, M. Q. (1987). How to use qualitative methods in evaluation. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Porter, A. (1972). University development in English-speaking Africa: Problems and opportunities. African Affairs, 71, 73-83.
- Rathgeber, E. (1988). A tenuous relationship: The African university and development policymaking in the 1980s. Higher Education, 17, 397-410.

- Sanyal, B. (1982). Higher education and the new international order. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.
- Sawyerr, A. (1987). Changing development objectives and strategies for self-reliant economies in Africa: University responses. Paper prepared for the 3rd Association of African Universities/Economic Commission of Africa Conference in Harare.
- Sesay, A. (1987, March). Staff productivity and promotion in the Nigerian university system. Paper presented at the Comparative and International Education Society Meeting, Washington.
- Smock, D., & Bentsi-Enchill, K. (Eds.). (1975). The search for national integration in Africa. New York: The Free Press.
- Spradley, J. (1979). The ethnographic interview. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Taylor, A. (Ed.). (1984). Insights into African education. New York: Teacher College Press.
- Thompson, A. R. (1981). Education and development in Africa. New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Tshishiku, T. (1978). The problem of cooperation in the exchange of teaching staff, students, and the collection and exchange of information. In Report of the First Conference of Rectors and Vice Chancellors. Accra: Association of African Universities.

- Uchendu, V. (1979). Education and politics in tropical Africa. New York: Conch Magazine Limited Publishers.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. (1962). Development of education in Africa. Paris: Firmin Didot.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. (1963). Development of higher education in Africa. Paris: Firmin Didot.
- Van Maanen, J. (Ed.). (1983). Qualitative Methodology. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Vita, P. B. (1980). National objectives and inter-university cooperation in Africa: An unresolved dilemma. Africa Development, 5.
- Wandira, A. (1981, May). University and the community: Evolving perceptions of the African university. Higher Education, 10, 253-273.
- Wilson, R. S. (1977). Development of an attitude inventory. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.
- Yesufu, T. M. (Ed.). (1973). Creating the African university. Ibadan, The Caxton Press.
- Yoloye, A. (1986). The relevance of educational context to national needs in Africa. International Review of Education, 32(2).

Young, C. M. (1981, June). The African university:  
Universalism, development, and ethnicity. Comparative  
Education Review, 25(2), 145-163.