AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION: DEVELOPMENTS AND PERSPECTIVES

Regionalization of African Higher Education

Progress and Prospects

Jane Knight and
Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis (Eds.)

SensePublishers

Regionalization of African Higher Education

AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION: DEVELOPMENTS AND PERSPECTIVES

Volume 3

Scope

This book series focuses on the historical foundations and current transformations of African higher education. It is aimed at scholars, students, academic leaders, policy makers and key stakeholders both in Africa and around the world, who have a strong interest in the progress, challenges and opportunities facing African higher education.

A diversity of higher education themes and issues related to African higher education at institutional, national, regional and international levels are addressed. These include, but are not limited to, new developments and perspectives related to knowledge production and dissemination; the teaching/learning process; all forms of academic mobility – student, scholar, staff, program, provider and policy; funding mechanisms; pan-Africa regionalization; alternate models of higher education provision; university leadership, governance and management; gender issues; use of new technologies; equitable access; student success; Africanization of the curriculum- to name only a few critical issues.

A diversity of approaches to scholarship is welcomed including theoretical, conceptual, applied, policy orientations. The notions of internationalization and harmonization of African higher education complements the cosmopolitan outlook of the series project through its comparative approach as critical imperatives. Finally, the book series is intended to attract both authors and readers, internal and external to Africa, all of whom are focused on African higher education including those doing comparative work on Africa with other regions of the world and the global South in particular.

Regionalization of African Higher Education

Progress and Prospects

Edited by

Jane Knight
University of Toronto, Canada

and

Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis
University of Bayreuth, Germany

SENSE PUBLISHERS
ROTTERDAM/BOSTON/TAIPEI

A C.I.P. record for this book is available from the Library of Congress.

ISBN: 978-94-6300-954-6 (paperback)
ISBN: 978-94-6300-955-3 (hardback)
ISBN: 978-94-6300-956-0 (e-book)

Published by: Sense Publishers,
P.O. Box 21858,
3001 AW Rotterdam,
The Netherlands
https://www.sensepublishers.com/

All chapters in this book have undergone peer review.

Printed on acid-free paper

This book is dedicated to those who are working on the study and promotion of higher education regionalization in Africa as a way to advance the quality of higher education and as an instrument for strengthening national, sub-regional and Pan-African development. Special recognition is given to emerging and established scholars, policy makers, and professionals engaged in examining the fundamentals and implications of regionalization, internationalization and Africanization of higher education and the complex relationship among these three processes. We hope that this publication will further the careful examination of the benefits and potential of higher education regionalization in Africa and the unintended consequences as well.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The preparation of this book has been a team effort. Grateful appreciation is extended to all those who have contributed to this initiative. First our thanks go to the chapter authors. They kindly shared their expertise and views on many different aspects of African higher education regionalization. Not only did they devote much time and efforts to preparing drafts of their own chapters, they also generously reviewed other chapters to ensure that a diversity and depth of expertise was afforded to the examination of the issues fundamental to the progress and prospects of higher education regionalization in Africa. The external peer reviewers also played a key part in providing insightful advice and commentary on various drafts of the manuscript. To them, we give our heartfelt thanks for their expertise and collegiality.

Two organizations played a key role in the preparation of this book. The African Network for the Internationalization of Education (ANIE) has debated the goals, benefits, risks, actors, stakeholders, challenges and sustainability of regionalization in relation to the related processes of internationalization and Africanization. Our understanding of sub-regional and pan-African higher education collaboration has been enriched by these discussions. The Bayreuth International Graduate School of African Studies (BIGSAS) of the University of Bayreuth in Germany has kindly supported both editors in their work during the completion of this book.

Lastly, we are pleased that this book is published as part of the new Sense book series on *African Higher Education: Developments and Perspective*, edited by Professors Michael Cross and Jane Knight and housed at the Ali Mazrui Centre for Higher Education Studies at the University of Johannesburg, South Africa.

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

FIGURES

TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AARU	Association of Arab Universities
AAU	Association of African Universities
ACDE	African Council for Distance Education
ACE	African Centre of Excellence
ACP	African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AfDB	African Development Bank
AfriQAN	Africa Quality Assurance Network
AHEA	African Higher Education Area
AHERA	African Higher Education Research Area
ANIE	African Network for Internationalization of Education
AQAACHE	African Quality Assurance and Accreditation Council for Higher Education
AQAPRM	African Quality Assurance Peer Review Mechanism
AQRM	African Quality Rating Mechanism
ATWS	Association of Third World Studies
AU	African Union
AUC	African Union Commission
AUF	Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie or Organization of the Francophone Universities
AU-HEP	African Union's Strategy for the Harmonization of Higher Education Programmes
AVU	African Virtual University
BFUG	Bologna Follow-Up Group
BREDA	Regional Bureau for Education in Africa
CAMES	Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur (African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education)
CATS	Credit Accumulation and Transfer System
CDSF	Capacity Development Strategic Framework
CHE	Kenyan Commission for Higher Education
CHET	Centre for Higher Education Transformation
CODESRIA	Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa
COEs	Centres of Excellence
COMEDAF	Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CORVIP	Conference of Rectors, Vice Chancellors and Presidents
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service
DfID	Department for International Development

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EAC	East African Community
EACEA	European Commission Education, Audio-visual and Culture Executive Agency
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ECCAS	Economic Community of Central African States
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EDF	European Development Fund
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ENQA	European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education
EQF	European Qualification Framework
ERA	European Research Area
ESU	European Students' Union
EU	European Union
EUA	European University Association
EUC	European Union Commission
EURASHE	European Association of Institutions in Higher Education
FOPA	Functional Organizational Political Approaches
GATS	General Agreement in Trade Services
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GIGAC	Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity
HERPNET	Higher Education Research and Policy Network
IAU	International Association of Universities
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IEP	Institutional Evaluation Programme
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INASP	International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications
INQAAHE	International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education
IUC	Inter-University Committee
IUCEA	Inter-University Council of East Africa
LMD	Licence, Masters et Doctorat
MQR	Mutual Qualification Recognition
MRA	Mutual Recognition Agreement
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NQF	National Qualifications Frameworks
OAU	Organization of African Unity
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAU	Pan-African University
PHEA	Partnership for Higher Education in Africa
R&D	Research and Development

RECs	Regional Economic Communities
RQF	Regional Qualification Framework
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADCQF	Southern African Development Community Qualifications Framework
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SAQA	South African Qualifications Association
SARUA	Southern African Regional University Association
SCIE	Science Citation Index-Expanded
SIDA	Swedish International Development Co-operation
SSCI	Social Science Citation Index
TCCA	Technical Committee on Certification and Accreditation
TEC	Tertiary Education Commission
TNE	Transnational Education
UEMOA	West African Economic and Monetary Union
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USAID	US Agency for International Development
VIHEP	Virtual Institute for Higher Education Pedagogy
WCHE	World Education Conference on Higher Education
WGHE	Working Group on Higher Education
WTO	World Trade Organisation

JANE KNIGHT AND EMNET TADESSE WOLDEGIORGIS

INTRODUCTION

There is no question that the multi-faceted process of globalization has transformed the higher education landscape in the last three decades. The more globalized and inter-connected world in which individuals live has stimulated higher education institutions, organizations and national governments to pay more attention to academic relations and opportunities with partners close by and far away. An important and perhaps unexpected development of globalization has been an increased importance of regionalization in general, and in terms of higher education, a stronger focus on higher education collaboration and exchange within a region. In Africa, there are growing efforts to strengthen intra-regional co-operation and regionalization of higher education systems, policies, and practices.

The expansion in the number of regional and sub-regional research and university networks, the growth in intra-regional student and scholar mobility, the new emphasis on Africa-wide quality assurance frameworks, the work towards establishing academic credit systems, the efforts to develop qualification recognition frameworks and mutual recognition of qualifications, and the establishment of pan-African institutions and programmes, are testimony to the growing importance of African higher education regionalization. Furthermore, the African Union's Strategy for the Harmonization of Higher Education Programmes (AU- HEP) is evidence of a political commitment to increased regional collaboration in higher education.

The move to increase higher education collaboration within a region is a worldwide trend. The well- known Bologna process, which aims to create a common higher education space in Europe, has stimulated more attention being given to this issue in all regions of the world. But each region of the world has to approach higher education regionalization with goals and strategies that are consistent with their own cultural, historical, political and economic contexts and their own higher education priorities. In Asia, higher education regionalization activities are well developed in the 10 countries comprising South East Asia while similar efforts among the three countries of North East Asia (China, Japan, Korea) face diverse challenges. To overcome some of the historical and current factors facing regionalization, the focus is shifting to a wider geographic frame of East Asia.

Similarly, efforts are underway to fast forward higher education regionalization initiatives among Canada, Mexico, and the United States, however, the potential for greater collaboration among higher education systems and institutions in North American remains unrealized. There are more bilateral connections than trilateral

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 1–10.

higher education co-operation initiatives. In Africa, the approach to regionalization of higher education is different than other regions of the world as it is based on and reflects colonial, historical and political developments in Africa. However, there is little doubt that African higher education regionalization is strongly influenced by Europe given Europe's fundamental role in modeling the African Union and its continuing presence through generous higher education funding schemes.

This book focuses on Africa's approach to regionalization and harmonization of higher education and looks at progress to date and whether the process is more rhetoric or reality. As of 2017, there are a growing number of governmental reports, scholarly articles, and conference presentations which address different aspects and issues involved in the Pan-African higher education regionalization process in general, and the African Union's Harmonization Strategy in particular. But to date, there is no publication which offers a comprehensive overview and brings together different perspectives on the overall goals, initiatives, accomplishments and ongoing challenges regarding Africa's quest for increased regionalization of higher education.

In the conceptualization of the book, a wide spectrum of themes were identified and chapter authors were deliberately chosen to represent different backgrounds and disciplines thereby bringing diverse views and expertise to the complex topic of African higher education regionalization. Twelve of the fourteen authors are African with all but one based in Africa. In addition, all regions of the continent are represented and discussed in the book, however, it is important to note that developments and issues related to regionalization in sub-Saharan Africa predominate.

The study of higher education regionalization involves a plethora of terms such as harmonization, collaboration, co-operation, integration, regional, sub-regional, continental, pan-African, inter-regional, intra-regional. Often these terms are used interchangeably which presents many challenges and misunderstandings. Equally problematic is when the same term is used to mean very different concepts or conversely, different terms are used to describe the same phenomenon. As discussed in chapter one, a conceptual framework called the Functional, Organizational and Political Approaches (FOPA) model for regionalization was shared with authors to achieve some degree of coherence in the analysis of different aspects of regionalization and to minimize some of the confusion about the meaning and use of terms. For the purposes of this book, higher education regionalization is defined as the "process of building closer collaboration and alignment among higher education actors and systems within a defined area or framework called a region" (Knight, 2012). Important to note in this description is that region is not defined in geographic terms.

In Africa, regionalization is a term used at the continental level and sub-regional level, meaning at the level of the different regional economic communities such as East Africa Community (EAC) or Southern African Development Community (SADC). For clarity purposes, the term regional is used in this book to denote Pan-African or continental level and the term sub-regional refers to the regional economic communities or the regional university associations. There are many terms related

to the process of regionalization such as collaboration, convergence, harmonization, integration. In Africa, the term harmonization is frequently used interchangeably with regionalization given that the African Union named one its major higher education regionalization efforts the 'AU Strategy for the Harmonization of Higher Education Programmes'. In order to distinguish between the terms harmonization and regionalization the first term 'harmonization' is used in reference to the AU strategy and the second term 'regionalization' is used to refer to the more generic process of increasing co-operation and collaboration among African higher education systems and institutions.

OUTLINE OF THE BOOK

The book consists of 12 chapters and is organized into three major sections. The first part of the book consists of four chapters which together provide an in-depth introduction to the concept and process of higher education regionalization using the framework of the Functional, Organizational and Political Approaches (FOPA) model; the historical antecedents to regionalization in Africa since the 1960s; the impact of Africanization, internationalization and regionalization on shaping the identity of universities in Africa; and a typology of five different models for higher education regional collaboration.

The second part of the book examines a number of critical issues and strategies involved in supporting and strengthening the regionalization of African higher education. These include quality assurance, academic mobility, qualifications recognition and the development of regional qualifications frameworks, student competencies and curriculum as regionalization tools, the role of research centres and networks, and the implications of higher education financing for regionalization. The third part of the book consists of two chapters. They address the African Union Strategy for the Harmonization of Higher Education developed in 2007 and its relation with the European Bologna process and lastly the ongoing challenges and prospects for the regionalization of African higher education. An outline of the book follows and includes the main theme and a brief summary of each chapter.

The Concept and Process of Higher Education Regionalization

The increasing complexities and dynamic nature of higher education regionalization calls for an analytical framework to better understand the process and permit deeper exploration of the rationales, policies, programmes, networks, issues and new developments. Thus, the purpose of chapter one is to unpack the major terms, actors and diverse strategies through the lens of the Functional, Organization, and Political Approaches (FOPA) model of regionalization. The FOPA model is generic in nature and can apply to any region of the world but chapter one explores its application to the multitude of activities, networks, and bi-lateral/multi-lateral relationships that are already functioning in Africa.

In the first part of the chapter, the notion of the region is explored in depth as it can be described in various ways according to different core concepts such as geography, culture, linguistic or major activities such as economic or trade. A range of terms associated with regionalization such as collaboration, alignment, convergence, harmonization are examined and mapped on a continuum which is anchored by the notions of co-operation at one end moving to more formalized and intentional concepts of integration and interdependence at the other end. This discussion is followed by an overview of the FOPA model. To elucidate the framework and illustrate the relationship among the three approaches, examples from the higher education landscape in Africa are highlighted. In the second part of the chapter, several issues, and challenges to the regionalization of higher education are identified and discussed. They include both generic and Africa-specific, topics such as the driving rationales, objectives, and outcomes, the issues of language, regional governance, as well as unintended consequences and risks.

Historical and Political Perspectives on the Regionalization of Higher Education

Chapter two looks at regionalization of higher education as a product of different historical dynamics which are linked to the broad regional integration processes in Africa. The chapter argues that historical contexts are important lenses to better understand regionalization of African higher education. Three core historical stages that shaped regionalization of higher education in Africa are discussed. The first is the intergovernmental conferences among African Minsters of Education since 1960, the second is the transformation of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) to the African Union (AU) and the third involves the consolidation of various fragmented higher education harmonization initiatives within the sub-regional economic communities. The chapter demonstrates that regionalization of higher education in Africa has been influenced both by internal and external actors such as the Ministries of higher education, university managements, African Union, sub-Regional Economic Communities, regional university associations, African Development Bank, UNESCO, the World Bank, European Commission and other donor countries. Accordingly, the various functional, organizational and political processes of regionalization emerge out of these historical dynamics.

Africanization, Internationalization, and Regionalization

Chapter three focuses on the ongoing debate about the identity of the university as an academic institution in Africa, especially since independence. At the core of the debate is whether there are 'African universities' or 'universities in Africa'. This debate is triggered by the reality that universities can have multiple identities. The infusion of the concepts and processes of internationalization, regionalization, and

Africanization has compounded the debate even further. How African universities have responded to these three concepts and the extent to which they have embraced them simultaneously are the fundamental questions addressed in this chapter. Against this backdrop, the primary aim of the chapter is to situate African universities within this broader debate and to explore how these concepts affect universities in Africa in their resolve to redefine themselves as academic institutions in a globalizing world. To achieve this goal, the discussion draws from the evolution of higher education in Africa including the new trends and considers how universities can globally position and reconfigure themselves so that they can remain relevant locally and across borders.

Models of Regional Higher Education Collaboration in Africa

Chapter four points out that at the beginning of the twenty-first Century, Africa was being disadvantaged by the process of internationalization of higher education in other parts of the world. This reality, however, turned out to be a catalyst for increased African regional collaboration. Various models and approaches of regional teaching and research programmes have since been undertaken to promote regionalization of higher education in Africa. This chapter attempts to establish a typology of these regional academic initiatives. The five models considered are: regional institution or organization; open and distance learning; the consortium model; the networking model; and regional specialized institution or centre of excellence. Under each model, two or three specific examples are examined to understand their structure and the degree of success achieved in promoting regionalization.

From this typology, no preferred model of regionalization emerges as the initiatives were created under different circumstances and are funded in different ways. But the exercise sheds light on several aspects of regional collaboration that are positive as well as those that require caution, enabling one to learn from their strengths and weaknesses. The discussion on different models for regional collaboration ends by taking a look at some specific aspects common to the initiatives, such as governance and sustainability.

Quality Assurance

Chapter five looks at the critical role that quality assurance plays in promoting regional collaboration in Africa. The chapter starts with an examination of the major steps and elements in the development of quality assurance systems and protocols in higher education in Africa and beyond. A framework for conducting a holistic and integrated analysis of quality assurance of teaching and learning in African higher education is presented and explained. The chapter goes on to critically examine the relationship, or perhaps better described as the lack of a relationship, between the world University Rankings systems and the quality of teaching and research in African universities.

The chapter reviews several quality assurance projects that are being implemented at the sub-regional level for example by the African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES), at the pan-Africa level, for example, the African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN) and at the international level by UNESCO. The analyses of these initiatives identify the results achieved and the challenges encountered in the process of improving the quality of higher education teaching and research in Africa and the strengthening of quality assurance systems. In the light of the challenges identified, the chapter recommends several actions to relevant stakeholders at national, sub-regional, and continental levels that are likely to contribute effectively to the regionalization of quality assurance of African higher education.

Academic Mobility within Africa

Chapter six examines academic mobility within Africa. Student, scholars, programme and provider mobility are discussed but the lack of up-to-date and consistent data across all sub-regions in Africa significantly limits the depth of analysis. But, in spite of the lack of reliable information on academic mobility within Africa, strong support for the important role of mobility in strengthening Pan-African higher education collaboration remains.

The first part of the chapter introduces student and scholar mobility and discusses the conceptualization of student mobility, the scale of regional student mobility within Africa, and two important continental initiatives – the Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility Scheme for students and the Pan-African University. The challenges and prospects facing intra-regional student mobility are examined.

The second half of the chapter focuses on programme and provider mobility. Given the escalating interest in twinning programmes, joint/double degree programmes, international branch campuses and joint/ binational universities, there is a state of mass confusion on how to describe and categorize these different modes of programme and provider mobility. Therefore, the terms related to these diverse forms of mobility are discussed and a common classification framework is examined. Without any solid data on mobility, it is not possible to give an accurate and up-to-date pan-Africa overview. Instead, several countries which are actively engaged as either a host or sending country are used as illustrative examples.

A recent trend in international education is countries developing and positioning themselves as an ‘education hub’. A decade ago, both Botswana and Mauritius had the ambition of being education hubs in Africa, and their plans and progress are examined. The chapter closes with a discussion of the challenges facing the growth of academic mobility within and across Africa and calls upon the African Union Commission (AUC), the sub-regional higher education associations, and higher education institutions (HEIs) to work together more closely to reduce the barriers to academic mobility in order to enhance the regionalization of African higher education.

Qualification Recognition and Frameworks

Chapter seven focuses on the critically important topic of mutual recognition of qualifications and sub-regional qualifications frameworks as effective instruments for higher education regionalization in Africa and other regions of the world. It briefly summarizes the attempts made since 1947 towards the establishment of a UNESCO lead global convention on mutual recognition of qualifications and then discusses the objectives and challenges encountered in the implementation of the first African Regional Convention adopted in 1981 in Arusha, Tanzania. The process of revising and updating the African Convention is analyzed and the major changes contained in the African Convention adopted in 2014 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia are discussed. The chapter examines the major benefits and challenges involved in ratifying and implementing the African Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications. In addition to studying the African Convention on the recognition of academic and professional qualifications, the chapter also delves into the development and critical role of regional qualifications frameworks to ensure comparability of qualifications and promote the mutual recognition of qualifications. The cases of sub-regional qualifications frameworks in the Southern African Development Community and the East African Community are studied and provide important lessons to be learned.

Student Competencies and Curriculum

A major issue in African higher education is the wide gap between the needs of the labour market and the skills and competencies that new university graduates have gained. The focus of this chapter is to examine the potential and current work being done to use common reference points for the development of student competencies and curriculum as strategies for enhanced collaboration across Africa. The Tuning Approach which originated in Europe has been adopted and adapted to the African higher education context.

The chapter explains how the Tuning process is designed to find a common set of reference points of convergence for generic and subject-specific competencies across the different disciplines offered in academic programmes in Africa. The ultimate goal is to facilitate comparability of programmes for each specific discipline across higher education institutions. This chapter addresses the role of the Tuning approach in regionalization of higher education systems in Africa using practical examples from the work completed by the Tuning project as of 2017.

Research Centres and Networks

There have been various initiatives to promote research and knowledge production in Africa's higher education sector since the 1970s. Despite these attempts research output in Africa is still very low as compared to other regions. The challenge is not only the low productivity of research but also the fragmentation

and lack of coherence and co-ordination of the research sector in Africa. This chapter argues that regionalization of higher education, through intra-regional policy alignment and pulling resources together through regional and sub-regional frameworks, is a critical vehicle through which research productivity in Africa could be enhanced.

This chapter describes and analyses the development of new pan-African programmes, research centres and networks and their contributions, through knowledge production, training and capacity building in different disciplines, to strengthening the regionalization of higher education in Africa. The chapter examines how these centres and networks are structured, their core activities, and their impact on research and knowledge production. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the importance of regional and international support programmes to research centres and networks in Africa and summarizes the potential of these research centres and networks to the future of knowledge generation and research collaborations in Africa.

Financing of African Higher Education

The focus of this chapter is on the implications of higher education finance for the regionalization of higher education in Africa. This chapter briefly discusses some of the comparative advantages of different financing models or policies and then focuses on how the financing of higher education does or does not contribute to greater regional collaboration among university systems in Africa. Of particular interest is the discussion on tuition fees as a barrier or facilitator to regional based academic mobility of students. Even though there has been promising progress on regional tuition protocols in SADC and EAC much more needs to be done at the continental level.

The chapter highlights the major challenge of providing robust empirical evidence on the state of higher education financing due to the lack of up-to-date comparable data on a pan-Africa level and in many cases at the sub-regional level as well. In fact, there are very few institutions or national governments in Africa that compile and document statistics on a regular basis. In this regard, the World Bank and the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) have been the main sources of data on various issues of higher education in Africa including finance, but even this information is often not up to date.

The Influence of the Bologna Process

This chapter analyses the major similarities and differences of the AU higher education harmonization strategy and the Bologna process of Europe. Examining such complex processes and their diverse sets of actors within the dynamics of regionalization requires a comprehensive analysis of policy processes. Since higher education reforms always take place within a certain context, the question is how

is the policy of harmonization of higher education systems in Africa intended to be implemented fostering greater regional integration, taking the context of African higher education systems into consideration?

This chapter focuses on the reform issues which are proposed by the AUC in the harmonization process in a comparative manner with the Bologna process. Examples of these reform issues include the creation of a regional higher education area, mutual recognition of academic qualifications, promotion of student and staff mobility, provision of a framework for the development of effective quality assurance mechanisms, and transferability of credits.

Realities, Challenges, and Prospects

Even though regionalization of higher education in Africa has been underway for several decades, the process has faced many challenges. There have been various initiatives established to help realize the objectives of regionalization in Africa. They include the various intergovernmental conferences and declaration made on education in the last two decades; the 2007 AU strategy for the harmonization of higher education programmes; the 1981 and recently updated 2014 African Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications; the Mwalimu Nyerere programme that promotes student and academic mobility, the Tuning Africa project which works towards harmonization of curriculum and student competencies; the Pan-African University Network; the African quality assurance and rating mechanism; the higher education partnership schemes and centres of excellence; and the different regionalization initiatives by sub-regional economic communities are the major ones. Despite all these efforts, the progress seen on the ground in terms of implementing regionalization processes has been slow. The various components of regionalization policy initiatives have either not been fully implemented or their impacts have not been felt yet.

Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to explore the realities, challenges, and prospects for future growth and success of the regionalization of higher education in Africa. Among the factors affecting the progress of regionalization include historical legacies and political contexts; the multitude of actors at all levels who often have different priorities and agendas; a top-down approach to decision making; the lack of financing and agreement to realize political commitments; the reliance on foreign donors to fund policy reforms and new programmes; the emphasis on sub-regional projects at the expense of pan-African co-ordination of initiatives.

On the other hand, there are factors which favour continued regionalization efforts. These include the importance of higher education and research in a knowledge-based society; the successful efforts of sub-regional protocols and policy frameworks which when carefully managed and co-ordinated can contribute to continental policy systems; the role of technology in helping to build improved data gathering for the preparation of evidence-based policy making; the movement from bilateral agreements to building networks across the continent for research, curriculum design, quality assurance, and academic mobility purposes. The chapter

ends on a note of cautious and guarded optimism for realizing the potential and benefits of higher education regionalization in Africa.

REFERENCES

Knight, J. (2012). A conceptual framework for the regionalization of higher education in Asia. In K. M. J. Hawkins & D. Neubauer (Eds.), *Higher education regionalization in Asia Pacific: Implications for governance, citizenship, and university transfer.* London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Knight, J. (2013). Towards African higher education regionalization and harmonization: Functional, organizational, and political approaches. In A. Wiseman & C. Wolhuter (Eds.), *The development of higher education in Africa: Prospects and challenges* (International Perspective on Education and Society Series). Bingley: Emerald Publishing.

JANE KNIGHT

1. THE CONCEPT AND PROCESS OF HIGHER EDUCATION REGIONALIZATION[1]

INTRODUCTION

Growing Importance of Higher Education Regionalization in Africa

There is no question that the international dimension of higher education has transformed the higher education landscape in the last three decades. The more globalized and inter-connected the world becomes, it stimulates higher education institutions, organizations and national governments to pay more attention to academic relations and opportunities with partners in other countries (Knight, 2008). A more recent development has been an increased focus on higher education collaboration and exchange within a region. In Africa, there are increasing efforts toward 'harmonization of African higher education' supported by organizations such as the African Union (AU), Association of African Universities (AAU), and the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA, 2010, 2015). The establishment of the Pan-African University (PAU), the expansion in the number of regional research and university networks, the growth in intra-regional student mobility and institutional agreements, and the new emphasis on Africa-wide quality assurance frameworks and academic credit systems are a testimony to the growing importance of pan-Africa higher education regionalization. In fact, the movement to increase the transparency and comparability of national systems within a region is occurring in all regions of the world. The well-known Bologna process, which aims to create a common higher education space in Europe, has stimulated more attention being given to the importance of both intra-regional and inter-regional co-operation in higher education in Asia, Latin America, and Africa.

This chapter focuses on the concept and process of the regionalization of African higher education. A major assumption underpinning this discussion is that regionalization and internationalization processes of higher education co-exist and are compatible and complementary processes. There is much debate on this topic but for the purposes of this discussion they are not seen to be mutually exclusive or contradictory processes (Ogachi, 2009). It is not an either/or situation. In fact, both processes include similar activities, actors, and outcomes but regionalization emphasizes Africa-wide or intra-regional initiatives. While socio-economic perspectives about regionalization vary from discipline to discipline and from country to country (Cooper, Hughes, & Lombaerde, 2008), there are some

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 11–28.

common elements and approaches which help to analyse the phenomenon of higher education regionalization.

Understanding Regionalization

A review of academic articles and grey literature, such as policy documents, blogs, papers, and conference reports, reveals a vibrant debate on the topic of regions and their importance, formation, and function. Of interest are the different interpretations and permutations of the concept of region. Frequently used terms include regionalism, regionalness, regionality, regionalization, regional integration, inter-regional co-operation to name a few. It is clear that region constitutes the root concept and the suffixes introduce subtle and nuanced differences in meaning. For example, the suffix 'ism' relates more to an ideology or set of beliefs, an 'ization' focuses on the process of becoming, and 'tion' reflects a condition.

An examination of how these terms relate to the higher education sector leads to four lines of inquiry. These different lines of inquiry are as follows: (1) the impact of regionalism on higher education; (2) higher education regionalization; (3) higher education as an instrument for regional integration and; (4) inter-regional co-operation in higher education. All lines of inquiry merit further examination but this chapter focuses on the second line of inquiry 'higher education regionalization'. For the purposes of this discussion regionalization of higher education is defined as the 'process of building closer collaboration and alignment among higher education actors and systems within a defined area or framework called a region' (Knight, 2012).

The use of the term region in Africa is multi-layered and complex. Region is often used to describe geographic areas or communities such as Southern Africa, East Africa, West Africa and North Africa. Other terms are more cultural or linguistic oriented such as Francophone Africa, Arabophone Africa or Lusophone Africa. All of these terms refer to sub-continental areas. Yet, reference is commonly made to Africa as a major region of the world. Hence, the diverse use of the term region and the potential for confusion. For the purposes of this book, regionalization will be used primarily at the continental level while recognizing the importance of the sub-continental level of regionalization as the meaning of regionalization focuses on building closer collaboration and alignment among higher education actors and systems regardless of the level.

In Africa, harmonization is a term which is often used interchangeably with regionalization. The concept of an African Higher Education and Research Area-AHERA (ADEA, 2010) is another interpretation of higher education regionalization. In this chapter, the concept of AHERA is used less than the terms regionalization and harmonization. This is because the emphasis is on encouraging increased alignment among higher education systems among and within countries and thus the notion of process or 'ization' is fundamental as opposed to the concept of a space or area. Thus, for the purposes of this discussion regionalization applies to both continental and

sub-continental level but when the former is being discussed the terms pan-Africa or Africa-wide are applied as descriptors. Secondly, the concept of harmonization is referred to in relation to the African Union's strategy for the harmonization of higher education programmes (AU-HEP, 2007) and not as a process per se.

Three assumptions are central to understanding higher education regionalization. The first is the idea that it is an ongoing and evolutionary process, the second is the notion of intentional region building based on existing and new relationships and activities by a diversity of actors, and the third is the view that region is defined by the players involved and can be interpreted as a specific area or an organizational/programmatic/political framework. A region does not have to be interpreted as a geographic space.

Chapter Objectives and Outline

Given the mounting complexity and importance of regionalization, the purpose of this chapter is to explore the development of an analytical framework to better understand and analyse the regionalization process and secondly to apply it to current developments in Africa. The framework builds on the multitude of activities, networks, and bi-lateral/multi-lateral relationships that are already functioning and improving higher education and its contribution to society.

The outline for the chapter is as follows. In the first part of the chapter the key concepts involved in regionalization are unpacked and mapped on a continuum which is anchored by the notions of co-operation at one end moving to more formalized and intentional concept of integration and interdependence at the other end. This discussion is followed by an introduction to the analytical framework which involves three approaches to higher education regionalization; a functional approach, an organizational approach, and a political approach. These three approaches are inter-related; they are not independent silos of activities. To elucidate the framework, commonly known as the FOPA model (Knight, 2013) and illustrate the relationship among the three approaches, examples from the higher education landscape in Africa are highlighted. In the second part, several issues and challenges to the regionalization of higher education are identified and discussed. They include both generic and Africa-specific, topics such as the driving rationales, objectives, and outcomes, the issues of language, regional governance, as well as unintended consequences and risks.

MAPPING OF REGIONALIZATION TERMS

The analysis of the 'process of higher education regionalization' involves a multitude of terms such as collaboration, harmonization, and integration. At times, the terms are used interchangeably, and at other times they have very different meanings (Woldegiorgis, 2013). While this confusion of terms is not unusual with new developments, it does lead to misunderstandings and muddles. The terms and concepts that are most commonly linked to regionalization include the following:

co-operation, integration, harmonization, convergence, collaboration, community, coherence, partnership, and alignment. Worth noting is the number of words that start with 'co' indicating the notion of 'togetherness'. The similarity among these terms is striking but when studied more closely subtle and important differences emerge (Knight, 2012). The next section focuses on the conceptual mapping of these terms, their meaning, and their relation to one another.

It is both challenging and enlightening to discern the differences and similarities among these terms and then try to group and map them. This could be criticized as a rather subjective and normative exercise, but the purpose is to stimulate reflection and raise questions. The categorization of terms is highly influenced by the language of analysis. What these terms mean in English will probably differ from how they are used in other languages and dialects.

Thus, it is important to ask what is the principle factor for grouping the terms and secondly, what does movement along the continuum or scale represent. In short, the groups include terms of similar levels of intensity of activity and the continuum represents the degree of intended 'togetherness' or what is often labelled 'regionalness' (Terada, 2003). At one end of the continuum is the concept of co-operation while integration is at the opposite end. Co-operation represents a fairly loose and open kind of relationship while integration denotes a much stronger cohesion and collective type of arrangement often referred to as a community or 'common area'.

The risk of placing these terms on a continuum is that regionalization is understood to be a linear progression along this scale. This is definitely not the case as change rarely happens in such a systematic way. Most importantly, the objectives and anticipated outcomes of regionalization differ among regions and for various regionalization strategies. One region of the world may be working towards alignment and collaboration rather than harmonization and convergence while other regions may make integration the ultimate goal. An effective way to look at this continuum is through a musical metaphor. The collaboration and partnership group can be likened to an informal jazz concert where musicians gather to play the same composition with individual interpretations while the harmonization and integration end can be compared to a professional orchestral performance where different musicians are playing the same musical composition under a single conductor and common interpretation of the music (Yavaprabhas, 2010).

Figure 1.1 presents a schematic diagram of the mapping of terms related to regionalization. The first group includes co-operation, collaboration, and partnership. Networking could be added to this list. These terms denote an open, voluntary and perhaps informal type of relationship among actors. In practical terms, it describes the multitude of bilateral and multilateral collaborative activities by universities and other higher education actors. In Africa, this includes pan-African initiatives as well as those organized by sub-regional bodies, especially the major university associations like the Inter-University Council of East Africa (IUCEA), Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Superieur (CAMES) and the Southern African Regional University Association (SARUA).

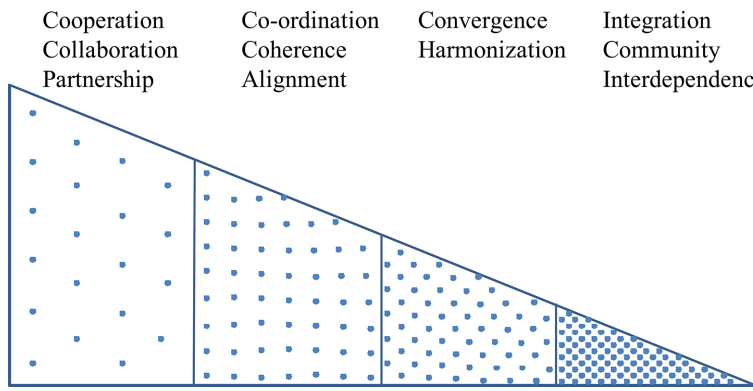

Figure 1.1. Mapping of higher education regionalization terms. (Source: Knight, 2013)

The second group of terms- co-ordination, coherence and alignment- introduces an element of organization and some adaptation to ensure that the interactions among higher education actors in the region are complementary, productive and bring added value. In practice, this would include the organized networks, joint education programmes, or research partnerships among higher education institutions and systems.

The third group of terms- harmonization and convergence- involves stronger and more strategic links and can involve systemic changes both at institutional and national levels. This can include the development of regional quality assurance schemes; an academic credit system with a common currency for determination of credit or workload; similar interpretations of degree levels such as BA, MA, and Ph.D.; regional citation index; or compatible academic calendars. Interesting to note is that the African Union has chosen to label its regionalization plan as the African Union strategy for harmonization of higher education programmes. Does this imply a significant emphasis on the notion of convergence of higher education programmes and policies which is a big step beyond co-operation and co-ordination? This will be discussed in the following chapters.

The fourth group of terms- integration, community or common area- represents more formalized, institutionalized and comprehensive levels of connection and relationships. In practice, this would involve regional level agreements and bodies that aim to facilitate a more robust and sustainable type of regional work such as 'a common higher education and research space.' It is important to emphasize that this is a mapping of concepts not a depiction of the phases of the regionalization process.

It is equally interesting to look at concepts which are intentionally not included in this conceptual mapping but which are used and appear in the literature. Terms such as standardization, conformity, uniformity, compliance, and homogenization are omitted because they do not acknowledge the important differences among

systems and actors within a region. This underlines a fundamental value or tenet of higher education regionalization which is respect for and recognition of differences and diversity among key actors, systems, and stakeholders. Failure to recognize this diversity can lead to the 'zipper effect' whereby being completely interlocked can neglect differences, stifle innovation, and lead to homogenization (Knight, 2012).

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PROCESS OF HIGHER EDUCATION REGIONALIZATION

Regionalization is not a straightforward or uniform process. Progress evolves according to the specific goals and activities plus cultural and political contexts. Thus, it is necessary to pay attention to factors which influence and characterize the evolution of regionalization. For example, when and why is the regionalization process characterized as being informal or formal, bottom-up or top-down, ad hoc or intentional, gradual or by quantum leaps, internally or externally driven, and finally whether it is reactive, proactive or strategic?

These factors characterize the development and governance of any change process and are central to the analysis of the stages of the regionalization process as illustrated in Figure 1.2. The informal end of the spectrum could be represented by bilateral and multilateral activities initiated and managed by higher education institutions and organizations within the region. A more formal approach would involve policy making or regulating bodies which apply to a more organized or institutionalized dimension to the regionalization process.

Bottom-up or top-down is another key variable. For instance, initiatives coming from the higher education institutions are most often seen as representing a bottom-up approach, while regional (and in many cases national) level bodies or legally binding or regulatory agreements characterize a top-down approach.

Another critical factor is whether the higher education sector itself is driving regionalization or whether the process is being promoted and managed by external actors such as trade, geo-political, immigration, industry related bodies which all have their own agenda. This factor is directly linked to key rationales and expected outcomes. For example, if higher education regionalization is being used as a tool for political or economic integration, the activities and results might differ than if the process was managed by the education sector for purposes of improving the quality and relevance of the education, research, knowledge, and service to society. The role of education services in regional trade agreements could be an example of an external sector regulating the higher education regionalization process.

Progression along the continuum is another important dimension to consider. A gradual incremental approach is evolutionary with critical mass and changes gradually being built over time. A quantum leap approach is different and could be described as more of a revolutionary approach and involve a major breakthrough often catalysed by a top-down intervention or formalized declaration.

It is recognized that change is seldom linear as illustrated in Figure 1.2. It likely involves several steps forward followed by some steps backward etc. Finally, it is interesting to reflect on whether the higher education actors such as institutions, organizations, national government agencies, regional or inter-regional bodies are (1) reacting to external factors and mandates to promote regionalization; (2) whether they are proactive in seeing the benefits of increased collaboration and alignment for higher education research and education; or (3) whether their efforts are indeed strategic and based on a vision for how to enhance higher education and its contributions to society through regionalization efforts.

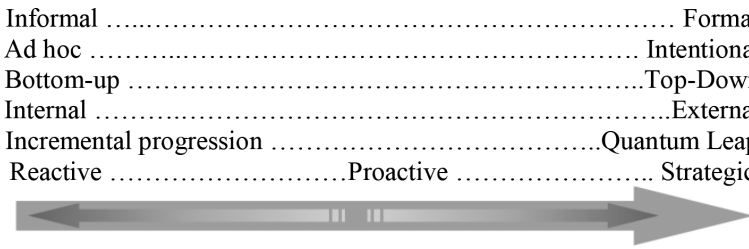

Figure 1.2. Factors characterizing the higher education regionalization process. (Source: Knight, 2013)

In the next section, the discussion moves from a look at the characteristics of the process to a discussion of the FOPA model including three approaches or key elements of higher education regionalization.

THE FUNCTIONAL/ORGANIZATIONAL /POLITICAL APPROACHES (FOPA) MODEL TO THE REGIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Building and Strengthening Current Connections and Activities

Regionalization can be understood as an intentional process, a desire to build on what is already happening within the region and move beyond an ad hoc situation of co-operation to a more planned approach. For several regions of the world, this is seen as a logical and essential next step towards formalizing intra-regional co-operation. It can often emerge from a belief that it is important to know and interact with your neighbours while at the same time maintain involvement with distant relations. It is understood, therefore, that regionalization occurs in concert with the internationalization of higher education activities. International co-operation, whether it is intra-regional or inter-regional is not a zero sum situation. The current reality is that regional co-operation and alignment of systems is becoming increasingly important but not to the exclusion of other international relationships. History will likely demonstrate that regionalization and internationalization have a symbiotic

relationship. They co-exist, can be complementary or competitive, and each will have prominence at different stages of international co-operation (Knight, 2012).

Functional, Organizational and Political Approaches

Three inter-related approaches- the functional approach, the organizational approach and the political approach constitute the core of the proposed FOPA model. These approaches are not mutually exclusive. They are not three separate silos; they work in unison complementing and reinforcing each other. While this is the optimal situation it does not always happen in practice because conflicting priorities or politics can cause tension among the three approaches. At any one time, one approach could be more dominant than another. But, ultimately there needs to be progress on all three to ensure sustainability. Current realities will dictate the emphasis attributed to one approach over the other. Figure 1.3 illustrates the relationship and intersection of these three approaches.

Figure 1.3. The FOPA Model of higher education regionalization

The first approach takes a functional perspective of regionalization and focuses on the practical activities of higher education institutions and systems. Functional approach initiatives can be put into two distinct groups. The first group relates to strategies which facilitate closer alignment and transparency among national/sub-regional higher education systems. The second category includes programmes like student mobility schemes, cross-border collaborative education programmes, pan-regional universities and centres of excellence. The relationship between these two groups is critical as the systems/policies in group one are needed to facilitate and expedite the programmes in group two. For instance, compatibility among quality assurance systems and academic credit systems will help student mobility

programmes within a region. Generally, it is a more complex and serious undertaking to align national systems within a region like Africa than to establish multi-lateral academic activities and programmes.

The second approach refers to the organizational architecture that evolves to develop and guide the regionalization initiatives in a more systematic (although some might call bureaucratic) manner. It is labelled organizational approach because frameworks, structures, agencies are necessary to help establish and oversee regional level and intra-regional initiatives. A diversity of networks and organizations are emerging which include government and non-government bodies, professional organizations, foundations, and networks. These entities assume a variety of responsibilities – policy making, funding, research, capacity building, regulation, and advocacy among others. Table 1.1 presents generic examples of each of the FOPA model.

Table 1.1. Generic examples of the FOPA model of higher education regionalization

Approach	*Generic Examples*
Functional	*Alignment of Higher Education Systems* Quality assurance and accreditation frameworks. Academic credit system. Degree levels and structures. Recognition of qualifications and titles. Academic calendar – years and semesters. Qualification frameworks. ITC platforms. Research citation index. Inter-library loan systems.
	Collaborative Academic Programmes Academic mobility schemes- students, professors, scholars. Research networks, clusters, and projects. Cross-border programmes- double, joint, twining, branch campus. Regional centres of excellence. Institutional agreements- bilateral and multilateral. OER and ODL. Pan-regional university.
Organizational	*Organizational Architecture* Networks and Organizations. Foundations. Governmental/non-governmental agencies. Levels: pan-regional, regional, sub-regional.
Political	*Political will* Declarations. Agreements/ Conventions/Treaties. Summits/Task Forces/ Dialogues.

Source: Knight (2013)

The third approach involves political will and strategies that put higher education initiatives on the agenda of decision making bodies. The political approach helps to launch major programmes or funding schemes and to formalize initiatives. Declarations of intent, binding conventions, treaties, protocols, agreements, and special meetings like summits or policy dialogues are instruments for generating political support and visibility in order to make regionalization of higher education a priority. This approach can be characterized as having more of a top-down, formal and intentional orientation and is normally seen as key to gaining financial and political support.

APPLICATION OF FOPA MODEL TO AFRICA

The purpose of Table 1.2 is to illustrate the fundamental elements of the 'three approaches' of the FOPA model by using examples from Africa. It is noted that not all regionalization initiatives are included and those that are listed are at different stages of development with various degrees of sustainability. The chart is intended to be illustrative only not comprehensive. The other chapters in the book will flesh out the elements or activities for each approach as it applies to regionalization of higher education in Africa.

Table 1.2. Applying the FOPA model to Africa

Approach	*Examples from Africa*
Functional	*Alignment of Higher Education System* African Regional Accreditation and Regional Qualification Frameworks. African Union Harmonization Strategy. NEPAD-E Africa Programme. African Quality Rating Mechanism. South African Qualifications Framework. East African Qualifications Framework.
	Collaborative Programmes Pan-Africa University. New Partnerships for Africa's Development (NEPAD). African Virtual University. African On-line Digital Library. Roster of African Professionals (AAU). Mwalimu Nyerere African Scholarship Scheme. Partnership for Higher Education in Africa (PHEA). Pan-Africa Institute of University Governance. Open Education Africa. African Books Collective. Database of African Theses and Dissertations. AAU Staff Exchange Programmes. Tuning Africa.

(Continued)

Table 1.2. (Continued)

Approach	*Examples from Africa*
Organizational	*Organizational Architecture* African Union (AU). Conference of Ministers of Education of African Union (COMEDAF). Association for Development of Education in Africa (ADEA). Association of African Universities (AAU). African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN). The Conference of Rectors, Vice Chancellors and Presidents (CORVIP). Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA). Association for the Internationalization of Education (ANIE). African Council for Distance Education (ACDE). South Africa Regional University Association (SARUA). Inter-University Council of East Africa (IUCEA). Conseil Africaine et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Superior (CAMES). The Agence Universitaire de la Francophonie (AUF). The Association of Arab Universities (AARU). African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF). African Network of Scientific and Technological Institutions. Consortium for Advanced Research Training in Africa (CARTA). African Regional Bureau UNESCO. African Development Bank –ADB.
Political	*Declarations, Conventions* Arusha Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications of Higher Education in Africa. Southern Africa Development Community- Regional Protocol on Education and Training (SADC). *Summits, Task Forces, Policy Dialogues* Conference of Ministers of Education of African Union Meetings. EU-African Policy Dialogues on Higher Education. Trust Africa: Policy Dialogue Series on Higher Education in Africa. African Economic Community and Regional Economic Communities.

THE AFRICAN UNION STRATEGY FOR HARMONIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

The interest and activity in higher education regionalization was triggered in 2007 by the African Union's release of a major report The African Union Strategy for Harmonization of Higher Education Programmes (AU-HEP) (African Union, 2007). The rationale driving the strategy was based on the belief that it would help to foster co-operation in information exchange, harmonization of procedures and policies, and attainment of comparability among qualifications to facilitate professional mobility for both employment and further study. Furthermore, the AU-HEP was

designed to develop an African quality assurance mechanism and a rating system for higher education which would ultimately contribute to greater quality of education in Africa. The intent was also to promote international, continental, and regional co-operation by creating awareness, and promoting revision and ratification of the Arusha convention (Woldetensae, 2009).

The strategy focused on building closer links among higher education institutions, networks, national systems, regional university associations and other key higher education actors. Examples of current pan-African higher education regionalization initiatives include efforts to facilitate the establishment and alignment of quality assurance and accreditation systems (see Chapter 5) student mobility schemes (see Chapter 6), common degree levels, a research/education ICT backbone, and research networks (see Chapter 9). These initiatives illustrate the intention and commitment of Africa to establish stronger regional collaboration and harmonization of systems while still recognizing the importance of bilateral and multi-lateral internationalization efforts (Hoosen, Butcher, & Njenga, 2009).

As discussed in the section on mapping regionalization concepts, there are myriad of terms to describe or explain regionalization. The African Union, and subsequently, the Association of African Universities decided to use the term harmonization to describe the process and defined it as follows:

> Harmonization refers to the agreement, synchronization and co-ordination of higher education provision in Africa. Harmonization is not synonymous with standardization, creating uniformity, or achieving identical higher education systems. Whilst developing and agreeing to minimum standards and ensuring equivalency and comparability of qualifications between and within countries are important elements of this process, a primary focus is to enhance quality across the sector and facilitate processes that lead higher education systems to be able to inter-operate more effectively to the benefit of development on the continent. (Woldetensae, 2009, p. 3)

Of interest is that in defining the term harmonization it was explicitly stated as not being the same as standardization and uniformity. To guide the process a set of five sound principles were laid out. They are that harmonization should be (1) an African-driven process; (2) involve the mobilization of all the key players; (3) enhanced with appropriate infrastructural support and funding; (4) not disrupt, but enhance, national educational systems and programmes; and (5) involve improvement of quality through appropriate funding and infrastructural provisions in each country (Woldetensae, 2009).

With the definition and guiding principles clearly laid out, five specific goals were established for the harmonization process of higher education in Africa. They are: (1) bridge the gap between disparate educational systems that exist as a result of colonial legacies by co-ordinating efforts of national accreditation bodies; (2) provide an integrating platform for dialogue and action to develop strong regional harmonization initiatives that cohere into a continental process of

harmonization; (3) facilitate the recognition of academic qualifications and promote the mobility of African students and academic staff across the continent; (4) promote the development of effective quality assurance mechanisms; and (5) ensure that African higher education institutions become an increasingly dynamic force in the international higher education arena. It is interesting to note that the fifth goal specifically addresses the role that harmonization plays with regards to international higher education.

To achieve these ambitious goals five areas of action were identified. The strategies include: (1) establishment and maintenance of continental political commitment to the process of harmonization; (2) co-operation in information exchange; (3) development and maintenance of a continental framework for higher education qualifications; (4) creation of minimum standards in targeted qualifications; and (5) establishment of joint curriculum development and student mobility schemes.

Other chapters in this book elaborate on the progress of implementation the AU-HEP and making regionalization a reality. This chapter tries to analyse the five strategies through the lens of the function/organizational/political framework previously described. It is revealing that the first action step relates to the political approach. This acknowledges the reality that nothing will move forward in a sustainable manner unless there is political will be the key actors. The second and fifth actions address programmes that facilitate the regionalization process while the third and fourth strategies are concrete strategies to permit the alignment of the education system. These last four points are examples of the functional approach to regionalization. Implicit in the action steps, but not explicitly stated are the agencies and networks which form the organizational structures.

ISSUES, QUESTIONS, AND CHALLENGES

The topic of higher education regionalization is multi-faceted and complex. The proposed FOPA model is a step towards developing a framework for analysing diverse questions and matters related to the regionalization process. This section of the chapter raises some of the generic issues that merit further reflection and which will be discussed in more detail in the following chapters.

Rationales, Objectives, and Outcomes

There is no doubt that a wide variety of stakeholders and actors are involved in the higher education regionalization process. Some are within the higher education sector while others represent diverse sectors and political institutions. All have their own rationales, objectives and expected outcomes which merit close examination. Experience shows that these different expectations can co-exist, complement, and/or compete with each other. For example, a higher education regionalization process which is driven by economic rationales or for geo-political purposes can jeopardize, not enhance, academic benefits and impact.

While recognizing that rationales, objectives, outcomes can differ by stakeholder group, it is valuable to determine whether there are overarching rationales and objectives which characterize regionalization efforts. A review of regionalization processes in different parts of world reveals that principal rationales and expected outcomes for regionalization relate to the following objectives: (1) to promote peace, harmony and mutual understanding within a region and among different cultures and countries, (2) to enhance economic competitiveness at the global level by increasing scientific and knowledge capacity within the region, (3) to develop human resources capacity and mobility to foster economic growth and diminish the divide between developing and developed countries within the region, (4) to foster closer collaboration among knowledge communities to address regional and global issues that can only be solved through co-operation, (5) to further develop a sense of regional identity and trust among nations in order to facilitate stronger political and security alliances (Knight, 2012). These generic goals address some of the political, economic and social-cultural factors involved in regionalization of higher education. They are often articulated by leaders internal and external to higher education. Important to note is that academic benefits are not front and centre in these driving rationales. This raises the question as to who is driving the process and whether it is for political, economic, social-cultural, or academic reasons and benefits. Most commonly it is a combination of factors, not just one.

There are equally important objectives that relate directly to the main functions of higher education- teaching/learning, research, and service to society. They can include the following: (1) to ensure that the quality of higher education programmes and research is strengthened through sharing of best practices and capacity building within the region, (2) to address pressing national, regional and world issues through regional research networks, clusters, and knowledge co-production, (3) to develop deeper understanding and appreciation in students, scholars and academics of the cultures, languages, values, histories within the region, (4) to educate and prepare students for citizenship and a career enhanced by critical perspectives and understandings of their role and contribution at the local, national, regional and global levels. Rationales and objectives reflect basic values and priorities. Furthermore, they underpin the strategies that higher education institutions, organizations, and systems will use as the roadmap for regionalization (Knight, 2012). Hence, the necessity of stakeholder groups to articulate clear and coherent rationales, objectives and outcomes for different regionalization initiatives and secondly, to undertake a careful analysis of them to ensure that all implications are understood.

Regional Governance

The myriad of organizations, institutions, networks, governmental agencies, and non-governmental bodies involved in various aspects of regionalization can make

governance complicated and challenging. Whether it is for the alignment of academic systems, sharing the production and application of knowledge, or strengthening collaborative education programmes and research, there are many players who bring different strengths and different agendas. There is no 'one way' to effectively govern regionalization as political, historical, social, economic contexts differ within and across regions. One size does not fit all. The following chapters will both illustrate and question how to develop the optimal mix of actors and the most appropriate balance of bottom-up and top-down, informal and informal, ad hoc and intentional strategies. An overly bureaucratic and stringent approach to regionalization governance can smother initiative and innovation; but, lack of a coherent and careful governance approach can just as easily lead to chaos, competition, and conflict.

Language

Another key issue which merits serious consideration is the importance of indigenous languages and the reality of the colonial legacy of language. The diversity and richness of indigenous linguistic expression is a value treasured by many, but the demands of a more interconnected region and world introduce the growing tendency to find a common language to facilitate communication. In higher education exchanges language is a complicated and controversial issue. While the situation differs from region to region finding the optimal balance between the competing priorities of (1) teaching/learning/researching in native or colonial languages, (2) encouraging students to learn additional languages, (3) finding a common language for intra-regional academic co-operation programmes and exchange of research findings, and (4) getting access to foreign language research and academic literature, is a complex and often a politically nuanced challenge. This is particularly challenging in Africa as the continent with a very high linguistic diversity, there are an estimated 1500–2000 African languages (Heine & Heine, 2000).

Participation and Engagement for All

Just as there is concern about access and equity for student enrolment in higher education, there is a similar issue with regards to which institutions, organizations, countries, will be fully engaged in regionalization activities and which ones will be left out. For example, the regionalization process would not reach its potential if only leading universities, more established organizations, and developed national systems were engaged in regional level collaboration and exchange. Already, there is a tendency for regional networks to be used as an opportunity for status building among elite institutions and not capacity building and sharing among all types of universities. The engagement of a cross-section of higher education institutions and organizations is an issue of vital importance to the success and sustainability of both intra-regional and inter-regional co-operation.

Unintended Consequences – Benefits and Risks

New trends and developments bring positive outcomes, but it is important to be mindful of unintended negative consequences as well (Knight, 2009). Regionalization is a process predicated on a respect for differences in local culture and context, but concern lingers that regionalization in the form of integration can lead to an unintended outcome of standardization and homogenization.

A second potential outcome is brain drain. The expansion of student, scholar, and academic mobility schemes is a hallmark of both regionalization and internationalization. Over the last decade, the exponential increase in student mobility has stimulated new efforts to develop compatible academic credit systems, quality assurance procedures, qualification recognition, semester/academic calendar years. There are solid reasons and important benefits of increased academic mobility. But there are unintended negative consequences as well. The 'great brain gain race' known for the attraction and retention of talented foreign students and scholars to build the domestic knowledge economy is one of them. The terms 'brain circulation' and 'brain sharing' are now preferred terms to describe the attraction of human resources through academic mobility programmes. In many ways, these are appropriate terms but they also tend to camouflage the fact that some countries are experiencing a net 'brain loss' resulting in a smaller talent pool and potentially jeopardizing their national economic and social development. Another metaphor for academic mobility is the 'brain chain' which involves a net loss of brains for countries lower in the hierarchy of the brain chain. This is a reality for many African countries. In the analysis of higher education regionalization, it is imperative that attention is given to the potential benefits and risks, winners and losers, pros and cons. A 360-degree analysis of the impact of regionalization is required.

Innovation

Innovation is a term that is on the lips of leaders and policy makers in all sectors. Higher education is no exception. Innovation is linked with the application of knowledge and insight in new ways. Systems, whether they are medical, economic, manufacturing, environmental, or education thrive on new ideas and innovation. This is true for higher education institutions and national systems as well. It is essential to keep in mind that any process of alignment, harmonization or convergence of national higher education systems retains the capacity for innovation and change. Introducing another layer of bureaucracy and regulation to higher education need not stifle innovation in the classroom and research centres or, in institutional level governance and national/sub-regional policies. Just as regionalization is adapting to new trends, realities, and opportunities, it, in turn, needs to accommodate and stimulate new ideas and innovation.

These are only a few examples of issues and questions which warrant further reflection and exploration in relation of the regionalization of higher education in

general and in Africa particularly. Other major topics include: financial and economic implications of higher education regionalization; the relationship between higher education regionalization, internationalization, and Africanization; higher education as an agent or tool for political and economic regional integration; implications of higher education regionalization on human resources development and mobility. These issues will be more fully explored in the following chapters and the final chapter of the book.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The purpose of this first chapter is to present a framework to better understand and analyse the concept and process of higher education regionalization and its current developments in Africa. The FOPA framework builds on the multitude of activities, networks, and bi-lateral/multi-lateral relationships that are already functioning and improving higher education and its contribution to society. The analysis shows that while all three approaches- Functional, Organization, and Political are currently being used in Africa higher education regionalization, the predominant one appears to be the Functional approach. To date, the Political approach or political will has been primarily expressed through the support of the African Union. As noted, the African Union strategy for harmonization of higher education programmes (African Union, 2007) has been the key catalyst for current regionalization efforts. It is revealing to reflect on the use of the term 'harmonization' in the African Union strategy. This concept was deliberately and appropriately used to dispel the concern that standardization was the goal. Yet, as Figure 1.1 illustrates, the notion of harmonization involves more than information exchange, comparability, co-operation, co-ordination, and alignment. It involves the convergence of policies, programmes and practices which demand stronger and more strategic links and can mean systemic changes both at institutional and national levels. This means fundamental reforms which can take years to formally embed in higher education systems and values.

The metaphor of a jazz concert versus a symphony was introduced in the chapter to describe different modes of regionalization. Harmonization was compared to an orchestral performance where different musicians are playing the same musical composition under a single conductor. This differs from a jazz concert where musicians gather to play the same composition with individual interpretations. This was likened to co-operation, co-ordination, and alignment. The following chapters will help to answer the question as to what kind of African music could be an appropriate metaphor for African higher education regionalization process because a fundamental tenet of regionalization is that it is done in concert with local culture, history, and politics. It is not a borrowed, adopted or externally driven process but one that is done the African way. The following chapters will demonstrate the African way and determine the progress to date and the prospects for the future.

NOTE

[1] This is an updated and adapted version of the article by Knight, J. (2013) "Towards African Higher Education Regionalization and Harmonization: Functional, Organizational, and Political Approaches" in A. Wiseman & C. Wolhuter (Eds.), *The Development of Higher Education in Africa: Prospects and Challenges.* International Perspectives on Education and Society Series, Emerald Publishing, UK.

REFERENCES

ADEA. (2010). *Creating an African higher education and research area- concept note.* Accra, Ghana: Association for the Development of Education in Africa- Working Group on Higher Education.

ADEA. (2015). *Policy brief on "Harmonization of higher education in Africa or why we need to hang in there together.* Accra, Ghana: Sushita Gokool-Ramdoo.

African Union. (2007). *Harmonization of higher education programmes in Africa: A strategy for the African union: Summary report.* Meeting of the Bureau of the Conference of Ministers Of Education of the African Union, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (COMEDAF II+).

Cooper, A., Hughes, C. W., & Lombaerde, P. (2008). *Regionalization and global governance: The taming of globalization.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Heine, B., & Heine, B. (2000). *African languages: An introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hoosen, S., Butcher, N., & Njenga, B. (2009). Harmonization of higher education programmes: A strategy for the African union. *African Integration Review, 3*(4), 1–36.

Knight, J. (2008). *Higher education in turmoil: The changing world of internationalization.* Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Knight, J. (2009). New developments and unintended consequences: Whither thou goest, internationalization? In R. Bhandari & S. Laughlin (Eds.), *Higher education on the move: New developments in global mobility* (pp. 113–125). New York, NY: Institute for International Education.

Knight, J. (2012). A conceptual framework for the regionalization of higher education in Asia. In J. Hawkins, K. Mok, & D. Neubauer (Eds.), *Higher education regionalization in Asia Pacific: Implications for governance, citizenship, and university Transfo.* London: Routledge.

Knight, J. (2013). Towards African higher education regionalization and harmonization: Functional, organizational, and political approaches. In A. Wiseman & C. Wolhuter (Eds.), *The development of higher education in Africa: Prospects and challenges. International perspective on education and society series.* Bingley: Emerlald Publishing.

Ogachi, O. (2009). Internationalization vs regionalization of higher education in East Africa and the challenges of quality assurance and knowledge production. *Higher Education Policy, 22*(3), 331–347.

Terada, T. (2003). Constructing an 'East Asian' concept and growing regional identity; From EAEC to ASEAN +3. *The Pacific Review, 16*(2), 251–277.

Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2013). Conceptualizing harmonization of higher education systems: The application of regional integration theories on higher education studies. *Higher Education Studies, 2*(3), 12.

Woldetensae, Y. (2009). *Regional harmonization of higher education for Africa: Background document.* Accra, Ghana: Association of African Universities.

Yavaprabhas, S. (2010). *Regional harmonization of higher education in ASEAN*. Global Higher Education Forum 2010, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia.

Jane Knight
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
University of Toronto, Canada

EMNET TADESSE WOLDEGIORGIS

2. HISTORICAL AND POLITICAL PERSPECTIVES[1]

On Regionalization of African Higher Education

INTRODUCTION

Within the framework of the functional, organizational and political approach, the political dimension is a crucial component explaining the historical and political context of regionalization processes in Africa. Political dimension, as stated by Knight (2012, p. 19), "…refers to political will and strategies that put higher education initiatives on the agenda of decision-making bodies". It focuses on analysing the historical and political context of policy formulation processes and its ideological justifications. Here, the evolution of the policy itself, its rationale, intended goals and its legal frameworks are discussed.

The history of regionalization of higher education in Africa is a subset of the regionalization processes of all sorts in the continent. Regional collaboration on various policy issues in Africa emerged immediately after independence in the 1960s. As Africa was emerging from a long period of colonization, the idea of regional co-operation was perceived as a necessity for newly independent states to have a joint endeavour against poverty. As argued by Rugumamu (2004, p. 2) stating the notion of the time "…if Europe needs economic and political integration for strength and prosperity, Africa needs it for survival" (Rugumamu, 2004). The newly independent African states were weak in all senses of the term inheriting not only crumbling colonial institutions which did not have legitimacy from the public but also were inefficient in representing the African cause at a global scale. Thus, there were big expectations from the newly formed African governments to ensure the full independence of the continent and achieve economic development.

The idea of African nationalism and pan-African movements were also popular among the newly formed governments of Africa. Nationalist African leaders such as Julius Nyerere, Kwame Nkrumah, Jomo Kenyatta, Nnamdi Azikiwe, Sekou Toure and Emperor Haile Selassie were advocating the establishment of a pan-African institution against any form of imperialism (Mazrui, 1980). Thus, it was in this context that the idea of close co-operation and regional integration started to surface among independent African states. This initiative of creating an African regional integration forum was then conceived in April 1958 on the first pan-African conference held in Accra, Ghana with eight independent states[2] with the objective

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 29–46.

of creating a regional organization that could serve as a forum for regional policy dialogue.

It was within this context that the idea of regional integration was institutionalized in Africa with the establishment of the first continental regional organization called Organization of African Unity (OAU) in 1963. The OAU charter stipulated its core principles around the main idea of integration through strengthening unity and solidarity among African states, promoting socio-economic and political co-operation among them, preserving the territorial integrity and sovereignty of member states, and promoting co-operation at international levels within the structure of the United Nations (Organization of African Unity, 1964). Thus, it was within this set of priority areas that higher education was taken as the major issue of regional collaboration in the continent.

There are two important processes that constitute the evolution of regionalization of higher education in Africa which this chapter will discuss in detail. The first one is the consecutive intergovernmental conferences among African Ministers of Education that brought the dialogue on regionalization of higher education in Africa at continental levels from the 1960s to the 1980s. The second process that constituted and impacted the evolution of regionalization of higher education in Africa is the institutional transformation of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) to the African Union (AU) in the post-2000 era. This transformation brought higher education policy issues to the mainstream of regional policy discourses among African leaders as one of the main processes of regionalization. The transformation of the European Community to the European Union, for instance, has impacted a lot of regional policy issues in Europe since 1992; in the same way, the transformation from the OAU to AU has also brought new paradigms in the regionalization of higher education in Africa.

This chapter, therefore, deals with the above two processes providing analysis on the genesis of regionalization of higher education in Africa. Here, regionalization of higher education is understood as the process of regional policy initiative to deal with a particular higher education issue among members of a certain region. In a broader sense of the term, it includes the close collaboration of higher education actors for particularly agreed ends. As it is defined by Knight (2013, p. 2), it is the "process of building closer collaboration and alignment among higher education actors and systems within a defined area or framework called a region". Thus, within this context, the chapter explores and analyses the historical evolution of regionalization of higher education in Africa and its implications for the current initiatives.

EARLY MOVES TOWARDS REGIONALIZATION

The years immediately after independence were considered as landmarks in the struggle for African identity as the newly independent states were working on nation-building and economic development. This was the beginning of the so-called 'development decade' as declared by the UN in the 1960s, whereby issues of

development dominated the political discourse of African governments. The higher education sector along with primary and secondary education was given high priority so as to train more professionals and skilled manpower to replace and expand the newly decolonized African institutions (Yesufu, 1973). Higher education was also taken as an important engine of economic development for the newly independent African states. African solidarity or pan-Africanism or co-operation on policy issues was the norm of African nationalists of the time. Regional co-operation on education policies in general and higher education, in particular, were also framed within this philosophy of 'developmental universities'.

African Ministers of Education in collaboration with other international and regional organizations like UNESCO, ECA, OAU and AAU had engaged in various conferences and developed regional plans on the future of higher education in Africa. Since 1961, UNESCO has organized seven regional intergovernmental conferences of Ministers of Education of African Member States – Addis Ababa, 1961; Abidjan, 1964; Nairobi, 1968; Lagos, 1976; Harare, 1982; Dakar, 1991; and Durban, 1998. Although each of these conferences focused on specific themes, the principal concern of each of them was to foster intra-African co-operation. In fact, these intergovernmental conferences were not particularly focused on higher education; instead, they addressed the whole levels of education in a comprehensive manner but still higher education as an agenda was mentioned in all meetings.

The first intergovernmental conference of African Ministers of Education was held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia 15–25 May 1961. The conference was convened jointly by the Executive Secretary of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and the Director-General of UNESCO with the theme "Education and its role for Development in Africa" which mainly focused on issues of access, educational planning, curriculum reform, and promoting collaboration in technical and vocational fields among African countries (UNESCO & UNECA, 1961). The conference was a landmark for regional initiatives in higher education collaboration since it was the first of its kind to bring Ministers of education, education experts, and international organizations all together to deal with the future of education in Africa. The conference brought together 39 governments, ten United Nations Agencies, 24 governments as observers and 24 international non-governmental organizations including experts from UNESCO and the International Labour Organization (ILO). A general inventory on the education landscape of Africa was made in order to understand the existing challenges and the areas that need immediate intervention. The inventory covered a broad spectrum of issues including primary, secondary and higher education. According to the document published later, three major challenges were the main issues that came out as core areas for intervention. These were the challenges of infrastructure, access, and relevance. The inventory concluded that these three challenges could hinder the education sector in general from playing a significant role in Africa's development and thus needs immediate intervention.

Particularly in higher education, the report emphasized the urgency of the challenges in the higher education sector stating, "The problem is crucial in technical,

vocational and higher education, in laboratories and shops, where at present many requirements can only be met abroad" (UNESCO & UNECA, 1961, Para, p. 9). Based on the report of the inventory, African Ministers of education crafted a twenty-year regional strategic plan called 'Educational Development Plan' which was the first regional education policy and regulatory framework in Africa. The main objective of the plan was:

> To provide a forum for African states to decide on their priority educational needs to promote economic and social development in Africa and, in the light of these, to establish a first tentative short-term and long-term plan for educational development in the continent, embodying the priorities they had decided upon for the economic growth of the region. (UNESCO & UNECA, 1961, Para 7)

The strategic plan had also set specific goals, one of which was the provision of higher education for up to 20 percent of those who completed secondary education. Apart from that, in order to address the challenges of shortages of teachers at secondary and primary levels in the continent, the strategic plan recommended that more teachers need to be trained in higher education institutions. Based on the recommendation, many higher education institutions in Africa were given pressing responsibility to train more teachers for secondary and primary levels. Accordingly, between 1960 and 1974 with the help of international donors like UNESCO, UNDP, and UNICEF, more than 300,000 teachers were trained in Africa (Mngomezulu, 2010). Stating the future direction of higher education institutions in Africa, the twenty years plan stressed that intra-African co-operation should be the main priority area so as to mobilize international resources, exchange information, share experiences, promote pan-Africanism, and promote the revival of African civilization in the region (Chapter 6, Para 27 & 28). Thus, the 1961 intergovernmental conference was the first step for regionalization of higher education in Africa in terms of facilitating the first intergovernmental meeting for policy dialogue among African Ministers of education and other stakeholders. The impact, however, was insignificant as most African countries were not independent at that time. Apart from that, even if higher education was mentioned in the 1961 Addis Ababa conference, it was not the main agenda of the meeting.

Higher education became the main agenda for regional intergovernmental dialogue after a year in a regional conference which was held in Tananarive, Madagascar under the auspices of UNESCO in September 1962. The regional conference was held under the title "the Development of Higher Education in Africa" with the purpose of addressing the most pressing issues of the time:

a. Challenges of alternative and contextualization of the higher education curriculum to the specific realities of African people;
b. Challenges of organization, structure, administration and financing, faced in the creation or development of institutions themselves from the wider point of national policy.

The major philosophy of regional higher education policy initiatives at this time was 'Africanization' in a sense of redefining the role of African universities to suit the context of Africans. African Ministers of education of the time argued that universities in Africa do not reflect the socio-economic and political realities of the people since they were constructed within colonial frameworks (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013). Amadou Mahtar M'Bow, the Senegalese professor who later became director-general of UNESCO, for example, argued that:

> Present day systems of education are a means of perpetuating ways of thought and life that are different from those of the African societies and that the full development of cultural identity cannot be ensured unless the educational systems inherited from colonial days are called in question. (UNESCO, 1976, p. 74)

Thus, redefining the role of higher education institutions in Africa so as to align them in accordance with the socio-economic development needs of African nations was taken as a priority in the intergovernmental dialogue of the time. The idea of Africanization was also coupled with another pressing issue of the time which was promoting intra-African co-operation in the region. In order to promote intra-African co-operation among African higher education institutions, African Ministers of Education recommended the establishment of the Association of African Universities (AAU). Thus, the idea of establishing the AAU was conceived on the Tananarive conference which led to the establishment of the association later in Rabat, Morocco on November 12, 1967, with an initial membership of 34 African higher education institutions.

In both the 1961 Addis Ababa and 1962 Tananarive intergovernmental dialogues, UNESCO was the main player facilitating the intergovernmental dialogue. This has however changed a year after the 1962 Tananarive intergovernmental conference since an important historical event which brought a new player in the regionalization of African higher education came to being, which is the birth of the OAU. The OAU was established on May 25, 1963, in Addis Ababa. Since then, in addition to UNESCO, OAU has started to involve in regional education policy initiatives to bring together African governments to deal with issues of education in general. After the adoption of the OAU Charter in the same year, the organization had also incorporated 'Education and Cultural Co-operation' in its mission to deal specifically with issues of education (Organization of African Unity, 1963). Among others, on the Charter, member states pledged not only to harmonize their policies to facilitate educational and cultural co-operation but also other fields including defense and security co-operation; scientific and technical co-operation and health and nutritional co-operation (Article two of the Charter, 1963).

The involvement of OAU in the process of higher education regionalization along the UNESCO initiatives was however perceived by some experts of the time as overtaking UNESCO's initiatives[3] and at the same time there was also a concern of possible duplication of roles among OAU, UNESCO and other organizations

when it comes to regional policy initiatives of African education. This concern was reflected on the 1964 Abidjan regional conference of African Ministers of Education. Acting Secretary General of OAU Ato Kifle Wodajo for example stated in his speech during the conference that "…OAU need not duplicate the efforts of UNESCO but rather, should complement them" (UNESCO/ED/203, 1964). The participants of the 1964 Abidjan dialogue had also discussed the modalities that should be put in place to define the role of various actors when it comes to regional education issues. The conference later amended a new agenda that particularly defined the role and relationships among the Ministers of Education of African countries, UNESCO and OAU (UNESCO/ED/203, 1964). Accordingly, later in the same year, an ad hoc committee also submitted a draft resolution that explains the specific roles of OAU and UNESCO in relation to regional education policy initiatives which mainly facilitated the co-operation among various bodies to realize the Addis Ababa Plan. Despite the concern of confusion and duplications of roles between OAU and UNESCO however, UNESCO has basically continued taking most of the initiatives of regional higher education co-operation through mobilizing funding in subsequent years since OAU was not strong enough to support regional intergovernmental dialogue among African countries during those times.

The 1964 Abidjan intergovernmental dialogue has also brought the urgency of having a national education plan that addresses the issue of access and relevance. The discourse of 'relevance' used to be interpreted as 'adapting curriculum to the African context' or Africanization of curricula until the end of the 1980s. In the post-1990s however, the discourse has changed a bit and 'relevance' became interpreted in terms of 'market or employability'. The point here is, however, most of the regional agenda on higher education had barely changed in the 1960s. The notions of development universities, Africanization, and intra-African co-operation dominated the regional discourses of the time when it comes to regionalization of higher education. Apart from intergovernmental dialogues, however, there were little practical actions taken on regional higher education policy collaboration issues. The first five years of the Addis Ababa Plan were evaluated for the first time at the Nairobi intergovernmental conference organized in collaboration with UNESCO and OAU in 1968. The title of the conference was "Conference on Education and Scientific and Technical Training in Relation to Development in Africa" (UNESCO, 1968). This particular evaluative meeting was set up only to assess the short-term targets of the 1961 Addis Ababa Plan, for which statistical results were available. Even though the evaluation acknowledged the relative expansion of access in higher education provision in Africa regarding the increasing in the number of students and higher education institutions, the report indicated that the relevance of most of the training was not still adequately in line with the needs of Africa. If this persisted, according to the report, unemployment would be a challenge. Thus, the conference recommended that emphasis should be given to higher education fields that are highly relevant for the economic development of African countries.

In line with the recommendations of the conference, OAU and UNESCO also passed 14 points' joint resolutions of which resolution VI, VII, and IX recommended that African governments should give high priority to technical and vocational education (UNESCO, 1968). Resolution IX particularly proposed the creation of 'centres of excellence' to train highly qualified African scientists and engineers according to African needs. The OAU has given the mandate of constituting the centres of excellence (UNESCO, 1968, S. IX 2(d)). The creation of centres of excellence, however, has never been fully realized because of the lack of political commitment from member countries, the weak financial capacity of OAU, and disagreements on the specifics of the centres of excellence to be established among African Ministers of Education. The 1968 OAU and UNESCO joint resolution also made particular emphasis on "intra-African Co-operation in Higher Education" on resolution No.VIII. The assumption was that intra-African co-operation in higher education could mobilize resources for research among African experts, promote mutual understanding and co-operation among educated Africans, and strengthen African Unity (UNESCO, 1968, S. VIII 2(a–c)). Accordingly, Resolution VII recommended that African governments should (i) take practical steps putting their efforts together for research to realize intra-African co-operation among higher education institutions (ii) institute effective co-operation in exchanges of teachers, students, and research workers; (iv) create documentation and information centres (VIII 3(a–d)). At that time, intra-African co-operation on higher education was explained as a means of African Unity promoting international peace and understanding, while at the same time mitigating observable shortcomings of higher education in Africa, particularly in highly specialized fields. Even if the joint OAU-UNESCO resolution provided various recommendations on the promotion of intra-African co-operation in higher education, the recommendations have never been put into effect at institutional levels. Even if there were intra-African co-operation among higher education intuitions afterward, it is hardly possible to give the credit to the resolution since there is no indication that proves it is because of the resolution.

The Nairobi intergovernmental dialogue was also held a year after the inauguration of the Association of African Universities (AAU) in Rabat, Morocco in 1967 (AAU, 2014). The establishment of AAU in 1967 was a landmark in the regionalization of African higher education in a sense of being an instrument of promoting co-operation and exchange of information among higher education institutions in Africa. The Association represents common concerns of African higher education institutions at regional and international forums and supports research collaborations among institutions of higher education, information exchange, and teaching. Along the efforts of UNESCO, ECA, and OAU, the AAU also provided a new forum for African universities to deal with higher education issues at regional level. Since the time of its establishment, the AAU has made a number of calls for regional collaboration among higher education intuitions in Africa and has been playing a leading role in creating a forum for policy dialogue among various stakeholders. For instance, the comprehensive research call that brought higher education experts

from all corners of the world to discuss African higher education issues in the 1973 conference was the major one. After the conference, AAU published a book titled "Creating the African university: Emerging Issues of the 1970s" (Yesufu, 1973). In the same manner, later in 1996 AAU published also a report called "The African Experience with Higher Education" (Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996). These reports later became the main reference points for many regional policy initiatives made by both regional and international policy actors including the World Bank when it comes to African higher education issues.

The next intergovernmental meeting was held in Harare, Zimbabwe in 1982. The Conference of African Misters of Education was titled "policy and co-operation in the sphere of education in Africa" focusing on the issue of regional co-operation in the area of higher education mainly on science and technology (engineering, agriculture, mining, energy, and industry) (UNESCO, 1991). As a continuation of the Nairobi intergovernmental conference, the Harare meeting has also evaluated the general progress made by African higher education institutions in the area of science and technology. Accordingly, the Harare intergovernmental conference indicated that even though higher education enrolment showed an eightfold increase, rising from 142,000 in 1960 to 1,169,000 in 1980, the share of science and technology was evaluated as very low (Cisse, 1986). Thus, on the conference, African Ministers of Education and UNESCO representatives recommended that expanding more intra-regional co-operation should be taken as the main instrument to mobilize African experts and scientists to foster fast development in science and technology in Africa. In this regards, the Harare conference also pointed out two main challenges of intra-regional co-operation in African higher education, namely linguistic legacy of colonialism and lack or inadequacy of exchanges of information between African states. The African Ministers of Education thus recommended the promotion of sub-regional co-operations as the initial stage for regional or continental one since countries share relatively common language and culture at sub-regional levels. Sub-regional initiatives were also believed to facilitate the easy and fast exchange of information among neighboring countries. Thus, the Harare conference reaffirmed that regional collaboration at sub-regional levels in higher education has importance for the development of the sector.

The Arusha Convention as a Legislative Framework

The 1982 Harare intergovernmental dialogue was also held immediately after the introduction of the Arusha Convention in 1981, which focuses on the recognition of qualifications across African countries. The "Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education in the African states" or commonly known as the 'Arusha Convention' was adopted in Arusha, Tanzania, in December 1981 (UNESCO, 1981). (See Chapter 5) The convention was part of the initiatives of UNESCO which was started in 1947 to promote international academic mobility.

Accordingly, UNESCO adopted the same initiatives before Arusha convention in other regions including Latin America and the Caribbean (1974), Arab States (1978), Europe (1979), and Asia and Pacific (1983). The major aim of the initiative was facilitating recognition of qualifications in higher education across different African countries through creating a mechanism of comparability of certificates and credit transfer systems. This recommendation of UNESCO was well accepted by African countries at the beginning of the adoption of the convention and ratified by twenty member countries[4] (UNESCO, 2011). The number of members, however, did not keep rising as the years went by. Even if the recent revised convention was adopted in December 2014, no country had yet ratified it until the end of 2016 (see Chapter 7). The convention was, however, an important move in intra-African co-operation since the Lagos conference in terms of laying the legal foundation for recognitions of qualifications. In this sense, the Arusha convention was the first legal step ever taken to bring together diverse higher education systems in Africa by providing specific modalities of harmonization.

The major intention of the convention, as stated in Article 2(1) of the convention, was to serve as legal instrument of regionalization of higher education in Africa promoting close co-operation among higher education institutions in the region; adopting comparable criteria that guarantee the comparability of subjects of study and certificates, credits, degrees, diplomas and other qualifications (Arusha Convention Art. 2(1), 1981). One of the instruments that came along with the Arusha convention was the notion of 'credit transfer' as a facilitating tool for the recognition of qualifications. It is "the mechanism that allows for the credit obtained for studies successfully completed at one institution to be counted towards the award of a certificate, diploma or degree in another institution" (Arusha Convention Art. 1(8), 1981). The adoption of credit transfer system was intended to facilitate mobility of students and teachers across different African higher education institutions. As stated in Article 2(2) (a- iii) of the convention, one of the aims was "…to encourage exchanges and the greatest possible freedom of movement of teachers, students and researchers in the region." Apart from facilitating recognition of studies, the convention also aimed at alleviating the challenges faced by those returning to their countries after finishing their studies abroad to make their reintegration into the labour market easier in their countries as their qualification is comparable.

The Arusha convention is different from previous intergovernmental initiatives since it goes beyond recommendations but develops a comprehensive binding regulatory framework and implementation strategy that includes national, sub-regional and regional actors as it is clearly stated in Article 8(2) of the Convention:

> The Contracting States will designate a national body and place at its disposal the necessary means to enable it to collect process and file all information of use to it in its activities relating to the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas and degrees in higher education. (Article 8(2), Arusha Convention, 1981)

The convention also calls upon sub-regional organizations to play a steering and follow-up role in the course of implementing the convention. Sub-regional organizations such as the Southern Africa Regional Universities Association (SARUA) and the African and Malagasy Council of Higher Education (CAMES) for example were taken as major actors to put the convention into effect at sub-regional levels. At the regional level, a regional committee which is responsible for the implementation of the convention was set up from representatives of all contracting states and the committee meets every two years (UNESCO, 2011).

All these ideas, however, remain on paper since the Arusha convention was merely adopted in 1981 and has never been implemented. Even with those that signed the convention, the implementation process was difficult since specific modalities, strategies and procedures for execution among African countries have not been harmonized. In many instances, the exchange of information and documents related to higher education was poorly organized and fragmented. Many African countries do not have national educational regulatory agencies with a database that documents and disseminates higher education information for policy guidelines at national level. Moreover, the implementing bodies at all levels – national, sub-regional and regional- were not co-ordinated to mobilize the necessary resources needed for the implementation of the convention. Thus, the Arusha convention has remained at the policy level for about 30 years without significant efforts of implementation. Within these years, however, lots of things have changed necessitating the revision of the convention in order to incorporate global and regional developments in the higher education sector.

The introduction of ICT technology and the expansion of cross-border education, the emergence of private universities and new concerns of quality, the introduction of other regional higher education reforms elsewhere like the Bologna process, the adoption of the Lisbon Convention, and the new concept of treating higher education as a tradable commodity under GATS, etc. made revising the 1981 Arusha convention a necessity. Since the introduction of the Arusha convention, the number of higher education stakeholders has also grown fast posing new demands on the convention. In Addition to the 19 member states who ratified the convention and UNESCO; the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA), the World Conference on Higher Education (WCHE), the Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE), the African and Malagasy Council on Higher Education (CAMES), the AAU and the AUC also demanded the revision of the convention to incorporate new developments in the field.

These actors insisted the revision of the convention arguing that the convention is very general and needs detailed descriptions of how the stated aims will be implemented and how the different actors will be co-ordinated as the roles of various actors were not defined. The vague nature of the convention is also believed to contribute to the slow ratification processes. Since the beginning of the twenty-first century however, acknowledging the various importance of the convention, and taking the main changes that had taken place in higher education over the years, the Arusha convention has been revised six times with the support of UNESCO and

AUC: in Cape Town (2002), Dakar (2006), Nairobi (February, 2006), Dakar (July, 2006); Mombasa (2009); Nairobi (2011); and Addis Ababa (2014).

In the courses of these revisions, various issues have been included in the convention to make it more specific and easy to implement. The last revised version, for example, has included issues of qualifications which are acquired from private higher education institutions in addition to the public ones to be recognized among the signatory countries, as it is stated in section III Article 3(1) of the 2011 convention:

> The provisions of this convention apply to qualifications obtained in a public or private higher education institution recognized by an authority of a State Party, located within or outside its national boundaries and in compliance with its rules and regulations. (Article 3(1), Arusha Convention, 1981)

The 2011 revised Arusha convention has also elaborated the roles of each body involved in the implementation processes. The 1981 version had national, sub-regional and regional structures of implementation, but these were vaguely presented in the convention. The 2011 version has however not only elaborated the role of each implicating bodies but also added new structures on the old ones. Under Article 9, "Implementing Structures and Technical Partnership" four implementation bodies are identified namely, (1) national bodies (consists of national quality assurance authority, national networks, higher education institutions, national information centres and professional authorities); (2) the continental follow-up committee (constitutes of representatives of all member countries); (3) the network of national observatories; (4) and bilateral and sub-regional bodies. The continental follow-up committee will be under the responsibility of the COMEDAF.

The committee will develop and communicates recommendations, models protocols, and best practice to support the national quality assurance authority of each member states to the implementation of the provisions of the present convention. One of the new provisions included in the convention is the incorporation of the African Diaspora group in the process with a vision to bring African experts on-board as stakeholders for regional collaboration schemes. But still, the detail of how that is going to be realized is not yet specified. In terms of general objectives, the convention has maintained its core goals of ensuring comparability and mutual recognition of academic qualifications, facilitating exchange and mobility of students and academics across the continent, encouraging higher education institutions and national accreditation bodies to develop quality assurance mechanisms and reinforcing harmonization of higher education.

Despite repetitive revisions, however, the process of putting the convention into practice has been slow and the convention has not still been implemented. There are various challenges that contributed to the convention's failure to be implemented so far. Among others, disharmonized higher education systems in the continent, lack of well-functioning quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms at national levels, the absence of continental qualification frameworks, inadequacy of updated data and reliable information on higher education programmes have been the major ones.

At the same time, administrative challenges like, lack of political commitment to put the convention into action, excessive external dependence on foreign source for funding, poor co-ordination among participating parties and lack of sense of ownership of the programme are among the reasons mostly mentioned by recent studies (Woldegiorgis, Jonck, & Goujon, 2015). Still the new revised convention is straggling to move into action as no country has yet ratified it and the convection still remains on paper (see Chapter 7 & 12).

Generally, there have been various intergovernmental dialogues on higher education issues in Africa that have built in the process of regionalization of higher education along with various issues since the 1960s. Even though there have been many issues that had been raised in the consecutive intergovernmental dialogues, the overriding regional higher education policy issues were mainly on the role of higher education on development, Africanization, expanding access, and intra-regional co-operation. These early initiatives of intergovernmental dialogues set the foundation of regionalization of higher education in Africa bringing different actors of higher education, including African Ministers of Education, regional and international organizations on-board for regional higher education policy dialogue at the continental level. The institutional transformation of OAU to AU has however brought the higher education issue even more to the front of regionalization policy dialogues in Africa. The next part will discuss this issue in detail.

INSTITUTIONAL DYNAMICS OF THE ORGANIZATION OF AFRICAN UNITY(OAU)/AFRICAN UNION(AU)

Apart from the introduction of the Arusha convention in 1981 and its subsequent revisions as early regionalization initiatives of higher education in Africa, there have been other processes which further facilitated the development of regionalization of higher education in the region. Among the internal dynamics which happened in the later years were the transformation of OAU into AU and the coming of NEPAD in 2001/2002 as a new player. These developments have brought higher education to the forefront of the regional agenda. After the transformation of OAU into AU and the introduction of NEPAD, higher education issues have been linked to the notion of 'knowledge economy', a concept that has also been advocated by the World Bank (Bloom, David, & Chan, 2005). The quest for development in science and technology in Africa has been linked to the development of the higher education sector making higher education reforms and regional policy initiatives mainstream policy agenda of the AU forums. The growing importance of higher education at regional level after the transformation of the OAU is indicated on the Second Decade of Education for Africa 2006–2015 at the COMEDAF II:

> …there is renewed interest driven by the new vision of the African Union, an acknowledgment of the role of knowledge and innovation in the world economy, and the role of higher education as a core resource base for the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals. (African Union, 2006)

The transformation of OAU to AU is related to the shift in objectives or 'the cause for existence' of the organization from achieving political independence to more of economic and trade integration (OAU, 1964). When the OAU was established in 1963, the main objective was to ensure the full independence of African states so as to promote unity and solidarity among them. The organization was thus set up as a mechanism to cope up with colonial past and resist any form of imperialism through a pan-African forum as stated in Article 2(1) of the OAU charter. With the end of apartheid in South Africa, however, the major goals of the OAU (insuring political independence) had been achieved and the dreams of free Africa regained momentum. Since then, the priorities of the OAU started to change incorporating other issues like human rights, a regional partnership for development, competitiveness in the global economy, information and knowledge society and creating African Economic Areas have become major areas of interest for the organization in the post-Cold War era (Adejo, 2001).

Moreover, even though OAU had been celebrated for achieving political independence, there had also been a lot of criticisms for failing to bring any meaningful change in terms of peace, security and economic development. There was great expectations and hope of African renaissance, economic development, peace and prosperity and pan-Africanism when OAU was established in 1963. These expectations, however, faded away when the OAU faced various challenges that basically compromised its capabilities to act as a regional agent for socio-economic and political development in Africa. The 1980s socio-economic and political crisis, recurrent civil wars, refugee crisis, widespread poverty and the failed policy of international financial institutions made regional integration among the newly independent African states a challenge. At the time of decolonization, the economies of most African states were structurally disarticulated because they had been evolving as aggregations of enclaves, each tied to the metropolitan economy but not necessarily to one another. Moreover, the OAU became poor in terms of legitimacy, financially incapable and politically weak to mobilize meaningful regional policy initiatives which made international institutions like UNESCO, IMF, and the World Bank to become major players of regional policy initiatives in the region.

In such context, African leaders found it important to transform the scope and aim of the OAU from mere political liberation to a more comprehensive unity including economic development, trade, competitiveness in the global economy, information and knowledge society and the creation of African Economic Areas (Adejo, 2001). The concerns have led to various regional socio-economic and political reforms. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s governments in Africa designed a series of pan-African development policies which they felt were important to the demands of African peoples. These initiatives included: the Abuja Treaty (1991) and the Cairo Agenda (1994), the Lagos Plan of Action (1980), the African (Arusha) Charter for Popular Participation and Development (1990), the Final Act of Lagos (1980), the African Alternative Framework to Structural Adjustment Programme (1989) and Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (1986–1990) amongst others.

The OAU was replaced by AU during the inaugural meeting which was held in Durban, South Africa, on July 9, 2002 (Ass/AU/Dec.1(1), 2002). The new organization has then taken education in general and higher education in particular, as the main area of concern in the growing knowledge economy. The acknowledgment of the significant role of higher education in promoting knowledge economy by the World Bank and the World Conference on Higher Education (WCHE) has also contributed to putting higher education as one of the prime agendas of development in the continent. Therefore, the need to build up higher education, particularly through vigorous co-operation has already become a key strategy for building capacity, enhancing human development, facilitating professional mobility and achieving greater regional co-operation in Africa. Accordingly, the AU through its Commission (AUC) has been devising a higher education strategic plan to revitalize higher education in Africa fostering harmonization processes, quality assurance activities and establishing centres of excellence since the time of its transformation.

Before the transformation of the OAU to AU, the organization had developed an education development plan in 1997 called "The first Decade of Education for Africa (1997–2006)" (Organization of African Unity, 1997). The plan mainly focused on issues of access, quality, relevance and capacity building at all levels of education. The First Decade of Education also gave attention to science and technology in order to foster fast economic development in the region. After the transformation of OAU to AU, the new organization evaluated the progress of the First Decade of Education in 2005 to identify the achievements and short comings of the Plan before developing a second plan for the next ten years. Accordingly, the evaluation of the Decade revealed that most of the goals set in the first Plan of Action were not achieved (African Union, 2006). Among the reasons for poor implementation of the plan mentioned in the evaluation, the document includes, (i) delay in the implementation processes "its Plan of Action was not adopted till two years after the formal launch of the decade."(Para. 6), (ii) lack of ownership among stakeholders; There was little evidence of ownership by stakeholders, while publicity was grossly ineffective, (iii) financial constraints as most of the funding were expected to come from donors and "contrary to expectations, the first Decade of Education in Africa had little or no support from Africa's development partners, most of whom also developed their own Africa-specific programmes, not linked with the Decade, during the period"(Para. 7), (iv) and fragmentations of the process and lack of co-ordination among members at all levels "at the national level, Member States negotiated their education sector development programmes with development partners, but this was not done within the overall context of achieving the goals of the Decade" (Para. 8). Thus, the first Decade of Education for Africa (1997–2006) was evaluated as a failed policy which did not bring any significant changes in the goals set at the beginning. The AU has identified fragile education system as a serious challenge for the economic development of Africa and has therefore taken it as the main area of intervention to bring development and integration at the regional level.

The AU then adopted a resolution on the sixth ordinary session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the AU to launch "the Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006–2015)" (Assembly/AU/Dec.92 (VI)). The adoption of the Second Decade Plan followed by extensive consultations among Ministers of Education of the AU (COMEDAF II), and development partners. The core areas of focus when it comes to the revitalization of higher education in Africa at regional level, however, includes: knowledge production, post-graduate training and research, science and technological innovation, quality ratings, ICT development integration, harmonization, diversification of resources, and improved co-ordination among stakeholders (African Union, 2006). Regional higher education harmonization processes have also been recommended in the Second Decade Plan incorporating regional quality rating mechanisms and the establishment of centres of excellence.

The other important programme established by the AU to support regionalization and development partnership in Africa is called the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). The NEPAD initiative was launched in 2001 at the 37th AU Summit in Lusaka, Zambia as an integrated socio-economic development programme to speed up Africa's development. Since then NEPAD as a support project has also been a major player in regional higher education issues in Africa organizing and supporting centres of excellence in the area of science and technology. The NEPAD document provided an action agenda for higher education focusing on governance and management, funding, public-private partnerships and quality assurance (NEPAD, 2001). NEPAD identifies the programme through sub-regional economic communities and has been engaged in "…research on the status of higher education, the relevance of tertiary education to development, capacity development through student and faculty exchanges, strengthening research networks the promotion of regional centres of excellence" (NEPAD, 2005, p. 3).

One of NEPAD's Sectoral Priorities, which guides its involvement in regional higher education issues, is a priority area called "Bridging the Education Gap". Within this priority area, the major concerns for higher education at regional level for NEPAD includes partnership and integration of African higher education institutions as "networks of specialized research and higher education institutions"; improvement of quality and ICT in higher education " to work for improvements in curriculum development, quality, and access to ICT"; and capacity building on research in Africa "set up a task force to review and put forward proposals for the research capacity needed in the continent" (African Union, 2001; pp. 28–29). Moreover, the NEPAD Capacity Development Strategic Framework (CDSF) takes African Universities and research institutions as key players of capacity development with the capacity to generate relevant knowledge, train future African scientists, innovators and policy leaders. This indicates that NEPAD is committed, at least in principle, to fulfilling the missions of the AU regarding higher education in Africa, which is increasing the role of higher education in the African development renaissance (NEPAD, 2005, p. 2).

Even though the AUC and NEPAD have been promoting different higher education development initiatives at the regional level, most of these initiatives have however

not fully been implemented or have not been bringing the intended outcomes. Different meetings and conferences have been held; modalities, recommendations, and communiqué passed, yet, for the most part, the methods for cross-national communications and integrations, diffusion of innovation and technologies, exchange of lessons and good practices, articulation of common interests and joint endeavours, and sharing of resources have not yet appeared on the scene. Most of the initiatives remain on paper and have largely not been implemented. Some initiatives, like the African quality assurance initiatives and centres of excellence, are not even well communicated to the stakeholders so as to incorporate their interests. Despite all these challenges, however, one cannot deny the fact that the AUC through its Education Division has strongly been involved in the higher education revitalization and regionalization processes in Africa since 2001.

Generally, regionalization processes of higher education in Africa have passed through various processes of intergovernmental dialogues and policy initiatives since the 1960s. The transformation of OAU to AU, however, marked a new stage of higher education regionalization as knowledge and higher education institutions become indispensable components of economic growth and development. The establishment of NEPAD and the emergence of various higher education projects at the AU Education Desk brought various issues of regional higher education policy reforms on-board. The AU has taken the renaissance of African higher education sector as its main priority area for the development of the continent in its plan of action for the Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006–2015).

CONCLUSION

There have been different initiatives of regionalization of higher education in Africa since the 1960s.These initiatives have been promoted by both internal and external actors including the UNESCO, OAU/AU, AAU, Regional Economic Communities, African Development Bank, the EU commission and African countries. A regular shift in trend on the issues of regional collaboration has also been witnessed at different stages of the process of regional higher education policy collaborations. At the early stages of independence and through the 1980s, the notion of higher education regionalization had been framed within the context of considering African higher education institutions as agents of economic development, hopes for African renascence, instruments of Africanization, and bases for pan-African movements. Within this context, issues of access, relevance, resource mobilization and diversification of programmes were the main policy discourses of regional policy dialogues of African higher education at the early stages of the regionalization process. The growing role of knowledge and information for economic growth and development; the expansion of private higher education institutions; the coming of cross-border, distance and online education, however, brought new concerns that have transcended national jurisdictions. These concerns include issues of qualification recognition, quality and relevance, accreditation, credit transfer and regulation of

mobility etc. which led to the gradual shift of higher education policy processes from being the exclusive state domains to regional and sub-regional ones. The two important historical processes – the various intergovernmental conferences among African Minsters of Education since 1960, the transformation of OAU to AU in the beginning of 2000 and the various fragmented higher education harmonization initiatives along the Bologna process – have interplayed in the evolutionary development of higher education regionalization processes in Africa. The consecutive intergovernmental conferences including the Addis Ababa, 1961; Abidjan, 1964; Nairobi, 1968; Lagos, 1976; Harare, 1982; Dakar, 1991; and Durban 1998 had set various regional higher education agenda in Africa. Most of the issues raised in these dialogues became foundations for the current regionalization and harmonization processes. The transformation of OAU into AU has also brought various socio-economic and political issues on-board as important components of the regionalization process in Africa. The development nexus among knowledge and information, technology and innovation, economic growth and development made the relevance of higher education policy among the top policy priorities within the AU.

NOTES

1 Part of this chapter is a revised version of a book chapter by Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2016). *Regionalization of Higher Education in Africa: The Operationalization of the African Union Higher Education Harmonization Strategy.* Berlin: LIT Verlag.

2 Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Morocco, Libya, Tunisia and Sudan.

3 K. Wadajo, Ag. Secretary General, OAU: Report of the Abidjan Conference, Annex VII, P. 2.

4 Members ratified the Convention Lesotho, Sudan, Tanzania, Egypt, Burundi, Burkina Faso, Rwanda, Gabon, Algeria, Equatorial Guinea, Conakry, Côte d'Ivoire, Benin, Nigeria, Niger, Togo, Guinea, Zambia, Senegal, Seychelles and The Holy Sea.

REFERENCES

AAU. (2014, May). *Association of African Universities*. Retrieved from http://www.aau.org/

Adejo, A. M. (2001). From OAU to AU: New wine in old bottles? *African Journal of International Affairs, 4*(1–2).

African Union. (2001). *The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)*. Abuja: African Union.

Ajayi, J. F., Goma, L. K., & Johnson, G. A. (1996). *The African experience with higher education.* Scott Quadrangle, Athens: Ohio University Press.

Ass/AU/Dec.1(1). (2002, July 8). *Assembly of heads of state and government first ordinary session Durban.* Durban: OAU.

Bloom, D. E., Canning, D., & Chan, K. (2005). *Higher education and economic development in Africa.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Cisse, S. Y. (1986). *Education in Africa in the light of the Harare conference (1982).* Paris: UNESCO.

Knight, J. (2013, November). A model for the regionalization of higher education: The role and contribution of tuning. *Tuning Journal for Higher Education,* (1), 105–125.

Mazrui, A. (1980). *The African condition: A political diagnosis.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mngomezulu, B. R. (2010). Analytical reports, The political factor in the development of education in East Africa, 1920s–1963. *Analytical Reports in International Education, 3*(1), 7–32.

NEPAD. (2001). *The New Partnership For Africa's Development (NEPAD).* Retrieved from http://www.unep.org/roa/Docs/pdf/nepad/Action_Plan_for_the_Environment_Initiative.pdf

Nkrumah, K. (1965). *Neo-Colonialism: The last stage of imperialism.* London: Thomas Nelson & Sons, Ltd.

Organization of Afrian Unity. (1964). *The charter of organization of African unity.* Addis Ababa: OAU. Retrieved from http://www.au.int/en/sites/default/files/OAU_Charter_1963_0.pdf

Organization of African Unity. (1997). *The first decade of education for Africa (1997–2006).* Addis Ababa: OAU.

Rugumamu, S. (2004). *Africa's search for regional co-operation and integration in the 21st century*. Working Paper presented as the African Capacity Building Programme (ACBF).

Salim, S. A. (2001, August). The challenges facing Africa for the coming decade. *DPMN Bulletin, 8*(2), 6.

UNESCO. (1962, September 3–12). *Conference on the development of higher education in Africa.* Tananarive: UNESCO.

UNESCO/ED/203. (1964, March 9–14). *Final report of the regional conference on the planning and organization of literacy programmes in Africa held in Abidjan, Ivory Coast.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1968). *Conference on education and scientific and technical training in relation to development in Africa.* Nairobi: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1968, July 16–27). *Final report on the Conference of education and scientific and technical training in relation to development in Africa which was held in Nairobi.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1976, November 1976). *Recommendation on the development of adult education, adopted by the General Conference at its nineteenth session*. Nairobi: UNESCO. Retrieved November 11, 2009, from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/NAIROB_E.PDF

UNESCO. (1981). *Arusha Convention on the recognition of qualifications in higher education in Africa.* Arusha: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1991). *Inter-Africa co-operation for education development: Sixth conference of ministers of education and those responsible for economic planning in African member states.* Dakar: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0010/001003/100373eb.pdf

UNESCO. (2011). *Arusha convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other qualifications in higher education in the African states* (SYNTHESIS REPORT ed.). UNESCO.

UNESCO & UNECA. (1961). *Final report on the conference of African states on the development of education in Africa*. Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa. UNESCO and UNECA, Addis Ababa.

Woldegiorgis, E. T., & Doevenspeck, M. (2013). The changing role of higher education in Africa: A historical reflection. *Higher Education Studies*, *3*(6), 35.

Woldegiorgis, E. T., Jonck, P., & Goujon, A. (2015). Regional higher education reform initiatives in Africa: A comparative analysis with Bologna process. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(1), 241.

Yesufu, T. (1973). *Creating the African university.* London: Oxford University Press.

Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis
Bayreuth International Graduate School of African Studies (BIGSAS)
Universität Bayreuth, Germany

AMASA NDOFIREPI, BHEKI MNGOMEZULU
AND MICHAEL CROSS

3. INTERNATIONALIZATION, REGIONALIZATION AND AFRICANIZATION

A Critical Gaze

INTRODUCTION

The university marks the apex of higher education in almost all societies. By its very nature, the university as an academic institution has multiple identities given its multi-dimensional and varied interface with society. It is simultaneously a national, regional, continental and international institution. It cannot operate as an isolated entity; "university education demands the transcendence of all boundaries, be they physical, cultural, real or imaginary" (Ramphele, 1999, p. 5). Indeed, "Any university is a multi-faced institution; it has a local and a global identity" (Mngomezulu, 2012, p. 122). It is up to the individuals or groups to decide their point of emphasis. Therefore, it should not come as a surprise that ownership of universities becomes a contested terrain. As noted by Sehoole and de Wit (2014, p. 219), "The international dimension and the role of higher education in the global arena are more dominant in international, national, and institutional documents and mission statements than ever." In a way, all claimants have the right to present themselves as the custodians of universities built in their locality. But, at the same time, those universities do not solely serve local clients. On the contrary, they attract students and staff from across the globe and teach curriculum content which transcends geographical boundaries. As this happens, the university finds itself torn between serving its local community in order to remain relevant and subscribing to the general and widely acceptable notion of meeting international standards and serving a wider community. This identity dilemma poses a serious challenge to those saddled with the responsibility to define the mission, vision, and goals of a university that is physically located in Africa.

The purpose of this chapter is to revisit the position of universities that are physically located in Africa with the view to establish how they perceive themselves and how they will identify themselves going forward. The analysis is done within the contexts of Africanization, regionalization, and internationalization. Conceptually, regionalization of higher education in Africa is situated within the contexts of internationalization and Africanization as both concepts advocate the interconnectedness and variance of higher education institutions and systems. Internationalization, Africanization and

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 47–65.

regionalization processes also share many functional, organizational and political core processes – elements of mobility, partnership, qualification framework, quality assurance, harmonization processes etc. In essence, this chapter attempts to establish how these three concepts affect African universities in their search for identity. Important to note is that at times African universities are forced to make certain decisions taking into account a wide range of endogenous and exogenous causal factors. It is also necessary to acknowledge the fact that not all changes are good, nor are all changes necessarily bad.

The chapter discusses Africanization, regionalization, and internationalization within the broader African context. The argument is that instead of perceiving these concepts as exclusionary, one should see them as being inclusive, complementary and embracing. They are in line with the point made earlier that universities have multiple identities. As such, African universities could easily embrace Africanization, regionalization, and internationalization without giving one concept preference over the other two.

Given the fact that concepts do not speak for themselves, but rather derive their meaning from the different contexts in which they are used, the chapter begins by exploring the meaning of the three core concepts: Africanization, regionalization, and internationalization. In so doing, the concepts are approached in two ways. First, it is important to consider the general and conventional definitions that have been proffered by different scholars. Second, these concepts should be discussed in the African context.

THE MEANING OF AFRICANIZATION, INTERNATIONALIZATION, AND REGIONALIZATION IN AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

African higher education is a much debated phenomenon. This debate is triggered *inter alia* by the fact that the point of departure is not always the same. As the chapter argues later in the discussion of the evolution of higher education in Africa, some authors trace the development of higher education in Africa from the pre-colonial era and argue that African higher education institutions predate the colonial era and are older than most European institutions (Mngomezulu, 2012). Others espouse the view that African higher education institutions owe their existence to the colonial era (Ajay et al., 1996). Whatever the point of emphasis, the reality is that African higher education cannot escape the debate on how it is affected by Africanization, regionalization, and internationalization against the legacies of colonialism.

For defining the three concepts, the chapter draws on Knight's insight that the suffixes introduce subtle and nuanced differences in the meaning of the root concepts (e.g. Africa, region and international). In the first chapter of this book, Knight correctly points out that, while the suffix 'ism' (e.g. in Africanism, regionalism, and internationalism) relates more to an ideology or set of beliefs, while 'ization' focuses on the process of becoming, and 'tion' reflects a condition. This is central to understanding the implications of the three concepts for higher education in Africa.

Embedded in 'ization' is the idea of an ongoing and evolutionary process of change as institutions and academics negotiate their local and global spaces. This process is underpinned by the notion of intentionality based on "existing and new relationships and activities by a diversity of actors", and the view that the outcome is defined by the players involved and can be interpreted in each of the cases as a specific activity area or an organizational/programmatic/political framework.

Africanization

From the suffix 'ization', the term Africanization could be construed to mean the process of becoming or making something African or have African features. The danger is to perceive this concept as denoting the process of exclusion whereby everything else is excluded so that only that which is 'African' remains. The reality is that Africanization should be understood in the broader context of how the world is organized. Makgoba (1997, p. 1) defines it within this context as "a process of inclusion that stresses the importance of affirming African cultures and identities in a world community." Surely, African features and paraphernalia can co-exist with characteristic features from other continents.

The difference with Africanization is that the African elements are foregrounded in the discussion without dismissing other elements from elsewhere. It is for this reason that Makgoba (1977) makes the point that Africanization involves incorporating, adapting and integrating other cultures both into and through the African vision. It is broadly the recognition of the local in the global context. Its aim is to integrate that which is originally African with that which is foreign and come up with something new that portrays an African outlook in the global context. Many other scholars corroborate this conceptualization of Africanization. For example, Louw (2010) sees Africanization as a way of transcending individual identities and seeking commonality. He argues that it is a way of recognizing and embracing our otherness. In other words, the existence of an African outlook is not contingent upon the absence of other identities. Instead, the African outlook merges what is originally African with what is foreign and thus improves the African outlook which is not necessarily exclusive to the world. An institution's claim in its mission statement to be a truly African university "should be reflected in its institutional culture, its curriculum and its library holdings" (Mseleku, 2004, p. 2). This also applies to institutions in other countries and regions of the world. Ramose (1998) believes that in the worldview of Africanization, the African experience does not only constitute the foundation of all forms of knowledge but that it is also the source for the construction of such knowledge.

Looking at the different conceptualizations of Africanization, Letsekha (2013) identifies some common features in these definitions. These include: the need to seek out our commonalities; affirmation of African culture, tradition and value systems; fostering an understanding of African consciousness and finding ways of blending western and African methodologies. Overall, Africanization entails

giving higher education the African face without necessarily dismissing its regional and international character. Thus, the sustained debate on the Africanization of higher education "…forms part of the larger discourse as the restructuring and transformation" of higher education institutions (Letsekha, 2013, p. 1). It is thus with reference to this concept of Africanization that the ideas of regionalization and internationalization are likely to gain more meaningful substance.

When the East African academic and political leadership discussed Africanization, it looked at it holistically to include higher education and the institutions of the East African Community (EAC). The debates which took place in the National Assemblies of Uganda, Kenya, and Tanzania, as well as those that took place at the East Africa Legislative Assembly (EALA), discussed this issue at length (Mngomezulu, 2012, 2013). In these instances, the aim was not to dismiss regionalization and internationalization. Instead, these leaders saw Africanization as part and parcel of the two other concepts. They conceded that Africanization could not be fully understood if discussed in isolation, but had to be perceived in the broader context. This is not surprising given the fact that African higher education institutions, like other institutions elsewhere, "are increasingly becoming defined by internationalization which is one of the dominant characteristics of modern existence" (Letsekha, 2013, p. 6).

Internationalization

The concept of 'internationalization' is not self-explanatory as it appears at face value. On the contrary, it is both complex (De Wit, 2002) and multifaceted in nature (Knight, 2003, 2004). As such, it means different things to different people in different contexts. In fact, there are contradicting views regarding the popularity of this concept in academic circles. Moreover, internationalization in higher education is not a new phenomenon (Itaaga, Musoke, & Anthony, 2013). Previously, Cross and Rouhani (2004, p. 236) claimed that the term internationalization "is not yet recognized by most higher education scholars as a research theme" particularly in South Africa – a claim which has since lost potency. A more recent view states that the concept 'internationalization' has become a mantra in the education context, particularly in higher education (Tadaki, 2013). It is the subject of a number of reports, policy documents, journal articles, book chapters and book manuscripts (Hawawini, 2011). Arguing along the same lines, Mohamedbhai (2013) espoused the view that internationalization is not new to African higher education, in fact, it was through internationalization that a number of African universities came into existence and were developed.

The fact that researchers are already using this term in different contexts means that it is worth defining so that it makes sense to the reader. But one point that needs to be reiterated is that this concept needs to be defined within a particular context since it does not have a universal meaning. In the context of higher education, internationalization refers to the process of bringing together or integrating an

international/intercultural dimension into the activities that happen in a higher education environment. Internationalization in this sense can be seen as embracing "a multitude of activities aimed at providing an educational experience within an environment that truly integrates a global perspective" (De Wit, 2002, p. 109). These activities include but are not limited to: teaching, research and service functions of the institution (Knight, 1994; Knight & De Wit, 1997). In this sense, internationalization is seen as an 'in-bound' and 'outbound' mode of operation whereby institutions of higher learning accept and exchange ideas, students, and staff from elsewhere and also tackle research projects that have a wider international view and do not necessarily resonate with the local clientele entirely.

Another somewhat related view is that the internationalization of higher education institutions simply refers to "the process of integrating the institution and its key stakeholders – its students, faculty, and staff – into a globalizing world" (Hawawini, 2011, p. 5). Accordingly, internationalization becomes an 'out-bound' process whereby the 'international' element is confirmed as the institution goes out to the global world. But this is not the only conceptualization of the term internationalization – even within the context of higher education. For example, in South Africa those who displayed a degree of pessimism or scepticism regarding the value of internationalization, against the legacy of isolation from Africa but not necessarily from Western academic traditions, placed their emphasis on the engagement with local and African contextual complexities: "It is by becoming an expert in the local that a department or faculty will enjoy international esteem"; "Good local study will draw appreciation from abroad"; "Think locally first so as to gain internationality" (Cross et al., 2011). According to Cross et al. (2011), what emerged from these constructs was a conception of internationalization as a strategy for providing a unique local and global experience to all staff and students within an institution.

The argument in this chapter is that internationalization of higher education should be seen as a two-way process. It is the process whereby academic institutions of higher learning spread their wings widely, either to give to the world or to borrow from it. In this view, the term 'internationalization' should be seen as denoting a reciprocal relationship which exists among countries and their institutions for mutual benefit. It refers to both the spreading and incorporation of materials and ideas across geographical boundaries, with a view to benefitting both sides of the geographical divide. In practice, internationalization includes the formation of networks which take different forms and cut across different sectors of society such as education, the economic and labour sectors, cultural institutions, and many others. Therefore, higher education is but one of many areas where internationalization can take place.

Lastly, it is argued that internationalization does not just happen in a vacuum. Instead, internationalization processes are mediated through and also involve at least six sets of actors. These actors, which are listed in their ascending order, are the following: national actors, bilateral actors, regional actors, sub-regional actors, interregional actors, and international actors (Zeleza, 2012). As noted by

Itaaga, Musoke and Anthony (2013, p. 2) in the context of Uganda, Africanization, regionalization and internationalization sometimes happen simultaneously. Practices include but are not limited to the following: study abroad programmes for academic staff, enrolment or admission of foreign students, joint publications by staff across national/continental borders, holding international conferences and workshops across national border, membership to regional networks such as the Association of African Universities (AAU) and Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA), transfer of credits from other universities, the use of ICT to offer online courses and distance education, and many such activities.

Regionalization

A quick review of the literature leads to the conclusion that regionalism is gradually emerging as a potent force in the processes of globalization (Mittelman, 1996; Kacowicz, 1998; Sehoole & Knight, 2013; Altbach, 2014; Contel, 2015; Saha, 2015). As such, it is safe to say that there is an inherent relationship which exists between regionalization, globalization, and internationalization. This relationship takes three different forms, (i) regionalization as a component of globalization (convergent trends); (ii) regionalization as a challenge or response to globalization (divergent trends); and (iii) regionalization and globalization as parallel processes (overlapping trends) (Mittelman, 1996). Confirming this relationship, (Mittelman, 1996, p. 89) makes the point that in the event that the term globalization is seen as the compression of the temporal and spatial aspects of social relations, then it is proper to perceive regionalism as constituting but one component, or chapter of globalization.

In fact, the term 'regionalization' is also closely related to internationalization. Some authors argue that regionalization is a subset of internationalization (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014). These authors identify three levels of regionalization which express internationalization. These levels are: interregional actors (e.g. government agencies such as the European Commission as well as interregional Non-governmental Organizations and networks, which include the European University Association, the Association of Commonwealth Universities and the Association of Universities of the Francophone); regional actors (inter-governmental bodies such as the African Development Bank and the African Union, as well as Non-Governmental Organizations such as the Association of African Universities and the Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA); and sub-regional actors (Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA) and the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) (Zeleza, 2012).

The relations that have been enumerated above should not create the impression that these two concepts – regionalization and internationalization – share everything in common. For example, "while regionalization depends on the voluntary co-operation of national governments in the region, internationalization depends on the

co-operation of national governments and/or regional bodies to succeed" (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014, p. 228).

Any attempt to coin an independent definition of the term 'regionalism' would not succeed if such an attempt failed to start from defining a 'region'. But even the term region is problematic on its own in the sense that it refers to different scales (Contel, 2015). Corroborating this view in their analysis of this term in the African context, Sehoole and de Wit (2014, p. 223) aver that "the term 'region' in Africa is varied and complex, expressed in different forms and involving multiple players."

Various attempts have been made to define regionalization. One view is that this concept means a "politico-administrative process by which regions emerge as relevant units of analysis for economic and political activity and welfare and service provision" (Magel, 2011, p. 1). This is perceived to be regionalization from above. In other contexts, regionalization could be a much more spontaneous process whereby state and non-state actors in a region come together for a particular purpose. But whether these different units are forced or volunteer to come together, the bottom line is that regionalization involves different units in a particular geographical area coming together. In this sense, regionalization of higher education can be defined as the "process of building closer collaboration and alignment among higher education actors and systems within a defined area or framework called a region" (Knight, 2013).

Having defined this concept in the manner presented above, one should not assume that it is a straightforward process. According to Kotecha (2012, p. 1), "the process of regionalization is complex and not without its own challenges." For example, there are those who look at regionalization in terms of academic disciplines, e.g. 'health regionalization'. At the same time, others focus on different scales of 'region' (Contel, 2015). As such, each time the terms 'region' and regionalization' are used they need to be further explained contextually for them to convey the intended meaning. But the fact that there are challenges associated with these concepts should not dissuade us from using them in the same way that other concepts are used such as Africanization and internationalization.

THE EVOLUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA: AN OVERVIEW

The practice of higher education in Africa can be traced back to the pyramids of Egypt, the obelisks of Ethiopia, and the Kingdom of Timbuktu during the pre-colonial era (Ajayi et al., 1996; Assie-Lumumba, 2006; Lulat, 2005). Despite considerable resistance, the process of colonization disconnected the continuity of African indigenous institutions, including education and replaced them with the new foreign models of institutions modelled in the Western tradition. These institutions were originally established as extensions of the home foreign universities without independent existence as autonomous African institutions, a feature reflected in their programmes, courses, and modes of delivery. Ki-Zerbo highlights the fact that until

1968 university degrees in Francophone Africa were issued by the French Ministry of National Education. Even when local degrees and diplomas were recognized as 'equivalent', this was predicated on the similarity of the content and examinations. Similar experiences could be found in the Anglophone and Lusophone colonies. The main purpose of these institutions had nothing to do with socio-economic challenges of Africa; it was essential to nurture the African elite required for colonial administration, a narrow objective that limited access to few individuals. For example, Teferra and Altbach (2004) observe that the University of East Africa, which catered for Tanzania, Kenya and Uganda, produced only a total of 99 graduates for a total population of 23 million in 1960. As such, they remained instruments of colonization and domination. The number of higher education institutions in both public and private sectors increased enormously since independence. According to a World Bank Report, by 2009 there were more than 250 public and 420 private higher education institutions in Africa (World Bank, 2009). For the purposes of this chapter, the focus is on the main efforts towards reforming these institutions in the context of Africanization, regionalization, and internationalization.

Assie-Lumumba argues that the first wave of higher education reform immediately followed independence movements of the 1950s and 1960s. It aimed to address problems of entire educational systems as higher education institutions, particularly universities, were in their infancy and in most countries had not yet been created. Throughout this process, higher education institutions came to play multiple roles in the context of the post-colonial policies. First, within the framework of human capital theory that dominated post-colonial policy strategies, higher education institutions came to be perceived "as tools of socio-economic development and political transformation in post-colonial Africa to fulfil the role of training professionals, promoting access, extending the frontiers of knowledge, and serving the national economy" (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013, p. 38). A consensus emerged from a series of conferences of African Heads of State in the 1960s that higher education should be a major government partner for economic growth, an assumption translated into policy in 1960s and 70s (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013; Aina, 1994).

Second, higher education institutions were also entrusted with the responsibility of creating African identity within colonial institutions, a process well known as Africanization. For Woldegiorgis and Doevenspeck (2013, p. 39), Africanization was premised on the fact that "post-colonial institutions including universities were products of European colonial settings which did not represent the needs, interests and values of African people". In higher education, it was used as an important localization instrument concerned with liberating the universities from their foreign character by aligning the curricula, courses and academic practices of African higher education institutions with the demands of the continent and train academic staff to replace European professors (Ki-Zerbo, 1973; Yesufu, 1973). According to Assie-Lumumba (2016), the process of Africanization of higher education in Africa had entailed the following initiatives: (i) the establishment of permanent African

Studies units; (ii) the establishment of African studies units as a tool towards the Africanization of institutions of higher learning; (iii) Africanization of current and future learning institutions without African Studies units. Under fire has been the narrow Afrocentric and isolationist conception of Africanization, which in a globalizing world amounts to ghettoization. As a result, the concept articulated in this chapter broadly approaches Africanization as contextualization or institutional and academic practices that are rooted in or speak to the African experience in the global world. This also implies that European influences on African higher education must take into account African contextual complexities.

Third, another role assigned to higher education in post-colonial policies was that of nation-building. Seepe (2004) argues that as African governments grappled with the challenge of creating strong African institutions that would promote a sense of nationalism among the public, they entrusted higher education institutions with the task of producing graduates who would become custodians of African nationalism to promote and preserve African identity. However, the economic and social crises across the continent in the 1980s and 1990s aggravated by the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) and stabilization programmes imposed by international institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank had negative repercussions in higher education. These funding agencies shifted their policies towards financing primary and secondary education and advised African governments to cut their public funding of higher education with disastrous consequences for the sub-sector. It was not until the 1990s that higher education in Africa would register signs of recovery when its role in knowledge production was recognized as one of the most important means for participating in the knowledge economy with the increasing integration of African economies into the global market (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2013, p. 41).

Overall, in their epistemological orientations, knowledge systems, curriculum, and knowledge responsiveness, and identify expressions, many universities in the continent still remain displaced from their social and cultural spaces and can better be characterized as ‘universities in Africa’ and not ‘African universities’, with little features of originality and uniqueness. According to Makgoba (1999), this is in contrast to world trends where higher education institutions have adapted to the values and needs of their respective environments while maintaining the universal concept of a university. Basically, most African universities have always privileged research or academic links with international institutions over those with their counterparts in the continent. They have reproduced the incestuous academic production and reproduction of closed systems within the Lusophone, Anglophone, and Francophone colonial boundaries, with very little efforts towards developing regional academic and intellectual solidarity and co-operation beyond these boundaries. This chapter argues that this incestuous legacy tends to curtail internationalization and regionalization and their intellectual cross-fertilization benefits beyond these boundaries.

THE NEXUS BETWEEN AFRICANIZATION AND INTERNATIONALIZATION: POWER DYNAMICS

The internationalization of the higher education sector in general and universities in particular, across the world, have turned out to be the norm. African universities have not been an exception. Meanwhile, the push for institutions of higher learning to Africanize has been on the increase in contemporary times. The two imperatives have, more often than not, been depicted as incompatible sites with each offering antithetical benefits of the other. The aim of this section is showing strong evidence of the nexus between Africanization and internationalization of African universities in a world ideally portrayed as one village and argue that to understand the relationship one has to embed the discourse in power dynamics. To that end, one can ask: Given the polarized world characterized by centres and peripheries (Altbach, 2007; Altbach & Knight, 2007), to what extent can African universities authentically seek to internationalize and regionalize without compromising their Africanness, i.e. their regions and sub-regions?

To have a clearer interpretation of internationalization and Africanization of the university, it is important to engage Guy (2009)'s analysis in which the local and global are not spatial configurations, as levels, spaces, and distances. Instead, they contest each other as distinct descriptions of space to establish within society the reality that society is. For Guy, the global and the local are best understood as two opposite distinctions applied in communication as a code to generate information about a society or world. This interpretation of the local and global can assist in describing various elements within the context in relation to social movements, inequalities, crises and identities (Guy, 2009, p. 1). In the context of this debate, one can consider the immediate environment as the local space in which a university finds itself, that is, the nation and then the continent, in this case, Africa, and the needs and crisis found within this context should be at the centre of its practices (Shanyanana & Ndofirepi, 2015, p. 54). It is in this purview that one can perceive the demand and the imperative for a dialectical bond between local and global practices - hence the African and the international in which both levels take into account each other's needs and challenges. But while this might sound ideal in theory, the practice of the connections between internationalization and Africanization of universities is riddled with complexities as will be explored below.

Globalization has seen the world shrinking and the attendant neo-liberal discourse has permeated sub-Saharan African higher education (Dzvimbo & Moloi, 2013). Such thinking has persuaded many to think of higher education as a global system in which a global approach is necessary to understand the world's universities (Altbach & Davis, 1999). To this end, this discussion submits that developing economies, such as those in Africa, are forced to confront head-on the veracity of internationalization of higher education in order to remain relevant to the globalization process and universities will find it difficult to survive in a narrowly national context. But Nyamnjoh (2004) is right

to recommend that, "If Africa is to be a party to a global conversation of universities and scholars, it is only appropriate that it does so on its own terms, with the interests and concerns of ordinary Africans as a guiding principle" (Nyamnjoh, 2004, p. 154). So, the core question is – African universities, where to from now? While there is an assortment of taxonomies including Africanization, transformation, and renaissance in the varied discourses, policy-makers on African higher education are confronted with the contentious identity question of whether to Africanize the academy in order to remain relevant to the uniquely African realities, challenges, and priorities or to internationalize in line with the demands of the twenty-first century global economy.

The universities in the African continent being products of a complex blend of previous experiences from their European colonial experiences have perpetuated the dominance of the imported western epistemologies in order to make themselves global institutions by making frantic efforts to internationalize their faculty, tuition, governance, student texture and epistemologies. It is argued, in this chapter, that Africanization as an inclusion process signifies the centrality and sustenance of African cultures and identities in a world community thereby foregrounding the concerns and interests of the African people. It is on the basis of the uniqueness of the African experience that Africans and the universities established in Africa should reconsider acting as spring wells of "...scepticism toward the victorious systems of knowledge, and as the means of recovering and transmitting knowledge that has been cornered, marginalized or even defeated" (Nandy, 2000, p. 118). To be an authentic African university exhibiting both the African and international attributes, in Magkoba's words, is to be:

> …an institution that has the consciousness of an African identity from which it derives and celebrates its strengths and uses these strengths to its own comparative and competitive advantage on the international stage…draws its inspiration from its environment, as an indigenous tree growing from a seed that is planted and nurtured in African soil. (Magkoba, 2005, p. 14)

It is a truism that Africa has been progressively detached from the centre and positioned at the periphery of the knowledge realm as evidenced by the production and dissemination of university knowledge founded on and deeply embedded in Eurocentrism and the accompanying western scientism to which Ndlovu-Gatsheni writes:

> Despite the fact that archaeological evidence has confirmed Africa as the cradle of humankind, the continent, and its people continue to be entrapped within the existing global matrices of power underpinned by Eurocentrism and coloniality. (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2013, p. 332)

To Africanize, therefore, is to endeavour to counter the proliferation of an adherence to exotic paradigms in African university epistemologies that are silent on the knowledge. The process of Africanising the university will involve a critical

reflection of the African experiences of the world and pays attention and sympathy to African "…contextual specificities that enhance a university's ability to make unique contributions to the global corpus of knowledge" (Habib, 2014, n.p.). Africanization, therefore, is reinventing Africanness lost through colonial epistemicide by "…correcting and departing from, hegemonic knowledge and knowledge systems that are predicated on racist paradigms that have deliberately and otherwise distorted, and continue to distort, the reality of who Africans really are" (Gutto, 2006, p. 306). How then do the above discourses find their place in the internationalization matrix of the African universities?

Starting from Philip Altbach's assertion that knowledge interdependence is for the benefit of everyone (Altbach, 2007), the contemporary practice of internationalization of university education includes among others: Increasing international use of common textbooks, course materials, and syllabi is stimulated by multinational publishers, 'twinning' programmes linking academic institutions or programmes in two countries to opening branch campuses in other countries… degree programmes are sometimes 'franchised' *(whereby)* foreign university lends its name and curriculum to a local academic institution or business firm, …*(and)* grant a degree of the foreign institution to local students (Altbach, 2007, p. 127) (*emphasis added*).

The question that comes to mind is – Who controls the movement of materials from texts to human and financial capital through to programmes and courses in the above set-up in the case of universities in Africa? The chapter argues that in an unequal world characterized by centres and peripheries as alluded to above, the notion of internationalization of universities pits African institutions on the receiving end of imposed values and agendas of long-established universities in the North and domiciled in economically advantaged countries that control funders in higher education such as The World, Bank, IMF and the European Union (EU), to mention only a few. While, on the main, African university leaders are making frantic efforts to Africanize their institutions, their lack of adequate funding from the state coffers perpetuates a dependence syndrome especially from the erstwhile colonizers in the name of internationalization of higher education. Yes, the world is now an extended village but only as far as membership to the global society is rooted on mutuality and the principle of reciprocity. The study argues that to internationalize the African university is not or should not be construed to mean circumscribing the African universities and in the process denying them the autonomy to exhibit African excellence through foregrounding what Africa can best offer to the global corpus of knowledge. Internationalizing the African university cannot be accepted if it is designed to imply, in practice, the back-door entry of the colonial project or as an overt form of new neo- colonialism (Tiffen, 2014, n.p.).

The point is not to be apologetic for justifying the African cause for an independent African university whose core mission and vision is to serve humanity in its entirety, but one can defend the repositioning of the African university in the twenty-first century which takes genuine cognisance of the African presence in the

global knowledge scene. Considering that the students who graduate from these institutions and the faculty that manage the programmes cannot remain isolated in the name of Africanization, the study argues that engagement with their peers around the world on matters of the curriculum, governance, finance, pedagogy, and research will keep university participants in the loop with international developments and dispose an international outlook. Nevertheless, the position of this chapter is that Africa and African universities are not slaves and instruments to be utilized for the benefit of the already advantaged universities located in the developed economies of the world. To that end, from a critical theory perspective, the imperatives of internationalization and Africanization of African universities are irreconcilable poles on the main although the practices of African universities in contemporary times focus on making institutions of higher learning international in the globalizing world.

THE FUTURE OF AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

Mngomezulu (2013) once posed a question which remains relevant today. He asked- What does the Africanization of a university entail? For African universities and other higher education institutions to be participants in the global world through suitable regionalization and internationalization strategies, they need to address this question and try to create their own identities and also develop their own fortes (Neale-Shutte & Fourie, 2006). This submission is predicated on the assumption that the envisioned identities will define what these institutions are and what they stand for in the broader scheme of things. Creating fortes means promoting international engagement rooted in the university's comparative advantage. Within such perspective, the much celebrated 'global excellence', and 'world class' practices necessitate not only engagement with its local and regional complexities but more broadly its engagement with Africa, which should constitute the basis for its comparative advantage. Given the important role African universities are invited to play in the socio-economic development of the continent, engagement with Africa would entail, for example, taking Africa as the primary object of knowledge production, paying attention to indigenous knowledge in teaching and learning, i.e. taking Africa to the world while bringing the world to Africa. As Dowling and Seepe (2004) contend, it is only when Africans have a deeper understanding of their own experiences that they would be able to conquer knowledge and concepts that are not part of that experience.

A recent study (Moll, 2014) in South Africa flagged the notion of internationalization as "Africanization" as the direction universities in South Africa should encourage in shaping their unique identities. This was in recognition that generally South African universities have been displaced or "historically cut off from the rest of the continent". Under such circumstances, Africanization came to be viewed as reconnection to Africa through knowledge and curriculum responsiveness – responsive to the African context and integration of indigenous knowledge into the academic curriculum (Moll, 2004, p. 15), epistemological redirection in knowledge

production to privilege African epistemologies (Cross et al., 2011, p. 85) and university identity recreation (Jeevanantham, 1999; Makgoba, 1999; Mseleku, 2004). More specifically, Africanization as curriculum responsiveness meant moving beyond an earlier emphasis on 'African studies' in the university curriculum to more fundamental issues such as generating knowledge and curriculum that speak to the African experiences. Epistemological redirection implied shifting from "the monochrome logic of Western epistemology" in knowledge production to integration of African epistemologies and indigenous knowledge systems, indigenization of the Western idea of rationality in African spiritual wisdom, focus on the most pressing issues in Africa such as rural poverty and underdevelopment, illiteracy, and cultural domination focus on socially relevant research and teaching (Hoppers, 2002, p. vii; Crossman & Devisch, 2002). To ensure Africanization as identity recreation, protagonists called for radical overhauling of the culture of the university, including its administrative, academic, and pedagogic practices to reflect African realities.

Beyond the contestations (productive or not) arising from this debate, the contention is that regionalization and its harmonization emphasis has a central role in the future of African universities. Particularly in Southern Africa, effort should be undertaken with the following main objectives:

- To provide a platform for promoting debate and sharing an understanding of the concept of internationalization of the curriculum and how this might be relevant to higher education programmes in South Africa, where there are also both increasing numbers of international students being enrolled and increasing internationalization initiatives.
- To create a network of academics, internationalization practitioners, curriculum developers, institutional leaders, policy-makers, researchers and those interested in exploring what internationalization of the curriculum means for what they teach and how they teach their disciplines and courses, and develop institutional policy.
- To bring together into a community of practice individuals who are interested in conducting and sharing research into the internationalization of the curriculum and its implications for teaching and learning.

As authoritatively spelled out by Makgoba (1999), Africanization is "the process or vehicle for defining, interpreting, promoting and transmitting African thought, philosophy, identity, and culture". It entails "the treatment of African issues not as a by-product but by moving African issues in the academic, social, political and economic milieu from the periphery to the centre" (Seepe, 1999, p. 1; Seepe, 2004); or "moving subjugated discourse from the periphery to the centre" (Jeevanantham, 1999). Going forward, Africanization could also be discussed within the concept of Ubuntu, which is a southern African philosophy is focusing on human allegiance. By so doing, one might be able to move towards a better conceptualization of Africanization (Higgs, 2003). For Africanization to achieve its set goals it is imperative for African institutions and Africans themselves to invigorate that spirit

of love and care defined through Ubuntu: "the humanistic spirit which more clearly defines the morality of the various peoples of Africa" (Nekwhevha, 2000, p. 22; Msila, 2008).

The intersections and interactions provided by emerging regionalization efforts have the potential of strengthening research and institutional revitalization. This is already visible with the experience of the African Research Universities Alliance (ARUA) constituted by a group of leading institutions with strong research and postgraduate training. The alliance follows in the footsteps and shares the aims of other research university consortiums around the world – such as the League of European Research Universities and the Group of Eight in Australia – that advocate for strengthening research and postgraduate training in higher education. As alluded earlier, the initiative builds on the notion of comparative advantage as a selling point in internationalization. This is well captured by Price (2015) when he suggests that "The intention is to bring together various distinctive fields of expertise to achieve complementary and co-ordinated programmes of research and training, including addressing the key development priorities of the African continent."

CONCLUSION

The university is simultaneously transnational, transcontinental, and transcultural. This is not to forget that it is also integrated into a given society and region, and social, political and economic system. In this sense, it cannot escape the political philosophies of particular nation-states and their governments, which in the case of Africa have been instrumental in determining their institutional agendas sometimes with detrimental consequences. The agendas have been evolving from the colonial instruments of domination and colonization to the adoption of multiple roles (e.g. agents of development, agents of nation building, agents of African identity or Africanization, and agents of integration into regional or world economic systems). These multiple roles, which reflect the multifaceted ways in which the African university has interfaced with the state, government, and society, also defines its multiple identities.

The chapter has argued that depending on contextual peculiarities, this multi-dimensional and dynamic nature of the African university underpins its approach to Africanization, internationalization, and regionalization, and the character of its vision and mission. The argument is premised on the assumption that in the context of globalization, the university cannot escape the intra and interdependence of today's economies and societies. The modern world has entered an age where society, economy and knowledge have become part of a global environment characterized by a mix of local and global influences, and higher education increasingly demands the "transcendence of all forms of boundaries, be they physical, cultural, real, or imaginary" (Ramphele, 1999, p. 5; Cross & Rouhani, 2004).

While the three concepts offer opportunities for deciding how the university should position itself in such environment and what intersections and interactions

must be stimulated or discarded, how these must be negotiated in the future should not underestimate national and regional contestations that the globalising world has triggered particularly by almost exclusively privileging discourses rooted neo-liberal 'common-sense' that do not take into account diversities and contextual complexities. The recent higher education crisis in South Africa bears testimony to this claim. On the positive side, universities have been forced by students and other social movements to seriously rethink their institutional responsibilities and responsiveness to society around issues of development, social justice, and identity against the legacies of colonialism, apartheid, and post-colonial mal-administration. On the downside, the crisis has opened space for the resurgence of particular kinds of academic and political fundamentalisms, manifested in particular claims around the academic project, exclusionary nationalistic, xenophobic or racist rhetoric.

The implication is that new conceptualizations of internationalization and regionalization may be needed that take into account these challenges. This means on the one hand for example that, while recognizing the peculiarities engendered by colonialism and apartheid, the increasing insertion of the African university in the global world should not be ignored. It also means that in the context of Africanization, African global excellence can only be achieved primarily through intellectual engagement with the African experience in its diversity and complexity. The chapter has articulated a particular view of internationalization, regionalization, Africanization that takes these concepts not to be exclusive but as complementary, though potential tensions between them must be recognized and mitigated.

The argument has serious implications for the future of the African university in its interface with the local and global worlds. It requires, for example, revisiting some of the prevailing constructs about Africanising, internationalizing or harmonizing the university and its project embedded in university discourses that tend to portray them as contradictory or conflicting. In line with the argument of the discussion, the foundations for such exercise should rest on the re-conceptualization of these constructs as reflecting complementary and converging actions. This will eventually render unnecessary the fierce political and academic battles being fought between 'Northern' and 'Southern', Eurocentric and Afrocentric epistemological discourses centred on the dominance and hegemony of the North – often seen as unproblematic. Emerging forms of internationalization and regionalization being promoted by the AU, AAU and CODESRIA in collaboration with their counterparts in the developing world and progressive forces in the West go a long way towards fulfilling this ideal.

REFERENCES

Ajayi, J., Lameck, K., Goma, G., & Johnson, A. (1996). *The African experience with higher education*. Athens, OH: Ohio University Press, Scott Quadrangle.

Altbach, P. G. (2007). Globalization and the university: Realities in an unequal world. In J. J. F. Forest & P. G. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education* (pp. 121–139). The Netherlands: Springer.

Altbach, P. G. (2014). The giants awake: The present and future of higher education systems in China and India. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, *22*(46).

Altbach, P. G., & Davis, T. (1999). Global challenge and national response: Notes for an international dialogue on higher education. In P. G. Altbach & P. M. Peterson (Eds.), *Higher education in the 21st century: Global and national challenges* (pp. 3–8). Boston, MA: Boston Institute of International Education.

Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3–4), 290–305.

Assié-Lumumba, N. (1993). *Higher education in Francophone Africa: Assessment of the potential of the traditional universities and alternatives for development*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Contel, F. B. (2015). Concepts of region and regionalization: Aspects of its evolution and possible uses to health regionalization. *Saude Soc. Sao Paulo*, *24*(2), 447–459.

Cross, M., & Rouhani, S. (2004). Vanishing borders and new boundaries: Student and staff mobility and the internationalization of South African higher education. In P. T. Zeleza & A. Olukoshi (Eds.), *African university in the twenty-first century* (Vol. I, pp. 234–249). Dakar: CODESRIA.

Cross, M., Mhlanga, E., & Ojo, E. (2009). Emerging concept of internationalization in South African higher education: Conversations on local and global exposure at the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits). *Journal of Studies in International Education*.

De Wit, H. (2002). *Internationalization of higher education in the USA and Europe*. London: Greenwood Press.

Dowling, D., & Seepe, S. (2004). Towards a response curriculum. In S. Seepe (Ed.), *Towards an African identity of higher education* (pp. 185–189). Pretoria: Vista University.

Dzvimbo, K. P., & Moloi, K. C. (2013). Globalization and the internationalization of higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa. *South African Journal of Education, 33*(3), 1–16.

Guy, J. S. (2009). What is global and what is local? A theoretical discussion around globalization. *Parsons Journal for Information Mapping, 1*(2), 1–16.

Gutto, S. B. O. (2006). Towards a new paradigm for pan-African knowledge production and application in the context of the African renaissance. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies – Multi-, Inter- and Transdisciplinarity, 1*(2), 306–323.

Habib, A. (2014). *Vice-chancellor's address: US chief executive officers and executives breakfast*. Retrieved from http://www.witsfoundation.co.za/images/fullspeech.pdf

Hawawini, G. (2011). *The internationalization of higher education institutions: A critical review and radical proposal* (Faculty and Research Working Paper). Singapore: INSEAD. The Business School for the World.

Higgs, P. (2003). African philosophy and the transformation of educational discourse in South Africa. *Journal of Education*, *30*(1), 5–22.

Hoppers, C. A. O. (Ed.). (2002). *Indigenous knowledge and the integration of knowledge systems: Towards a philosophy of articulation*. Claremont, South Africa: New Africa Education.

Itaaga, N., Musoke, K. M., & Antony, M. M. (2013). Internationalization of higher education in Uganda: A descriptive analysis. *Global Journal of Human Social Science*, *13*(5), 1–8.

Jeevanantham, L. S. (1999). Transforming higher education: Moving subjugated discourse from the periphery to the centre. In M. Cross (Ed.), *No easy road: Transforming higher education in South Africa* (pp. 54–76). Cape Town: Longman Publishers.

Kacowicz, A. M. (1999). Regionalization, globalization, and nationalism: Convergent, divergent, or overlapping? *Alternatives: Global, Local, Political*, *24*(4), 527–555.

Ki-Zerbo, J. (1973). Africanization of higher education curriculum. In T. Yesufu (Ed.), *Creating the African university* (pp. 11–20). London: Oxford University Press.

Knight, J. (1994). *Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints* (Research monograph No.7). Ottawa, Canada: Canadian Bureau for International Education.

Knight, J. (2003). Updated Internationalization: Definition. *International Higher Education*, *33*, 2−3.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodelled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *8*(1), 5−31.

Knight, J., & De Wit, H. (1997). *Internationalization of higher education in Asia Pacific countries*. Amsterdam: European Association for International Education Publications.

Kotecha, P. (2012). Engaging universities in the regional integration project in Southern Africa. *SARUA Leadership Dialogue Series*, *4*(2), 1–3.

Letsekha, T. (2013). Revisiting the debate on the Africanization of higher education: An appeal for conceptual shift. *The Independent Journal of Teaching & Learning*, *8*, 1–13.

Louw, W. (2010). Africanization: A rich environment for active learning on a global platform. *Progressio*, *32*(1), 42–54.

Lulat, Y. G.-M. (2005). *A history of african higher education from antiquity to the present*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Magel, H. (2011, May 20). *Governance and regionalization: New paradigms for transparent politics and accountable civic engagement*. FIG Working Week, Marrakech, Morocco.

Magkoba, M. W. (2005). The African university: Meaning, penalties, and responsibilities. In D. Chetty (Ed.), *Towards African scholarship* (pp. 11–19). Durban: Public Affairs & Corporate Communications, UKZN.

Makgoba, W. M. (1997). *Mokoko: The Makgoba affair – A reflection on transformation*. Florida, FL: Vivlia.

Makgoba, W. M. (1999). *African renaissance*. Sandton, South Africa: Mafube.

Mittelman, J. H. (1996). Rethinking the new regionalism in the context of globalization. *Global Governance*, *2*, 189–213.

Mngomezulu, B. R. (2012). *Politics and higher education in East Africa from the 1920s to 1970.* Bloemfontein: Sun Press.

Mngomezulu, B. R. (2013). What does the Africanization of a university entail? Lessons from East Africa. *Africa: Journal of Politics, Economics, and Society*, *3*(1), 97–113.

Mohamedbhai, G. (2013). Internationalization of African higher education: A different approach? In H. de Wit, F. Hunder, L. Johnson, & H. G. Van Liemped (Eds.), *Possible futures: The next 25 years of the internationalization of higher education* (pp. 138–141). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education.

Moll, I. (2004). Curriculum responsiveness: The anatomy of a concept. In H. Griessel (Ed.), *Curriculum responsiveness: Case studies in higher education*. Pretoria: South African Universities Vice-Chancellors Association.

Mseleku,T. (2004). African scholarship: Some challenges facing intellectuals in South African higher education institutions: *Journal of African Scholarship, 1*(2). Retrieved from http//ingedej.ukzn.ac.za

Msila, V. (2008). Ubuntu and school leadership. *Journal of Education*, *44*, 67–84.

Nandy, A. (2000). Recovery of indigenous knowledge and dissenting futures of the university. In S. Inayatullah & J. Gidley (Eds.), *The university in transformation: Global perspectives on the futures of the university* (pp. 115–123). Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.

Ndlovu-Gatsheni, S. J. (2013). *Coloniality of power in postcolonial Africa: Myths of decolonization*. Dakar: CODESDRIA.

Nealle-Shuttte, M., & Fourie, J. (2006). Challenges to internationalization in African higher education. *South Africa Journal of Higher Education*, *20*(1), 118–142. (or overlapping? Working Paper #262. Kellogg Foundation.)

Nekwhevha, F. (2000). Education transformation and the African renaissance in a globalising world. *Journal of Education*, *25*, 19–48.

Nyamnjoh, F. B. (2004). A relevant education for African development: Some epistemological considerations. *African Development, 29*(1), 161–184.

Price, M. (2015, March 10–12). *Chair's address at the launch of the African Research Universities Alliance* (ARUA). African Higher Education Summit, Dacar.

Ramose, M. B. (1998). Foreword. In S. Seepe (Ed.), *Black perspectives on tertiary institutional transformation*. Johannesburg: Vivlia.

Ramphele, M. (1999). *Immigration and education: International students at South African universities and technikons* (Migration Policy Series Number 12). Cape Town & Kingston: The Southern African Migration Project.

Saha, N. (2015). Higher education regionalization in Asia Pacific: Implications for governance, citizenship and university transformation. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education, 1*(3). Retrieved from http://preserve.lehigh.edu/fire/vol1/iss3/4

Seepe, S. (2004). *Towards an African identity of higher education*. Pretoria: Vista University and Skotaville Media.

Sehoole, C., & De Wit, H. (2014). The regionalization, internationalization, and globalization of African higher education. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *1*(1), 217–241.

Sehoole, C., & Knight, J. (Eds.). (2013). *Interationalization of African higher education: Towards achieving the MDGs*. Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Shanyanana, R. N., & Ndofirepi, A. P. (2015). Contestation in the 21st century African university: Local and global challenges and opportunities. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 6*(1), 53–60.

Tadaki, M. (2013, June). How are we doing internationalization? *University World News*, 274.

Tiffen, A. (2014). The new neo-colonialism in Africa. *Global Policy.* Retrieved from http://www.globalpolicyjournal.com/blog/19/08/2014/new-neo-colonialism-africa

Woldegiorgis, E. T., & Doevenspeck, M. (2013). The changing role of higher education in Africa: A historical reflection. *Higher Education Studies*, *3*(6), 35–44.

World Bank. (2009). *Accelerating catch-up: Tertiary education for growth in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Zeleza, P. T. (2012). Internationalization in higher education: Opportunities and challenges for the knowledge project in the global south. *SARUA Leadership Dialogue Series*, *4*(2), 4–27.

Amasa Ndofirepi
Mzala Nxumalo Centre for the Study of South African Society
University of Western Cape, South Africa

Bheki Mngomezulu
Mzala Nxumalo Centre for the Study of South African Society
University of Western Cape, South Africa

Michael Cross
Ali Mazrui Centre for Higher Education Studies
University of Johannesburg, South Africa

GOOLAM MOHAMEDBHAI

4. MODELS AND APPROACHES TO REGIONAL ACADEMIC COLLABORATION IN AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

The Imperative of Regionalization

Post-colonial universities in African countries were patterned on institutions in European countries of which they were former colonies. They had the same institutional and governance structure, the programmes and curricula were similar, the same European language was used for instruction and the African academic staff were mainly trained in Europe (Mohamedbhai, 2013). This naturally paved the way for close collaboration between the African universities and the European ones.

It was much later, at the beginning of the twenty-first century that regional collaboration in higher education in Africa started to come to the forefront. Internationalization, assisted by globalization, was then being actively pursued by universities in the North. But this was not benefitting African universities, which had gone through nearly two decades of under-funding and neglect. Academic mobility was grossly skewed, with very few foreign students coming to Africa, while outward student mobility from Africa is still among the highest in the world. There had also been a significant brain drain of academic staff to the North. And Africa had to cope with an invasion of cross-border higher education providers, in many cases of dubious quality. The little research that was being carried out, funded by the North, was hardly relevant to Africa's development. The importance of regional collaboration to enable African higher education to meet the challenges of access, funding, quality, relevance, qualified academic staff and research was then being emphasised at international and regional fora.

In 2007, as part of its efforts to revitalise higher education in Africa, the African Union (AU) launched its strategy for harmonization of higher education in Africa (African Union, 2007a). As discussed in Chapter 11, the rationale for this was based on the belief that such an initiative would help to foster co-operation in information exchange, harmonization of procedures and policies, attainment of comparability among qualifications, and possibly the standardization of curricula, so as to facilitate academic and professional mobility. The broad developmental objective of the strategy was the production of human resources with the competencies required to drive Africa's economic and social development, and the creation of systems that would facilitate economic integration, cultural relevance and mobility across various regions of Africa.

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 67–91.

The 2009 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education, as a follow-up to its 1998 conference, gave a special focus to the challenges and opportunities for the revitalization of African higher education, recognising it to be an important tool for development. In the final Conference Communique, a special section was devoted to Africa and the following extract is noteworthy:

> The evolution of a quality African higher education and research area will be stimulated through institutional, national, regional and international collaboration. There is, therefore, the need for a strategic orientation towards the establishment/strengthening of such collaboration. African countries with well-developed higher education systems should share with those that have less-developed systems. We must commit to making African higher education an instrument for regional integration. (UNESCO, 2009, p. 7)

African higher education institutions themselves have also become aware of the importance of regional collaboration. The International Association of Universities (IAU) carried out its 4th Global Survey on Internationalization of Higher Education in 2013. The survey covered 1,136 higher education institutions in the six major regions of the world, including 114 from Africa. The institutions were asked to rank the three regions to which they give priority for their internationalization activities. None of the other five regions identified Africa among their three priorities and Africa ranked its own region as its first priority, followed by Europe (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014). A similar trend was observed in IAU's 3rd Global Survey carried out four years earlier. The findings confirmed that Africa was being disadvantaged by the process of internationalization of higher education in other parts of the world and that it needed to focus on its own region. It should, in essence, consider regionalization as its main internationalization strategy.

Clarification of Terminologies

In African higher education discourse, the terms regional collaboration, regionalization and regional integration are often used interchangeably. Do they mean the same thing, do they have the same objective, and is there overlap between them? Perhaps some clarity may be useful.

In this chapter, regional collaboration will generally be understood as joint activities between two or more institutions in the same region with the objective of sharing resources and achieving results that a single institution may not attain on its own. This refers to the functional approach in the FOPA model discussed in chapter one.

Regionalization of higher education will be taken to mean harmonising education systems in the region so as to facilitate collaboration between the institutions, and also the promotion of activities that would benefit the whole or a large part of the region and not just one country. A question that arises is whether regional collaboration between institutions can be considered as regionalization even if it does not have harmonization as a specific objective. In principle it should, just as an

academic collaboration between institutions in different countries is considered as internationalization.

Regional integration, on the other hand, will be interpreted as removing barriers among countries within the region so that institutions can effectively collaborate, operate and undertake joint activities seamlessly. This has economic and political implications and can only be regarded as a long-term objective. It follows that, in so far as higher education is concerned, regionalization must precede regional integration and that regionalization would be difficult to achieve without regional collaboration. Although the three terms have different objectives, they are closely linked and there may be overlap between them, especially between regional collaboration and regionalization.

The term 'region' in the African context also needs to be clarified. 'Region' will be taken to mean the whole continent of Africa, which is made up of five sub-regions: East, Central, North, Southern and West. This is also the stand of the African Union. However, the poorest countries are in sub-Saharan Africa and this is the region that is commonly targeted by development and donor agencies, often referring to the region as simply 'Africa'.

Some confusion equally arises from the composition of countries within a sub-region. For example, according to the African Union, East Africa is made of 14 countries, whereas the East African Community, an inter-governmental organization, comprises only five countries. And several of the countries in East Africa, as defined by the African Union, are also members of the Southern African Development Community. All these variations and different perspectives need to be borne in mind when considering higher education initiatives on a regional or sub-regional basis.

TYPOLOGY OF REGIONAL ACADEMIC INITIATIVES

Different Approaches to Regionalization

There have been different approaches to achieving regionalization of higher education in Africa and they vary significantly, whether they have been developed at the regional or sub-regional levels. In an attempt to classify the different approaches, Knight (2013) has proposed a model whereby they can be grouped under three different but inter-related categories: functional, organizational and political, called the FOPA model. The functional approach category covers operational activities and initiatives of higher education institutions or systems. This category can be further divided into two sub-categories: strategies that facilitate or promote regional co-operation through policy alignment (e.g. establishment of a quality assurance framework or implementation of the academic credit system), and regional collaborative activities and programmes undertaken by the institutions (e.g. research networks or regional centres of excellence).

The second approach, the organizational approach, refers to organizations, agencies, university associations, etc. that help to establish and oversee regional

and sub-regional initiatives. And the third approach, the political approach, covers declarations, agreements, conventions, etc. that help to provide political and financial support towards regionalization of higher education and encourage relevant actors to put in place regional schemes and programmes.

This chapter examines the various regional teaching and research programmes and initiatives undertaken under these approaches in promoting regionalization. These initiatives would essentially feature under the second category of the functional approach of FOPA and, where an initiative is directly initiated by an organization, also under the organizational approach. Initiatives that merely facilitate or promote regionalization (first category of the functional approach), or those under the political approach, will not be considered, the emphasis here being on operational academic initiatives. An attempt is made below to establish a typology of these initiatives or models.

1. Regional Institution or Organization. This category covers a higher education institution or organization that has been set up collaboratively by several countries in a sub-region to serve that sub-region. In each country, the institution provides either specific academic disciplines not available in the other institutions or all the disciplines. The awards in all the countries are made under the name of a single institution. This category resembles cross-border or transnational higher education but the difference is that there is no 'home' institution and the constituent institutions are not branch campuses as all of them operate on an equal footing. A term that has also been used in the past to define such an arrangement is 'regionally delocalised institution'. This used to be a common post-independence approach in Africa.

2. Open and Distance Learning Institution. This type of institution provides programmes across a whole region or sub-region using open and distance learning (ODL). It awards its own degrees or does so in partnership with another higher education institution. This category covers an institution that provides dedicated ODL programmes aimed at a region or sub-region and not one that, in a large country, primarily aims at national students. It also excludes institutions that use ODL as a complement to face-to-face learning, even if they enrol students from other countries in the region.

3. Consortium Model. This describes an association or co-operative arrangement that groups a number of higher education institutions in different countries in a region or sub-region for capacity building or for developing collaborative research or training programmes; basically to undertake an activity that individually the institutions would have difficulty in carrying out.

4. Networking Model. This model refers to an agreement among higher education institutions in a region or sub-region in a specifically identified area in order to share experiences and resources, it being understood that the partners are already working

in that area. This is similar to the Consortium model but usually, the agreement among the partners is looser in nature. However, there can be overlap between Consortia and Networks and the dividing line between them is often blurred.

5. Regional Specialised Institution or Centre of Excellence. This is an institution in a specialised area that is of importance to Africa and, although located in one country, serves the whole or a major part of the region. There can be two or even more possibilities under this category. It could be a single institution when the area is so highly specialised that it would not justify creating another similar institution, or it could be several institutions working in similar, broader areas serving sub-regions; these institutions would then be working independently but using common approaches and even running similar programmes.

The next section discusses some examples under each type of initiatives mentioned above. The purpose of such an exercise is to see how these initiatives were set up, how they are funded, the degree of success they have achieved, and whether they have achieved or are achieving the objective of regionalization of higher education in Africa. Such an analysis may provide a useful guidance to subsequent regional initiatives. Initiatives at both regional and sub-regional levels; and even covering part of a sub-region, are considered.

REGIONAL INSTITUTION OR ORGANIZATION

Here two specific examples are considered; one in East Africa and the other in Southern Africa. Both were set up just around the time the countries concerned were acceding to independence. The two cases evolved in very different ways.

University of East Africa and the Inter-University Council of East Africa

Makerere University College, affiliated to University College London, was established in 1949 and was then the only higher education institution in East Africa. It admitted students not only from Kenya, Tanganyika and Zanzibar but also from the then Rhodesia and Nyasaland (now Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe). It operated as an institution that served the whole sub-region.

The three countries of East Africa, Kenya, Uganda and the then Tanganyika, had trade and other co-operation agreements among them well before they became independent: Tanzania in 1961, Uganda in 1962 and Kenya in 1963. It was only natural then for such co-operation to be extended to higher education. In 1963, therefore, it was decided to establish the University of East Africa, comprising the existing University College at Makerere and the two newly-established University Colleges, one in Nairobi, Kenya and the other in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania. The awards of University College London at Makerere University College came to an end and all awards were subsequently of the University of East Africa. Makerere had already established a reputation in Health and Medicine, Veterinary Sciences

and Agriculture. Nairobi decided to concentrate on Engineering and Dar-es-Salaam on Law. One could say that the three Colleges were the forerunners of the current concept of centres of excellence.

In 1970, each of the three countries decided to convert its University College into an independent, national university. Hence, the University of East Africa was dissolved and Makerere University in Uganda, University of Nairobi in Kenya and University of Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania were created. Although all three universities started to extend the range of their course offerings, they maintained their areas of expertise in Medicine, Engineering and Law, respectively. In the same year, they also decided to continue their collaboration and established the Inter-University Committee (IUC), with a full time secretariat in Uganda, under the auspices of the East African Community (EAC), which had been set up in 1967. The IUC had thus not only political but also financial support from the EAC, clearly showing the will of the three countries to continue the collaboration among the three universities.

In 1977, for political, administrative and ideological reasons, the EAC collapsed and financial support to the IUC declined. Nevertheless, the three universities persevered in their collaboration and the IUC survived, albeit having to operate under severe resource constraints.

There was an expansion of the higher education sector in the three countries and additional public universities were created. In 1980, all the heads of the universities in the three countries met and expressed their commitment to collaboration, and formerly established the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) as a membership-based organization, replacing the IUC. Although the IUCEA evolved as an excellent platform for sub-regional collaboration in higher education, the lack of financial support from the three governments was a threat to its sustainability.

Then, in 2000, the three countries revived the EAC. In 2002, in recognition of the important role played by the IUCEA, the new EAC incorporated it as a legal body. In 2007 Burundi and Rwanda joined the EAC and their universities became members of the IUCEA. Finally, in 2009, the EAC integrated the IUCEA in its operational framework and provided it with dedicated funds (IUCEA, 2016).

The IUCEA was not just an organization that facilitated regional collaboration among its member institutions, but it equally embarked on a major project that has significantly promoted regionalization. Over the period 2003–2014, with funding from the Swedish International Development Co-operation Agency (Sida), the IUCEA co-ordinated the Lake Victoria Research (VicRes) project, a major collaborative, multi-disciplinary programme undertaken in the Lake Victoria basin by universities and research institutions in the East African sub-region. The project involved nearly 500 researchers in nearly 100 projects and nearly 200 postgraduate students were trained.

The lessons from this example are the importance of commitment of higher education institutions to regional collaboration, irrespective of the political environment prevailing in their respective countries, and the need in Africa to

garner political support to ensure financial sustainability in higher education regionalization efforts.

University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland

In 1945, the Roman Catholic Hierarchy of Southern Africa founded the Catholic University College at Roma in Basutoland (now Lesotho) to provide African Catholic students with a post-secondary and religious education. Subsequently, as from 1950, it was named Pius XII College and prepared students for the external degrees of the University of South Africa (UNISA).

In the early 1960s, the College started experiencing academic and financial difficulties. The College then had just under 200 students, some national ones and the others from Bechuanaland (now Botswana) and Swaziland. The three countries, administered by Britain from South Africa, were referred to as the High Commission Territories (HCT). Its main role was the training of the future civil servants and teachers of the HCT.

In 1964, it was therefore decided to convert Pius XII College into an independent, non-denominational university serving the three HCT countries. The University of Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland (UBBS) was thus established, with its own Royal Charter, to be located in Roma, as only Roma had the necessary physical and academic structure to host a higher education institution. After the independence of the three countries, the university was re-named the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland (UBLS). The first degrees awarded by UBLS were in 1967.

Although UBLS was jointly and equally funded by the three governments and was operating as a 'regional' university, it hardly had any physical or programmatic presence in Botswana or Swaziland. Almost all the courses, except for Agriculture in Swaziland, were run in Lesotho and the entire senior administration was located there.

Several studies on higher education in the three countries were commissioned by Britain in the early 1970s and the consistent recommendation was the need to have a university campus in both Botswana and Swaziland but, at the same time, ensuring quality, collaboration and pooling of resources. A development plan for UBLS, agreed by the three countries, was accordingly prepared. Some devolution of programmes had started to take place and Part one (the first two years) of several degree programmes was being run in the other two countries (UB, 2016). Finally, in 1974, a 'devolution team' set up by the Council of UBLS recommended a devolution plan whereby Part one would be fully devolved to the two other countries and Part two (the final two years) would be shared among the three campuses. That devolution plan turned out to be the beginning of the collapse of UBLS.

Before the UBLS Council could pronounce on the proposal, the government of Lesotho, through its representatives on Council, disagreed with the full devolution recommendation and in 1975, it suddenly withdrew from UBLS and established the campus at Roma as the National University of Lesotho (NUL). All the property

of UBLS at Roma was appropriated by NUL. All the students of Botswana and Swaziland were immediately withdrawn from the Roma campus and this caused significant disruption (UNISWA, 2016). In 1976, the University of Botswana and Swaziland (UBS) was created with two constituent University Colleges, but with the realization that eventually two national universities will be set up. In effect, in 1982 the University of Botswana and the University of Swaziland came into existence.

It would be useful to analyse the reasons that eventually led to the collapse of UBLS. First, although administered collectively as HCT, the three countries were different, they had different levels of educational development and there was hardly any interaction between their people. They were physically separated, being enclosed within Apartheid-ruled South Africa, which made the movement of staff and students difficult. Second, the three countries had no past history of regional collaboration in any area, which could have facilitated collaboration in higher education. Third, there was a strong sense of nationalism in the three countries which hampered the creation of a spirit of regionalism. Fourth, it would appear that no long-term plan of the evolution of UBLS was prepared before its creation, as an eventual devolution of higher education provision from Lesotho was an obvious and inevitable development. Fifth, a serious university governance issue cropped up whereby the government of Lesotho could contest and interfere in matters being discussed by the University's Council (Mokopakgosi, 2013). These are useful lessons, pertinent even today, at a time when multi-country collaborative arrangements are being made in higher education.

OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING INSTITUTION

Open and Distance Learning (ODL) has been used as a strategy for internationalization by several open universities in the world. Although the original objective of an ODL institution is to increase access to higher education nationally, it can also very easily extend its delivery of programmes to other countries. In this section, two examples of ODL institutions in Africa are examined: the University of South Africa, the oldest, largest and best known Open University in Africa, and the African Virtual University, which uses technology for promoting virtual learning across Sub-Saharan Africa. The two institutions evolved in very different ways, and use different strategies.

University of South Africa (UNISA)

The University of the Cape of Good Hope was established in 1873 as the national examining agency for the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge for programmes run by several university colleges in South Africa. In 1916, it was re-named University of South Africa (UNISA) and subsequently, the affiliated colleges gradually broke away from UNISA to become independent universities. In 1946, UNISA started to run

correspondence courses through its Division of External Studies, and in 1959 it was formally established as a correspondence university using study guides, cassette tapes and some face-to-face tuition. In 2004, UNISA merged with Technikon Southern Africa, another correspondence institution, and the distance education component of Vista University; the merged institution retained the name of UNISA (UNISA, 2016a).

The 2013 statistics show that the student enrolment at UNISA was 355,000. About 41 percent were enrolled in undergraduate diplomas and certificates, 30 percent in undergraduate degrees, 18 percent in postgraduate diplomas and certificates, and the remainder in Master's and Ph.D. programmes. Roughly 91 percent of the students were from South Africa, seven percent from SADC countries, one percent from other African countries and 0.5 percent from other parts of the world (UNISA, 2016b). These percentages may give the impression that very few non-South African students were enrolled but in actual numbers, roughly 29,000 of the students were from African countries other than South Africa. This is a significant number and it is unlikely that any other African country enrols that number of students from other African countries. However, one needs to be cautious with enrolment figures of open universities. Students take a far greater time to complete their programmes, often twice or even thrice the time to complete a full-time programme in a traditional face-to-face university, and non-completion figures can be quite high. Every year UNISA graduates about 35,000 students.

In addition to its activities in South Africa, in 2007 UNISA opened a service and learning centre in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, its first outside South Africa. It was also involved in a major project of capacity building of public servants for the Government of South Sudan.

UNISA appears to have played an active role in regionalization of higher education in Arica, with a special outreach to SADC countries, as reflected in its student enrolment figures. The vision of UNISA is to be "the African university shaping futures in the service to humanity", and on its website, the university expresses the wish to serve every country on the African continent while transcending language and cultural barriers. However, language would remain a barrier as UNISA uses English in all its operations while several of the SADC countries are either French or Portuguese speaking.

Can UNISA continue to expand and play an even greater role in attracting students from Africa? This appears unlikely, first because the university has perhaps reached its maximum capacity. Mega universities are not easy to manage and any further expansion could jeopardise quality. Also, over the past couple of decades, several open universities have appeared in Africa, especially in the SADC countries, including Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Zambia, and Mauritius, UNISA's main catchment area for foreign students. These are still relatively small institutions compared to UNISA but as they expand and get consolidated, UNISA may find that its role becomes confined to being more of a national institution than a regional one.

African Virtual University

The African Virtual University (AVU) was launched as a World Bank project in 1997, with its headquarters in Washington DC, in the presence of six universities from six African countries, namely Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe. It was conceived as a technology-based distance education network to bridge the digital North-South divide in Africa and build capacity in science and engineering. Courses were to be delivered using integrated satellite and Internet technologies from universities around the world. Each African university was provided with a grant to acquire the necessary equipment (Juma, 2006). The objective was to increase access to quality tertiary education in Sub-Saharan Africa.

In 2002, the AVU was established as an independent, non-profit organization and its headquarters were transferred to Nairobi, Kenya. The initial phase saw the establishment of a large number of learning centres in universities in several African countries, running degree programmes in computer science and business studies, both in English and French. Funding came from the World Bank but also from other development agencies, such as the Canadian International Development Agency, the European Union, etc.

A major development took place in 2010 when the AVU established itself, through a Charter, as a pan-African inter-governmental organization with three types of Members: African Member States, Partner Institutions (mainly Higher Education Institutions) and Strategic Partners (donors and development agencies). The number of AVU Member States increased rapidly from five in 2010 to 19 in 2014. AVU's headquarters remain in Kenya but it also has a West Africa office in Senegal (AVU, 2016).

In 2012, the AVU signed an agreement with the African Union Commission to promote the use of ICT in education across the continent with a focus on teacher education, capacity building, content development, open education resources and networking. Also in 2012, the AVU received a US$15.6 million grant from the African Development Bank for Phase II (2012–2016) of its Multinational Support Project, building on the first phase (2005–2010), to strengthen its own capacity and to set up Open, Distance and e-Learning (ODeL) Centres in 29 institutions in 21 African countries in order to develop, deliver and manage ICT-integrated programmes (Sahawel, 2014).

So far the AVU has offered training to some 43,000 students in more than 30 African countries. Some key characteristics of the AVU are: it operates as a network, having the largest network of distance and e-learning institutions in Africa; it is owned and run by African governments and institutions, with the support of development partners - in fact, its Board of Directors comprises five university Vice-Chancellors, one from each of Africa's sub-regions, and three strategic partners; it delivers courses in English, French and Portuguese which is quite unique; and it promotes collaboration among its partner institutions. For example, Bachelor of

Education in Science programmes were developed jointly by a consortium of 12 universities across Africa, and are delivered through these universities.

Clearly, the AVU has played and continues to play a key role in regionalization of higher education in Africa. It has huge potential to expand further, especially as access to ICT improves in Africa. The fact that it is owned by African countries through a formal Charter ensures a degree of sustainability. It has built up close ties with all the major higher education stakeholders in Africa. It is still largely dependent on grants received from its Strategic Partners but, eventually, most of the AVU Centres should be able to generate funds of their own through tuition fees.

CONSORTIUM MODEL

This section looks at three regional collaborative initiatives where several universities group together in a fairly formal set-up to achieve a common objective. All three initiatives aim at postgraduate training and research. The first one started in 1988, showing that regional collaboration among universities in Africa dates back to well over 25 years.

The African Economic Research Consortium (AERC)

The AERC was created in 1988 as a public, non-profit organization for the advancement of economic policy research and graduate training so as to strengthen local capacity for conducting a rigorous and independent inquiry with regard to management of economies in Sub-Saharan Africa. It thus undertakes capacity building of local researchers in policy-relevant economic inquiry, promotes retention of that capacity and encourages the application of the findings to policy.

The AERC supports three main training programmes: a Collaborative Master's Programme in Economics (CMAP) for Anglophone Africa; a Collaborative Master of Science in Agricultural and Applied Economics (CMAAE) for Eastern, Central and Southern Africa; and a Collaborative Ph.D. Programme (CPP) in Economics. The programmes aim to train mid-level managers, public policy analysts and academics. The AERC also supports research with a view to publishing papers on issues critical to Africa's economic development and organises international workshops to disseminate the results (AERC, 2016).

AERC's perhaps best-known training programme is its CMAP in Economics which it runs through a consortium of 26 universities in 21 countries. Four of these universities are accredited to fully host and award the Master's degree, seven others offer only core courses, with electives being followed at the accredited institutions, while the remaining fifteen send their students to the other universities for both the core courses and the electives. Similarly, 17 universities participate in the CMAAE programme. AERC thus promotes the sharing of expertise and resources in some universities with others through collaboration.

Precise output figures are not available on AERC's website but it is reported that, since its establishment in 1988, the consortium of AERC universities has graduated over 500 Master's students from across the continent. It has also provided some 340 research grants involving over 400 researchers in 22 African countries, and the research outputs have been internationally published and disseminated to the academic and policy community (Eldis, 2016).

The AERC receives its funds from nearly 20 funders, which are donor governments, multilateral organizations, private foundations and international organizations. The major ones include the UK's Department for International Development, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark, the USAID and the World Bank. The funders also include several African institutions and organizations, including the African Capacity Building Foundation, the African Development Bank, the Central Banks of Nigeria and Lesotho, and the Ministry of Finance of Kenya.

AERC's governance structure is quite unique and ensures ownership by both its academic partners and its funders. It has three independent yet inter-linked organs. The first is the Board of Directors, its main governing body, which comprises mainly representatives of the funders, plus a few selected leading economists, mostly from African financial institutions. The next organ is the Programme Committee, which sets the agenda and the goals of the research and training programmes and monitors and evaluates the programmes. It comprises essentially senior academics from within and outside Africa. Finally, there is a Secretariat located in Nairobi, Kenya, headed by an Executive Director.

It is quite remarkable that the AERC has been sustained for over 25 years. It did face management and funding challenges but managed to overcome them. (DFID, 2016). One factor that must have contributed to its sustainability is its governance structure, which ensures that the funders have a say in its operations.

No doubt the AERC has played an important role in capacity building through regional collaboration. However, it has not been possible to gauge its effectiveness on three scores. First, how many of the postgraduates actually remained in Africa? The 1990s was a difficult period for Africa, especially for its universities, and significant brain drain took place. It would not be surprising if many of the AERC graduates left the continent for better pastures. Second, while the quality or even pertinence of the research is not questioned, how much of it actually influenced African governments' economic policy? It is known that in Africa governments rarely value local expertise, preferring advice from external, foreign consultants. Did this apply to the policy research emanating from the AERC? Finally, was any policy research from one country found useful for other countries and applied accordingly? That would have been a real contribution of AERC to regionalization. Perhaps it is not too late to explore these questions and learn from AERCs experiences.

University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa (USHEPiA)

USHEPiA is a collaborative staff development programme launched in 1995 as a consortium, led by University of Cape Town (UCT), of seven other African universities, namely University of Botswana, University of Nairobi (Kenya), Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology (Kenya), University of Dar-es- Salaam (Tanzania), Makerere University (Uganda), University of Zambia and Zimbabwe University. The programme provides Fellowships to staff of the partner universities to register for a Ph.D. at either their home institution or at UCT, with supervisors drawn from each institution. Research fieldwork takes place in the home country of the staff but some time is usually spent at UCT for consultations and for accessing the university's resources and expertise. The programme also allows staff exchanges for lecturing, research supervision, external examination and running short courses (USHEPiA, 2016).

USHEPiA has been funded by the Rockefeller Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation, the Coca-Cola Foundation, the Ridgefield Foundation, the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation and the partner institutions themselves, especially UCT. Initially, the partnership of the eight universities was governed by a simple Memorandum of Understanding signed at the time of its creation in 1994. An office was established at UCT with a Project Leader. A decade later, in 2004, a more structured governance was put in place (Shackleton, 2007). This consists of a Steering Committee, made up of three Vice-Chancellors of the partner universities, the Deputy Vice-Chancellor of UCT and the Project Leader; an Advisory Board comprising all the USHEPiA Vice-Chancellors and the Project Leader; and a Management Committee made up essentially of UCT staff but including a Vice-Chancellor from one of the partner universities.

In 2010, a total of 71 Fellowships had been awarded, 41 of whom had successfully completed their course and seven did not complete for various reasons. But the most important achievement is that all those who completed their course stayed in Africa, even if a few moved to another African university (Warner, 2010). USHEPiA was perhaps the very first collaborative programme among African universities, specifically aimed at staff development. It was an important regional effort in bringing together African universities to collaborate with a South African university, at a time when the latter was alienated during the apartheid regime. One may well question its achievement in terms of output, but it must be appreciated that completing a Ph.D. on a part-time basis while working as an academic staff at a university takes time very often, as long as 5–7 years. And no doubt the programme brought other unplanned academic benefits to the partner institutions.

Doctoral upgrading of academic staff in all African universities, including South African ones, remains a priority but whether the USHEPiA model as originally conceived still has relevance is questionable. The programme was heavily centred

and led by UCT and it would appear that the other universities regarded themselves as beneficiaries rather than partners. There is now greater expertise in other African universities to enable them to collaborate on a more equal footing.

Regional Universities Forum for Capacity Building in Agriculture (RUFORUM)

RUFORUM, which is currently a consortium of 55 African universities in 23 countries on the continent, is an international non-governmental organization that was established in 2004. It evolved from the Forum on Agricultural Resource Husbandry, a programme funded by the Rockefeller Foundation. RUFORUM promotes graduate training and networks of specialization in agriculture in the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). It is currently funded mainly by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (RUFORUM, 2016a).

RUFORUM's flagship intervention in its member universities is its Competitive Grants System through which it supports the training of agricultural postgraduate students. These grants in particular help to link universities and postgraduate students to rural communities to promote inclusive and sustainable development. The grants can be for Master's or Ph.D. training. RUFORUM also runs regional training programmes that encourage networking and collaboration through staff and student exchanges and harmonizes quality assurance of the postgraduate training programmes in the region. Finally, it has an ICT programme which assists its member universities to effectively harness the ICT opportunities.

RUFORUM has a rather complex governance structure. This comprises an Annual General Assembly of all its member universities and other stakeholders, a Board of Directors made up of representatives of Vice-Chancellors, civil society, the private sector, research and training networks, etc., a Deans of Faculty of Agriculture Committee, a Technical Committee composed of elected representatives of participating universities and stakeholders outside the university system, an International Advisory Committee, and a Secretariat hosted by Makerere University in Uganda and headed by an Executive Secretary.

Since 2004, RUFORUM has awarded 188 Ph.D. grants and, as at 2013, 39 of the grantees have graduated. Similarly, it has awarded 245 Master's grants and 87 of them have graduated. It should be noted that most of the training programmes were launched as from 2008 (RUFORUM, 2016b). A recent survey of RUFORUM's 2004–2014 alumni has shown that 94 percent of them live and work in their country of origin.

Agriculture remains one of the thrust areas for the development of Sub-Saharan Africa and RUFORUM's role in promoting postgraduate training and research in agriculture, while linking it to the rural communities' needs, through a consortium of universities is commendable. Its output over a decade or so is quite significant and it can claim to have contributed to regionalization of higher education in the field of agriculture. As in all regional activities in Africa, funding in future will

remain a challenge. Whether RUFORUM's activities can be sustained if external donor funding diminishes or even stops, is uncertain.

NETWORKING MODEL

Two sets of networks of African universities are discussed in this section, the first being a set created by the African Union and the second one established by an American institution. Although each network operates within established overall guidelines, it has a much more informal governance structure than in a consortium of institutions.

NEPAD Networks of Centres of Excellence in Science & Technology

The concept of creating networks of Centres of Excellence (CoEs) in Africa takes its origin from the 2005 Africa's Science and Technology Consolidated Plan of Action (CPA) which places emphasis on "developing an African system of research and technological innovation by establishing networks of centres of excellence dedicated to specific R&D and capacity building programmes" (CPA, 2005). Two main reasons guided the proposal by the African Union to create networks of CoEs, and both clearly aim at promoting regionalization. First, to overcome the tendency of African scientists, engineers, technicians and institutions to work in isolation and enable them to efficiently share scarce human and infrastructural resources so as to increase productivity and innovation. Second, to enable Africa to exploit the diversity of institutions and programmes available across the continent.

The CPA identified twelve R&D programmes, grouped into four Clusters based on their relationships and potential of establishing institutional networks, to be implemented over the five-year period 2006–2010 through the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), the technical arm of the African Union. The four Clusters were: Biodiversity, Biotechnology and Indigenous Knowledge; Energy, Water and Desertification; Materials Science, Manufacturing, Laser and Post-Harvest Technologies; and ICT and Space Science & Technologies. In each Cluster, under each programme, objectives were outlined and indicative projects and initiatives mentioned. The CPA went further and outlined the institutional arrangements, funding and governance structure in implementing the Plan.

NEPAD subsequently produced another document which provided criteria and guidelines for establishing African networks of CoEs (African Union, 2006b) and outlined the key characteristics and performance indicators of an institution to be designated as a CoE.

The creation of networks of CoEs also appears in the African Union Plan of Action for the Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006–2015) where, under Tertiary Education, one of the approaches specifically mentioned is: "Identification and strengthening of networks of Centres of Excellence to enhance the capacity of Africa to contribute to the global pool of knowledge and innovation".

Networks of Water CoEs. In 2003, the African Ministerial Council on Science and Technology (AMCOST) adopted Water Science and Technology as one of the flagship programmes of NEPAD and, in 2006, a joint meeting of AMCOST and the African Ministers' Council on Water (AMCOW) decided to establish an African Network of Excellence on Water Sciences and Technology Development. Accordingly, NEPAD, in 2009, established two Networks in Water Sciences, one in Southern Africa and the other in West Africa (NEPAD, 2016).

The Southern Africa Network of Water Centres of Excellence (SANWATCE) comprises ten institutions in seven countries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, with Stellenbosch University in South Africa as the hub. It has several research projects and is funded by the European Commission, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation and the South African Department of Science and Technology. The Network receives the full support of South Africa as the country hosting the hub, as well as of SADC. Little information is available on how the Network operates and what its outputs have been, but it appears to be a thriving Network and the plan now is to extend it to the other SADC countries.

The West African Network of Water Centres of Excellence (WANWATCE) consists of five institutions from four countries in West Africa and the hub and secretariat is located at the University Cheikh Anta Diop, Senegal. Hardly any information is available on its website regarding its projects, funders, etc. It does not appear to be performing as well as the SANWATCE.

Africa Biosciences Initiative (ABI). This network covers the programmes under Cluster 1 of the CPA. Biosciences are seen as major engines of growth in fields such as human health, industrial processes, environment and agriculture, and yet Africa is lagging behind in them. The ABI Network consists of a secretariat, hub and several nodes distributed throughout the region (ABI, 2016). Four regional Networks have been established, namely: Biosciences eastern and central Africa (BecANET); Southern African Network for Biosciences (SANBio); West African Biosciences Network (WABNet); and North African Biosciences Network (NABNet). Several research projects have been undertaken, postgraduate students trained and infrastructure capacity strengthened, all through regional collaboration, but little detailed information is available.

Regional Initiative in Science and Education (RISE)

In 2008, the Science Initiative Group (SIG) of the Institute of Advanced Study in Princeton, New Jersey, US, with a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, established RISE, a project aimed at producing graduate students in science and engineering who will serve in academia in Africa and produce quality research. In order to encourage collaboration and sharing of resources among African universities, five RISE Networks of universities were competitively selected, each in a specific area of relevance to Africa's development. Each university in a Network appoints a co-ordinator and one of the universities serves as the nodal institution with a Network Director.

The five Networks are in the areas of Materials Science and Engineering (AMSEN), Natural Products (RISE-AFNNET), Biochemistry and Bioinformatics (SABINA), Water Resources (SSAWRN) and Coastal and Marine Science (WIO-RISE). AFNNET has three universities in its Network, SSAWRN and WIO have four each, AMSEN has six and SABINA seven. Of the 24 universities in the Networks, 22 are from Southern and East Africa; only AMSEN has two universities from West Africa. While each student receives his or her degree from one university, all students have access to the complementary teaching and research facilities available at the other universities within the Network. The grant received by a Network is used mainly for supporting the students and for procuring some equipment. It has also been possible to provide support to some students to travel and spend some time in another institution within the Network.

Each Network received US$ 800,000 for an initial period of three years, which was subsequently renewed for additional periods of three years. Each Network is responsible for all academic, management and financial decisions. SIG, with some funding from Carnegie, is responsible for the overall administration of the project, disbursement of funds to the Networks and multi-Network activities.

To date, RISE has graduated 48 MScs and 41 Ph.Ds, the majority of whom are employed in academic positions in African universities, and a few are working in scientific industries. Also, 40 MSc and 52 Ph.D. students are still pursuing their degrees in the five RISE Networks.

The Carnegie funding comes to an end in 2016 and RISE is currently seeking funding from other sources. What is also being considered is how RISE can be rooted in Africa and be fully Africa-owned.

RISE has been instrumental in creating networks and encouraging collaboration among African universities and has thus contributed towards regionalization. Whether the collaboration through networking would continue after Carnegie funding stops at the end of 2016 is uncertain.

REGIONAL SPECIALISED INSTITUTION

Three initiatives aimed at creating regional centres of excellence are examined in this section. The first two are heavily dependent on donor funding but the third one is unique in that it is funded by African governments using loans obtained from the World Bank.

African Institute for Mathematical Sciences (AIMS)

The first AIMS was set up in 2003 in Cape Town, South Africa as a centre of excellence for postgraduate training, research and public engagement in mathematical sciences. The objective was to transform higher education in Africa by using mathematical sciences to tackle global challenges and to do so by bringing together the brightest students from across Africa and expose them to the best professors from Africa and

the world. Other AIMS were subsequently set up in Senegal (2011), Ghana (2012), Cameroon (2013), Tanzania (2014) and Rwanda (2016). It is planned to increase the number of AIMS from the current six to fifteen by 2023.

The flagship course at each AIMS Centre is the Structured Master's programme in Mathematical Sciences, run over three semesters, taught by outstanding African and international lecturers and supported by a team of resident tutors, and often in collaboration with local universities. Candidates for the programme are selected centrally from online applications and the distribution of applicants to the various AIMS is also done centrally. All the selected applicants receive a full scholarship that covers tuition, accommodation, meals and travel costs (AIMS, 2016a).

The AIMS is often referred to as a Network of institutions. However, this is different from the Networking Model used in this chapter, in the sense that there is no collaboration as such among the institutions. AIMS is really regarded as a single specialised institution with centres in different countries. All the AIMS are governed by an International Board of Directors, supported by an Academic and Scientific Advisory Council and an Audit and Finance Committee. There is also a President/Chief Executive Officer, assisted by support staff for the whole network and a global secretariat located in Cape Town, South Africa. However, each AIMS has also its own local board and management structure.

AIMS receives substantial support, not only from the host governments but also from many international donors, the most significant financial contributions being from the Canadian and UK governments and the MasterCard Foundation. As at 2014, AIMS had graduated 741 Master's students from 42 African countries. Table 4.1 shows the alumni by centre and nationality (AIMS, 2016b).

Table 4.1. AIMS alumni by centre and nationalities as per 2014

Centre	*Total Alumni*	*Nationalities*	*No. of Graduations*
Cameroon	36	12	1 (2014)
Ghana	66	18	2 (2013–2014)
Senegal	111	24	3 (2012–2014)
South Africa	528	35	13 (2004–2014)
TOTAL	*741*	*42*	*19*

The figures show that each AIMS Centre operates truly as a regional institution by enrolling students from other African countries. Clearly, AIMS has achieved a remarkable degree of regionalization. And all indications are that this will continue as the number of AIMS Centres increases over the next decade. In 2014, 60 percent of the alumni were in Africa, employed either in academia or industry, and 52 percent of them were pursuing higher studies.

African Union's Pan-African University

In line with its proposal in the Plan of Action for the Second Decade of Education in Africa, in 2008 the African Union Commission (AUC) proposed the creation of a Pan-African University (PAU), comprising five Institutes, one in each of Africa's five regions, each Institute being assigned a thematic area of importance to Africa's development (PAU, 2016). The objectives include promotion of postgraduate training through regional collaboration, the mobility of students and teachers, and harmonization of programmes and degrees. Initially, each Institute is being hosted by an existing university. The AUC and each region selected the country and existing university to host the Institute. The five Institutes are:

- Basic Sciences, Technology and Innovation Institute, hosted by Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Kenya.
- Life and Earth Sciences Institute, hosted by University of Ibadan, Nigeria.
- Governance, Humanities and Social Sciences Institute, hosted by the University of Yaoundé II, Cameroon.
- Water and Energy Sciences Institute, hosted by University of Tlemcen, Algeria.
- Space Sciences Institute, to be hosted by a university in South Africa.

The plan is that each Institute will become a CoE in its assigned area, by serving as a hub networked with ten other African institutions in the same area, thus promoting continental collaboration. In addition to the host governments, the Institutes are sustained by several thematic partners who provide equipment and facilities as well as financial, technical and academic support. Currently, the thematic partners are the African Development Bank, Germany, Japan and India.

The PAU's governance structure comprises a governing Council and a Senate, a Rectorate to be located in Cameroon, and each Institute has its own Board. The Institutes primarily concentrate on Master's and Ph.D. training. Candidates apply to each Institute which then selects the students and submits the list to the central Rectorate for approval. The first batch of students was enrolled in 2012 and the first Master's students graduated in 2014 with a joint degree from PAU and the host university. In 2015 the PAU had a student population of 314 and a new batch of about 350 students was to be admitted in 2015/16 for the Master's and Ph.D. programmes at the four established Institutes. All the selected students are offered a full scholarship, including travel.

Although regional collaboration was to take place through each Institute networking with other institutions, this has not happened so far. However, each Institute admits candidates from other African countries and academics from other countries are also appointed, either on the full-time or part-time basis. Unfortunately, figures at each Institute regarding regional students and academic staff are not available to assess the degree of regionalization. It is perhaps too early to assess the contribution of the PAU towards regionalization.

World Bank's Africa Centres of Excellence

In 2014 the World Bank launched its Africa Centres of Excellence (ACE) project. The main objectives of the project are to promote regional specialization, to strengthen the capacity of existing universities for delivering quality teaching and research, especially postgraduate training, and to meet the demand for skills required for Africa's development in specific fields (World Bank, 2014).

The project is being carried out in two phases. In the first phase, 19 competitively selected ACEs have been established in seven countries in West and Central Africa: ten in Nigeria, three in Ghana, two in Senegal and one each in Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon and Togo. Eight of the ACEs are in the general area of Science, Technology, Engineering & Mathematics (STEM); six are in Health, and five are in Agriculture. Under each general area, each ACE specialises in a specific field, for example, Poultry Sciences at University of Lomé, Togo.

An important characteristic of the ACE project is that it encourages African governments to contribute to higher education development in their respective country and not to depend entirely on external donor funding. Each ACE is thus being provided about US$ eight million obtained as a World Bank loan by the country hosting it. The Association of African Universities serves as the Regional Facilitation Unit for the first phase ACEs and it is assisted by a Regional Steering Committee made up of representatives of all the countries which host the ACEs.

Among the challenges faced by the ACEs is attracting students from other countries in the region. Still, in 2015 the ACEs reported that of the 3,510 students they had enrolled in Master's and Ph.D. programmes and in new specialised short-term courses, the latter mostly geared towards industry, about 42 percent were regional students. The plan is that eventually each ACE would link up and collaborate with other institutions in the region having expertise in its specialised field. This will take time to happen but, when it does, regional networks of institutions in a much specialised field will be created, giving rise to effective regionalization.

Also, the project will end in 2018 and to ensure sustainability, each ACE is encouraged to establish close links with industry and to generate external revenue. This, too, is proving to be a challenge but, again according to the reports from the ACEs, a total revenue of US$5.8 million has been generated. As of 2016, the World Bank is in the process of moving into the second phase of the project with ACEs being created in Eastern and Southern African countries. Using a similar competitive bidding process as in the first phase, some 23 ACEs have been identified and will be established as from the end of 2016. The Regional Facilitation Unit for the ACEs in this phase is the IUCEA in Uganda.

A summary of the typology of regional academic initiatives appears in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Typology of regional academic initiatives

Typology of Regional Academic Initiatives	*Examples*
Regional Institution or Organization.	• University of East Africa and the Inter-University Council of East Africa. • University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland.
Open and Distance Learning Institution.	• University of South Africa (UNISA) • African Virtual University.
Consortium Model.	• The African Economic Research Consortium (AERC). • University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa (USHEPiA). • Regional Universities Forum for Capacity Building in Agriculture (RUFORUM).
Networking Model.	• Networks of Water CoEs. • Africa Biosciences Initiative (ABI). • Regional Initiative in Science and Education (RISE).
Regional Specialised Institution or Centre of Excellence.	• African Institute for Mathematical Sciences (AIMS). • African Union's Pan-African University. • World Bank's Africa Centres of Excellence.

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Regional academic initiatives really began at the beginning of the twenty-first century, and the majority of them started being operational around 2004–2005. A remarkable array of initiatives has emerged in sub-Saharan Africa, as described in this chapter, and the list here is far from being exhaustive. In most cases, the objective of the initiative is to promote postgraduate training and research in science and technology, which is a priority for Africa, and to undertake the training in Africa.

This strategy is the right one as previous attempts at providing high-level training outside Africa, even using the sandwich formula, have not been successful and have invariably led to brain drain. This does not imply that undergraduate training is not important for Africa, but clearly there cannot be quality training at undergraduate level in higher education institutions without research-strong, Ph.D. qualified academic staff; and many of the developmental challenges facing Africa require a pool of highly-skilled personnel in science and technology, as well as relevant development research.

The grouping of the initiatives under different models in this chapter is by no means perfect, and there are cases where initiatives overlap between two models. But this typology helps to better understand the strategy and methodology of the initiatives. It is difficult to define the precise area covered by the various initiatives.

In some cases, they target a sub-region or part of it, in others two or more sub-regions. For example, the AIMS Centres and the PAU Institutes, although located in sub-regions, have a continental reach. The AVU as well covers the whole of Africa and specially targets the different linguistic regions. And several of the initiatives are still in their development stage and are set to expand their reach.

One of the objectives of the typology was to see if one could identify any preferred models. No clear pattern emerges as the initiatives have such diverse origins, were created under different circumstances and are supported by different sources of funding. But this analysis does throw light on some aspects of regional collaboration that are positive and those that require caution. To achieve regionalization in Africa, one could learn from their strengths and weaknesses. For example, distance learning has often been considered as a useful tool for enrolling foreign students. But it appears that with the growing number of open universities being created in Africa, this may no longer be so. Even a well-established institution like UNISA enrols about 90 percent of its students from South Africa itself. Also, any attempt by a group of countries to create a multi-country regional institution, as was the case for the University of East Africa or the UBLS, should be done with great caution.

Achieving Regionalization Goal

The question that inevitably crops up is whether the initiatives are contributing towards regionalization of higher education in Africa, at regional or sub-regional level. In general, the answer seems to be in the affirmative. However, many of them are at too early a stage of their development to enable a firm conclusion. It should be acknowledged that regionalization takes time and can hardly be expected to be achieved in less than a decade.

There is also the issue of availability of detailed information to enable a full assessment. Almost all the initiatives have a website but not all of them contain the relevant information. For example, many of them do not mention their student enrolment, the proportion of regional students and academic staff, the nature of research being undertaken, etc. Such information not only helps to create awareness of their activities but also encourages linkages with other similar initiatives and enables sharing of resources. It would also be valuable to donors who support multiple projects in Africa. One could perhaps consider the creation of an online platform where all regional initiatives in Africa are listed and from where all their websites can be accessed. Such a platform could be created by the AUC or the AAU, or it could be a collaborative effort.

Governance

The governance structure varies from one initiative to another. In some cases, it is very simple, in others it is multi-layered and complex. The examples considered here seem to indicate that it is beneficial to involve the stakeholders, or a sample of

them, in the governance of the initiative. The stakeholders include the participating institutions, the funding agencies/partners, where relevant the governments hosting the institutions, and even the private sector or industry who might eventually employ the graduates.

However, a balance needs to be struck. While it is desirable to have a consultative structure involving the stakeholders, it must also be ensured that the initiative has an efficient governance, and is not stifled by bureaucratic processes. What is equally important is that the governance structure shoud be worked out among the stakeholders well before the initiative is launched. The governance must also take into account possible changes in leadership at institutional or country level, as these can impact negatively on the initiative. Finally, the director or co-ordinator of the initiative must be carefully and competitively selected, as s/he will have a key role to play in implementing the initiative.

Financial Sustainability

Except for the ACEs, all the regional initiatives rely on external donor finding. But even in the case of the ACEs, the loan from the World Bank to the country is for a limited period. Ensuring financial sustainability of the initiative should, therefore, be a major concern for all of them. A review, undertaken at the end of the five-year period, of the NEPAD Networks, established under the CPA, identified over-reliance on external funding as a major challenge. It is imperative therefore for all the initiatives to develop plans for their financial sustainability at the time when they are being conceived, and the donors should make this a conditional requirement to their funding. If, when donor funding dries up, an initiative reverts to activities implemented separately in each institution or country, then the prospect of regionalization will be defeated.

Diaspora and International Collaboration

Very few of the initiatives make specific mention of the contribution of African academic diaspora. Yet, such diaspora represents a huge potential to be tapped. All indications are that they would be prepared to assist in reforming higher education in Africa. Many of them already have informal engagements with fellow academics in institutions in Africa, but these need to be formalised and included in the regional initiatives' strategy. The advantage of using African diaspora is that they are familiar with Africa's development challenges and, at the same time, they can bring the expertise and experience of their respective institutions to meet these challenges.

Similarly, a large number of African universities have long and fruitful partnerships with universities in Europe and North America. While promoting regionalization, African universities should maintain these partnerships and gear them towards the objectives of the regional initiatives. Regional collaboration need not necessarily be at the expense of international collaboration.

REFERENCES

AU. (2013). *Personal Interview with AU officials on the issue of higher education harmonization strategy in Africa*. Conducted at the office of the AUC Education Desk. Addis Ababa.

Africa Biosciences Initiative (ABI). (2015). Retrieved from www.nepad.org/humancapitaldevelopment/abi

AERC. (2016). *African Economic Research Consortium*. Retrieved from http://aercafrica.org/index.php/layout?showall=&start=1

African Union. (2007a). *Harmonization of higher education programmes in Africa: Opportunities and challenges.* Third Ordinary Session of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF III). Paper AU/EXP/EDUC/2(III), Part 1. Johannesburg, South Africa: African Union.

African Union. (2006b). *Criteria and guidelines for establishing African networks of centres of excellence in science and technology* (Ref. EXT/AU/EXP/ST/12 (II)). Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: African Union.

AIMS. (2016a). African institute for mathematical sciences. *Next Einstein Initiative*. Retrieved from http://nexteinstein.org/

AIMS. (2016b). Mathematical sciences the key to Africa's future. *AIMS Annual Report 2013–14*. Retrieved from http://nexteinstein.org/our-annual-report/

AVU. (2016). *African Virtual University*. Retrieved from http://www.avu.org/About-AVU/introduction.html

CPA. (2005). *Africa's S&T consolidated plan of action*. Retrived from http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/SC/pdf/sc_plan_action_en.pdf

DFID. (2016). *Support to African Economic Research Consortium (AERC): Research and capacity building programme 2010–2015*. Retrieved from http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/Project/60710/Default.aspx

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2014). *Internationalization of higher education: Growing expectations, fundamental values* (IAU 4th Global Survey). Paris: International Association of Universities.

Eldis. (2016). *African economic research consortium.* Retrieved from http://www.eldis.org/go/home&id=4298&type=Organization#.VvZFqfl942w

IUCEA. (2016). *The inter-university council for East Africa*. Retrieved from http://www.iucea.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1:overview-of-the-iucea&catid=81&Itemid=529

Juma, M. (2006). *Kenyatta University – African virtual university, Kenya*. *The Virtual University: Models & messages, lessons from case studies*. UNESCO/IIEP, Paris.

Knight, J. (2013). Towards African higher education regionalization and harmonization: Functional, organizational and political approaches. In A. W. Wiseman & C. C. Wolhuter (Eds.), *The development of higher education in Africa: Prospects and challenges* (pp. 347–373, Vol. 21 of International Perspectives on Education and Society). London: Emerald Group Publishing.

Mohamedbhai, G. (2013). Internationalization of African higher education: A different approach? In H. de Wit, F. Hunter, L. Johnson, & H.-G. van Liempd (Eds.), *Possible futures: The next 25 years of the internationalization of higher education* (pp. 138–141). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education.

Mokopakgosi, B. (2013). Why the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland failed: Lessons from the brief history of a regional university of Southern Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies, 39*(2).

NEPAD. (2016). *Water centres of excellence*. Retrieved from http://nepadwatercoe.org/centres-of-excellence/

PAU. (2016). *Pan-African University.* Retrieved from http://www.pau-au.org/

RUFORUM. (2016a). *The regional universities forum for capacity building in agriculture*. Retrieved from http://www.ruforum.org/about-us

RUFORUM. (2016b). *Annual report 2013–2014, Annex 3*. Retrieved from http://www.ruforum.org/sites/default/files/Annual&20Report&202013&202014.pdf

Sahawel, W. (2014). African virtual university to launch 29 e-learning centres. *University World News*, (Africa Edition), 330.

Shackleton, L. (2007). *USHEPIA 1992–2007*. Retrived from http://www.ushepia.uct.ac.za/sites/default/files/image_tool/images/322/About/Evaluations_PDFs/USHEPIA-REPORT-1992-2007.pdf

UB. (2016). University of Botswana. *History*. Retrieved from http://www.ub.bw/content/id/1366/History/

UNESCO. (2009). Communique. 2009 World Conference on *Higher education: The new dynamics of higher education and research for societal change and development.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNISA (University of South Africa). (2016a). *Who we are*. Retrieved from http://www.unisa.ac.za/Default.asp?Cmd=ViewContent&ContentID=27363

UNISA (University of South Africa). (2016b). *Student enrolments*. Retrieved from http://www.unisa.ac.za/Default.asp?md=ViewContent&ContentID=15888

UNISWA (University of Swaziland). (2016). *History of the University of Swaziland*. Retrieved from http://www.uniswa. sz/uniswainfo/history

USHEPiA. (2016). *University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa*. Retrieved from http://www.ushepia.uct.ac.za/ushepia/about

Warner, N. (2010, May 3–4). *Lessons and potential: The USHEPiA programme model*. Presentation made at the Conference on 'Access to Success: Fostering Trust and Exchange between Europe & Africa'. Accra, Ghana.

World Bank. (2014). *World Bank to finance 19 centers of excellence to help transform science, technology and higher education in Africa* (Press Release). Washington, DC: World Bank.

Goolam Mohamedbhai
International Association of Universities, France

JUMA SHABANI, PETER OKEBUKOLA
AND OLUSOLA OYEWOLE

5. REGIONALIZATION OF QUALITY ASSURANCE IN AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

In line with the functional, organizational and political approach to regionalization of higher education which is discussed in the first chapter of this book, quality assurance is one of the core functional element of higher education regionalization process that this chapter will be discussing. The chapter focuses on the policy and programme changes and also addresses the organizational element of quality assurance processes in Africa by examining some of the actors involved at the pan-Africa regional level and sub-regional levels as well.

There is a general understanding among scholars and policy makers that the quality of higher education in Africa has declined for various reasons since the 1980s. By the mid-1990s, the level of quality had fallen so low that all stakeholders in higher education, including institutions, governments, and donors reach a consensus on the need and urgency of taking sustainable actions to reverse this trend and revitalize higher education. This condition has been used as a rationale for the organization of the 1998 World Conference on Higher Education by UNESCO and its partners. Several initiatives have followed to implement the recommendations of that 1998 conference. They include: (a) the revision of the conventions for mutual recognition of degrees and periods of studies, (b) harmonization of higher education programmes and qualifications, (c) establishment of quality assurance agencies, (d) and capacity building in the fields of quality assurance and teaching and learning in higher education. The 2009 World Conference on Higher Education held in Paris has also adopted recommendations to accommodate the new dynamics of higher education and research in the service of social progress and development. These recommendations include: (a) expanding access to higher education while ensuring quality, equity, and relevance, (b) establishing and/or strengthening quality assurance systems and higher education and research spaces, (c) and promoting regional and international mobility of students and academic staff.

This chapter provides a historical background to quality assurance in Africa and starts with a conceptual framework for analysing quality assurance in higher education in an integrated and holistic way. It then discusses the relationships between the world university rankings and the quality of African universities with the related question of the quality of research and knowledge production. The chapter

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 93–112.

further reviews the major initiatives that have been launched in the areas of quality assurance mechanisms at sub-regional and regional levels. At the end, it identifies and analyses challenges that confront ongoing efforts to improve the quality and strengthen quality assurance systems and their implications for constructing the African higher education and research space.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Stakeholders now agree that several factors have contributed to the decline in quality of higher education in Africa. This includes:

- A decline in per-unit costs
- A rapid increase in student enrolments
- The poor quality of students admitted to universities
- Poor standards of academic and research infrastructure, including libraries and laboratories
- Inadequate pedagogic training of academic staff
- Poor governance
- Limited capacity of quality assurance mechanisms
- The absence of quality assurance agencies to create and enforce

One of the major recommendations of the 1998 World Conference on Higher Education, reaffirmed at the 2009 World Conference on Higher Education, was to "pursue the expansion of access to higher education while ensuring equity, relevance, and quality." That recommendation highlighted the importance of capacity-building in quality assurance, and teaching, and learning as relevant strategies that could contribute effectively to the revitalization and further development of higher education in Africa. On the other hand, through the Action Plan for the Second Decade of Education for Africa, the African Union Commission committed in 2006 to promoting quality assurance and to developing a higher education harmonization programme.

As part of the follow-up to the Second Decade of Education in Africa, Okebukola and Shabani (2007) proposed a conceptual framework for analysing quality assurance in higher education in a holistic way. The framework takes into account the components of a higher education system, especially those related to inputs, processes, and outputs. It stresses that, once these system elements are identified, minimum standards must be defined for each component. These minimum standards will be harmonized and used in the process of developing the continental frameworks.

As shown in Figure 5.1, "Dimensions of Quality Assurance of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education," to assure the quality of teaching and learning, the input segment of the framework includes at least the students, teachers, non-teaching staff, managers, curriculum, facilities, finance, and instructional materials. Elements of the process segment cover teaching and learning processes, research, use of time

and space, student services, community participation, and management. If these inputs and processes interact effectively, the output should include skilled and employable graduates who will also be responsible citizens, able to contribute to the economic and social development and the production of new knowledge. For each element of the three segments (input, processes, and outputs), minimum standards must be defined. In an educational system, the minimum standard is the threshold value or benchmark below which performance should not be deemed acceptable. The acceptable performance presents values above established minimums. The setting of minimum standards is important for a host of reasons. One of the most important is that such standards provide an objective measure for evaluating the performance of an education system. Second, they also provide an empirical basis for planning and budgeting. This ensures that minimum standards are attained through the quality assurance process (Okebukola, 2013; Okebukola & Shabani, 2012).

Figure 5.1. Dimensions of quality assurance of teaching and learning in higher education

Meeting the challenges of quality assurance at the continental level includes (a) promoting the mutual recognition of degrees and periods of studies, and (b) enhancing the intra-African mobility of staff and students. Such goals require harmonizing the minimum standards of higher education systems at the regional level. Quality assurance processes will aid in attaining minimum standards by helping to improve the quality of inputs and processes of the quality assurance framework, including the employment of information and communication technologies.

World University Rankings and the Quality of African Universities

The quality of higher education teaching, learning, and research in African universities is determined by the quality of the elements of inputs, processes, and outputs identified in Figures 5.1 and 5.2 and measured on the basis of pre-established minimum standards. While ranking systems are not a completely satisfactory way of measuring quality, such systems provide helpful comparisons of achievement and reputation.

For instance, to improve the quality of Nigerian universities, the National Universities Commission of Nigeria launched its ranking scheme in 2001, using only one indicator: the programme accreditation score based on the results of the 1999–2000 national accreditation exercise. Since 1991 this commission conducts regular accreditation evaluations of university programmes to determine whether they comply with pre-established minimum academic standards.

The objective of this initiative was to provide university stakeholders in Nigeria and beyond with relevant information that could help them to make informed decisions on matters related to the quality of universities. Students could use university rankings to help them choose a university with programmes that aligned with their aspirations. University leaders could use rankings to identify areas of weakness to help plan necessary corrective measures. Employers could recruit candidates with appropriate job profiles, and the government could identify universities that could be elevated to the status of 'centre of excellence'.

With the emergence in 2002 of the world university rankings, a controversial debate has continued on the relationship that should exist between the quality of African universities and their presence in the global league tables. (For a detailed description of the three major global ranking schemes—the Academic Ranking of World Universities, the Times Higher Education Ranking, and Webometrics Ranking—see Okebukola, 2011a, and Mohamedbhai, 2012a.) In the 2012–2013 rankings, only three African universities, all of them from South Africa were ranked in the Times Higher Education and Academic Ranking of World Universities league tables. These are the Universities of Cape Town, Witwatersrand, and KwaZulu-Natal. Webometrics ranked only two African universities in the top 500 universities in the world: the University of Cape Town and Stellenbosch University.

This study takes the position that there is no direct relationship between these three global university ranking systems and the quality of African universities. The chief reason for this lack of relevance is that the profile of universities involved in the global rankings schemes is very specific and their criteria and indicators are not related to those used in assessing the quality of teaching, learning, and research in African universities. Indeed, according to Marope, Wells, and Hazelkorn (2013, p. 14) rankings mainly focus on universities that "tend to be older (200+ years) established institutions with 25,000 students or more, 2,500 faculties or more, and with endowments of over US$1 billion and annual budgets of more than US$2 billion" (p. 14). Moreover, ranking schemes mainly measure universities' activities related to research outputs and, unlike quality assurance measures in African universities, do not give the necessary attention to teaching, learning, and community services and to processes required to achieve the expected outputs.

As this profile shows, such criteria and indicators do not accommodate the current reality of African universities. For example, the selection criteria used by the Academic Ranking of World Universities published by Shanghai Jiao Tong University in China mainly focuses on research. Its indicators include: (a) alumni and staff who win Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals; (b) highly cited researchers

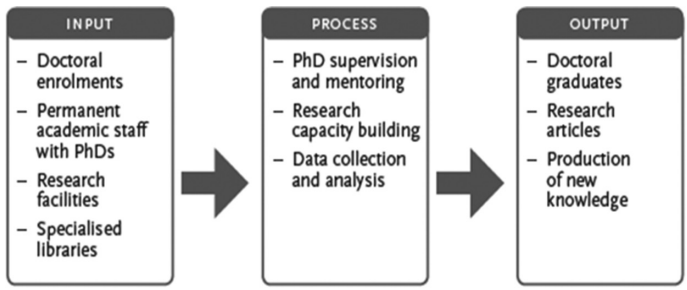

Figure 5.2. Dimensions of quality assurance of research in higher education

in 21 broad subject categories; (c) articles published in Nature and Science; and (d) articles indexed in Science Citation Index-Expanded (SCIE) and Social Science Citation Index (SSCI). However, it is now agreed that criteria and indicators used in global rankings can be adapted appropriately to enhance the quality of African universities. By 2004, for example, Nigeria had expanded its initial single-criterion ranking scheme to accommodate the criteria and indicators of the major world ranking schemes. The resulting new national ranking scheme with 12 indicators is now widely used by stakeholders in Nigeria and beyond. According to the National Universities Commission of Nigeria, the government of Nigeria has already improved learning and research facilities in public universities by about 30 percent since the national ranking was initiated in 2001 (Okebukola, 2011a).

Quality of Research and Knowledge Production

The quality assurance conceptual framework can also be used to analyse quality assurance of research. See Figure 5.2, "Dimensions of Quality Assurance of Research in Higher Education," for the inputs, processes, and outputs of the system. Minimum standards for research include the following: (a) the minimum score on research to be eligible for appointment or promotion; (b) the relevance of research to national socio-economic development, (c) the size of the research grant won through a competitive process; (d) the number of collaborative and inter-disciplinary research projects; (e) journals; and (f) the registered patents and inventions indexed in global databases within the last 12 calendar months (Okebukola, 2013). This study argues that a country's ability to participate competitively in the knowledge economy society is related to the capacity of its universities in the production, reproduction, and dissemination of knowledge and its training of new generations of researchers who will continue the pursuit of knowledge production. Hence, there is a direct relationship between quality assurance of research and knowledge production. In its National Development Plan: Vision 2030, South Africa has developed a set of indicators that should enable the government to achieve its higher education objectives, two of which are directly related to knowledge production: (a) increasing

the number of PhD graduates per year from 1,421 in 2010 to 5,000 in 2030, and (b) the number of academic staff with a PhD from 36 percent of the total number of academics in higher education in 2010 to 75 percent by 2030. Based on a detailed analysis of the growth rates of doctoral enrolments and graduates and academics with a Ph.D. during 1996–2010 and current trends in the development of higher education in South Africa, Mohamedbhai (2012b) found that these targets unrealistic, especially since there is no evidence showing that they may be significantly improved.

QUALITY ASSURANCE INITIATIVES AT SUB-REGIONAL LEVELS IN AFRICA

At least two sub-regional organizations are actively involved in quality assurance in Africa. These are the African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES) and the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA).

The African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES)

The African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur; CAMES) was established in 1968, with the main objective of harmonizing and co-ordinating higher education policies and programmes in the 19 member countries.[1] Currently, CAMES implements three quality assurance programmes. These are the Licence-Master-Doctorate (LMD) reform; the programme on the mutual recognition of degrees, and the capacity-building programme in quality assurance.

The Licence-Master-Doctorate (LMD; also Bachelor/Master/ Doctorate) Reform

This reform began in Europe in 1999 with the adoption of the Bologna Declaration, which launched the Bologna Process. This reform had the goal of making academic degree standards and quality assurance standards more comparable and compatible throughout Europe. Its main priorities are: (a) the introduction of the three-stage degree system, (b) compatible measures of quality assurance, and (c) recognition of qualifications and periods of studies (European Ministers of Higher Education, 2001, 2003). In 2005 the heads of states of the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (Communauté Économique et Monétaire de l'Afrique Centrale; CEMAC) adopted a declaration affirming the establishment of a space for higher education, research, and vocational training that would include the implementation of the LMD reform (CEMAC, 2005).

The six member countries are Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, and Chad. The CAMES Council of Ministers adopted a resolution in 2006 on the transition to the LMD system in all its member states (CAMES, 2006). This resolution entrusted to CAMES academic bodies the

responsibility of setting up, under the guidance of the CAMES secretary general, appropriate mechanisms for the supervision, monitoring, and evaluation of the proposed reform. In 2007, the Council of Ministers of the West African Economic and Monetary Union (Union Économique et Monétaire Ouest Africaine; UEMOA) adopted a resolution that commits its member states[2] to adopt the LMD system (UEMOA, 2007).

Currently, the implementation of the LMD reforms faces major challenges mainly due to: (a) the uneven involvement of the stakeholders in the reform processes, in particular students and administrative staff in universities, (b) the lack of quality assurance mechanisms, (c) the absence of the tools required to promote transparency and fairness in assessing degrees and periods of studies, and (d) the lack of measures to ensure the comparability and compatibility of degrees. Essential tools include credit transfer and accumulation systems, information centres on the recognition of degrees and periods of studies, and diploma supplement, a document issued by a higher education institution to provide a description of the qualification in an easily understandable way, especially for employers and institutions located outside the country where the qualification was issued. All of these tools are explicitly provided for in the resolution adopted by the UEMOA member states.

Generally, implementing the LMD reform takes place in an atmosphere of tension between students and university administrators, most likely because they do not have a common understanding of this reform. However, it is worth mentioning that the Ministry of Higher Education and Research of Senegal organized a national consultation in April 2013 in which all of the stakeholders considered the future of higher education, including the LMD reform. Seventy-eight recommendations were adopted by consensus (CNAES, 2013b).

In the area of research, since the launch of the LMD reform, the Cheikh Anta Diop University of Dakar (Université Cheikh Anta Diop; UCAD) has established seven doctoral schools organized to provide the LMD sequence of degrees. Other universities in the CAMES member countries are at various stages in the creation of such schools. These doctoral schools are now promoting the internationalization of higher education in Africa by admitting students from other countries in the region. For example, the UCAD's doctoral school of mathematics and computer science closely collaborates with the African Institute for Mathematical Sciences (AIMS-Senegal) in supervising Ph.D. students. AIMS-Senegal was established in 2011 in Mbour, Senegal, to provide Ph.D. training programmes in mathematics in Africa and beyond. As of 2013, AIMS-Senegal had already admitted 48 students from 20 African countries (AIMS, 2013).

Regional Frameworks for Accreditation and Quality Assurance

One of the mandates of CAMES is to assess public and private higher education institutions and research centres and programmes in member countries, for the purpose of their accreditation and quality assurance. CAMES also provides

support to institutional quality assurance units. To facilitate the implementation of this mandate, CAMES has developed in 2014 regional frameworks for conducting a self-assessment and internal or external evaluation of institutions and programmes.

These frameworks were first used to strengthen Africa's Strategic Agricultural Capacity for Impact on Development Programme (SASACID) for evaluating institutions of the African Network for Agriculture, Agroforestry and Natural Resources Education (ANAFE), a network of 143 educational institutions in 35 African countries established for the purpose of strengthening the teaching of multi-disciplinary approaches to land management.

In 2015 another regional framework was developed for accreditation and quality assurance of open and distance learning. Pilot projects are being implemented to test these frameworks and workshops are organized to strengthen the capacities of their users.

The Programme on Capacity Building in Quality Assurance

Since 2007, in collaboration with several partners, CAMES implements a series of annual workshops aimed at building the capacity of higher education stakeholders in quality assurance. By December 2015, the programme had organized nine workshops and trained hundreds of people on issues related to quality assurance, including quality assurance procedures, the implementation of the new frameworks for accreditation and quality assurance of training and research institutions and programmes and the quality assurance of private higher education institutions.

The main actors trained include rectors of universities, directors-general of higher education institutions and services, academic staff, researchers, and administrative staff involved in the management of quality assurance. These workshops have helped to raise awareness of decision makers on the need for establishing credible mechanisms for accreditation and quality assurance and to develop adequate expertise at national and regional levels (Mbatchi, 2016).

The Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA)

In 2009 the East African Legislative Assembly enacted the IUCEA Act-2009 to integrate IUCEA into the East African Community (EAC) operational framework. The IUCEA has the responsibility for ensuring internationally comparable standards in the five partner states of the East African Community: Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda. In 2013, IUCEA had 96 member institutions including public and private universities, university colleges, and other degree awarding institutions. Since 2005, the IUECA had developed a sub-regional quality assurance system which initially involved Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda. The initiative was extended to Burundi and Rwanda in 2008 after the two countries had joined the East African Community in 2007.

The process of developing this system went through the following steps:

- Information visit of quality assurance stakeholders from the EAC Partner States to Europe to learn about issues of quality assurance from the experience of Germany and the Netherlands
- Organization of national and sub-regional dialogue forums
- Development of a quality assurance handbook, A Road Map to Quality: Handbook for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, in co-operation with the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) and the German Conference of Rectors
- Capacity building in quality assurance in universities, quality assurance agencies, and at the national level using that handbook.

The handbook is the chief implement for developing a sub-regional quality assurance system. It instructs quality assurance trainers and reviewers who are now instrumental in strengthening the capacity of quality assurance units in member institutions. By 2013, hundreds of university staff had been trained in 70 pilot universities on issues of quality assurance and the use of the handbook, thus preparing them to serve as experts in co-ordinating quality assurance activities in their respective universities. In addition, 80 peers have been trained to participate in peer review exercises with a focus on developing quality improvement plans by the universities that had been reviewed.

The handbook is applied through pilot programme evaluation under the guidance and technical co-ordination of IUECA and national quality assurance agencies (Nkunya & Cosam, 2012; Shabani, 2013). The hand book is divided into four independent but complementary volumes: Volume 1: Guidelines for Self-Assessment at Programme Level; Volume 2: Guidelines for Self-Assessment for External Assessment at Programme Level; Volume 3: Guidelines for Self-Assessment at Institutional Level; and Volume 4: Implementation of a Quality Assurance System.

Capacity-building training workshops on quality assurance issues and the use of the handbook are held periodically, both at national and sub-regional levels under the co-ordination of national quality assurance agencies and the IUCEA respectively. The training needs are identified at the national level by member institutions and at the sub-regional level by IUCEA through the sub-regional capacity-building programme. At the sub-regional level, trainings are conducted through annual East African Higher Education Quality Assurance Network Forums and training workshops that are structured through a specific period of time. As an example, the training on basic quality assurance runs through a period of 18 months comprising three fulltime workshops of seven to ten days. During that period, trainees continue to undertake various assignments at their home institutions related to self-assessment at the programme level.

An external evaluation of the initiative conducted in 2010 by a team of three international experts drawn from Africa, Europe, and Latin America showed that the initiative has achieved four significant results:

- Raising the awareness of the major quality assurance stakeholders
- Training quality assurance trainers and reviewers
- Establishment of quality assurance units in universities
- Acceptance of the principle of regular curriculum reviews (Lemaitre, Matos, & Teichler, 2011).

The evaluation also recommended enhancing the participation of higher education and quality assurance stakeholders in the various quality assurance processes by incorporating stakeholders' perspectives—for example, in the definition of the minimum standards and the identification of learning outcomes.

Currently, all the stakeholders agree that the sub-regional quality assurance system in the East African Community as established is operational. The IUCEA is committed to improving its performance and enhancing its effectiveness. Since the signing of the East African Common Market Protocol in 2009, IUCEA has the responsibility of implementing the higher education provisions of this protocol's Article 11, in particular, the mutual recognition of qualifications and harmonization of curricula (East African Community, 2009). The process of developing a sub-regional harmonization mechanism began in 2010 with the original goal of being completed by 2015. It requires at least the establishment of a sub-regional qualifications framework and a credit transfer and accumulation system, projected respectively for 2014 and 2015 (Nkunya, 2014).

In addition to the delay already experienced, several other factors indicate that the expected results for the harmonization mechanism will not be achieved within the planned deadlines. According to Nkunya (2013), these include: (a) some countries' resistance to change, (b) disparities in existing curricula, (c) variations in the quality of teaching and learning, (d) budget cuts, and (e) delays in countries' payment of their financial contributions to IUCEA.

QUALITY ASSURANCE INITIATIVES AT CONTINENTAL LEVEL IN AFRICA

This section discusses a number of important initiatives that are involved in the design and implementation of quality assurance initiatives at the pan-Africa level. These include the UNESCO project, the AfriQAN project, the Europe-Africa Quality Connect Pilot Project, the African Union Commission higher education harmonization strategy, the Arusha Convention, and the African Quality Rating Mechanism.

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Conferences and Guide

UNESCO provides technical and financial support to organizations involved in quality assurance enhancement in Africa, including the African Union Commission,

the Association of African Universities, the African Quality Assurance Network, and CAMES. It also directly implements capacity-building activities in quality assurance and teaching and learning in higher education through its cluster offices in Harare, Zimbabwe, and Bamako, Mali.

Since 2006, UNESCO and its partners have organized seven international conferences, originally designed as annual events. The first three were held annually (Nairobi, 2006; Dar es Salaam, 2007; Dakar, 2008), followed at two-year intervals for the fourth in Bamako, 2010; fifth, Abidjan 2012 and the sixth in 2014 in Accra. The seventh conference took place in 2015 in Abuja and the 8th conference in 2016 in Windhoek. These conferences on quality assurance in higher education in Africa have helped to train more than 700 experts on such key issues as (a) accreditation at the programme and institutional levels; (b) quality assurance of teaching, learning, and research; (c) conducting institutional audits and visitation; and (d) the use of ICT in quality assurance practices. UNESCO has recently developed its Guide on Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Africa, which focuses on the training of trainers in quality assurance in higher education (Shabani & Okebukola, 2014). This guide is different from the IUCEA quality assurance handbook, developed in co-operation with the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) and the German Conference of Rectors.

These UNESCO-sponsored conferences have played a positive role in human capacity building, fostering awareness of major actors, the emergence of several agencies, and the promotion of regional co-operation in quality assurance (Shabani, 2013). In addition, two UNESCO world conferences on higher education a decade apart, 1998 and 2009, underscored the importance of pedagogic training for higher education teachers. A few years before the 1998 World Conference on Higher education, the UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Africa (BREDA) produced The Guide to Teaching and Learning in Higher Education as a resource for improving the quality of teaching and learning in higher education in Africa (Obanya, Shabani, & Okebukola, 1998).

Since the Guide's publication in 1998 and online implementation through the Virtual Institute for Higher Education Pedagogy (VIHEP) in 2002 and the Virtual Institute for Higher Education in Africa (VIHEAF) in 2005, it has been used by more than 10,000 higher education teachers in Africa. Feedback from participants has confirmed the Guide's positive impact on improving the quality of teaching and learning. However, participants underscored the need for periodic updates in response to emerging developments in higher education in Africa. As a result, the UNESCO Bamako Cluster Office in 2013 published a new Guide to Effective Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (Shabani & Okebukola, 2013). It covers 19 modules that respond to the contemporary developments of higher education in Africa. Selected examples are:

- Understanding the higher education learner
- Curriculum development in higher education

- Effective teaching of first-year students
- Teaching and learning in agriculture, the arts, sciences, and medical sciences
- New technologies in teaching and learning
- Delivering higher education using distance education methodologies
- Empowering women for success in higher education
- Empowering students with special needs.

This Guide will be used to train higher education teachers in Africa online through the Virtual Institute for Improving Quality of Higher Education in Africa (Shabani, 2014).

The African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN) Project

The Association of African Universities implements two initiatives: the *AfriQAN* and the Europe-Africa Quality Connect. AfriQAN was established by the Association of African Universities in 2007 to promote collaboration among existing quality assurance agencies. Its main activities are capacity building of these agencies and the implementation of the African Quality Assurance Peer Review Mechanism (AQAPRM).

AfriQAN organized several capacity-building training workshops for national quality assurance agencies in Africa with the support of the Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity (GIGAC), an initiative of the World Bank implemented under the co-ordination of UNESCO. Some of these workshops were organized in collaboration with the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE). In addition to AfriQAN and INQAAHE, implementation of GIGAC involved five other regional quality assurance networks covering Arab countries, Asia and Pacific, Caribbean countries, Europe, and Latin America.

AfriQAN set up the African Quality Assurance Peer Review Mechanism to assess, on a voluntary basis, the performance of a quality assurance agency by another agency, on the basis of established criteria. The first peer review mission was organized in December 2011 at the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) in Mauritius. Recommendations made for improving TEC's operations are currently being implemented. However, the sustainability of this programme depends on AfriQAN's ability to mobilize new financial resources (Okebukola, 2011b; Shabani, 2013).

Europe-Africa Quality Connect Pilot Project

The Europe-Africa Quality Connect Pilot Project, co-funded by the Erasmus Mundus programme and the European Union Commission, was established in October 2010 with the goal of strengthening institutional development and quality assurance in five Sub-Saharan African institutions: the University of Namibia; Kenyatta

University, Kenya; Omar Bongo University, Gabon; Institute of Professional Studies, Ghana; and Ahmadu Bello University, Nigeria. The Association of African Universities implemented this project in 2010–2012 in collaboration with the European Universities Association, the University of Aveiro in Portugal, and the Irish University Quality Board. The pilot project implemented the Institutional Evaluation Programme (IEP, 2010) including the following activities: (a) institutional evaluations in five universities participating in the project; (b) training workshops for experts of the evaluation teams; (c) workshops on self-evaluation, and (d) a final dissemination conference.

This project used the Institutional Evaluation Methodology approach (IEP) with the five African universities in different regions of the continent. Given the general openness and flexibility of the methodology, the idea was not to impose new QA procedures on universities in Africa, but rather to encourage them to assess their institutional goals and mission with the IEP Tools and shared good European practice in this field. The evaluation teams visit each selected participant university and conducted the assessment. A final evaluation report was issued for each of the five institutions. The strengths and weaknesses of the exercise were debated in a post-workshop in the presence of all participant Universities as well as evaluation experts.

The project was successfully completed in September 2012 with the following two major outcomes: It confirmed the need to conduct institutional evaluations in Africa, and it showed that the Institutional Evaluation Programme is applicable to different African higher education contexts. At the final dissemination conference held in June 2012 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, the AAU made a commitment to mobilize resources that will allow applying this project to other institutions.

The African Union Commission Higher Education Harmonization Strategy

The objectives of the African Union higher education harmonization strategy and its role in the regionalization process of African higher education is thoroughly discussed in Chapter 12 but this section shade some light on its relation to the Arusha convention in the journey to achieve regional qualification framework. The harmonization strategy was adopted in 2007 to achieve the following five core results by 2015 (African Union, 2007a):

- Establishment and maintenance of the continental political commitment to the process of harmonization
- Co-operation in an information exchange
- Development and maintenance of a continental framework for higher education qualifications
- Creation of minimum standards in targeted qualifications
- Establishment of joint curriculum development and student mobility schemes

The study argues that achieving these results, especially in combination, will improve the comparability and compatibility of higher education programmes and

qualifications. The harmonization strategy will, therefore, facilitate the mutual recognition of qualifications; promote academic mobility on the continent, and contribute towards the establishment of an African higher education and research space.

Unfortunately, recent reports on the implementation of the harmonization strategy work plan show that it is currently lagging in some tasks and will not achieve some of the results expected at the end of its implementation date in 2015 (Oyewole, 2011, 2013; Shabani, 2013). These include the establishment of a continental qualifications framework, the development of a continental credit transfer and accumulation system, and the creation of a central database on the recognition of qualifications. These three tools are required to ensure the effective implementation of the joint curricula, student mobility schemes, and the revised Arusha Convention.

The Arusha Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education

The Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees, and other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education in the African States, also known as the Arusha convention was adopted by the African Ministers of Education in December 1981 in Arusha, Tanzania, to promote academic mobility. The implementation of the convention was weak, partly because, by 2002, it had been ratified by only 22 member nations. In 2002 UNESCO and the Commonwealth of Learning collaborated on revising the convention, a process motivated by the major challenges facing higher education in Africa in the early 2000s, including a rapid increase in student enrolments, the deterioration of the quality of education, and the lack of relevance and equity in the higher education systems. As the African Union recognized, it was necessary to adapt appropriately such existing legal instruments as the Arusha convention to ensure that they confront and help resolve these serious challenges (AU, 2011). Since 2007, the revision continued jointly by UNESCO and the African Union Commission. The revised Arusha convention was adopted by African Ministers of Education in December 2014 at an International conference of states held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The slow progress made in both the revision of the convention and implementation of the strategy could indicate that the mechanisms for overseeing these processes were ineffective.

Although the Arusha convention and the harmonization strategy focus primarily on the quality of academic programmes and institutions, their implementation does not adequately involve stakeholders in higher education and quality assurance. The delay in implementing the revision of the convention and the harmonization strategy must be at least partly attributed to the member countries' reluctance to undertake the measures necessary to expedite these processes. It also seems inevitable that implementation of the revised Arusha convention will face some challenges due to the lack of tools needed to ensure transparent and fair assessment of qualifications and periods of the studies.

The African Quality Rating Mechanism (AQRM)

This mechanism was established in 2007 by the African Union (AU, 2007b) to encourage higher education institutions to voluntarily assess their performance against a set of criteria established in the quality rating mechanism survey questionnaire (AU, 2009). These criteria are largely consistent with the standards for institutional quality assurance used in Nigeria and South Africa (Shabani, 2013). The AQRM differs, however, from ranking systems. It helps to put African higher education institutions in clusters according to prescribed quality standards required for participation in continental academic mobility programmes such as the Mwalimu Nyerere scholarship scheme launched in 2007 to contribute to training and retention of high-level human resources in key areas of sustainable development. AQRM will also be used to select institutions that will be considered for membership in the pan-African University networks of centres of excellence.

In 2010, 32 higher education institutions from 11 countries participated in the pilot project, undertaken on the basis of self-assessment. A project report produced by the African Union Commission noted some shortcomings including lack of external validation of the self-assessment results and difficulty in drawing relevant conclusions from the information collected since some institutions failed to complete the entire survey (AU, 2012; Mohamedbhai, 2012c; Shabani, 2013).

The African Union Commission report recognizes the need to revisit the survey and to conduct another pilot phase prior to scaling up the mechanism to all the institutions. Based on the lessons learned from the first pilot phase, the African Union Commission revised its survey questionnaire in August 2013 in collaboration with the Association of African Universities and invited higher education institutions to participate in a new pilot phase that is currently being implemented in 2014. Hopes are high in Africa and the rest of the world that AQRM will evolve into a respectable international rating scheme.

Meanwhile, the African Union Commission has launched the process of establishing an African Accreditation Framework. This initiative together with the proposed project of establishing an African quality assurance framework and the Tuning Africa project will provide a strong foundation for developing the African Regional Qualifications Framework and a comparable credit transfer, thereby contributing to the construction of the AHERS.

THE CHALLENGES

The improvement of the quality of higher education in Africa and the strengthening of quality assurance regimes confront at least three challenges: (a) weaknesses in implementing the higher education harmonization strategy, (b) inadequate human capacity, and (c) institutional lethargy.

Challenges in Implementing the Higher Education Harmonization Strategy

In the last 15 years, the Regional Conventions on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and Other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe, Africa and the Asia-Pacific regions, adopted 1979, 1981, and 1983 respectively, have undergone revisions for the purpose of improving transparency and efficiency in recognition procedures, of making qualifications more easily understandable, and for enhancing academic mobility.

These revised conventions were expected to serve as building blocks for constructing higher education areas. The revised European Convention now called the convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region (popularly known as the Lisbon Convention) adopted in Lisbon on April 11, 1997, facilitated the creation and refinement of several tools that allowed improved comparability of qualifications. These tools include: (a) the European Network of Information Centres on Academic Recognition and Mobility, (b) the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, (c) the European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education, (d) the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System, and (e) the Diploma Supplement, which a higher education institution issues to provide an easy-to-understand description of the qualification, especially for non-national employers and institutions. The implementation of the Bologna Process, which began in 1999, has relied emphatically on the use of these tools and mechanisms.

The situation in Africa is different. Indeed, the revised Arusha convention which was expected to support the implementation of the harmonization strategy was completed only in 2014. The harmonization strategy includes activities related to the finalization of the revised Arusha convention, preparations for its signature and ratification, and the development of tools required to ensure the mutual recognition of degrees and periods of studies among member nations. However, its implementation is lagging, including aspects related to the Arusha convention. Furthermore, although the harmonization strategy was planned to build on existing initiatives at national and regional levels, no mechanism has been set up to ensure a co-operative relationship between harmonization and these initiatives. Finally, the implementation of the strategy does not adequately involve stakeholders in higher education and quality assurance, thus raising the prickly challenges of ownership, inclusiveness, and leadership as pointed out by Teferra (2012).

Inadequate Capacity Building

Today, quality assurance is at the heart of all efforts to revitalize higher education in Africa. These efforts have led to a rapid increase in the number of quality assurance agencies. However, at least 60 percent of the agencies lack the human and institutional capacity needed to implement their mandates effectively (Shabani, 2013). Strengthening these capacities is urgent, as is the demand that it be done in

the present moment, especially given the awareness of several African countries of the need for new institutions that can respond adequately to growing demands in their own nations for greater access to higher education.

Institutional Lethargy

Many of the higher education institutions in Africa still delay in developing quality assurance at both the national and continental levels. Few practitioners at the institutional level are aware of the Arusha convention, either in its original or its revised form or of the AHERS programme. Policymakers and leaders of higher education institutions still need to be encouraged to show commitment to the revitalization process. Quality assurance must start at the local institutional levels, and members of university governing councils and other leadership positions must not be those who see universities as money-making sources or as methods of pursuing other political or personal interests. Universities in Africa should become aware that quality starts with their commitment to their institution's vision, mission, and values and that such a commitment must not be made to serve other political and social ends.

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND THE WAY FORWARD

Quality assurance frameworks are among the most important functional elements of regionalization of higher education. The African experience in this sense has been quite fragmented even if there are promising initiatives. This article reviewed the major initiatives taken at the national, regional, and continental levels to improve the quality of higher education in Africa. These initiatives include: (a) the creation or strengthening of quality assurance mechanisms; (b) critical revisions of conventions on mutual recognition of degrees and periods of studies; (c) the harmonization of programmes and qualifications, and (d) the construction of an African higher education and research space.

The review has identified a major opportunity for regional quality assurance stakeholders. Indeed, as discussed in the section on the Inter-University Council for East Africa, that body has been quite successful in establishing a regional quality assurance system in the East African Community. Higher education proponents urge that other regional communities consider developing similar models, which will improve the quality of higher education in their respective regions. Actually, the successful implementation of the system in East Africa led the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) to initiate a similar system in West and Central Africa in 2013 in collaboration with the African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education and UNESCO (DAAD/UNESCO, 2012).

In the light of the challenges identified, the chapter recommend the following actions to the stakeholders at national, regional, and continental levels:

- Allow the participation of all the stakeholders in the various ongoing reform processes to make them more effective
- Strengthen the capacity of stakeholders in the areas of quality assurance
- Improve institutional capacity in teaching and learning in higher education, using, for example, the 2013 *Guide to Effective Teaching and Learning in Higher Education* developed by UNESCO
- Build capacity for the rapid development of tools required to facilitate the mutual recognition of degrees and periods of studies, to improve the comparability of programmes, to provide better matches among qualifications in various higher education programmes, and to promote mobility. These steps will facilitate the more rapid realization of the African Higher Education and Research Space (AHERS) and establish a stronger foundation for future developments.

NOTES

[1] These countries are, in alphabetical order: Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Madagascar, Mali, Niger, Rwanda, Chad, Senegal, and Togo.

[2] The eight members of UEMOA are, in alphabetical order: Benin, Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast, Guinea Bissau, Mali, Niger, Senegal, and Togo.

REFERENCES

AIMS. (2013). *The African Institute for Mathematical Sciences* (AIMS-Senegal). Retrieved from http://www.aims-senegal.sn/

AU (African Union). (2007a, August 6–10). *Harmonization of higher education programmes in Africa: A strategy for the African union.* Third Ordinary Session of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF III), Johannesburg, South Africa.

AU (African Union). (2007b, May 29–31). *Developing an African higher education quality rating system.* Meeting of the Bureau of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF II+), Addis-Ababa.

AU (African Union). (2009). *Developing a quality rating mechanism for African higher education.* Survey Questionnaire, Addis Ababa.

AU (African Union). (2011, May 11–13). *Regional convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees, and other academic qualifications in higher education in African states.* First extraordinary session of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF IV+), Nairobi, Kenya.

AU (African Union). (2012, April). *African quality rating mechanism: 2010 pilot self rating of higher education institutions: Summarised report.* Addis Ababa: AU.

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (1993, September 20–25). *Colloque spécial du CAMES sur la reconnaissance et l'équivalence des diplômes étrangers.* Conference held at Niamey, Niger. Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/IMG/pdf/diplomes_colloque_special_niamey_20_25_1993.pdf

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2006). *Résolution no. 4 sur le passage au LMD.* Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/IMG/pdf/Resolution0406CAMES.pdf

CNAES. (2013b). Concertation Nationale pour l'avenir de l'enseignement supérieur au Sénégal; National Dialogue for the Future of Higher Education in Senegal. *Concertation nationale pour l'avenir de l'enseignement supérieur au Sénégal. Rapport général.* Retrieved from http://www.cnaes.sn/

DAAD/UNESCO. (2012, November 15–17). *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (German Academic Exchange Service)*. Conference on strengthening regional co-operation in quality assurance in Central and West African universities, in Dakar, Senegal. Retrieved from http://www. Unescoafrica.org/highered

EAC (East African Community). (2009). *Protocol on the establishment of the East African community common market: Intergovernmental agreement.* Arusha: EAC. Retrieved from http://www.commonmarket.eac.int/documentation/doc_view/48-common-market-protocol.raw?tmpl=component

European Ministers of Higher Education. (2001, May 19). *Towards The European higher education area: Communiqué of the meeting of European ministers in charge of higher education in prague*. Retrieved from http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/MDC/PRAGUE_COMMUNIQUE.pdf

European Ministers of Higher Education. (2013, September 19). *Realizing the European higher education area: Communiqué of the conference of ministers responsible for higher education*. Retrieved from http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/MDC/Berlin_Communique1.pdf

IEP (Institutional Evaluation Programme). (2010). *10 rear anniversary. Institutional evaluation programme.* European Universities Association, Brussels. Retrieved from http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/IEP_anniversary_brochure.1086687063630.pdf

ILemaitre, M. J., Matos, N., & Teichler, U. (2011, March). *East African- German co-operation in enhancing quality assurance in higher education: An external review of the IUCEA-DAAD pilot initiative.*

Marope, P. T. M., Wells, P. J., & Hazelkorn, E. (Eds.). (2013). *Rankings and accountability in higher education uses and misuses*. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization Retrieved 8, 2014, from http://www.unesco.org/new/typo3temp/ pics/69b714f58c.jpg

Mbatchi, B. (2016). *Private Communication.*

Mohamedbhai, G. (2012a, November 5–9). *Global rankings of universities: Where do African universities stand?* Paper presented at PULSAR Residential Workshop, Johannesburg, South Africa. Retrieved from http://www.sarua.org/files/PULSAR/Presentations/3-Prof%20Mohamedbhai%20Global%20Rankings.pdf

Mohamedbhai, G. (2012b). Are national goals for doctoral education realistic? *University World News* (Issue No. 212). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20120306150045171

Mohamedbhai, G. (2012c, November 5–9). *African quality rating mechanism: Pilot results and challenges in future implementation.* Paper presented at PULSAR Residential Workshop, Johannesburg, South Africa. Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20120928170840119

Nkunya, M. H. H. (2013, September 14). East Africa higher education boss warns of more harmonization delays. *University World News* (Issue No. 287). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130913115149427

Nkunya, M. H. H. (2014, January 17). Why higher education harmonization is taking so long. *University World News* (Issue No. 303). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140117145931648

Nkunya, M. H. H., & Cosam, J. C. (2012). *Developing a regional quality assurance system for higher education in East Africa: Progress and experiences.* Kampala, Uganda: Inter-University Council for East Africa.

Obanya, P., Shabani, J., & Okebukola, P. (1998). *A guide to teaching and learning in higher education.* Dakar: UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Africa (BREDA).

Okebukola, P. A. (2011a, June 27–30) *Nigerian universities and world ranking: Issues, strategies, and forward planning.* Paper presented at the 2011 Conference of Association of Vice-Chancellors of Nigerian Universities, held at Covenant University, Ota.

Okebukola, P. A. (2011b). *Peer review of quality assurance in Africa.* Retrieved from http://www.academia.edu/5166995/Peer_Review_Of_Quality_Assurance_Agencies_In_Africa

Okebukola, P. A. (2013, September 24–25). *Legislative framework for enhancing minimum standards in Nigeria's federal education system.* Paper presented at the Conference of the Nigeria Legislature on

Education Organized by the Senate Committee on Education on the theme of "Transforming Nigeria's Education Sector: The Legislative Agenda." Abuja, Nigeria: National Universities Commission.

Okebukola, P. A., & Shabani, J. (2007). Quality assurance and accreditation in higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa. In Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI) (Ed.), *Higher education in the world 2007: Accreditation for quality assurance—what is at stake?* (pp. 46–59). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Okebukola, P. A., & Shabani, J. (2012). *Report of the study on the establishment of the Africa regional quality assurance framework*. Study commissioned by the ADEA (Association for the Development of Education in Africa) Working Group on Higher Education, Tunis.

Oyewole, O. (2011). *Harmonization of degree structures and regional qualification frameworks in African higher education space.* Paper presented at the Conference of Rectors, Vice-Chancellors, and Presidents (COREVIP) of African Universities, Association of African Universities, Stellenboch, South Africa.

Oyewole, O. (2013). African harmonization: An academic process for a political end? *Chronicle of African Higher Education*, 1. Retreived from https://htmldbprod. bc.edu/prd/f?p=2290:4:0::NO:RP,4:P0_CONTENT_ID:119500

Shabani, J. (2013). Quality regimes in Africa: The reality and the aspirations. *Chronicle of African Higher Education* (No. 4). Retrieved from http://www.bc.edu/content/bc/research/cihe/inhea/chronicle.html

Shabani, J. (2014, January 26). UNESCO virtual institute to help improve higher education quality. *University World News* (Issue No. 304). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140123180356367

Shabani, J., & Obebukola, P. A. (Eds.). (2013). *Guide to effective teaching and learning in higher education in Africa.* Bamako, Mali: UNESCO Bamako Office.

Shabani, J., & Okebukola, P. A. (Eds.). (2014). *Guide on quality assurance in higher education in Africa.* Bamako, Mali: UNESCO.

Teferra, D. (2012, January 30). Harmonization and tuning: Integrating the African higher education space. *The World View*. Retreived from http://www.insidehighered.com/blogs/harmonization-and-tuning-integrating-african-higher-educationspace

UEMOA. (2007). Union Économique et Monétaire Ouest Africaine; West African Economic and Monetary Union. *Directive No.03/2007/CM/UEMOA portant adoption du système Licence, Master, Doctorat (LMD) dans les universités et établissements d'enseignement supérieur au sein de l'UEMOA.*

Juma Shabani
Faculty of Sciences, University of Burundi, Burindi

Peter Okebukola
Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI-Africa), Nigeria

Olusola Oyewole
University of Agriculture, Nigeria

JANE KNIGHT AND EMNET TADESSE WOLDEGIORGIS

6. ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN AFRICA[1]

Students, Scholars, Programmes, and Providers

INTRODUCTION

Academic mobility is one of the functional elements of regionalization within the FOPA framework discussed in Chapter 1. Academic mobility is not a new phenomenon – scholars and knowledge have been moving around the world for centuries. The fact that the concept of the universe is embedded in the term 'university' is evidence of the important role that knowledge and people mobility play in higher education. But it is not just students and scholars who are crossing international borders – so are academic programmes and providers. This type of mobility is not new. For instance, during Africa's colonial period, foreign institutions from the United Kingdom were established in Africa and became the forerunners of new African institutions (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). While the debate on whether the impact of these foreign founded institutions was more positive or negative continues, they do illustrate the early history of international mobility of programmes and providers in Africa.

But, today the landscape of academic mobility is changing in fundamental ways. In the more interconnected and interdependent world in which we live, there are new challenges and opportunities facing academic mobility. The movement of ideas, values, knowledge, people, trade, technology, services, and products is a hallmark of globalization. Developments in information and communication technologies are introducing new opportunities and benefits for academic mobility. At the same time, new challenges and potential academic risks are emerging due to the increased commercialization and trade orientation of higher education. Environmental disasters, terrorism, increased poverty, political unrest, among other societal threats, are also challenging and changing all forms of academic mobility.

During the last two decades, there has been increased collaboration between African institutions, scholars, and systems with international counterparts. This is especially true in relation to European based programmes and institutions, and more recently with Asian countries such as China, Korea, and Japan. But the question must be asked – has the intra-regional higher education mobility among countries within African expanded at the same rate as inter-regional co-operation? The answer is no. However, there is little empirical evidence to verify whether this hypothesis is true. Nevertheless, there is a reason to be optimistic given the

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 113–133.

important role that student and scholar mobility occupies in the African Union Higher Education Harmonization Programme (AU-HEP). As discussed in previous chapters, new programmes and policies are being developed at the continental and sub-regional levels in Africa to promote student and scholar mobility. Policies related to quality assurance, academic credits, and qualification recognition are being created which will support academic mobility. Specific programmes such as the Nyerere Mobility programme and the Pan-African University (PAU) are designed to increase intra-regional academic collaboration and mobility within Africa especially for students and scholars. But, the same cannot be said for programme or provider mobility.

The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to examine the scope and scale of academic mobility among African countries as part of the 'functional programme activities' approach identified in the FOPA model discussed in Chapter 1. This is a challenging task given the dearth of reliable data at the pan-African level on any time of academic mobility. While there is data from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) on international student mobility in and out of Africa, and there is limited information on sub-regional student mobility data such as within the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the East African Community (EAC), there is no central or co-ordinated source of information on intra-regional academic mobility in Africa. This reality is important to highlight and furthermore to address in a concerted and co-ordinated manner.

The outline for the chapter is as follows. The first part introduces student and scholar mobility and discusses the conceptualization of student mobility, the scale of regional student mobility within Africa, and two important continental initiatives – the Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility scheme for students and the PAU. The challenges and prospects facing intra-regional student mobility are then examined. The second half of the chapter focuses on programme and provider mobility. Given the escalating interest in twinning programmes, joint/double degree programmes, international branch campuses and joint/binational universities, there is a state of mass confusion on how to describe and categorize these different modes of programme and provider mobility. Therefore, the terms related to these diverse forms of mobility are discussed and a common classification framework is examined.

Without any solid data on mobility, it is not possible to give an accurate and up-to-date pan-Africa overview. Instead, several countries which are actively engaged as either a host or sending country are used as illustrative examples. A recent trend in international education is the desire of countries to become known as an 'education hub'. Both Botswana and Mauritius have the ambition of being education hubs in Africa, and their plans and progress are examined. The chapter closes with a discussion of the challenges facing the growth of academic mobility within and across Africa and calls upon the AUC, the sub-regional higher education associations, and higher education institutions to work together more closely to reduce the barriers to academic mobility in order to enhance the regionalization of African higher education.

PEOPLE MOBILITY: STUDENTS AND SCHOLARS

Conceptualizing Student Mobility

The issue of student mobility has been widely discussed as part of internationalization of higher education processes by many authors (Knight, 2008; Sehoole, 2006; Seidel, 1991; Teichler, 2009; Altbach, 2004). Student mobility can be both inward and outward movement of students from one country to another either between regions of the world or within a region such as Africa. Conceptualizing student mobility in higher education has been challenging as students' movement across national borders has sometimes been confused with other concepts like migration and brain drain. But, the duration of stay of international students in the host country can be considered as a determining factor for understanding and using the terms related to student mobility. Accordingly, student mobility can be for a short period of time as 'exchange programmes' or it can be for the whole programme as 'study abroad'. If students, however, decide to stay and work after graduation, then it can also be termed as 'working abroad' or 'skill migration' (Jallade & Gordon, 1996; & Murphy-Lejeune, 2003). Thus, international student mobility can be described as students that cross borders and stay in another country to take either short or long term training in higher education either within a region, intra-regional or among countries across different regions inter-regional (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015).

Students who study in foreign intuitions bring many benefits to students and partner institutions for a number of reasons. Exchange of good practices, information, and knowledge; capacity building in research and development; generating income from international students through tuition fees and promoting cultural integration are some of the rationales for promoting international student mobility. Apart from that, as globalization shapes higher education institutions in line with market elements making education a tradable commodity, promoting and attracting more international students has become one a source of alternative revenue. In this regard, developed nations are the beneficiaries of international student mobility as more than 90 percent of international students have enrolled in institutions in OECD countries.

For instance, six countries – the U.S., the UK, Germany, France, Australia, and Japan have been dominating the flow of international students hosting 67 percent of the world's international students (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007). Moreover, the Australian Bureau of Statistics reported that the total export income from education services was $16.3 billion in 2010–11 (Australian Government, 2011, p. 2). In New Zealand, higher education service has been the country's fifth largest service export since 2005 and education services have generated as much as US$1.46 billion per year in foreign exchange placing it firmly amongst New Zealand's leading industries (Verbik & Lasanowski, 2007, p. 17).

In the context of developing countries, the rationale for student mobility may be different with that of the developed countries. The higher education sectors in some developing countries may not be in a position to meet all demands of local students because of the lack of adequate infrastructure, the lack of diverse disciplines and

post-graduate programmes. In such a context, student mobility can be adopted as a strategy to educate local students in the international environment so that they may gain knowledge that may not necessarily be available in local institutions (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015).

Historically, the trend of student mobility in Africa is related to the very nature of the development of higher education sector in the continent. Modern higher education institutions in Africa are largely products of colonial interventions. As a result, the higher education systems, curriculum, degree structure, medium of instruction, organizational settings, trends of student mobility and partnership schemes are shaped and segregated along colonial lines as Anglophone, Francophone, and Lusophone. One of the trends that can be observed in the post-1990s Africa is, however, the growing popularity of English as a medium of instruction has been slowly defusing the Anglophone – Francophone dichotomy of international student mobility in Africa.

As global English started becoming the lingua academia, higher education institutions not only opened more programmes in English but also became obliged to publish in English for a wider impact of their research outputs (Marie, 2013). There is also a popular discourse among higher education that attributes better advantage to having a higher education degree in English in the labour market (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). As a result, more students from Francophone countries are now attending degree programmes in English at different higher education institutions.

According to a report by Campus France Agency (2011) for instance, between 2006 and 2010 there was a significant fall in the number of students enrolled in France from Francophone Africa, while there was a 28.8 percent increase in South Africa and 19.3 percent increase in the UK (Marshall, 2013). French-speaking North African countries like Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria have also gradually introduced more programmes in English. Former Belgian colony, Rwanda, which once taught mainly in French, also switched to English as the primary language of educational instruction in 2008. The change was necessitated by the need to integrate more with the English speaking neighbouring countries that constitute the East African Community – Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi.

Student mobility in Africa can be seen from two perspectives. The first one is African students traveling outside of the continent for higher education, which is commonly known as inter-regional student mobility. The other one is student mobility within the continent among African higher education institutions which is commonly known as intra-regional student mobility. This section, however, focuses only on intra-regional student mobility.

REGIONAL STUDENT MOBILITY IN AFRICA

Student mobility among African higher education institutions has not been as common as international African student mobility because of various reasons. The segregation of African higher education system along colonial models as Francophone, Anglophone

and Lusophone facilitated more of international student mobility to European countries than among African higher education institutions has been the main reason (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). Moreover, weak regional integration among African countries still upholds rigid border restrictions for student mobility.

Despite many challenges, there is a growing trend for increased intra-regional student mobility since the 1990s. The core reasons behind the slow but steady growth in student mobility in African include the relative economic developments and political stability in some African countries since the mid-1990s, the collapse of Apartheid in South Africa, the growth in higher education enrolments in the region in general since 1994, the progressive economic integration among African countries and the rapid expansion of higher education sector in the region are the major ones.

As indicated by Woldegiorgis and Doevenspeck (2015), regional student mobility in Africa has more than doubled in the past decade, with the major destinations being South Africa and Angola (from Southern Africa), Kenya and Uganda (from East Africa), Tunisia and Morocco (from North Africa) and Senegal and Ghana (from West Africa). Since 2006 Morocco has been one of the top destination mainly for Francophone African countries including Mauritania, Guinea, Senegal, and Mali. For example, morocco hosted 6, 996 African students from Francophone region between 2006 and 2010. This number mounted to 8,604 in 2012/2013 (Marshall, 2013). The main reasons for Morocco to be one of the top destinations for students from Francophone African countries include: the relative political and economic stability of the country, the availability of scholarships, the presence of more international branch campuses of foreign universities, low cost of tuition in the fields of medicine, engineering and natural sciences.

In the Southern African sub-region, intra-regional student mobility has been well-established practice for more than two decades. In 2010 for instance, of all foreign students in South African universities, 72 percent came from SADC region (Kotecha, 2012). In 2012–2013 alone, South Africa hosted about 70,428 students mainly from SADC members like Zimbabwe, Namibia, Lesotho and Swaziland. Generally, since the fall of the Apartheid regime, the number of international students in South Africa has more than quadrupled from around 12,500 in 1994 to nearly 53,000 in 2005 (Sichone, 2006). A Large number of international students also enrolled in distance programmes in South Africa. Distance education, for example, has constituted 40 percent of education provision in South Africa between 2003 and 2010.

Intra-regional student mobility among Portuguese-speaking African countries has also been emerging after the conclusion of the long civil wars in Angola (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). Though the higher education space in Lusophone Africa is not as big as Francophone or Anglophone countries, Angola has been playing a major role as the main destination for international students from Portuguese-speaking African countries. Even though Angola has a relatively young higher education experience because of the colonial policy of the Portuguese and the consequent civil wars in the post-independence era, it has exhibited fast improvements in higher education provision and has recently become one of the

destinations for international students from Africa. In 2010, Angola hosted 6,530 foreign students, mostly from its Portuguese-speaking countries of Cape Verde, Mozambique, and São Tomé and Príncipe. Students from the Democratic Republic of Congo and Guinea-Bissau are also choosing Angola for their higher education training (Marshall, 2013). The fast growing economy of Angola, growing labor market for Portuguese speaking Africans, scholarship opportunities, and the relative peace have all contributed to the growing number of international students in Angola (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015).

Student exchange in East African countries basically goes back to colonial times where the Makerere University of Uganda used to be the only higher education institution in the region serving students from Kenya, Tanzania, and beyond. Students have been traveling since then to Uganda for higher education training from various parts of Africa. The quality of education at Makerere University used to be comparable to universities in the U.K. and this has given the university a reputation for being the 'Harvard of Africa' (Domatob, 1996). This trend has continued for a long time making Uganda the main destination for international students from East Africa. According to official reports from the Ministry of Higher Education in Uganda, there were about 16,000 international students at Uganda's universities in 2010 constituting almost ten percent of the total higher education students in the country (Herrmann, 2012).

It is not only Makerere University but also other universities in Uganda that are currently hosting international students; for example, Kampala International University (KIU) hosted 6,715 students, Islamic University in Uganda hosted 767, Makerere University Business School hosted 671 in 2010. The majority of international students (70 percent) are from Kenya while the rest come from Tanzania, Democratic Republic of Congo, Burundi, Rwanda, Sudan, Somalia and Congo. The relatively low cost of living and tuition fees in Uganda, better quality higher education, easy visa regulations and geographic proximity contributed to a large number of foreign student enrolment in Ugandan universities (Itaaga, Musoke, & Anthony, 2013).

CONTINENTAL INITIATIVES PROMOTING STUDENT AND SCHOLAR MOBILITY

There are very few continental programmes that promote intra-regional student mobility. The next section deals with the two most important ones, the Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility programme, and the pan-African university network.

Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility Programme for Students

Even though both inter-regional and intra-regional mobility of students is as old as the emergence of higher education itself in Africa, the issue of promoting student and staff mobility at the policy level in Africa mainly expanded after the adoption

of the Accra Declaration in 2004 (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). The Accra Declaration was an outcome of a conference of high profile experts and policy makers of higher education, which was organized by the AAU in partnership with UNESCO and the South African Council on Higher Education. At the meeting, the participants clearly affirmed that African higher education is less internationalized and characterized by poor academic mobility among institutions. Thus, in the final Declaration which was unanimously adopted after the conference, the participants avowed their commitments to establish continental programmes and promote student mobility in Africa.

> …We, therefore, re-affirm our commitment to reducing obstacles to international co-operation in respect of knowledge creation, exchange, and application, to the enhancement of access to higher education and to increasing academic mobility within Africa itself. (Accra Declaration, 2004, p. 4)

The Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility programme was, therefore, one of the programmes put in place in order to promote intra-regional student mobility along the commitment of the Accra Declaration and later incorporated as a functional element of the AU HEP. The Nyerere programme was named after one of the icons of pan-Africanism and the first leader of Tanzania, Julius Nyerere. Nyerere was known by the Kiswahili honorific as Muslims or Mwalimu which means 'teacher', his profession prior to politics (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). Re-affirming the pan-African legacy of Julius Nyerere, the Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility scheme was initiated in 2007 by the AUC "to develop and retain high-quality human resource for Africa's development, while enhancing intra-regional institutional networking, academic mobility and quality" (European Commission, 2013). It was designed to facilitate student mobility among African students to undertake degree programmes (Bachelors', Masters' and Ph.D.) in top African universities, in the areas of science and technology, with a binding commitment that the recipients of the scholarship will stay and contribute to the development of Africa from two to five years after graduation. The idea behind the commitment is to retain African graduates so that they could serve the continent for at least the proportional time of the scholarship they received.

The programme is designed to promote intra-regional student and staff mobility. The AAU and the AU commission are working and facilitating the programme in collaboration with the European Commission. At the beginning, the programme had an ambitious objective of providing scholarship and promoting academic and staff mobility across all parts of Africa. This ambitious objective, however, was not achieved as planned since the programme was poorly financed by the AU. After a year of its establishment in 2008 for instance, the Nyerere Mobility programme provided scholarships only for 19 African students from the whole of the continent. This number does not show much improvement compared to the plan in the consecutive years as well since, by 2013, only a total of 150 students took part in the process (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015).

One of the biggest challenges has been a lack of sufficient funding to open up the programme for more students to take part in the process. As a result, the AU has decided to call upon the European Commission to provide support for the Nyerere programme under the Africa-EU partnership scheme. The issue of including the Nyerere programme in the Africa-EU partnership scheme was discussed later on the 3rd Africa-EU Summit in Cape Town, South Africa 23–24 November 2010. At the conference, the EU pledged to support and fund the Mwalimu Nyerere African Scholarship Scheme to boost the mobility of students and staff in higher education. Since then, the Nyerere scholarship programme has been funded through the European Development Fund (EDF) and technically supported by the European Commission. The EDF, for instance, provided Euro 41.5 million in 2010 and an additional Euro 30 million between 2011 and 2013 (European Commission, 2013).

The involvement of the EU in the Mwalimu Nyerere programme has, however, further expanded the objectives of the programme now including mobility of African students beyond Africa within the framework of the Africa-EU partnership. The Africa-EU partnership has different thematic areas and one of which, "migration, mobility, and employment", incorporates higher education partnership. Thus, within this thematic area, the EU has developed a partnership scheme called the Intra-ACP University Mobility Programme which is a student mobility initiative that promotes collaboration among higher education institutions and supports student exchange programmes in Africa, the Caribbean, and the Pacific (ACP) regions. As it is clearly stated on the European Commission Education, Audio-visual and Culture Executive Agency's (EACEA) document:

> This programme builds on the African Union's Mwalimu Nyerere programme for Africa, granting additional funding, and setting up a similar scheme for the Caribbean and Pacific regions. It is funded through the European Development Fund (EDF). (EACEA, 2014, p.na)

The programme was designed as a five-year project (2010–2014) with possible extensions and was signed between EACEA and AUC with the overall budget of EUR 45 million and an annual budget of nine million. The programme has already been implemented through three calls published in 2010, 2011 and 2012 and over the five consecutive rounds of selection. Accordingly, in 2014, 100 students were included in the programme making the total number of students participated between 2010 and 2014, about 250 (African Union, 2014).

The Pan-African University Network

The other important continental initiative that promotes student mobility in Africa is the PAU which is established as a flagship institution to promote science, technology, and research in African higher education institutions. It was established in 2009 by the AU as a network of high-profile universities to train best African students or 'the cream of the crop' at Masters and Ph.D. levels (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015).

The PAU is established to promote academic mobility and facilitate intra-regional networking for high-level academic researchers in the area of science and technology. This initiative is believed to enhance the attractiveness and global competitiveness of the African higher education space and improve the retention of skilled African professionals. It was within these objectives that the PAU was officially launched in December 2011 in Addis Ababa. Even though the plan was to start the programme in the same year in all the five sub-regions, only three sub-regional hubs were ready for the first phase of the programme namely – East, West and Central Africa hubs (African Union, 2013).

In the first intake of students, 2013/2014, PAU admitted students from 11 African countries in three thematic Institutes (The Institute for Governance, Humanities and Social Sciences at the University of Yaounde II in Cameroon; the Institute for Life and Earth Sciences (including Health and Agriculture), at the University of Ibadan in Nigeria and the Institute for Basic Sciences, Technology and Innovation, at the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology in Kenya). A total of 135 students were registered to pursue their studies in different areas of specialization. Out of the total intake, 18.5 percent of the first batch of students were female.

In the second PAU student intake, 2014/2015, a total of 236 students from 37 African countries were enrolled into to the various programmes of PAU. The percentage of female students in the second intake was 35.7 percent. The programme comprised of Masters Students at the Institute for Governance, Humanities and Social Sciences at the University of Yaounde II in Cameroon and the Institute for Water and Energy Sciences (including Climate Change at the University of Tlemcen in Algeria and both Masters and Ph.D. students at the Institute for Life and Earth Sciences, at the University of Ibadan in Nigeria and the Institute for Basic Sciences, Technology and Innovation, at the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology in Kenya.

The call for students for the academic year 2015/2016 already attracted 5,629 applicants, representing an overall increment of 361 percent from the previous year. The current (2016) student population stands at 573 (174 females and 399 males); this breaks down to 435 Masters (133 females and 302 males) and 138 Ph.D. (41 females and 97 males) students.

Generally, both the Mwalimu Nyerere Mobility programme and the PAU network are designed to integrate African higher education institutions and promote both student and researcher/expert mobility. These processes, however, demand harmonization of curricula and programmes so that the understanding of a degree in one university should be comparable to the other.

Academic and Staff Mobility

There are few practical programmes that fundamentally promote academic and staff mobility in Africa both at regional and sub-regional levels. Even though both Nyerere programme and the PAU network claimed to include staff mobility in their projects

but there has been little recorded so far. Currently, there is no active programme on academic/staff mobility at the African Union or other continental organizations. This, however, demands equal policy attention both by higher educational institutions and regional organizations.

Challenges in Intra-regional African Student Mobility in Africa

Even though the trend of intra-regional mobility in Africa showed improvement since the 1990s, it has also been facing various challenges. Student mobility demands a lot of enabling factors including political stability, availability of quality higher education infrastructure, availability of credit transfer systems and instrument of recognition of studies, flexible entry mechanisms, conducive visa procedures, and harmonized or comparable higher education systems.

These enabling factors, however, are rarely available in most countries in Africa. This significantly challenges the development of intra-regional student mobility. Moreover, a policy framework at the institutional level is required to facilitate internationalization of higher education in general and regionalization more specifically. Most universities in Africa, however, do not have an internationalization or regionalization strategy or policy and thus it is now difficult to identify the positions of institutions when it comes to regional student mobility. Most African higher education institutions do not even have a comprehensive data on student mobility. Existing data on student mobility and staff exchange programmes are inconsistent, incomplete and in most cases not collected by a central agency in any standard format which makes it difficult to have meaningful comparisons for a study.

Moreover, enabling factors of student mobility like the existence of Credit Accumulation and Transfer System (CATS) which facilitates the recognition of courses taken in other universities making them comparable to others has not been practiced in a comprehensive manner in the region. The CATS has been proved in many regions, including Europe, as a facilitating factor for mobility of students to enhance transparency and comparability of study programmes and qualifications, and facilitate the recognition of studies (Tempus Study, 2010). Diverse higher education systems and curriculum structures across higher education institutions in the region have also contributed to the challenges of student mobility. The many different higher education systems in Africa, which are based on different national or colonial and other legacies, are not yet harmonized. Thus, credential evaluation has become a topic of increasing concern in African universities in the process of international student admissions. Currently, there are initiatives at regional and sub-regional levels to introduce CATS into the African education systems.

PROGRAMME AND PROVIDER MOBILITY

This section of the chapter shifts the focus from people mobility including students, academics, and staff to programme and provider mobility. The movement of education

programmes and institutions/providers across international borders, often described as Transnational Education (TNE), is changing and challenging the landscape of international higher education. New models and modes of delivery across borders are emerging including joint universities, twinning programmes, double degree programmes, branch campuses, and franchise programmes. In many countries, TNE can provide ten percent of higher education provision and in others, such as Mauritius, up to 45 percent (Valaydon, 2016).

Terminology Confusion and Misunderstandings

While there is more or less a clear understanding of what student and scholar mobility means and involves, the same cannot be said for programme and provider mobility. This is due to the diversity of ways that an academic programme or provider/institution crosses borders. Part of the confusion also stems from how the terms 'host country' and 'home country' are used. In general, the host country is the recipient of the foreign programme or provider, and the home country is the sending country. For the purposes of this chapter, the terms host country and sending country will be used to avoid the misunderstandings often associated with the home country.

Ten years ago four terms dominated the debate on the mobility of programmes and providers – cross-border, transnational, offshore and borderless education. There are important differences in meaning among the terms but in practice, they were being used interchangeably (Knight, 2008). A decade later cross-border higher education and transnational education are the most frequently used terms. Each has pros and cons. Cross-border higher education (CBHE) recognizes the importance and implications of borders for national educational policy and regulations. This is an important consideration even in the more interdependent and borderless world of today. The term cross-border higher education also gained more legitimacy given that it was used in the UNESCO/OECD Guidelines for Quality Provision in CBHE (2005) and the UNESCO Regional Conventions on the Recognition of Qualifications.

On the other hand, transnational education has gained its meaning and popularity through everyday use – not through the conceptual foundation of the term. It has come to mean the movement of academic programmes and providers between countries and tries to distinguish itself from international education which focuses more on the movement of students, among other activities. This is a very nuanced and nebulous distinction and hard to understand both by those new to international higher education and non-English speakers (Knight, 2016). While each term has its supporters and detractors, the term transnational education is used for this chapter and refers to programme and provider mobility only.

A pre-requisite to examining the changing phenomenon of TNE is a common understanding and labelling of the different types of programme and provider mobility. A rough estimate of the number of different labels suggests that there are over 40 descriptors (in English only) used in the TNE lexicon. In some instances, the same term, such as double/joint degree programme, is used to denote a wide variety of TNE

activities and conversely, there are diverse terms used to describe the same activity. This TNE terminology chaos is increasing as more countries and higher education institutions get involved in the international programme and provider mobility. The Pandora's Box of TNE terminology makes it challenging to collect comparable and reliable data within and across countries and impossible to monitor major TNE trends, TNE enrolment patterns, and the scope and scale of TNE provision.

To illustrate the increasing complexity related to conceptualizing and defining TNE, it is useful to look at two recent studies on TNE policies, provision and data in countries from all regions of the world, including Africa.

TNE Data Collection and Management Study (2015)

The study by McNamara & Knight (2015) focused on which TNE active countries had data collection and management systems in place at the national or sub-national level on programme and provider mobility. After completing a brief review of more than 40 TNE active countries, in-depth case studies were completed in 13 countries (3 sending and ten hosts). Botswana, Egypt, and Mauritius were included in the group of 13 countries. The results showed that very few host countries (Malaysia, Mauritius, and Hong Kong being the exceptions) had reliable data on TNE provision even though it represented a significant percentage of their higher education provision. The picture was different for three major sending countries – the United Kingdom, Germany, and Australia – all of whom had TNE data systems in place. However, it is both of interest and concern that the sending country data did not always align with the host country data. Understandably each TNE data system was customized to the local context and used different categories or terms to denote a TNE mode.

Overall, the study confirmed that TNE active countries use different terminology; target different institutions; have developed different template structures and formats and capture different information about TNE programmes. The key challenge singled out by the case study countries was the categorization and definitions used to label different types of TNE mode and partnerships. Consultation with national HE agencies around the world indicated that while most countries recognize this problem, to date there has not been any kind of solution provided.

Review of TNE Research 2000–2015

A recent study, (Knight & Liu, 2016), undertook a systematic review of TNE scholarly and applied research published since 2000. More than 300 journal articles, book chapters, reports and dissertations on TNE were reviewed and coded as to the type/mode of TNE provision, date of publication, research methodology, a major theme, geographic focus, and source of reference. The review focused on various modes of programme and institutional/provider mobility and thus did not address student mobility per se. Distance education was not categorized as a distinct TNE mode but treated as a method of pedagogy.

The results showed that International Branch Campuses (IBCs), representing 29 percent of published references, were the most researched mode followed in descending order by Partnership Programmes (involving collaboration between host and sending countries such as twinning and joint/double degree programme) at 16 percent, then Joint Universities (binational, co-founded and co-developed institutions) at six percent, followed by Franchise Programmes (export programmes from sending countries) at five percent. Important to note is that research which dealt with multi-TNE modes or generic TNE themes represented 43 percent of the published research. When the geographic focus is factored in for IBCs it shows that research from the viewpoint of the sending countries was most prevalent and that research from the host country perspective was significantly under-represented. The number of references from African authors or those which addressed programme and provider mobility in Africa was less than ten. This demonstrates two things. Little research is being conducted on programme and provider mobility in African and secondly, the amount of TNE activity is Africa is small compared to other regions of the world.

While it is important that each country uses terms that fit into the domestic higher education landscape, it is equally important that there is a shared understanding and use of TNE terms across countries. The lack of a common understanding raises serious issues related to appropriate quality assurance processes, qualification recognition procedures, registration of new providers or programmes, completion rates, and the collection of programme level information and enrolment data.

Thus, the confusion and misunderstandings in programme and provider terminology has been clearly documented in the review of national policies and regulations, in a review of country level TNE data and TNE data collecting systems, a review of university websites which promote TNE programmes, and a review of the TNE literature. All of this points to a major challenge that requires the attention of the many higher education actors and stakeholders. Is it possible to develop a common set of TNE terms which allows consistency and clarity of use within and across countries but which respects the local context, linguistic differences, and regulatory environment? The next section addresses this question and proposes a Common TNE Classification Framework.

TOWARDS A COMMON TNE CLASSIFICATION FRAMEWORK

The Framework is ‘a work in progress’ as it has to be acceptable to both host and sending countries around the world and relevant to early stage TNE countries as well as those countries who have years of experience with programme and provider mobility.

Objectives and Use of Common TNE Classification Framework

The objectives of the proposed framework are (1) provide some clarity and common interpretations of the different modes and categories of TNE. This requires the

framework to be robust enough to ensure that the characteristics of each mode of TNE are clearly defined, but flexible enough to reflect the realities and different contexts of the more than 120 countries involved in TNE; (2) provide a foundation to help systematize TNE data collection and management within and across countries through a TNE Data Collection Template. Users of the framework include higher education institutions, higher education agencies and government departments, quality assurance agencies among others; and (3) provide common TNE terms and categories so that eventually TNE data can be included in the UNESCO, OECD, and Eurostat (UOE) data base on higher education. This will allow trends and enrolments in programme and provider mobility to be monitored in the same way that student mobility and international student data are monitored.

Meaning of Common TNE Classification Framework and Organizing Principles

It is important to understand each major concept in the proposed framework. Common indicates that it is relevant to and used by both hosts and sending TNE countries/providers around the world. TNE is defined succinctly as "the mobility of higher education programmes and institutions/providers across international borders". Classification refers to the categorization of different modes or types of TNE and Framework indicates that there is a logic or analytical frame used to differentiate between various types of programme and provider mobility. Overall, the framework introduces some structure and logic to how different types of TNE are described and differentiated from one another.

The first principle relates to the two vertical columns which differentiate TNE as a collaborative effort between host and sending higher education institutions/providers, and TNE as primarily a stand-alone or independent TNE activity by a sending higher education institutions/provider (meaning that there is no academic involvement with local providers). The distinction between collaborative TNE provision and independent TNE provision has important implications for both host and sending country regulations and policies related to registration, external quality insurance, awarding of qualifications, degree recognition, responsibility for the curriculum, and TNE data collection.

The second principle relates to the two horizontal rows which apply to both 'collaborative TNE provision' and 'independent TNE provision'. Row one differentiates partnership programmes between host and sending country from franchises which are primarily exported by a sending country. The second row addresses the mobility of TNE providers and distinguishes between a joint university co-founded or co-developed by both sending and host countries higher education institutions from an international branch campus which is essentially a satellite operation of a parent higher education institution in the sending country. These two principles represent fundamental assumptions on which the framework is based.

Descriptions of TNE Modes and Commonly Used Terms

The framework, as presented in Table 6.1, provides a brief description of each sub-category. Three key questions help to differentiate the characteristics of the sub-categories: (1) who is responsibility for the academic curriculum, (2) who awards

Table 6.1. Proposed common TNE classification framework

Common TNE Classification Framework	
Two Major Categories of TNE Provision Collaborative and Independent	
Collaborative TNE provision Involves collaboration between foreign sending and host country higher education institution /providers for academic programme design, delivery and/or oversight *(Oversight can include monitoring, quality assurance, and/or accreditation).*	*Independent TNE Provision* Foreign sending higher education institution/provider is primarily responsible for the design, delivery, and oversight of their academic programmes offered in a host country.
Four Sub-Categories of TNE Provision	
1. Partnership Programmes *Description*: Academic programmes in the host country are jointly designed, delivered or monitored through collaboration between host and sending country higher education institution/providers. Qualifications can be awarded by either or both host and sending country higher education institution. Commonly used terms: *joint/double/ multiple degrees, twinning, dual, consecutive degree programmes.*	*3. Franchise Programmes* *Description*: The foreign sending higher education institution/provider has primary responsibility for the design, delivery and academic oversight of academic programmes offered in the host country. Qualification is awarded by sending higher education institutions. Commonly used terms: i*mport/ export, validation, foreign, non-local, international private programmes.*
2. Joint University *Description*: A higher education institution co-founded and established in host country involving both local and foreign sending higher education institution/providers collaborating on academic programmes. Qualifications can be awarded by either or both host and sending country higher education institutions. Commonly used terms: *co-developed, binational, co-founded, multinational, joint ventures universities*	*4. International Branch Campus* *Description*: A satellite campus established by foreign sending higher education institution in the host country. Sending parent institution provides curriculum, oversees monitoring, and awards the qualifications. Commonly used terms: *satellite, private international, offshore higher education institutions or campuses*

Source: Adapted from McNamara and Knight (2015) and Knight (2016).

the qualification, and (3) who is responsible for external quality assurance. While there are always exceptions, the overall logic is that for independent TNE provision the sending country has primary responsibility for the curriculum, the qualification awarded, and external quality assurance. While for collaborative TNE provision both the host and sending countries share or have joint responsibility for these three aspects of TNE programmes (Knight, 2016).

AN OVERVIEW OF TNE IN AFRICA

As mentioned, there is no comprehensive source of data on programme and provider mobility initiatives in Africa. This is also true for other regions of the world. However, many countries have national level TNE data which can eventually be aggregated to get an estimate of what is happening in the region. This is not the case in Africa because few countries have national level TNE information available. It appears that Mauritius, South Africa, Botswana, Ghana, Ethiopia, Nigeria and Kenya have some kind of register of foreign programmes and providers in place (Ilieva, 2016) but it does not mean that they have comprehensive TNE data available. Furthermore, the definitions used are not consistent, information is limited and so it is not possible to do a comparative or comprehensive analysis. Mauritius is one of the most active TNE country in Africa and will be used as a case study as the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) has a comprehensive TNE data collection system in place. Given the theme of the book, it is important to focus on programme and provider mobility activities between African countries and that is where the real challenge lies.

Mauritius reports that in 2014, about 44 percent (17, 626 students) of its total local higher education enrolments (40,457) were through TNE provision (Valaydon, 2016). TNE provision includes five branch campuses in Mauritius, 17 Partnership programmes (twinning or joint/double degree programmes), 247 franchised programmes and 28 distance education programmes. An interesting feature of the TNE enrolment in Mauritius is that only 582 students were enrolled in Partnership programmes (as defined in the Common TNE Classification Framework) and 17,044 were enrolled in Independent TNE such as Franchise programmes and International branch campuses. Thus TNE clearly appears to be providing increased access for Mauritius students beyond the local public and private higher education institutions.

Furthermore, Mauritius is on a path to develop itself as a regional Knowledge Hub in order to build human resource capacity and raise its profile internationally as a centre for talent and knowledge (Ministry of Education and Scientific Research, 2006). A core pillar of the Knowledge hub is the work being done by a private company, the Medine group, to establish an Education Village. The 2016 update on the Education Village indicates that it will house programmes from seven different international universities and will be a magnet for attracting international students from the region as well as additional TNE programmes and providers. Thus, Mauritius is an example of an African country which effectively uses TNE to increase access for local students to higher education, and is on the road to becoming an education

hub which will use TNE to attract students from the region. However, it appears that the majority of TNE providers in Mauritius do not come from other African countries thereby illustrating that programme and provider mobility in Mauritius has not been a major contributor to African higher education regionalization. However, plans to increase international student recruitment from the region may open doors for further intra-regional collaboration.

Botswana is another country with substantial TNE activity. There are two International Branch campuses – one from Malaysia and the other from South Africa. Like Mauritius, Botswana also had aspirations to become a regional education hub. In 2009 Botswana published a report (Botswana Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2009) which outlined its goals and strategy to become an education hub. The intention was to make high-quality education, training and research key components of the country's economic diversification and social development plans. The proposed education hub was one of six national hubs under consideration. A major role of the education hub was to develop the human resource capacity for the five other industrial/commercial hubs. An important part of the education hub strategy was to strengthen the capacity of existing institutions and attract new international and local education providers and recruit more international students and scholars. The report maintains that establishing Botswana as an education hub would attract private investment and bring economic, social and environmental benefits to the country. However, the economic challenges facing the world and Botswana during the 1990s prevented it from reaching its goal of being recognized as a regional centre of excellence in education, training, and research.

Interesting to note is that both Mauritius and Botswana believed that they could become a regional centre of excellence for education and research and thereby contribute to both intra-regional and inter-regional collaboration in higher education. It is too early to tell if they will ultimately reach their goal, but progress has been slower than expected. As of 2017, it looks like Mauritius is moving forward to reach its goal.

In terms, of other African based programme and provider mobility, it is worth noting that Egypt is home to the only joint or binational university in Africa. Established in 2004, the German University of Cairo is a well – respected private Egyptian university with very close ties to a consortium of universities in Germany. It even has a satellite campus in Berlin, but it does not appear to have substantial relationships with other African based institutions. There may be other universities with foreign country names in Africa but this does not necessarily mean that there is a close partnership or TNE activity per se. Having foreign country named universities is often more of a branding exercise than a close TNE partnership.

In terms of the two categories in the classification framework that relate to partnership programmes and the independent franchise programmes, it is impossible to get an accurate indication of what is happening across Africa. Without national level TNE data collection systems it is a challenging task to determine both international and African based programme collaboration.

Table 6.2. International branch campus initiatives in Africa

Host Country in Africa	*Sending Country*	*Comments*
Botswana	Malaysia: Limkokwing University of Creative Technology. South Africa: Management College of South Africa*	*OBHE data lists one IBC and the Human Resource. Development council lists two IBCs.
Egypt	Germany: Technical University of Berlin-Campus El Gouna.	
Ghana	UK: Lancaster University. USA: Webster University.	
Kenya	Uganda: Kampala. International University-Nairobi Campus.	*Kenyan Commission for University Education does not list any IBC in its list of accredited higher education institutions.
Mauritius	UK: Aberystwyth University UK: University Wolverhampton UK: Middlesex University India: EIILM* Pakistan: Greenwich University*	*OBHE lists three IBCs and the data from the Mauritius Tertiary Education. Commission lists five.
Morocco	France: Toulouse Business School. France: EMYLON Business School. France: School of Engineering and Technology in the Management of Industrial Systems.	
Nigeria	Netherlands: Business School Netherlands.	
Rwanda	USA: Carnegie Mellon University.	
South Africa	Australia: Monash University. Netherlands: Stenden University. UK: de Montfort University. India: University of Pune.	
Tanzania	Uganda: Kampala International University.	
Tunisia	France: Dauphine University Paris. France: ESMOD.	

Source: Taken from Garrett et al. (2016)

According to the OBHE (Observatory on Borderless Higher Education) and C-BERT (Cross-border Education Research Team) Report (Garrett et al., 2016), there are a total of 19 international branch campuses operating in African countries. However, this number does not align with information reported by African countries themselves. For instance, the Tertiary Education Commission (TEC) of Mauritius reports five international branch campuses but OBHE lists three. Similarly, the Human Resource Development Council (HRDC) of Botswana acknowledges two but OBHE lists one. This is another example when the definition of a TNE mode differs making it difficult to have reliable robust data. Table 6.2 lists the host country of the branch campuses as well as the sending countries. Of particular interest is that only three of the International Branch campuses are established by a sending country in Africa – two from Uganda and one from South Africa. Furthermore, only one country, Egypt has indicated interest in establishing a branch campus outside of Africa and that is Al-Azhar University which is in the process of setting up a satellite campus in Malaysia.

The review of programme and provider mobility in Africa has demonstrated that at the international level, there is very limited TNE activity between African and international partners and even less programme and provider mobility among African countries. One can make this assertion but with a limited capacity or political will at the national level to track TNE activities in Africa, it will continue to be a challenge to collect TNE data and get an indication of how programme and provider mobility can contribute to African higher education regionalization.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is a daunting, but worthwhile task, to assess the role and impact of academic mobility in the regionalization of African higher education when there is little information to guide or support any conclusions. While, experience and common sense, would suggest that all forms of academic mobility – scholar, students, programme, and provider, would strengthen higher education collaboration among institutions and national education systems there is little evidence of this happening.

The fact, that the AU has student and scholar mobility as a major component in their AU-HEP indicates that academic mobility is perceived as an effective means for increased regionalization of higher education within Africa. However, the lack of reference to programme and provider mobility, and the fact that to date most of the TNE activity is between Africa and institutions outside of Africa eloquently illustrates that TNE is yet to be considered as a potential strategy to develop collaborative twinning or joint/double degree programmes or joint universities between African institutions.

Apart from academic policy and technical challenges, perpetual political unrest in some African countries also contributes to the slow rate of student, scholar, programme, and provider mobility among African countries. In general, academic

mobility is linked to the diverse socio-economic and political realities of Africa. Peace and security, economic growth and development, comparable and affordable infrastructures are important to promote mobility across African institutions (Woldegiorgis & Doevenspeck, 2015). To address the above challenges, increased collaboration and political will of the AUC, sub-regional organizations, and higher education institutions are crucial in facilitating the smooth movement of the whole process.

NOTE

[1] Parts of this paper have been adapted from Woldegiorgis, E. T., & Doevenspeck, M. (2015). Current Trends, Challenges and Prospects of Student Mobility in the African Higher Education Landscape. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(2), p. 105 and Knight, J. (2016).Transnational Education Remodeled: Toward a Common TNE Framework and Definitions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *20*(1), 34–47.

REFERENCES

Australian Government. (2011). Export income to Australia from education services in 2010–11. *Research Snapshot*. Retrieved from https://www.aei.gov.au/research/Research-Snapshots/Documents/Export%20Income%202010-11.pdf

Botswana Ministry of Education and Skills Development. (2009). *Report on the feasibility study to assess the viability of establishing a tertiary education hub in Botswana*. Botswana: Gabronne, Government of Botswana.

Domatob, J. K. (1996). Policy issues for African universities. *Issue: A Journal of Opinion*, 29–35.

Garrett, R., Kinser, K., Lane, J., & Merola, R. (2016). *International branch campuses: Trends and developments, 2016*. The Observatory on Borderless Education and C-BERT (Cross-border Education Team), London, UK.

Herrmann, K. (2012, April). *The observatory on borderless higher education*. Uganda: Moving beyond price to recruit international students. Retreived from http://www.obhe.ac.uk/newsletters/borderless_report_april_2012/uganda_moving_beyond_price_recruit_international_students

ICEF Monitor. (2013, July 19). *A closer look at African student mobility*. Retrieved from ICEF Monitor: http://monitor.icef.com/2013/07/a-closer-look-at-african-student-mobility/

Ilieva, J., & Peake, M. (2016). The shape of global higher education: National policies framework for international engagement. *British Council, UK*. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/f310_tne_international_higher_education_report_final_v2_web.pdf

Itaaga, N., Musoke, K. M., & Anthony, M. M. (2013). Internationalization and regionalization of higher education in Uganda: A descriptive analysis. *Global Journal of HUMAN SOCIAL SCIENCE Linguistics & Education, 13*(5).

Knight, J. (2008). *Borderless, offshore, transnational and cross-border education- are they different in J. Knight higher education in turmoil: The changing world of internationalization*. Rotterdam, Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Knight, J. (2016). Transnational education remodeled: Toward a common TNE framework and definitions. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *20*(1), 34–47.

Knight, J., & Liu, Q. (2017). What is the state of research on transnational education? Highlights and concerns. (In press).

Kotecha, P. (2012). *Higher education in the Southern African region: Current trends, challenges, and recommendations.* The Extra-Ordinary Meeting of SADC Ministers of Higher Education and Training, Johannesburg.

Lawton, W., & Katsomitrous, A. (2012). *International branch campuses: Data and developments.* London, UK: Observatory of Borderless Higher Education.

Marie, K. A. (2013). Coping with English as language of instruction in higher education in Rwanda. *International Journal of Higher Education, 2*(2), 1–12.

Marshall, J. (2013, July 6). International mobility of African students – Report. *University World News.* Retreived from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130705203103913

McNamara, J., & Knight, J. (2015). Transnational education data collection systems: Awareness, action, analysis. *British Council and DAAD*. Retreived from https://www.britishcouncil.org/education/ihe/knowledge-centre/transnational- education/tne-education-data-collection-systems

McNamara J., Knight, J., & Fernandez-Chung, R. (2013).The shape of things to come 2: The evolution of transnational education. *British Council.* Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/education/ihe/knowledge-centre/transnational-education/the-shape-of-things-to-come-2

Ministry of Education and Scientific Research. (2006). *Developing Mauritius in a knowledge hub and a centre of higher learning, Government of Mauritius*. Retrieved from http://chet.org.za/manual/media/files/chet_hernana_docs/Mauritius/National/MESR%202006_Developing%20Mauritius%20into%20a%20knowledge%20hub.pdf

Sichone, O. B. (2006). Globalization and internationalization of higher education in South Africa: The challenge of rising Xenophobia. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa, 4*(3), 33–53.

Teichler, U. (2009). Internationalization of higher education: European experiences. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *10*(1), 93–106.

Tempus Study. (2010). *State of play of the Bologna process in the tempus countries of the Southern Mediterranean (2009–2010).* Armenia: European Commission Education Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency.

UNESCO/OECD. (2005). *Guidelines for quality provision in cross-border higher education.* Paris, France: UNESCO.

Valaydon, A. (2016, April). *Personal correspondence with Jane Knight.*

Verbik, L., & Lasanowski, V. (2007, September). International student mobility: Patterns and trends. *The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education*.

Woldegiorgis, E. T., & Doevenspeck, M. (2015). Current trends, challenges and prospects of student mobility in the African higher education landscape. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(2), 105.

Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis
Bayreuth International Graduate School of African Studies (BIGSAS)
Universität Bayreuth, Germany

Jane Knight
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
University of Toronto, Canada

JUMA SHABANI AND PETER OKEBUKOLA

7. QUALIFICATION RECOGNITION AND FRAMEWORKS IN AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

As discussed in Chapter 1, the recognition of qualifications and the development of qualification frameworks are key elements of higher education reform in the functional approach of the FOPA model. Policies that enable the recognition of qualifications are normally established at the national, bilateral, sub-regional and regional level. Qualifications frameworks are now being developed at national, sub-regional and regional levels. Given the theme of this book, the focus for the discussion of these two important elements of higher education is the regional level and sub-regional level.

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the past and current developments related to the African Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications, and the most recent efforts to establish qualification frameworks and their contribution to the regionalization of higher education in Africa. The chapter begins with a brief introduction on historical background on mutual recognition of qualifications by UNESCO in Africa and proceeds with discussing the regional and sub-regional initiatives. The chapter also analyses the role of qualifications frameworks in facilitating the process of recognition of qualifications and discusses the examples of the Southern African Development Community Qualifications Framework (SADCQF) and the East African Community Regional Qualifications Framework for Higher Education.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

The issue of recognition of qualifications in higher education has been discussed within UNESCO since 1947. Since then, UNESCO and its Member States have tried to establish a global convention on mutual recognition of qualifications in order to promote international co-operation in the field of higher education. Feasibility studies conducted at that time, however, have failed to reach a consensus on the need and desirability for the establishment of such a global convention (UNESCO, 2015a, 2015b). As a result, UNESCO has supported its member countries during the 1970s and 1980s to establish five regional conventions and one interregional convention for mutual recognition of qualifications. The African regional convention was first adopted in December 1981 in Arusha, Tanzania and later updated in Addis Ababa in 2014.

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 135–150.

The recognition of qualifications between and among countries is one of the major factors to increase collaboration among higher education systems and institutions and supports the creation of academic mobility programmes. Regional conventions of mutual recognition of qualifications are crucial since they provide the only legal instruments needed to support recognition of qualifications.

The Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region (also known as the Lisbon Convention) was adopted in 1997 and by 2012 has been ratified by 47 countries in Europe and beyond. This commitment has greatly facilitated the implementation of the Bologna process of construction of the European Higher Education Area. The situation is different in Africa. In 2002, the African regional convention on mutual recognition of qualifications (also known as the Arusha convention) was ratified by only 22 countries. This has been a major challenge for the construction of an African higher education area. The revised convention was adopted in December 2014 but in October 2016, that is almost two years later, no country had yet ratified it. However, it is worth noting that several countries have ratified sub-regional conventions on mutual recognition of qualifications. This is an indication that unlike in Europe, the African higher education area will be built on existing and emerging sub-regional blocks.

THE ARUSHA CONVENTION

The "Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education in the African States" known as the Arusha convention, was first developed and adopted in December 1981 in Arusha, Tanzania for the purpose of promoting mutual recognition of academic and professional recognition of qualifications between African partner countries. The convention also aims at strengthening African unity, solidarity, and cultural identity and promoting effective use of human resources (UNESCO, 2014).

The convention is made up of the preamble, the definitions of the concepts used, and the objectives, the commitments made by partner countries regarding the implementation of the convention, the implementation mechanisms, and the modalities for co-operation between these mechanisms and international organizations and the process of ratification of the convention. Even though the convention was meant to create continental qualification framework to make the comparability of qualifications among African higher education systems easier, it faced a number of challenges at the early stages. The challenges of implementation of the Arusha convention include:

1. The diversity of higher education systems inherited from colonization that could not help to ensure comparability of programmes and qualifications. As an example, while the English university education system is made up of only three degrees, i.e. Bachelor, Masters and Ph.D., in the French system university education requires six degrees. In addition, the general requirements for access

to higher education institutions as well as the languages of instruction vary from one system to another.
2. Lack of structures to provide information on the recognition procedures in several partner countries.
3. Ineffectiveness of the regional committee set up in order to promote the implementation and monitoring of the convention's work plan. In addition to the Regional Committee, the implementation mechanisms provide for the involvement of national and sub-regional bodies. However, no provision was made to ensure co-ordination of the activities implemented at various levels. Finally, the partner countries have not made any financial commitment to support the implementation of the convention.
4. Deterioration in the quality of higher education from the 1980s which resulted from a combination of several factors such as a rapid increase in student enrolments, a decline in per-unit costs, poor standards of academic and research infrastructure and limited capacity of accreditation and quality assurance mechanisms. Despite this situation, the commitments made on recognition did not explicitly refer to the quality of the qualification obtained. Yet, recognition of qualifications relies on the trust between partner countries. Such trust requires that effective quality assurance systems and mechanisms exist and are used in the recognition process.

These challenges partly explain why by 2008 only 21 countries and the Holy See had ratified the Arusha convention. The level of ratification can be considered as an indicator of the interest and trust that member countries attach to the convention at the regional level. These drawbacks and challenges of the 1981 convention led to various attempt of revision so as to make it more appropriate to the contexts of African higher education.

The First Stage of the Revision of the Arusha Convention: 2002–2007

The revision process of the Arusha convention began in 2002 following a recommendation made by the Regional Committee at its 7th ordinary session held in November 2001 in Dakar, Senegal. The revision was conducted over two periods: from 2002 to 2007 in collaboration with UNESCO and the Commonwealth of Learning and between 2007 and 2014 under the joint supervision of UNESCO and the African Union.

The main objective of the revision was to address the challenges identified above and to adapt the convention to new regional and global trends in higher education, in particular, those identified by the World Conference on higher education organized by UNESCO and its partners in 1998 in Paris. These trends include the diversification of forms and providers of higher education, including the emergence of cross-border higher education, open learning and distance education and lifelong learning and private and online Higher education providers. The revision also aimed at establishing appropriate mechanisms for the recognition of qualifications of refugees and displaced persons.

The revision of the convention was conducted mainly through three expert meetings held between 2002 and 2006. The first experts meeting of the series was jointly organized by UNESCO and the Commonwealth of Learning in June 2002 in Cape Town, South Africa. Proposals and recommendations made at this meeting were reviewed and enriched by the regional committee of the convention at its 8th ordinary session held in June 2003 in Dakar which is considered as the second experts meeting on the revision of the Arusha convention. The third meeting was held in July 2006 in Dakar to develop a final version of the revised convention that was submitted to UNESCO and the African Ministers of Education for approval. In addition to UNESCO's experts, participants at the meeting included, members of the regional committee of the convention, the African Regional Committee in Charge of the Follow-Up to the 1998 World Conference on Higher Education, the Association of African Universities, the African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education, the African Virtual University and the Francophone University Agency.

The Second Stage of the Revision of the Arusha Convention: 2007–2014

The second stage of the revision of the convention spanned the period from 2007 to 2014 and was conducted under the joint supervision of UNESCO and the African Union. The process was mainly carried out through experts meetings and evaluation of successive drafts by the UNESCO and African Union legal services. It is agreed that one of the weaknesses of this process is that although recognition of qualifications mainly focuses on pedagogic and quality assurance issues, higher education institutions and quality assurance agencies were not adequately involved in the revision of the Arusha convention.

As previously discussed, one of the reasons that could explain the limited number of African countries that have ratified the Arusha convention is the lack of trust related to the fact that recognition procedures did not reflect the quality of qualifications. A study commissioned recently by the African Union and the European Union on the Development of a Pan-African Quality Assurance and Accreditation Framework confirmed that "Continental or regional higher education quality assurance is deeply interconnected with harmonization and recognition, whereby harmonization facilitates transparency, recognition facilitates mobility and co-operation, and quality assurance creates trust" (Okebukola & Fonteyne, 2015).

During the period from 2007 to 2014, Stakeholders in higher education in Africa carried out several major activities in the areas of harmonization and quality assurance particularly as part of the implementation of the Plan of Action for the Second Decade of Education in Africa (2006–2015), the Action Plan of the EU-AU Partnership, the 'Licence-Master-Doctorate' (LMD) reform and follow-up to the 2009 World Conference on higher education.

These activities were not explicitly designed within the context of the revision of the Arusha convention. However, given the close relationship between harmonization, quality assurance and recognition of qualifications, these activities can be considered

as complementary to the process of revision of the Arusha convention. Indeed, they have greatly influenced the content of the revised Arusha convention, especially its sections relating to the preamble, objectives, and implementation mechanisms.

Indeed, two objectives of the revised convention are related to quality assurance and harmonization respectively. These are: (a) "Define and put in place effective quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms at the national, regional and continental levels"; and (b) "Contribute to the harmonization of qualifications, taking into account current global trends". In addition, the section on the Implementation of the convention requires that the recognition process should "take into account quality assurance mechanisms and the accreditation of programmes and institutions issuing qualifications" (UNESCO, 2014). In the remaining part of this section, the section briefly presents some examples of initiatives on quality assurance, harmonization and academic mobility that have directly influenced the revision process and the content of the Arusha convention.

FROM THE ARUSHA CONVENTION TO THE REVISED ADDIS CONVENTION

The revision of the Arusha convention on mutual recognition of qualifications in Africa that began in 2002 was completed on December 12, 2014, with the adoption of the revised convention, at the International conference of states held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The new convention, known as the Addis convention (or the revised Arusha convention), is fundamentally different from the original Arusha convention. It has significantly expanded the objectives of the initial convention; introduced provisions that give priority to the learners' rights as well as new provisions related to recognition of qualifications for refugees and displaced persons and validation of acquired relevant experience and prior learning for the purpose of promoting lifelong learning. The mechanisms for implementation of the convention have also been strengthened. The section briefly highlights the major differences between the two conventions.

The Objectives of the 2014 Addis Convention

The objectives of the revised convention were defined in such a way that they help to effectively address the major challenges that confronted the implementation of the initial convention. Indeed, the revised convention includes the following new objectives: establish effective mechanisms for accreditation and quality assurance; strengthen the collection and exchange of information to promote the implementation of the revised convention; establish joint training and research programmes between higher education institutions and contribute to the harmonization of curricula and qualifications

Obligations Related to the Recognition of Qualifications

The revised convention adopted provisions that provide priority to the rights of learners in the various qualifications procedures. As an example in the section

dedicated to the obligations related to the recognition of qualifications, partner states agreed that recognition should be granted unless a substantial difference can be shown. They also agreed to define an appropriate procedure for recognition of qualifications for refugees and internally displaced persons; and to validate prior learning, particularly in relation to the promotion of adult education and lifelong learning. The revised convention also requires that the criteria used for recognition of qualifications should be transparent, coherent, reliable, fair and non-discriminatory.

Implementation Structure and Co-operation

In addition to the structures provided for in the 2014 Addis convention, namely national structures, the regional convention committee and bilateral or sub-regional bodies, the revised convention has expanded the implementation mechanisms by introducing a network of national structures to provide information on mobility and recognition; and quality assurance mechanisms to carry out periodic evaluations of higher education institutions and programmes. The revised convention also requires that national and regional qualifications frameworks are used in the recognition processes.

In October 2016, the only information available on the implementation of the Addis convention related to the establishment of National Implementation Structures in Senegal and Zimbabwe. In Senegal, recognition of qualifications obtained outside the CAMES member States has been entrusted to a Technical Committee set up by the Minister of Public Service, after consultation with the National Higher Education Quality assurance Authority (Senegal, 2015). In Zimbabwe, consultations are underway to identify the organization that should play the role of National Implementation Structure for the revised Arusha convention (Garwe, 2016).

MUTUAL RECOGNITION OF QUALIFICATIONS AT THE SUB-REGIONAL LEVEL

Several African countries have also engaged in mutual recognition procedures at sub-regional levels. It should also be noted that despite the difficulties encountered in the implementation of the Arusha convention, African countries had set appropriate recognition bodies and procedures in order to ensure intra-African students' mobility.

Accordingly, in addition to the regional committee, partner countries agreed to implement the Arusha convention through national and sub-regional bodies. This section presents the experience of implementation of mutual recognition of qualifications in three sub-regions, namely: the African and Malagasy Council for Higher education space; the East African Community and the Economic Community of West African States. The experience of the Southern African development Community will be discussed later in this chapter in connection with the implementation of regional qualifications frameworks.

The African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES)

The African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur; CAMES) was established in 1968, with the main objective of harmonizing and co-ordinating higher education policies and programmes in its member countries. Currently CAMES is made up of the following 19 countries presented in alphabetical order: Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Madagascar, Mali, Niger, Rwanda, Chad, Senegal, and Togo.

A convention on mutual recognition of qualifications in the CAMES member states was signed in 1972 in Lomé, Togo. The ratification of this convention led to the establishment of a programme on mutual recognition of higher education qualifications (CAMES, 2007a). As originally established, the evaluation of applications for recognition of qualifications was conducted every two years by experts from CAMES member states and partner organizations through sub-regional workshops. Since 2009, these workshops have been held annually. By December 2015, this programme had organised 30 workshops and recognised 1,142 qualifications out of 1,523 applications, constituting a success rate of 75 percent (CAMES, 2013).

In 2006, a resolution of the CAMES Council of Ministers has assigned to this programme the responsibility for accreditation and quality assurance in the CAMES member states. However, in 2007, the Council adopted a new framework for the recognition of qualifications that takes the 'Licence-Master-Doctorate' (LMD) reform into account (CAMES, 2007b). This framework was revised in 2012 and again 2013 (CAMES, 2013).

In 1993, CAMES organized a Special Colloquium in Niamey, Niger to discuss the recognition of foreign qualifications issued by 18 countries belonging to all the regions of the world and covering virtually all the qualifications submitted by that date for recognition to the CAMES members States. For a long time, this document was the main reference used by most African countries to engage in bilateral agreements in the field of recognition of qualifications. The study argues that the Report of this Special Colloquium on the recognition of foreign qualifications must be revised to accommodate the LMD system.

Moreover, since 1978, CAMES is implementing the Inter-African Advisory Committee programme that is responsible for the evaluation of the academic staff and researchers from the 19 member countries for their registration in the lists of suitable candidates for promotion to the ranks of lecturer, associate professor and full professor and relevant positions of the researchers classification scale. The evaluation is carried out every year by experts from member countries grouped into eight specialized technical committees that cover all the areas of scholarship. The final decision on the promotion is taken at the national level by the appropriate authorities on the basis of the above evaluations.

The implementation of this programme is supervised by the General Advisory Committee, composed of Rectors and Presidents of Universities and National Directors of Research. In fact, this is a mutual recognition procedure for professional qualifications since a position obtained in one country through this process is automatically recognized in all the member states for teaching at higher education institutions or doing research. By July 2015, the programme had already organized 37 sessions and evaluated more than 13,000 applications (Mbatchi, 2016).

The East African Community (EAC)

The mutual recognition of qualifications has become an important dimension of higher education co-operation in the East African Community (EAC) following the integration in 2009 of the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUECA), originally established in the 1980s, into the structures of the new EAC created in 2000 and the ratification in 2010 of the Protocol on the establishment of the EAC Common Market.

An East African Community (EAC) comprising Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania has existed during the period from 1967 to 1977. The Treaty establishing the current EAC was signed in November 1999 and entered into force in July 2000 following its ratification by the original three Partner States, namely Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania. The Republics of Burundi and Rwanda became full members of the EAC in July 2007. South Sudan has been admitted into the East African Community (EAC) in March 2016; increasing the membership of the common market to six Partner States. However, this country is not included in the current study. Upon the re-establishment of the EAC in 2000, it was agreed to adopt the IUCEA as one of its institutions in order to revitalize and further develop higher education co-operation in the EAC.

In 2009 the East African Legislative Assembly established in 2001 enacted the IUCEA Act – to integrate IUCEA into the new EAC operational framework. According to the Act; one of the major responsibilities of the IUCEA is to facilitate maintenance of internationally comparable education standards in East Africa so as to promote the region's competitiveness in higher education (IUCEA, 2016a). The Protocol establishing the EAC Common Market came into force on 1st July 2010. One of its main objectives is to integrate the Partner States' markets into a single market in order to ensure free movement of persons, labour, goods, services and capital, and the right of establishment and residence (EAC, 2009).

In order to operationalize the provision on the movement of persons and labour, the Partner States committed through Article 11 of this Protocol to "mutually recognize the academic and professional qualifications granted in another Partner State; and to harmonize the curricula, examinations, standards, certification and accreditation of educational and training institutions." The harmonization of curricula and practices used in higher education and the development of mechanisms for mutual recognition of academic qualifications is being implemented under the co-ordination of the IUECA. Currently, the mutual recognition of professional qualifications is carried

out through agreements signed by professional organizations and implemented with the support of the EAC Secretariat.

As in the case of the Bologna process in Europe and the Harmonization Strategy for Higher Education in Africa, harmonization of curricula in the ECA Partner States including examinations and accreditation and quality assurance processes will help to improve the comparability and compatibility of programmes and qualifications. Therefore, harmonization coupled with an effective regional credit accumulation and transfer system will facilitate the development of a credible sub-regional mechanism for mutual recognition of academic qualifications and periods of study; promote academic mobility, and contribute towards the establishment of a common EAC Higher Education Area.

Implementation of the harmonization process in the East African Community has faced several challenges. These include the differences in (a) the criteria for admission to higher education programmes, (b) the length of degree programmes and the classification of qualifications, (c) the teaching languages used in secondary and higher education, and (d) the accreditation and quality assurance processes. In addition to these challenges, some authorities have opposed the harmonization process because they had wrongly considered it as a process aimed at establishing a uniform higher education system in all EAC Partner States.

By April 2016, the IUECA member institutions had agreed on minimum academic standards for several programmes, including medicine, agriculture, engineering, basic science, psychology and community development. In addition, the Council of Ministers had approved the East African Credit accumulation and transfer scheme and the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (EAC, 2015). It is agreed that these instruments will facilitate mutual recognition of academic qualifications among the Partner States and therefore contribute to the consolidation of the East African Higher Education Area that will be officially launched at the next Heads of States Summit to be held in November 2016 (Cosam, 2016).

In the EAC, mutual recognition of professional qualifications is implemented through Agreements signed by competent bodies responsible for regulating professional services liberalized by the Partner States. Such agreements have already been signed for accountants, engineers, and architects. In the case of engineering professionals the Mutual Recognition Agreements (MRAs) were signed by Engineers Registration Boards which are statutory bodies established by an Act of Parliament for the purpose of regulating and monitoring engineering activities and engineering consulting firms in the Partner States and advising Governments in relation to those activities. The EAC Secretariat is responsible for the co-ordination, monitoring, and evaluation of the MRAs. It is required to submit an annual progress report to the EAC Council of Ministers (Cronje, 2015).

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)

The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) was established in May 1975 to gradually ensure the creation of a common market for its 15 Member

states, namely Benin, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Côte d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, and Togo. In 1979, Member States adopted the Protocol on free movement of people, goods and services and the rights of residence and establishment as one of the strategies for operationalization of the common market.

In order to support the implementation of the provision on the free movement of persons, the Heads of States and Governments adopted in March 2003 in Dakar, Senegal, the "ECOWAS Regional Convention on the Recognition and Equivalence of Degrees, Diplomas, Certificates and other Qualifications in the Member States". One of the main objectives of the convention is to increase the mobility of students, academic staff, researchers and other skilled workers. The convention also aims at contributing to the harmonization of higher education policies; strengthen co-operation in the use of human resources; and promote regional co-operation in the recognition of qualifications (ECOWAS, 2003).

The implementation of this convention is facing several challenges including the variations in education systems based on different colonial legacies and the language barriers. Three strategies are being used to address these challenges. These are: the implementation of the LMD reform; the harmonization of curricula, and the establishment of academic mobility schemes.

The LMD reform began in Europe in the early 2000s with the implementation of the Bologna Declaration adopted in 1999 by the European Ministers in charge of higher education for the construction of the European higher education area by 2010. This reform had two major objectives, namely to make academic degree standards and quality assurance standards comparable and compatible throughout Europe by 2010. The LMD reform is, therefore, a process of harmonization of curricula and quality assurance standards that aim at promoting mutual recognition of qualifications in Europe in accordance with the Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region 1997 also known as the Lisbon Convention (UNESCO, 1997).

In Africa, the LMD reform was adopted (a) in 2005 by Heads of states of the Central African Economic and Monetary Community – six countries; (b) 2006 by the Council of Ministers of the African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES) – 19 countries; and (c) 2007 by the Council of Ministers of the West African Economic and Monetary Union – 8 countries. The main objective of the LMD reform in Africa is to ensure international recognition of qualifications issued by higher education institutions in the CAMES member states and therefore to promote mobility of learners, teachers and researchers.

As mentioned in the above section on the LMD reform, harmonization of curricula and quality assurance standards is one of the strategies used to promote mutual recognition of qualifications. In the ECOWAS member states, it is worth noting that the West African Health Organization (WAHO), an ECOWAS specialized institution established in 1987 has co-ordinated harmonization of several curricula of health professionals education, taking into account the requirements of the LMD reform.

By 2012, WAHO had already harmonized several curricula, including those for Undergraduate Medical Training; Nursing and Midwifery Training; basic training in Pharmacy, Environmental Health and Community Health; and specialized training in Pharmacy (ECOWAS, 2012; ECOWAS, 2013; WAHO, 2013a). In 2012, the ECOWAS Assembly of Ministers of Health adopted a resolution to establish the Regional Council for Health Professionals Education which is responsible for the accreditation and quality assurance of programmes and institutions in charge of training health professionals in the ECOWAS states, in partnership with the African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES) and professional associations.

THE ROLE OF QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORKS

The Concept and Referencing of Qualifications Frameworks

According to Tuck (2007), a qualifications framework is an instrument for the development, classification, and recognition of skills, knowledge, and competences along a continuum of agreed levels (Tuck, 2007). Thus a qualifications framework contains qualifications recognized at a country or regional levels defined in terms of learning outcomes that learners should acquire at the completion of a formal or non-formal education programme.

The main purpose of a qualifications framework is: (a) to ensure comparability of different qualifications and to make the different paths through the education system more visible; and (b) to enhance international comparison with the aim of facilitating credit transfer, mobility, and recognition of foreign qualifications. Some qualifications frameworks cover the whole education system while others are limited to a sub-sector such as technical and vocational education and training or higher education (Tuck, 2007).

Over the last two decades, the number of national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) in the world and in Africa has increased from six in 1995 to 150 in 2015 and from one to 14 respectively. During the same period, 8 regional or sub-regional qualifications frameworks were established including the European Qualifications Framework, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Qualifications Framework and the East African Community (EAC) Higher Education Qualifications Framework (Keevy, Chakroun, & Deij, 2010; UNESCO, 2015b; Nkunya, 2015).

One of the objectives of the NQFs and RQFs is to promote mutual recognition of qualifications through a process of comparison of qualifications frameworks of two or more countries either directly or through a regional framework. This process is known as referencing or self-certification of the NQFs. It helps to establish a correlation between NQFs in terms of levels of certifications, credit, and types of qualifications and therefore to determine whether two qualifications contained in different NQFs are comparable or compatible and can, therefore, benefit from a mutual recognition procedure.

Currently, the referencing process is mainly used in Europe to establish correlations between NQFs and two European qualification frameworks, namely the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA) and the European Qualifications Framework (EQF). This process is helping to make qualifications more readable and understandable across different countries and systems in Europe. By 2015, 26 countries had already undertaken the process of referencing their NQFs to the EQF (EQF, 2015).

The Southern African Development Community (SADC) Qualifications Framework

On 17 August 1992, the Heads of state of countries of SADC signed the Declaration and Treaty of the Southern African Development Community, officially creating SADC (SADC, 1992). Currently, SADC is made up of the following 15 countries: Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. In 1997, the Heads of states and Governments adopted a Protocol on Education and Training in the SADC Member states in order to promote a regionally integrated and harmonized educational system. Through Article 7 of the Protocol that is dedicated to co-operation in higher education and training, Member states agreed to recommend to universities to reserve five percent of admissions for students from other member states; to harmonize university entrance requirements, credit transfer systems, and academic years of the universities; and to gradually facilitate immigration formalities in order to promote students and academic staff mobility (SADC, 1997).

As part of the strategies for the operationalization of the Education and Training Protocol, SADC Member states established the Technical Committee on Certification and Accreditation (TCCA) to oversee harmonization of the education and training systems and to develop SADC regional qualifications framework.

For several reasons, the development of the SADC RQF has been slow. These include the low level of financial resources allocated to this activity and the priority given at some point to the development of national frameworks. The development of the SADC RQF was expected to benefit from the African Union higher education harmonization strategy adopted in 2007; and the implementation of the 'Licence-Master-Doctorate' (LMD) reform which aims at making academic degree standards and quality assurance standards more comparable and compatible within the sub-region. However, these opportunities were missed partly due to lack of credible quality assurance mechanisms at national and sub-regional levels.

The SADC RQF with ten reference levels was approved in 2011 and member states were invited to reference their NQFs to this regional framework by 2014 (Keevy, 2014). Unfortunately, by 2015, no member state has initiated the referencing process.

The East African Community (EAC) Higher Education Qualifications Framework

The East African Qualifications Framework for Higher Education was developed as part of the Strategies needed for operationalization of Article 11 of the EAC Common Market Protocol that came into force in July 2010 both as regards the harmonization of curricula and mutual recognition of qualifications across the community. These provisions of the Protocol will be achieved through the process of referencing of national qualifications frameworks to the EAQFHE. The regional framework was approved by the EAC Council of Ministers in April 2015.

The Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) is developing a strategy for the implementation of the EAQFHE. One of the first activities foreseen for this strategy aims at raising awareness and capacity building of stakeholders and potential users of this framework.

There is no evidence showing that the development of the EAQFHE has built on lessons learned from the experience of the SADC member states (IUCEA, 2016b). The structure of the two frameworks are also different: the SADC framework has ten reference levels while that of EAC contains only eight. Therefore it might be difficult for countries like Tanzania belonging to both economic communities to participate effectively in the implementation of these frameworks. Hopefully, the development of a continental higher education qualifications framework under the African Union harmonization strategy and the revised Arusha convention would help to address this challenge. Several components of the continental qualifications framework are being built at the sub-regional and continental. These include the Harmonization, Quality Assurance and Accreditation (HAQAA) initiative, the Tuning-Africa project and development of sub-regional qualifications frameworks in the remaining regional economic communities that together with the SADC and EAC qualification frameworks will constitute the building blocks for the continental framework.

CONCLUSION

This chapter undertook a critical analysis of the issue of mutual recognition of qualifications in Africa at the sub-regional and regional levels, including through the use of qualifications frameworks. The analysis found that the implementation of the revised Arusha convention will benefit from the various initiatives that are currently conducted in Africa at national, sub-regional and regional levels, in the areas of quality assurance and accreditation of programmes and institutions; harmonization of curricula; development of qualifications frameworks and implementation of academic mobility programmes. These initiatives include the international conferences on quality assurance in higher education in Africa; the harmonization, quality assurance and accreditation initiative; the scaling up of the harmonization and Tuning Africa initiative; and the 'Licence-Master-Doctorate' (LMD) reform.

It is recommended that the action plans for implementation of the revised Arusha convention should be developed in synergy with the ongoing initiatives in Africa in the areas of quality assurance and accreditation; harmonization of curricula; and development of joint programmes for training and research.

REFERENCES

AAU. (2014, May). *Association of African universities*. Retrieved from http://www.aau.org/

Adejo, A. M. (2001). From OAU to AU: New wine in old bottles? *African Journal of International Affairs, 4*(1–2).

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2007a). *Programmes: Reconnaissance et équivalence des diplômes.* Présentation du programme. Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/IMG/article_PDF/article_6.pdf

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2007b). *Proposition de référentiel au format LMD: Equivalence et reconnaissance du CAMES.* Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/diplome_cames/files/référentiel_LMD-2.pdf

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2013). *Répertoire sur la reconnaissance et l'équivalence et l'assurance qualité.* Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/diplome_cames/

Cosam, J. (2016). The launch of the East African higher education area. *Private Communication*.

Crone, J. B. (2015). *Mutual recognition of professional qualifications: The East African community.* (Tralac Trade Brief N°S15TB04/2015). Retrieved from http://www.tralac.org/images/docs/7223/s15tb042015-cronje-mutual-recognition-of-professional-qualifications-eac-20150331-fin.pdf

EAC. (2009). *East African community: Protocol on the establishment of the EAC Common Market, Arusha, Tanzania*. Retrieved from http://www.minecofin.gov.rw/fileadmin/templates/documents/Common_Market_Protocol.pdf

EAC. (2015). *EAC develops plan for common higher education area*. Retreived from http://ugandaradionetwork.com/story/higher-education-area-for-students-in-east-africa-in-offing

ECOWAS. (2003). *ECOWAS regional convention on the recognition and equivalence of degrees, diplomas, certificates and other qualifications in member states, Dakar, Senegal*.

ECOWAS. (2012, December). *Annual report. Abuja*. Retrieved from http://events.ecowas.int/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/2012-Annual-report_English_VF.pdf

ECOWAS. (2013). *Résolution pour l'approbation et l'adoption du curriculum harmonisé de formation en médecine générale dans l'espace CEDEAO*. Retrieved from http://www.wahooas.org/IMG/pdf/1_Resolution_Curriculum_H_F_M_G.pdf

EQF. (2015). *European Qualifications Framework*. Retrieved from http://scqf.org.uk/more/european-international/eqf/

Garwe, E. (2016). Implementation of the revised Arusha convention on mutual recognition of Qualifications in Zimbabwe. *Private Communication.*

Hahn, K., & Teferra, D. (2014). Tuning as instrument of systematic Higher Education reform and quality enhancement: The African experience. *Tuning Journal for Higher Education*, *1*(1), 127–163.

IUCEA. (2016a). Inter-University Council for East Africa. Overview of the IUCEA. Retrieved from http://www.iucea.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1&Itemid=294; http://www.academia.edu/4570148/The_Southern_African_Development_Community_Regional_Qualifications_Framework_Concept_Document

IUCEA. (2016b). East African qualifications framework for higher education. Retrieved from http://iucea.org/eahea/q-a-framework/east-african-qualifications-framework-for-higher-education/.

Keevy, J., Borhene, C., & Deij, A. (2010). Transnational qualifications frameworks. *European Training Foundation.* Retrieved from http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/Transnational_qualifications_frameworks

Keevy, J. (2014). *Referencing of qualifications frameworks: A new mode of recognition to take note of.* Retrieved from http://www.academia.edu/4392465/Referencing_of_qualifications_frameworks_a_new_mode_of_recognition_to_take_note_of

Mbatchi, B. (2016). le programme des comités consultatifs interafricains du CAMES. *Private communication*.

Nkunya, M. H. H. (2015). Approval of the East African qualifications framework for higher education for its operationalization. Retrieved from http://www.eac.int/~eacint/news/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1510:approval-of-the-east-african-qualifications-framework-for-higher-education-for-its-operationalization&catid=48:eac-latest&Itemid=69

Okebukola, P. A., & Fonteyne, B. (2015, February). *Developing a Pan-African quality assurance and accreditation framework* (Final Draft Report).

Onana, C. A., Oyewole, O., Teferra, D., Beneitone, P., González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (Eds.). (2014). *Tuning and harmonization of higher education: The African experience*. Bilbao, Spain: Deusto University.

SADC. (1992, August 17). *Declaration and treaty of the Southern African Development Community (SADC), Windhoek, Namibia*. Retrieved from http://www.sadc.int/files/8613/5292/8378/Declaration__Treaty_of_SADC.pdf

SADC. (1997, October 8). *Protocol on education and training in the Southern African Development Community (SADC), Blantyre, Malawi*. Retrieved from http://www.sadc.int/files/3813/5292/8362/Protocol_on_Education__Training1997.pdf

Shabani, J., Okebukola, P., & Oyewole, O. (2014). Quality assurance in Africa: Towards a continental higher education and research space. *International Journal of African Higher Education*, *1*(1).

Tuck, R. (2007). An introductory guide to national qualifications frameworks. *ILO*. Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_emp/@ifp_skills/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms_103623.pdf

UNESCO. (1963, November 12). *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Executive Board, 66 EX/Decisions, Paris*. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0011/001132/113218E.pdf

UNESCO. (1981). *Regional convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other academic qualifications in higher education in the African states 1981*. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13518&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO. (1993). *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. Recommendation on the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education.* Paris, France: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13142&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO. (1997). *The convention on the recognition of qualifications concerning higher education in the European region 1997 also known as the Lisbon Convention* (UNESCO, 1997). Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13522&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.htmlhttp://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002226/222664e.pdf

UNESCO. (2014, December 12). *Revised convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other academic qualifications in higher education in African states, Addis Ababa*. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.phpURL_ID=49282&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO. (2015). *Global inventory of regional and national qualifications frameworks. Volume II: National and regional cases*. Hamburg, Germany: UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning. Retrieved from http://www.uil.unesco.org/fileadmin/keydocuments/LifelongLearning/en/Global%20Inventory%20of%20Regional%20and%20National%20Qualifications_v2.pdf

UNESCO. (2016). *The second meeting of drafting of the global convention on recognition of higher education qualifications takes a step forward*. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/new/en/media-services/singleview/news/the_second_meeting_of_drafting_of_the_global_convention_on_r/#.V__fxfmLTIU

WAHO. (2013). *Harmonized curriculum for undergraduate medical training*. Retrieved from http://www.wahooas.org/IMG/pdf/Curriculum_Harmonise_de_Medecine_Generale_CEDEAO.pdf

Juma Shabani
Faculty of Sciences, University of Burundi, Burindi

Peter Okebukola
Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI-Africa), Nigeria

PABLO BENEITONE AND AHMED EL-GOHARY

8. STUDENT COMPETENCIES AND CURRICULUM[1]

Tools for Regionalization

INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is to examine the potential and current work being done to use common reference points for the development of student competencies and curriculum as strategies for enhanced collaboration across Africa. The Tuning Approach which originated in Europe has been adapted to the African higher education context to achieve close collaborations among different subject areas across institutions. The Tuning process can be considered as one of the 'functional elements' of the FOPA model discussed in the first chapter. Fundamentally, the Tuning process is designed to find a common set of reference points of convergence for generic and subject-specific competencies across the different disciplines offered in academic programmes in Africa. This is believed to facilitate comparability of programmes for each specific discipline across higher education institutions (Charles Awono Onana, 2014). This chapter addresses the role of the Tuning approach in regionalization of higher education systems in Africa using practical examples from the work completed by the Tuning project as of 2017.

Higher education in Africa has been under enormous pressure due to a wide set of concerns. These include (1) rapid massification of student numbers, (2) the impact of globalization posing new demands on the sector, (3) a drastic decrease in the employability of university graduates due to the gap between labour market needs and skills of new graduates, and (4) the need to strengthen and provide further support to higher education systems of individual countries, as well as at the pan-Africa level. One of the reasons for the disparity between the labour market and the competencies of new graduates is related to the absence of efficient strategic planning within African higher education institutions. Since the relevance of programmes in some African higher education institution does not meet the changing demands of the labour market, more African students are going abroad for their studies. This situation, in turn, leads to further brain drain. Despite the wide range of differences among African countries in terms of demography, funding conditions for higher education, and the limited availability of qualified academic staff in universities, the African higher education still strives for global competitiveness. All these factors contribute to a very complex and dynamic nature of higher education sector in Africa and the challenge of increased collaboration and co-operation.

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 151–159.

One of the impacts of massification in African higher education institutions is the increased student–teacher ratio which gradually leads to a teacher-centred and input-oriented approaches to teaching and learning. The Tuning project, which is the focus of this chapter, focuses on a learner-centred, competence-based and output-oriented approach through which programmes across different institutions in Africa can find a common ground to integrate their systems (Awono Onana et al., 2014). In this regard, the Tuning approach has the potential to bring together the diverse higher education systems and curriculum that have previously been fragmented due to historical or colonial legacies. The ultimate aim is to improve the quality and relevance of higher education and make a solid contribution to higher education regionalization.

Recognizing the need for more relevant curriculum, a student-centred approach to learning and the recognition of qualifications in African higher education, the African Union Commission (AUC) has introduced the Tuning approach as one of the main elements in the AU higher education harmonization strategy. The rationales for using the Tuning project further the agenda of regionalization stems from the collective desire by AU member states to work towards facilitating mutual recognition of academic qualifications, enhance intra-African academic mobility, and generally strengthen intra-regional collaboration to improve higher education policies and programmes.

Responding to the Needs of a Changing Society

Today's world is marked by an accelerated rate of change which requires the university to rethink its traditional missions, functions and responsibilities. In the African context, there is clear evidence from social, economic and political movements that Africa needs competent citizens to face diverse societal challenges, to live their lives wisely, and to assume the roles they need to play in the development of their country. Given their role in society, universities are well-equipped to lead the process of designing and implementing suitable strategies for achieving these goals. Higher education institutions have the mission, and, above all, the responsibility to use their knowledge, their tradition and their capacity for innovation to prepare the future of Africa, especially its citizens.

Universities have the responsibility to educate their students with a perspective that learning is a lifelong task for their careers and lives. At the same time, universities need to be increasingly aware that their mission is constantly evolving, their vision needs to adapt to the changing world, and their leadership – especially in the field of creation and transmission of knowledge – requires a new sensitivity to social change. Education encourages society to advance, but at the same time, it has to respond and anticipate society's requirements, ensuring that study programmes for educating workers and citizens respond to the needs of the future.

In short, African universities need to work on developing the requisite skills and competencies in students which will help them respond to the new realities of our

increasing complex and interconnected world. In this sense, the Tuning approach tries to make academic programmes more relevant to the needs of society through the identification of specific and generic competencies leading to degree profiles which in turn help to contribute to the needed reform of higher education in Africa and to the regionalization process.

TUNING APPROACH – COMPETENCIES AND META-PROFILES AS A STARTING POINT TOWARDS COMPARABILITY

The Tuning approach was first developed within the European higher education system but has gradually started to be considered for higher education regionalization processes in other regions, including Africa. From 2011 a Tuning pilot project was implemented in Africa involving 60 universities from across the continent representing linguistic (French, English, Arabic and Portuguese) and cultural diversity. The project focused on identifying learning outcomes, in the form of key competencies, in five subject areas: Medicine, Teacher Education, Agriculture, Mechanical Engineering, and Civil Engineering (Awono Onana et al., 2014). This pilot phase has been followed by a new project (Tuning Africa II 2015–2018), which includes more universities and subject areas, with a total number of 107 African higher education institutions participating in the process. The two fundamental assumptions of the Tuning approach are respect for diversity and flexibility. This is crucial in a continent like Africa with multiple histories, cultural traditions, languages and types of higher education institutions.

Identification of Generic and Specific Competencies

The Tuning approach emphasizes the development of competencies in students combined with the required changes in curriculum to foster these competencies. The concept of competencies focuses on the notion of a comprehensive education, including the development of cognitive (knowing), psychomotor (know-how, skills), emotional (*savoir-être*), attitudes and values. In this regard, competencies cannot be reduced to professional performance or to the acquisition of new knowledge or 'know how'. Instead, competencies include a whole set of capacities enabling a person to perform multiple actions (social, cognitive, cultural, sentimental, professional, productive). Competencies develop gradually through different levels of complexity. There are different types or level of competencies – basic and fundamental, generic and common, specific and career-oriented. Competence is not usually seen as an innate capacity, but instead can be developed through appropriate teaching and learning processes and an individual's goals and motivations. Competence, as described by González and Wagenaar (2003) two of the founders of the Tuning approach, represents "a dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding, skills and abilities" and fostering these competencies is the goal of educational programmes (González & Wagenaar, 2003).

Thus, an important feature of the Tuning is to look at study programmes in terms of learning outcomes and particularly in relation to competencies. Tuning deals with two types of competencies: generic competencies and subject-specific competencies. A critical aspect of comparable competencies and learning outcomes is that they allow flexibility and autonomy in the construction of curricula. In this respect, while the subject related competencies refer to the specific attributes of a field of study, the generic competencies identify attributes which are applicable to any degree, such problem solving and decision making skills, project design and management skills, intercultural awareness among others. In a society where needs and demands are constantly changing, these generic competencies and skills become of great importance.

The Tuning Africa project focused on a process where academics from all subject areas collectively define the most relevant learning outcomes and competencies for a region like Africa. To that end, 18 generic competencies, as presented in Table 8.1, were identified and deemed important for all university graduates

Table 8.1. List of generic competencies identified in tuning Africa project

18 Generic competencies – Tuning Africa
1. Ability for conceptual thinking, analysis and synthesis.
2. Professionalism, ethical values and commitment to UBUNTU (respect for the well-being and dignity of fellow human beings).
3. Capacity for critical evaluation and self-awareness.
4. Ability to translate knowledge into practice.
5. Objective decision making and practical cost effective problem solving.
6. Capacity to use innovative and appropriate technologies.
7. Ability to communicate effectively in official/ national and local language.
8. Ability to learn to learn and capacity for lifelong learning.
9. Flexibility, adaptability and ability to anticipate and respond to new situations.
10. Ability for creative and innovative thinking.
11. Leadership, management and team work skills.
12. Communication and interpersonal skills.
13. Environmental and economic consciousness.
14. Ability to work in an intra and intercultural and/or international context.
15. Ability to work independently.
16. Ability to evaluate, review and enhance quality.
17. Self-confidence, entrepreneurial spirit and skills.
18. Commitment to preserve and to add value to the African identity and cultural heritage.

In addition to the generic competencies, each discipline or learning programme identified a set of learning outcomes, expressed as competencies which are specific to the particular area of study. The experience of the Tuning Africa project showed that there are four stages in identifying subject specific competencies. In the first stage, the subject area group members, which belong to different higher education institutions and countries in Africa, informed each other about the present situation in their institutions, the type of programmes being designed as well as future perspectives. Furthermore, each group studied relevant documents in their countries related to the subject. The groups also tried to map their discipline in terms of existing specialization and professional occupations. The definitions of a discipline proved to a certain extent to be nationally based. Also, the role of related disciplines in the programmes differs from country to country and from institution to institution.

A second stage was characterised by intense discussions and exchange of opinions. These concentrated on the question whether it would be possible to define a 'core curriculum'. The term 'core curriculum' can be somewhat controversial because it has different meanings in different contexts, not only at country level but also at disciplinary level. Each of the five subject area groups prepared a list of competencies specific to their discipline. These subject specific competencies, plus the generic competencies, were then carefully reviewed by different stakeholders (students, employers, graduates, and academics) from across the continent.

In the third stage, each subject group worked with the feedback from the stakeholders and examined the specific competencies from the other subject areas. In addition, the information on specific and generic competencies, collected from the Tuning process in other regions of the world was carefully reviewed. Commonalities and differences were identified and a common framework was developed which included core and key elements fundamental to a qualification in that subject area.

The fourth stage involved the construction of reference points in the form of competencies for each of the subjects. Thus, learning communities from different parts of Africa pinpointed the essential elements in terms of competencies that help to define a qualification and enable it to be recognised. This four stage process can be described as a bottom–up process which is important for relevance and eventual commitment to necessary changes in the curriculum. However, important questions remained unanswered. For example, the level of importance of each competency as compared to the others was not identified. This is particularly important when designing qualifications. The acceptable degree of divergence and the relationship of one competency to another was not made clear. These issues illustrate the need for a higher level structure which could capture the interrelationship of the competencies and indicate their centrality in relation to a specific area of study and its qualification. The Tuning concepts of the degree profile and meta-profile was used to help answer these questions.

The Development and Use of Degree Profiles and Meta-profiles

It is clear that a competency based approach to student-centred learning and the development of meta-profiles lead to the need for significant curricular reform to ensure that it is aligned with the needs of society in general and the labour market in particular. But, Tünnermann and Souza (2003) warn that when referring to the relevance of higher education, there is a tendency to reduce the concept to economic or business dimensions. They believe that the university-society relationship needs to be examined from a more broad-ranging standpoint by considering the challenges facing society as a whole. This suggests that higher education institutions need to develop the capacity and the mechanisms required to translate objectives and aspirations of society into policies, procedures and programmes that higher education should tackle and fulfil in both qualitative and quantitative terms. This is what the three elements of the degree profile aim to do.

Figure 8.1 illustrate the concept of a degree profile. According to the Tuning process, a degree profile is composed of three main elements: context, university strengths and meta-profile.

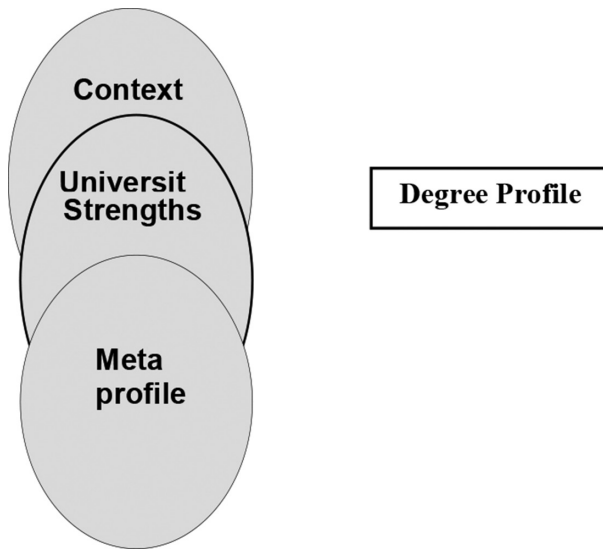

Figure 8.1. Main elements of a degree profile

In relation to the context, a degree profile takes into consideration the professional and social needs at the local, regional or national level for which it is designed. In addition, each university has a mission to fulfil and a set of unique strengths. A degree profile bears the mark of the university where it is developed. Both elements, give identity to the degree profile in terms of local and institutional perspective.

Through the meta-profile, the degree profile gains the capacity to be recognized regionally and internationally. In other words, meta-profiles represent the different combinations of competencies that give meaning and identity to the subject area. They are conceptual frameworks which help to categorise, structure and organise elements into recognisable components and illustrate their inter-relations.

Meta-profiles explain the relationship between generic and subject specific competencies within a subject area. They constitute a more specific statement of agreements and limits in terms of the convergence that has been reached in order to recognise a certain qualification. They imply a reference for the subject area with regard to what is central, common and necessary, in order to be able to recognise a given qualification. For a qualification to be recognised beyond the home institution, the degree profile should incorporate all the central components present in the meta-profile.

The meta-profile for a subject area provides not only an understanding of the key elements but also their identification and explanation in a language that is both comprehensible and transparent. It represents the interrelation, importance and weight of the different factors involved. Meta-profiles provide the contours against which qualifications may be identified and recognised because the crucial elements are well-structured.

Meta-profiles and Regionalization

Meta-profiles offer a new and different path to regionalization (Knight, 2012). In the case of Tuning, the meta-profiles are constructed on a regional level by those who wish to work together – not by seeking homogeneity, but rather, by highlighting diversity. Given that Tuning project has worked in Latin America, Africa, Europe and the Central Asian Republics, meta-profiles allow comparison with other regions in the world and, ultimately, on a global level. However, this way of reaching a global framework for meta-profiles requires a bottom-up approach – from the institutions to the regions to a global level. Fundamental to the Tuning approach is a respect for local dimension and needs. This makes a significant difference in terms of developing global indicators by taking into consideration a bottom-up way of thinking rather than top-down, and also carves a new path as a way of elaborating such indicators. Tuning believes that the opportunity to compare and contrast subject related meta-profiles among regions of the world offers a far more transparent path to globalization, with the option of taking a possibility of agreeing on a global meta-profile into consideration (Beneitone et al., 2014).

TUNING AFRICA PROJECT'S CONTRIBUTION TO REGIONALIZATION

The Tuning approach contributes to the regionalization of African higher education by offering a student centred approach and a range of competencies and skills that students should be able to demonstrate upon graduation from their study programmes.

The identification of generic and specific competencies for different subject areas, the importance of competence based curricula, and the development of a mega-profiles for degree recognition of qualifications provide new insights and tools. Together these tools can be used to contribute to the regionalization of African higher education.

More specifically, the African Tuning project has involved African academics and leaders from the four corners of the African continent to actively and collaboratively search for commonalities among the different complex higher education systems in Africa. In particular, the meta-profiles can be used to compare and contrast regional and pan-Africa perspectives on subject area meta-profiles and ultimately the recognition of qualifications. Meta-profiles help to identify and communicate not only what each core degree profile element is and how they relate to each other, but also to explain in a clear and easily understandable language why these elements are core. In the context of Africa and the process of higher education regionalization, it is critical to have tools such as competency based learning and meta-profiles which can foster a common understanding and further collaboration.

The mere size and geography of the continent presents some challenges to pan-African actions for higher education. In some African sub-regions, the higher education systems inherited from the colonization era still make it difficult to build bridges and increase collaboration even in the same geographical sub-region. The AU higher education harmonization strategy identified curricula reform and improved qualification recognition as key action lines. Initiatives, such as the Tuning project contribute useful tools and common understanding towards ensuring harmony, promoting quality and enhancing the credibility of the African higher education system. There is no question that curricular reform is key to the regionalization process in Africa, as are collaboration and creation of synergies with key actors in the region. The FOPA models highlight the critical role that different organizations, institutions and other actors play in reforming functional strategies such as programmes and policies for student centre learning and recognition of qualifications.

In the higher education regionalization process, Africa continues to search for the appropriate balance between seeking increased common tools and understanding with a deep respect for (1) the diversity across the continent, (2) the needs of a changing society, and (3) the demands for autonomy. Important to note is the imperative to establish a common language and reference points in higher education which can foster social and intra-regional understanding with the diverse histories, strengths and needs among the countries in the continent. The importance of diversity and autonomy is stressed with respect to different cultures, academic traditions, approaches towards teaching, learning and assessment, pathways to reach learning outcomes and desired competencies. Thus increased regional collaboration is critical to making curriculum more relevant to the needs to society and to enable greater mobility through a common degree recognition process. Both are core to the process and success of African higher education regionalization.

NOTE

[1] Further information on the Tuning Africa Project is available at http://tuningafrica.org/en/

REFERENCES

Awono Onana, C., Oyewole, O., Teferra, D., Beneitone, P., González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (2014). *Tuning and harmonization of higher education: The African experience*. Spain: University of Deusto Publications.

Beneitone, P., Esquetini, C., González, J., Marty Maleta, M., Siufi, G., & Wagenaar, R. (2007). *Reflections and perspectives of higher education in Latin America. Final Report, Tuning Latin America Project 2004–2007*. Spain: University of Deusto Publications.

González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (2006). *Tuning educational structures in Europe. Final Report – Pilot Project Phase 2, Universities' contribution to the Bologna process*. Spain: University of Deusto Publications.

Knight, J. (2012). A conceptual framework for the regionalization of higher education in Asia: Application to Asia. In J. N. Hawkins, K. H. Mok, & D. E. Neubauer (Eds.), *Higher education regionalization in Asia Pacific: Implications for governance, citizenship and university transformation* (pp. 17–36). London/New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Tünnermann, C., & Souza, M. (2003). *Challenges of the university in the knowledge society, five years after the World Conference on Higher Education* (UNESCO Forum Occasional Papers Series). Paris: UNESCO.

Pablo Beneitone
Tuning Academy
University of Deusto, Spain

Ahmed El-Gohary
Egypt-Japan University for Science and Technology, Egypt

JAMES OTIENO JOWI AND TOLLY MBWETTE

9. THE ROLE OF RESEARCH CENTRES AND NETWORKS

INTRODUCTION

Pan-African research centres and networks are important functional components for the regionalization of higher education processes. Using the Functional, Organizational and Political Approach (FOPA) model, research centres and networks are part of the functional approach to regionalization and build on collaborative activities and improved alignment of sub-regional and national policies to facilitate increased co-operation for knowledge production and application.

There have been various initiatives to promote research and knowledge production in African higher education sector since the 1970s. Despite the attempts, however, in terms of research outputs, Africa is still the lowest as compared to other regions. The challenge is not only the low productivity of research but also the fragmentation and lack of coherence and co-ordination of the research sector in Africa. This chapter argues that regionalization and internationalization of higher education are crucial components through which research productivity in Africa could be enhanced. Internationalization in this chapter is conceptualized as inter-regional collaboration while regionalization, on the other hand, is understood as the process of intra-regional policy alignment or integration of higher education systems by pulling resources together and organizing through common regional and/or sub-regional policy frameworks.

This chapter describes and analyses the development of new pan-African programmes, research centres and networks and their contributions for regionalization and of higher education in Africa. It begins with a discussion of overarching regional initiatives within the higher education sector focused mostly on research and knowledge production, training and capacity building in different disciplines. It then discusses the challenges facing increased research and the roles that both continental and international programmes can play in overcoming these challenges. This is followed by a review of some examples of regional research and knowledge centres and networks aimed at developing Africa's capacities in different academic and professional disciplines. The chapter concludes with a discussion of regional and international support programmes to African based research centres and networks and the potential of these research centres and networks to the future of knowledge generation and research collaborations in Africa.

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 161–174.

CHALLENGES FACING RESEARCH AND KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION IN AFRICA

Several studies have addressed the issue of research and knowledge production in Africa (Jowi, Knight, & Sehoole, 2013; Oyewole, 2010; Teferra, 2012) with most of them conceding that compared to other world regions, Africa's research generation is still very low. This has been attributed largely to the inadequate capacities and infrastructures for supporting research in Africa (Hayward, 2008) including the lack of human resource capacities, institutional capacities for research, inadequate funding, weak governmental policies and strategies to support research, and weak links between the institutions and research centres with the industry, employment sectors and society in general. Of all the challenges, attention has in recent years been focused on doctoral training as a way to generate, develop and sustain the next generation of African researchers and to attempt to bridge the existing deficits of doctoral graduates in different academics fields (Harle, 2013; Van't Land, 2016).

There is growing recognition in Africa of research, knowledge production and universities as key engines of growth and development (Cloete, Bailey, & Maassen, 2011; Jowi, Knight, & Sehoole, 2013; AUC, 2011). According to Mkandawire (1995, Cloete, Bailey, & Maassen, 2011), any meaningful future for Africa must be organically linked to intellectual, scientific and technological capacities and endeavours of its institutions of higher learning and knowledge production infrastructures, research centres and networks. However, the rapid expansion of universities and a massive increase in students' enrolment has not been accompanied by a commensurate increase in qualified academic staff. The region has a very low number of researchers per one million of the population, the smallest compared to all other world regions. According to African Development Bank (2008, p. 3), African countries have an average of 35 research scientists per one million inhabitants while Europe, for example, has 2,457 for the same number of inhabitants. Sub-Saharan Africa has also faced massive brain drain resulting to loss of highly qualified staff to the developed countries at a time when the pioneer African academics are aging. These are aggravated by the fact that institutions lack the capacity for self-regeneration through training of a new generation of academics. The consequence has been a low number of qualified researchers, low research outputs, research challenges in the institutions, poor university-industry links, an inadequate capacity of the universities to respond to escalating societal, developmental and environmental challenges leading to more demands and questions about the social relevance of the institutions (Jowi, Knight, & Sehoole, 2013).

Over the years, there have been attempts by different stakeholders including the institutions themselves, governments and international agencies to respond to the challenge of research production in Africa. At the continental level through the African Union and through the regional organizations, governments are developing ways of strengthening research production. Institutions have also spearheaded the development of institutional frameworks for research and partnerships programmes

both locally and internationally to support research productivity. One of the new developments was the formation of the of the African research universities alliance in 2015 during the Africa Higher Education Summit in Dakar, Senegal. The focus of the alliance is to build African research excellence as a vital precondition for strengthening research in Africa. The significance of these efforts is the recognition of research as a key instrument for sustainable growth and development in Africa (Oyewole, 2010). In tandem with this, a growing body of major recent policy blueprints such as Africa Science Technology Innovation Consolidated Action Plan, African higher education science and technology action plan-2008 and the second decade of education action plan 2006–2015 focused on how to improve on research and innovation in Africa. Africa lags behind in most social indicators that could have been enhanced by more investments and productivity in relevant research. It is continually being reported for years now that Africa produces a meagre one percent of global research outputs (Mohamedbhai, 2008; Mihyo, 2008). This has to change if Africa has to prioritize research and innovation as a way to address its societal and developmental challenges.

It is not only the low productivity but also the fragmentation and lack of coherence and co-ordination of the research sector in Africa. According to the International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications (INASP) study Africa's knowledge production landscape is deeply fragmented (INASP, 2013) and largely concentrated in few countries. The African Innovation Outlook that reviewed knowledge production capacities in several African countries recognized that most research (78 percent) in Africa was produced in four countries only – South Africa, Egypt, Nigeria and Kenya respectively (NEPAD, 2010). Regional and international research partnerships and co-operation have been viewed as some of the way through which research productivity in Africa could be enhanced (Jowi, Knight, & Sehoole, 2013).

One of the positive revelations during the AAU Conference in Kigali (AAU, 2015) was that research productivity and knowledge creation in Africa was beginning to rise. According to Purnell (2015), in spite of the low output, Africa's research productivity had increased three-fold over the past decade. This is encouraging but more needs to be done. Part of this is attributed to the rise of collaborative efforts, research networks and centres of excellence. This is in addition to the several positive developments in the research and knowledge production landscape in Africa in recent years including the expansion of the higher education sector, the rapid growth in student enrolments, the improvements in governance frameworks and the potentials of Sub-Saharan Africa's youthful population (Jowi, 2012).

The inadequacies of local institutions to engage in research and knowledge production has led to a partnership and collaborative initiatives spearheaded at the national level and to the development of research centres and networks, some outside the university systems and some of which are regionally based. While higher education institutions have always played a key role in the research production and will continue to do so, the contributions and growth of research and knowledge

generation centres and networks to the pan-African knowledge agenda have not been extensively analysed. Many of these non-university knowledge centres and networks produce a vast majority of research in their respective fields of research (Jowi & Obamba, 2013a). Some examples include Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) based in Dakar, Senegal, International Centre for Insect Physiology and Ecology (ICIPE) and International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) based in Nairobi, Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET) based in Cape Town, South Africa, amongst many others.

Both inter-regional and intra-regional collaboration in higher education can play an important role in increasing the output and application of research. By integrating African higher education institutions with other higher education institutions, within the continent and beyond, that have more experience and capacities, African institutions could improve their capacities. The potential for improvement includes human resource capacities through post-graduate training; research capacities through joint programmes and research partnerships; funding opportunities through sharing of resources; and governance and strategic management capacities through benchmarking and experience sharing. Regionalization in this regard gives higher education institutions strength by pooling resources together and organizing higher education systems through common regional and/or sub-regional programmes and policy frameworks. In other words, regionalization of higher education provides a common platform of understanding by developing enabling and regulatory frameworks within a certain regional and/or sub-regional setting so as to promote co-operation and partnership on various issues of higher education processes. And furthermore, prudent internationalization initiatives can enhance, not jeopardize, increased collaboration and higher education regionalization within Africa.

REGIONAL AND SUB-REGIONAL RESEARCH CENTRES AND KNOWLEDGE NETWORKS IN AFRICA

Through networks and through university co-operation, there are pan-African and sub-regional developments in research and knowledge production. Jowi and Obamba (2013b) point out that by 2006, Africa hosted more than 120 research networks in a broad spectrum of disciplines. This number must have increased multiple times during the last decade. Given the focus on regionalization, this chapter discusses only those research centres and knowledge networks which transcend national boundaries and thus operate at a pan-Africa level or within the sub-regions.

Regional Research Centres and Networks

Through pan-African University initiative, the African Union has developed centres of excellence in the fields of science, technology, innovation, social sciences and governance. While they foster mobility of students within Africa, it also contributes to capacity building in collaborative programmes. The development of the centres

of excellence contributes towards addressing some of the deficits in the African universities including the development of Ph.D. programmes and graduates.

In agriculture, environment and natural resources, a number of research centres and networks have developed. The International Centre for Insect Physiology and Ecology (ICIPE) founded in 1970 and based in Nairobi is a regional research centre with a primary mandate on research on insects and other arthropods which pose major environmental challenges. It also undertakes capacity building for researchers and institutions in Africa through training at masters and doctoral levels within its flagship African Regional Postgraduate Programme in Insect Science (ARPPIS). It collaborates with 29 universities from seventeen African countries (Skilton, 2016). The African Feed Resources Network (AFRNET) was established in 1991 to undertake research on pasture and forage to improve livestock production. It brings together African scientists from different countries interested in this field. The Collaborative Study of Cassava in Africa (COSCA) undertakes research and capacity building on cassava production especially on the western and eastern parts of Africa. The International Crops Research Institute for Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) was founded in 1972 and conducts agricultural research and capacity building for the development of drylands in sub-Saharan Africa. It also undertakes these activities in parts of Asia. The work on reducing hunger through sustainable agriculture and smart foods especially with a focus on small-scale farmers. International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) founded in 1994 and based in Nairobi, Kenya, works on improving food security and poverty reduction by engaging in research for better and more sustainable use of livestock. It is part of the Consortium of International Agricultural Research Centres (CIAGRC) consortium that works on a secure food future. The International Centre for Research in Agro-forestry (ICRAF) was established in 1978 and undertakes research on agro forestry, forestry, land use and climate change and has a wide partnership both in Africa and internationally to pursue its research and capacity building mandates.

Within the field of Health Sciences, there is also an array of regional research and knowledge networks. The African Population and Health Research Centre (APHRC) founded in 1995 is a research and capacity building a centre that focuses on urbanization and well-being, population dynamics and urban health, education, aging and development and has a very strong network across Africa and internationally. The African Medical Research Foundation (AMREF) does research and capacity building in the medical fields and covers the whole of Africa. The African Centre of Excellence for Genomics and Infectious Diseases (ACEGID) based at Redeemers University, Nigeria has been spearheading research in Life Sciences and Medicine and has contributed to capacity development in these fields. The Network of African Public Health Institutions (NAPHI) based in Kampala, Uganda brings together different African institutions working on community health to undertake research and capacity building initiatives. They have linkages with other international public health institutions.

The Social Science and Medicine Africa Network (SOMANET) brings together scientists, institutions and agencies working on health and socials sciences in Africa

to hold joint research and other academic activities on the link between the social sciences and health. It is based on the notion that social structures and behaviours have an impact on health. The Africa Urban Research Initiative (AURI) established in 2013 focusses its research on urbanization, urban poverty, sanitation, health and planning issues. It supports existing and future Africa-based research centres to inform and enhance the policy actors and networks responsible for sustainable urban policy and management for the future of urbanization in Africa. The Partners Enhancing Resilience to People Exposed to Risks (PERIPERIU) established in 2006 is a network bringing together different research centres and partners to a research and capacity building an alliance to reduce disaster risk in Africa. It is based at Stellenbosch University, South Africa.

There are other such networks in science and technology fields. The African Institute of Mathematical Sciences (AIMS) is a pan-African centre of excellence with a focus on capacity building and research in mathematical sciences. It has continental and international partnerships and trains post-graduate students from across Africa. The African Institute of Space Science (AISS) promotes space science research to support human development in Africa and partners with a number of other related organizations across the world (Shabani, 2008). The African Centre for Technology Studies (ACTS) founded in 1998 works towards integrating vulnerability and adaptation to climate change into sustainable development policy planning and implementation. It aims at contributing towards reducing the vulnerability of communities to the impacts of climate change, thereby improving their well-being and protecting their livelihoods.

Similarly, the African Technology Policy Studies (ATPS) focuses its research and capacity building on mechanisms and systems of Science Technology and Innovation (STI) transfer and adoption with emphasis on the agricultural sector, health, infrastructure and small and medium enterprises. The International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) and the Centre for Innovations in Science and Technology (CIST) also focus their research and capacity building initiatives on innovations that focus on sustainable development, agriculture, and livelihoods. The Africa Energy Policy Research Network (AFREPREN) based in Nairobi focuses its research and capacity building in the energy sector including on renewable energies.

In education development, socio-economics and humanities, there are also several notable regional networks. The African Economic Research Consortium (AERC) based in Nairobi contributes to capacity building of African researchers in economic enquiry and its application in policy contexts. In pursuing this cause, it partners with other organizations and foundations both locally and internationally and fosters closer relations between researchers and policy makers. It focuses on more broad-based issues including poverty studies, sources and spread of growth and distribution of benefits; natural resource management, climate change and economic development nexus; and livelihood systems. The Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA), founded in 1973 and headquartered in Dakar, Senegal is a pan-African organization with a primary focus on the social sciences.

It prides itself as the pioneer African social research organization which promotes and facilitates knowledge production, independent thought and academic freedom with a focus on the social sciences. It has several research programmes and capacity building initiatives to support social science research and publications in Africa.

The African Network for Internationalization of Education (ANIE) established in 2008 is a pan-African network and think-tank committed to the advancement of high quality research, capacity building, information sharing and exchange, transnational networking and co-operation, and policy advocacy on the internationalization of higher education to enable African universities and development stakeholders take optimal advantage of the opportunities presented by internationalization and globalization. ANIE takes the pioneering mandate of enhancing the understanding and further development of the international dimension of higher education in Africa by expanding knowledge and by strengthening and sustaining a cohort of highly competent professionals, scholars, and researchers in the field of international education, research, and development.

The Association of Third World Studies (ATWS) is professional membership based organization that promotes research on the developing parts of the world and has chapters in Africa and Asia. It is one of the largest research networks in the developing world. Apart from its extensive research agenda and networks, it also holds annual conferences across the developing world. The Higher Education Research and Policy Network (HERPNET) provides a forum for discussions and research on higher education policy across Africa. It has a wide membership from different African countries. The African Centre for Economic Growth (ACEG) conducts research related to regional integration, trade, entrepreneurship, and information management. African Institute for Development Policy (AFIDEP) research on climate change adaptation, accountability and empowerment, economic growth, sustainability and international development. The African Centre for Open Governance (AFRICOG) focuses its research on governance, democracy, and rights of citizens. African Peace Building Network supports independent African research and knowledge building on peace and conflict in Africa with the main objective of informing policy makers and connecting the researchers with other African scholars. These networks demonstrate the essence of collaborations in strengthening research and knowledge networks for Africa's development.

Sub-Regional Research Centres and Networks

Apart from the above organizations that have a pan-Africa mandate, there are others whose mandates cover more at least one of the sub-regions or more but not the whole continent. The Regional Universities Forum for Capacity Building in Agriculture (RUFORUM) is one of them. It is based in Kampala, Uganda and brings together 46 African universities spread within 22 African countries with the aim of building capacity in Agriculture especially for the Eastern and Southern Africa regions. It is also developing credit transfer mechanisms between member institutions of the

network. The Southern Africa Climate Change Network (SACCNET) works on the impacts of climate change on human health, water and food security within the Southern Africa region. It focuses on improving knowledge sharing, research co-operation and the uptake of research for policy development and implementation. The Banana Research Network for Eastern and Southern Africa (BARNESA) is a network that enhances capacity building, competitiveness, policy analysis and research on banana production in Eastern and Southern Africa. It has a multi-sectoral approach and thus has members from different sectors.

The Educational Research Network for Eastern and Southern Africa (ERNESA) has the goal of building capacity through training, bridging the gap between policymakers and researchers and also provide networking opportunities and platforms to discuss educational issues within the two sub-regions. The Southern Africa Bean Research Network (SABRN) based in Malawi researches on improvements in the production of beans. The Southern African Development Research Network (SADRN) is a broad-based policy and research network working on policy-relevant research in the Southern Africa region to strengthen evidence-based policy making. Southern and Eastern Africa Policy Research Network (SEAPREN) brings together six research institutions engaged in strengthening policy analysis and collaborations on regional projects, capacity building and exchange of best practices. The Network of AIDS Researchers of Eastern and Southern Africa (NARESA) works on research and support related to HIV/AIDS with a focus on maternal and child health, adolescents, environment, and sexuality. They belong to a wider network that also involves several international organizations and agencies. The Forestry Research Network of Sub-Saharan Africa (FORNESSA) works mainly in Eastern and Southern Africa and supports forestry research in order to contribute to conservation, sustainable management and utilization of forest resources in these sub-regions. It has individuals and organizations as members and also undertakes research and advocacy.

The Organization for Social Science Research in East and Southern Africa (OSSREA) established in 1980 encourages and funds social science research within the Eastern and Southern Africa region. The Inter-Regional Economic Network (IREN) is a regional organization that focuses on entrepreneurship, governance issues, and education. The International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) and the Association for Strengthening Agricultural Research in Eastern and Central Africa (ASARECA) undertake research and capacity building on enhancing regional collective action in agricultural research, extension and education in the region so as to facilitate economic growth, food security and export competitiveness through productive and sustainable agriculture. ASERECA also engages in crop breeding to produce crops resilient to current variability and also moving into climate change adaptation work. The partnerships among these institutions with the regional governments are supporting farmers to adapt to any changes that might occur, through the establishment of 'Climate Smart Villages' across East Africa to promote sustainable agriculture. The East African Institute located at Aga Khan University, Nairobi focuses activities on the provision of a coherent and impartial

evidence-based platform for policy formulation. It takes a multidisciplinary approach to addressing important issues affecting the region.

The Regional Centre for Socio-Economic Studies and Development (RECSSAD) which has a focus on gender, agriculture, economic development and university networking with more focus on the Eastern Africa region. The Tanzanian-German Centre for East African Legal Studies (TGCL) is another sub-regional centre focused on capacity building and research in law. Based at University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania and in collaboration with Bayreuth University in Germany, the centre offers masters and Ph.D. training in law with a focus on the East African Community (Milej, 2016). The Natural Products Research Network for East and Central Africa (NAPRECA) promotes research and development of natural products with the aim of building capacity and scientific advancements in this field in which Africa has rich resources. The network mainly focuses its activities in East and Central Africa. The Nelson Mandela African Institute of Science and Technology located in Arusha, Tanzania has regional focuses on training and development of the next generation of African scientists and engineers to impact on the continents development. It incorporates, innovation, entrepreneurship and academia-industry relationships in its training programmes. UbuntuNet Alliance is a regional educational and research networking organization that focuses its activities in Eastern and Southern Africa with the mission of securing affordable broadband and efficient ICT access within the target region. They manage and operate the regional backbone network that connects National Research and Education Networks thus facilitating closer interactions and connections between research and knowledge communities.

The initiative of the African centres of excellence is also not exclusive to the regional level but has now begun to manifest itself at the sub-regional levels. Within the East African region, the World Bank through the IUCEA has given support for the establishment of these centres of excellence in the fields of science, technology, agriculture, health, and education. The German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) is also supporting centres of excellence and research and collaborations in amongst African universities in different fields. In the same vein British Council through initiatives such as the Newton Fund supports capacity building in science and innovation and partnerships in different parts of Africa. It has funded projects focused on food security, sustainable and renewable energy, health, environment and climate change. The latest of the Newton Fund grants was announced in mid-2016

Common Characteristics of the Research Centres and Networks

The above section has highlighted some of the research centres and knowledge networks located in the different parts of Africa and having either regional or sub-regional mandates. An analysis of the profiles of these organizations reveals several interesting characteristics. The majority of these networks and centres are organized and instituted as independent, non-profit making organizations with the majority of the having the status of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Just a few of

them are located in university departments. While their membership could not be accessed, in most of them, membership is by institutional affiliation though there are also growing cases of individual membership especially within the research networks which are disciplinary specific.

The mind-set of both regionalization and internationalization of higher education relies on the quest for excellence and comparativeness in the process of knowledge production. The various research centres and networks established both at regional and sub-regional levels are important platforms of higher education collaborations where different structural interests can be negotiated. These are crucial settings where individual researchers from different institutions meet and engage in collaborative research and knowledge production processes that in a way contributes to the bigger institutional collaboration which later develops to regionalization processes. However one should keep in mind that, the majority of these networks and centres are organized and instituted as independent, non-profit making organizations with the majority of the having the status of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Just a few of them are located in university departments. Membership is normally by institutional affiliation though there are also growing cases of individual membership especially within the research networks which are disciplinary specific.

Moreover, while they have strong networks within the continent or specific sub-regions and support knowledge generation within the region, they at the same time have quite strong partnerships and affiliations to international networks and organization focusing on research within the same fields. Significant amounts of their researchers are done in collaboration or with the support of or jointly with their international partners. Some of them were actually founded through the initiatives of international partners which needed to spearhead similar research in Africa to develop the same knowledge area or develop new frontiers for research. It has been noted by Jowi and Obamba (2013) that the independent research centres and networks are more productive than corresponding university departments in knowledge generation. This could be due to several factors. While university staff is overwhelmed by heavy teaching loads which reduce their efforts in research, most of these centres are only research focused. Due to their specialization and abilities to attract or compete for research funding. They are also rather small, independent, better managed and do not suffer the institutional bureaucracies and lethargies especially of the public universities. There are also, however, some productive research centres located in the universities.

The research centres and networks are also mainly funded from sources outside the African continent with their main funding partners being in Europe and North America. The activities of the centres and networks link closely to the regional and sub-regional agendas. Both at the continental and the sub-regional levels, as has been demonstrated above, there are compelling efforts to strengthen research and co-operation. They could also be contributing more to local relevance as these centres also focus their research agenda on aspects that are important to the development of African societies. There is quite some effort on health issues and agriculture compared to the other knowledge fields.

RENEWED SUPPORT FOR RESEARCH AND KNOWLEDGE PRODUCTION IN AFRICA

According to Jowi and Obamba (2013), in recent years, there has been recognition by African governments and international partners that knowledge is a critical driver if economic growth and sustainability and that knowledge development infrastructures and systems for developing countries need to be supported. While African governments have been spending negligible amounts of their GDP on research, there is now more urge for them to increase allocations to research and knowledge generation. The AAUs Conference of Rectors, Vice-Chancellors and Presidents of African Universities (COREVIP) held in Kigali, Rwanda in 2015 focused on internationalization and amongst other things advocated for enhanced collaborations and integration of Africa's higher education sector and productive engagements with universities in other world regions. The Africa Higher Education Forum in held in Senegal in 2015 also called for enhanced partnerships for knowledge production and support from both local and international agencies. The 2016 Going Global Conference, held in Cape Town, South Africa also emphasized the growing need to mobilize resources to support research and doctoral education in Africa. These are in addition to the continental initiatives by regional and sub-regional actors as discussed in the previous sections.

Several initiatives by international agencies aimed at supporting research and knowledge generation in Africa have also been identified. The 2007 joint Africa- EU strategy and the European Association of Universities Survery (EUA, 2013) support at strengthening the capacities of the higher education institutions in Africa is an important one. According to Jowi and Obamba (2013), Africa-EU relations have been pegged on long-term policy orientation for co-operation between the two continents based on a shared vision and common principles. The main objective of EU support to Africa's higher education has been on the establishment of research partnerships, collaborative doctoral programmes, mobility programmes and promoting mobility of European students to Africa supporting increased communication, co-ordination, data collection and analysis (EUA, 2010). The historic Africa-EU Summit in Cairo in 2000 was an important milestone for partnerships and collaborations between the two regions. These developments in addition to EU mobility schemes have increased access to specialised programmes especially in post graduate training and substantive bilateral research and development co-operation programmes with African countries that also support the activities of research centres and networks. A number of policy documents by the EU within the past few years are shaping co-operation between Africa and Europe with a clear demonstration of deepening interests and developments (EUA, 2010).

France, United Kingdom, Germany, Finland, Netherlands, Belgium, Sweden, and Norway are some of the leading countries in these partnerships (Maassen, Pinheiro, & Cloete, 2007, p. 13). Even small countries such as Austria have developed higher education partnership programmes with Africa. Through its Austrian Partnership

Programme for Higher Education and Research for Development (APPEAR), Austria supports academic partnerships, capacity building, postgraduate training and research co-operation with universities in developing countries. Norway in 2016 developed a new programme known as the Norwegian Partnership Programme for Global Academic Co-operation (NORPART) replaces the former quota programme and will focus on student's mobility at masters and doctoral levels in addition to joint curriculum development. Switzerland has also established the Swiss-Africa Research Co-operation (SARECO) for research and scientific collaborations with Africa. These trends are replicated in most other European countries.

China-Africa co-operation has also continued to grow with a commitment of 60 billion USD made to support goals such as poverty reduction, agricultural modernization, public health and industrial co-operation, all of which will stimulate further research engagements. In an attempt to respond to Africa's research and skills challenges, China intends to train 30,000 African students at post graduate level. There is also growing South-South co-operation with other major players being Brazil and India apart from the already mentioned role of China. These could further enhance the growth of not only research in higher education institutions but also in the research centres and knowledge networks. In this regard, the role of Japan, South Korea, and other new economies may not be taken for granted especially at a time when many African countries are developing new partnerships.

Generally, there has been a growing support in Africa for research and knowledge production at sub-regional, regional and international levels. Most of these supports are channelled through various processes; including joint research programmes, student and staff mobility programmes, capacity building processes, experience sharing and benchmarking programmes. Research and knowledge production as a process by its nature demands a viable foundation of adequate human capacity, reliable funding sources, research setting and effective research output communication mechanisms. Internationalization of higher education in Africa in this regard could play an important role facilitating these foundations by creating the bridge that brings together different higher education institutions, funding organizations and research centres to share and exchange resources needed for researches and knowledge production. These could also set the scene for regionalization processes of higher education in Africa as reach collaboration and partnership lead to convergence of higher education systems.

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

This chapter has discussed the emerging trend of research centres and networks in Africa from a regional and sub-regional approach. Though there are still deep inequalities in access and usage between Africa and other parts of the world creating the digital and the knowledge gap (Ayoo, 2009), there is already evidence in African countries that have invested more in ICTs that there are improvements in knowledge generation and distribution across the continent. This growth in ICT will also foster

not only the continental but also the sub-regional and national initiatives towards enhancing research and knowledge generation.

The positive developments in Africa's higher education such as increasing enrolment, harmonization programmes, new mobility schemes, and the strengthening of institutions may make Africa one of the promising regions for new frontiers in research and knowledge generation. The new programmes and initiatives by the regional and sub-regional research centres and networks, therefore, need support by local and international stakeholders. The renewed commitment at the continental, regional, national and international levels need to be sustained and enhanced for more impacts. This should be in addition to the new consciousness to strengthen quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms at these different levels to enhance regional collaborations in research and knowledge generation.

The efforts by these new centres and networks still face several challenges with the main ones being funding and institutional capacities for research and knowledge generation. Based on their locations which were mainly concentrated in just a few countries within the continent, there would still be knowledge gaps and asymmetries which could lead to other effects. However, the unfolding environment presents several possibilities for not only research and knowledge generation but also to Africa's position in the global knowledge society. The growing intra-Africa collaborations are crucial for further exchanges and sharing of capacities and resources which could improve Africa's capacity for self-renewal. If anchored on supportive strategies and policies these developments could take research and knowledge generation in Africa to new milestones.

REFERENCE

AAU. (2015). *Report of conference of rectors, vice-chancellors and presidents of African universities on internationalization of higher education in Africa*. Accra: AAU.

Ayoo, P. O. (2009). Reflections on the digital divide and its implications for the internationalization of higher education in a developing region: The case of East Africa. *Higher Education Policy, 22*(3), 303–318.

AUC. (2011, December 13–14). *The role of the African university in promoting integration and intra-Africa trade*. Discussion paper presented at the African Union Commission Conference, Abuja, Nigeria.

Cloete, N., Bailey, T., & Maassen, P. (2011). *Universities and economic development in Africa: Pact, academic core, and co-ordination*. Cape Town: CHET.

Harle, J. (2013). Strengthening research in African universities: Reflections on policy, partnerships, and politics. *Policy & Practice-A Development Education Review*, (16).

Hayward, F. M. (2010). Graduate education in Sub-Saharan Africa. In D. Teferra & H. Greijn (Eds.), *Higher education and globalization: Challenges, threats and opportunities for Africa*. Maastricht: MUNDO.

EUA. (2010). *Africa-Europe higher education co-operation for development: Meeting regional and global challenges*. Brussels, Belgium: AAU-EUA.

EUA. (2013). *Internationalization in European higher education: European policies, institutional strategies, and EUA support*. Brussels: EUA.

INASP. (2013). *Scientific development in African countries: A scientometric approach 1996–2009*. Oxford: International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications.

Jowi J. O. (2010). Africa. In IAU (Ed.), *Internationalization of higher education: Global trends, regional perspective.* Paris: IAU.

Jowi, J. O. (2012). Africa responds to internationalization: Redefining the terms of engagement between Scholars worldwide. Internationalization of higher education: Perspectives from the South. *SARUA Leadership Dialogue Series, 2*(2), 49–58.

Jowi, J. O., & Obamba, M. O. (2013a). *Research and innovation management: A comparative analysis of Kenya, Ghana, and Uganda*. Report prepared by the African Network for the Internationalization of Education for the OECD, Paris.

Jowi, J. O., & Obamba, M. O. (2013b). Internationalization in Africa: Where to focus funding for real impact. In M. Stiasny & T. Gore (Eds.), *Going global: Changing education for a changing world*. Bingley: Emerald Publishing.

Jowi, J. O., Knight, J., & Sehoole, C. (2013). Internationalization of African higher education. In *Internationalization of African higher education* (pp. 11–31). Boston: Sense Publishers.

Kinyajui, K. (2007, July). *The transformation of higher education in Kenya: Challenges and opportunities*. Paper presented at the Mijadala on social policy, governance and development in Kenya sponsored by Development Policy Management Forum at Nairobi Safari Club, Nairobi.

Lewis, G. S., Friedman, J., & Schoneboom, J. (2010). *Accomplishments of the partnership for higher education in Africa 2000–2010: Report on a decade of collaborative foundation investment.* New York, NY: Partnership for Higher Education in Africa.

Maassen, P., Pinheiro, R., & Cloete, N. (2007). *Bilateral country investments and foundations partnership projects to support higher education across Africa*. Wynberg, UK: Center for Higher Education Transformation.

Mihyo, P. B. (2008). *Staff retention in African universities and links with the diaspora study*. Accra, Ghana: Association of African Universities.

Milej, T. (2016). Centre promotes excellence in legal training. In *East African universities guide 2015–2016* (pp. 146–147). Nairobi: East African.

Mkandawire, T. (1995). Three generations of African academics: A note. *Transformation*, *28*, 75–83.

Mohamedbhai, G. (2008). *The effects of massification on higher education*. Accra: Association of African Universities.

NEPAD. (2010). *Africa innovation outlook 2010*. Addis Ababa: New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

Oyewole, O. (2010). Africa and the global knowledge domain. In D. Teferra & H. Greijn (Eds.), *Higher education and globalization: Challenges, threats, and opportunities for Africa.* Maastricht: MUNDO.

Shabani, J. (2008). The role of key regional actors and programmes. In D. Teferra & J. Knight (Eds.), *Higher education in Africa: The international dimension* (pp. 464–489). Accra/Boston, MA: AAU/CIHE.

Skilton, R. (2016). ICIPE: Providing young African scientists with opportunity to study. In *East African Universities Guide 2015–2016* (pp. 144–145). Nairobi: East African.

Van't Land, V. (2016). *The changing nature of doctoral studies in Sub-Saharan Africa: Challenges and policy development opportunities at six universities in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Paris: International Association of Universities (IAU).

James Otieno Jowi
African Network for the Internationalization of Education
Moi University, Kenya

Tolly Mbwette
Open University of Tanzania
Tanzania

PUNDY PILLAY, EMNET TADESSE WOLDEGIORGIS
AND JANE KNIGHT

10. HIGHER EDUCATION FINANCE

Implications for Regionalization

INTRODUCTION

The issue of higher education financing in Africa has been the subject of discussion since the 1980s. Historically higher education financing has been the sole responsibility of the public sector with most of the funding coming from state governments. In the past three decades, however, the African higher education sector has witnessed a massive increase in enrolments which has created a huge demand pressure. As public funding could not keep-up with the massive growing enrolment rate, African higher education institutions started to crumble with overcrowded class rooms and deteriorated facilities which compromised the quality of higher education in the region. To address these challenges and to be competitive in the production of knowledge, it became necessary to diversify higher education funding and look for alternative financial means. New initiatives including the introduction of private higher education institutions in the 1990s, new tuition, and cost-sharing policies, and the diversification of higher education services were some of the strategies introduced to address the financial challenges of the African higher education sector (Pillay, 2011).

Even though these challenges have been felt across Africa, the measures were taken to tackle them are neither co-ordinated nor framed through regional policy level frameworks. For example, with the exception of Southern African countries, there are no common regional policy settings to enable African students to travel to and study in other African countries without having to pay higher international student fees. Even though there are some promising initiatives in the East African sub-region to harmonize the higher education system including tuition policies, it is not yet fully implemented. Since African higher education institutions are quite diverse in terms of financial capacity, it is challenging to have a broad spectrum of regional collaboration and inclusive harmonization processes. Institutions with strong financial capacities in northern and southern African countries, for example, are linked more to universities in Europe and North America than within the sub-Saharan Africa countries.

The focus of this chapter is on the implications of higher education finance for the regionalization of higher education in Africa. This chapter does not attempt to

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 175–187.

analyse the comparative advantages of different financing models or policies but instead focuses on how the harmonization of financing of higher education does or does not contribute to greater regional collaboration among university systems in Africa. The chapter examines the issues that African higher education systems and institutions have been facing with regards to finance, the remedies taken to tackle these challenges, and the implications for the regionalization of higher education in Africa. It is challenging to provide robust empirical evidence on the state of higher education financing due to the lack of up-to-date data since there are few institutions that compile and document statistics on a regular basis. In this regard, the World Bank and the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) have been the main sources of data on various issues of higher education in Africa including finance, but even this information is often not up to date.

AN OVERVIEW OF HIGHER EDUCATION FINANCE IN AFRICA

The role of higher education in the socio-economic and political development of African countries has been emphasized since the 1960s. Even though the budget allocated to higher education institutions has varied in the course of history, most African countries have shown sound commitment allocating relatively higher percentages of their national annual budgets to higher education. According to the World Bank (2010), Africa maintained its public investment in higher education between 1995 and 2010, allocating approximately 0.78 percent of its gross domestic product (GDP), and around 20 percent of its recurrent public expenditure. Public financing of higher education mainly takes three main forms: the financing of recurrent budgets of institutions, students grant/loan schemes and capital or development budgets. The fourth stream of research is the least funded and faculty have to look for private mainly external funding to do research.

Hence, as indicated by Morton et al, (2008) in the regional study of universities in SADC, most professors spend more time doing consultancy work than academic research. Despite the increase in public investment in higher education, however, there are serious funding inadequacies due to a fast growing number of student enrolments among African higher education institutions. For instance, the number of students increased from 2.7 million in 1991 to 9.3 million in 2006. Enrolments during this period grew at an average annual rate of 16 percent while public resources allocated to recurrent expenditure grew at six percent per annum on average (World Bank, 2010).

The decline in public expenditure per student affects the quality of teaching, research and learning. In fact, the World Bank shows that Africa is the only region in the world that has experienced a decrease in the volume of current public expenditure per student (30 percent between 1995 and 2010) (World Bank, 2010). Table 10.1 shows higher education expenditure as a proportion of GDP. Public spending on higher education as a proportion of the education budget varies substantially

amongst Sub-Saharan countries. As a proportion of GDP, the rate varies from four percent or more in Botswana and Lesotho to a low of 0.31 percent in Cameroon, and 0.35 percent in Mauritius. There is no correlation between development status (as reflected for example, in GDP per capita) and higher education expenditure. Middle-income countries have both high (Botswana) and low (Mauritius, South Africa) levels of higher education expenditure. On the other hand, some relatively poor countries (e.g. Ethiopia, Lesotho) have high levels of higher education funding (Pillay, 2011).

Table 10.1. Tertiary education expenditure as a percent of GDP: 2010–2015, some Sub-Saharan countries

Country	*Percent of GDP*	*Country*	*Percent of GDP*
Benin	1.0	Mozambique	0.92
Botswana	4.0	Niger	0.94
Burkina Faso	0.98	Rwanda	0.71
Burundi	1.31	Senegal	1.38
Cameroon	0.31	Sierra Leone	0.84
DRC	0.49	South Africa	0.74
Ethiopia	1.92	Swaziland	1.11
Ghana	1.18	Togo	1.05
Kenya	1.09	Tanzania	0.75
Lesotho	4.72	Zambia	0.45
Madagascar	0.42		
Malawi	1.48		
Mauritius	0.35		

Source: UIS, Database (2016).

Table 10.2 provides data on total education expenditure in some Sub-Saharan countries. Where higher education expenditure is low, there are often several reasons for this. First, there may be inadequate expenditure on education generally, as a percentage of the government's budget. Second, where education expenditure may be considered to be adequate or reasonable, there are considerable political pressures to ensuring that the schooling sector gets the overwhelming share of the public sector's commitment to education. Third, in many countries, in a situation of serious resource constraints, there is often keen inter-sectoral competition for financial resources from health, housing, social welfare and other government functions. Finally, the case for increased higher education financing has not been helped by the low prioritization of this sector by many African governments. The value of higher

education for economic growth and broader social and sustainable development has not yet been fully recognized by African governments.

Table 10.2. Tertiary education expenditure as a percent of total government Expenditure, 2010–2015, some Sub-Saharan countries

Country	*Percentage*	*Country*	*Percentage*
Benin	20.35	Malawi	21.55
Botswana	41.51	Mauritius	7.06
Burkina Faso	21.72	Rwanda	14.02
Burundi	24.23	South Africa	12.19
Ethiopia	42.71	Uganda	13.76
Kenya	15.42	Tanzania	21.40
Lesotho	36.38	Zimbabwe	22.80
Madagascar	15.20		

Source: UIS, Database (2016).

In terms of methods of allocating the higher education budgets, in most Sub-Saharan countries, initial allocation decisions are made by the Ministry of Finance in the light of available government revenues, political priorities, and the amounts provided in the previous year. Having determined the general allocation, subsequent budget meetings with the Ministry of (Higher) Education and the universities tend to be formalities (World Bank, 2010). Budget discussions often focus on minor adjustments to the internal distribution of these fixed allocations among staff salaries, student services, staff development, and overall operational expenses.

As illustrated in Table 10.3, a range of practices for determining higher education budget allocations for recurrent and investment expenditures can be found. In addition to historically-based budgeting, they include earmarked funding, input-based formulas, performance-based formulas, performance contracts, and competitive funds.

Still, public higher education institutions in Africa find it difficult to cope with the growing demand for higher education training and this has led to the expansion of the higher education sector in general both in number and type. Private higher education institutions have also joined the sector mostly since the 1990s training students mainly in the fields of Social Sciences and Humanities. Despite the expansion of the sector, however, there has not been any common regional policy forums that bring together this diverse nature of higher education finance in Africa so as to specifically tackle common challenges. The next sections discuss the challenges of higher education in Africa and its implication for regionalization processes.

Table 10.3. Methods of allocating the higher education budgets in select African countries

Type of Budget	*Method*	*Countries*
Operating	Historically-based budgets	Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, DRC, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Namibia, Niger, Sierra
	Input-based budgets	Leone, Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe.
	Funding formula	Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, South Africa.
Investment	Performance contracts	Cote d'Ivoire, Mali, Mauritania,
	Earmarked funding	Senegal
	Competitive funds	South Africa
		Ethiopia, Ghana, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania

Source: World Bank (2010).

THE CHALLENGES OF HIGHER EDUCATION FINANCE IN AFRICA

Socio-economic Conditions

The challenges of higher education finance in Africa are related to not only policy priorities but also to the general socio-economic conditions of each country. Sub-Saharan countries are still the poorest and most under-developed region in the world. As shown in Table 10.4 on the classification of Sub-Saharan countries based on their Human Development Index,[1] there are very few Sub-Saharan countries in the 'high' and 'medium' human development categories (Pillay, 2008). Of the 52 countries shown in the table, some thirty-five are in the low human development category.

The poor socio-economic conditions of most African countries have a direct effect on the general status of the education in terms of access, quality, and equity. For example, the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in secondary education for Sub-Saharan Countries in 2013 was 43 percent and that for the upper secondary was only 35 percent (UNESCO, 2016).

Higher education is also characterized by extremely low participation rates. The GER for higher education in Sub-Saharan countries is around eight percent, compared to 23 percent for Southern Asia; 29 percent in Northern Africa, 43 percent for Latin America and 26 percent for developing countries in general (UNESCO, 2016).

The poor socio-economic conditions also imply that the higher education sector has to compete for funding with other more pressing social sectors in Africa, like

Table 10.4. Categories of Human Development Index (HDI) by country, 2014

High Human Development (above 0.7)	*Medium Human Development (between 0.55 and 0.7)*	*Low Human Development (below 0.55)*
Algeria	Botswana, Cabo Verde	Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso,
Libya	Congo, Egypt	Burundi, Cameroon, Chad
Mauritius	Equatorial Guinea, Gabon	Central African Republic
Seychelles	Ghana, Morocco	Comoros, DRC, Cote d'Ivoire
Tunisia	Namibia, South Africa	Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia
	Sao Tome and Principe	Gambia, Guinea, Kenya
	Zambia	Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho
		Liberia, Madagascar
		Malawi, Mali
		Mauritania, Mozambique
		Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda,
		Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan
		Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo
		Uganda, Zimbabwe

Source: UNDP, (2014). Norway is listed as the country with the highest HDI followed by a number of European and North American countries, and Australia.

health. On the one hand, there is a rapidly growing demand for higher education in Africa and on the other hand, the budget allocated for the higher education sector is not keeping up with the growing demand. The main factor here is the increasing number of secondary school-leavers. Although secondary enrolment ratios are relatively low in absolute terms, the number of young people aspiring to universities is growing rapidly. Meanwhile, in spite of recent resurgence of economic growth throughout much of Sub-Saharan Africa, the revenues available to meet the needs of these rapidly increasing student numbers are exceedingly limited.

Financial Austerity

A combination of all these and many other factors led to financial austerity in many African countries. This austerity is manifested in a number of ways on Africa higher education institutions. For instance, African universities could not retain top academic staff because of poor financial conditions. Many are attracted to the universities in the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, or France as well to universities within some African countries such as South Africa and Botswana.

Furthermore, Africa's faculty are also attracted to the private sector with skills in such fields as computer science, management, accounting, and law. This situation has basically compromised the quality of higher education institutions in Africa and has now become a regional concern among policy makers and researchers.

In addition, the limited availability of public financing has forced higher education institutions to do more with fewer resources. This has led to severely overcrowded classrooms which are also a function of over-enrolments, too few academic staff, and inadequate lecture halls. Furthermore, the lack of adequate financing has contributed to inadequate library collections, computer availability, and bandwidth for students and staff, inadequate laboratories and specialized equipment for such programmes as physics, biology, engineering, and the agricultural sciences. The consequences of austerity are severe limitations on learning, on academic scholarship, and on the ability of academic staff to contribute to the needs of their governments, communities, and non-governmental institutions.

Tuition Policies and Approaches

In response to these financial constraints, a number of alternative revenue generation and funding mechanisms have been explored and in many cases implemented. These include evening programmes, summer school training, consultancy frameworks, and cost-sharing schemes. As illustrated in Table 10.5, various forms of tuition policies and cost-sharing schemes were introduced. Where student loans are used extensively, as in South Africa and Kenya, a reduction in governmental subsidies via an increase in the rate of interest (or other adjustments in income contingent forms of repayment obligations) constitutes a theoretical way to further shift costs toward students. In addition to Kenya and South Africa, student loan schemes also exist in Botswana, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Swaziland, Tanzania (World Bank, 2010).

Table 10.5. Types of tuition fees in Sub-Saharan countries public higher education institutions

Type of Tuition Fee	*Countries*
Upfront	Botswana, Cote d'Ivoire, The Gambia, Liberia, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa.
Dual track	Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Senegal, Tanzania.
Deferred	Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Swaziland.
None or nominal	Gabon.

Source: World Bank, (2010).

Upfront tuition is a tuition that is paid at the time of registration at the beginning of each academic semester. Deferred tuition, on the other hand, is paid at the end of academic study or in the form of graduate tax after being employed, where a specific amount of tax will be deducted from the future income of each graduate. Dual track, however, implies a mix of the above two where students pay their share in the form of loan and upfront. Table 10.5 shows that African higher education systems have different tuition structures what are not yet integrated at regional levels which have significant implications for regionalization in general and student mobility in particular. The next section focuses on different solutions adopted by African governments and higher education institutions to address the major financial constraints.

ADDRESSING FINANCING CHALLENGES THROUGH COST-SHARING

Even though there is no consensus on how to address higher education financing among African higher education institutions, the fact that African governments could not keep up with the fast growing higher education student enrolment has already become a common agenda. Altbach et al (2009) identified eight worldwide trends in the financing of higher education, each of which "has economic, political, and social roots as well as consequences". These trends are:

1. The increasingly knowledge-based economies of most countries: higher education is increasingly viewed as a major engine of economic development.
2. There is an increasing demand for higher education by individuals and their families for their children.
3. The unit, or per student, costs are rising faster than inflation rates.
4. The inability of government tax revenues to keep pace with rapidly rising higher costs.
5. Increasing globalization, which contributes, inter alia, to both increasing demands for higher education and inadequate government revenue to support it.
6. The increasing reliance on non-tax revenues, known as cost-sharing.
7. The increasing importance of financial assistance through student loan schemes.
8. An increasing liberalization, that is, a free market and private sector orientation of economies, which is leading many governments to respond to higher education's financial challenges by corporatizing and privatizing public universities, and generally encouraging private colleges and universities.

It is evident that with the exception of (1) above, all the other trends are relevant in the Sub-Saharan Africa context.

Historically higher education has been free in most African countries until the 1990s. Traditionally governments covered all the expenses, and in some cases like Ethiopia, this included boarding and accommodations costs. However, according to Johnstone (2004), this situation was not sustainable as African governments

could not keep up financing students in the higher education sector due to financial austerities. As a way forward, African government opted for diversifying higher education finance which included shifting some of the higher education costs from governments to parents and/or students (Johnstone, 2005). As a result, most African countries introduced some sort of tuition or cost-sharing policies including; Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Ghana, Nigeria, Mozambique and South Africa, to mention few (Johnstone, 2004).

However, there was no common regional policy framework used to plan for or implement these financial reforms, each country adopted reforms that would meet their specific needs. The World Bank provided support for those African countries interested in revitalizing their higher education finance systems, but most of the recommendations came from the World Bank, not the African governments. Moreover, there were no regional level policies and higher education finance reforms remained fragmented along specific national interests. The major recommendation of the World Bank included opening up of the higher education sector for private providers, diversifying higher education institutions, and cost-sharing schemes.

The fact that some African countries have adopted cost-sharing in their higher education institutions does not imply that there is some sort of consensus on the adoption of this strategy at the regional level. In fact cost-sharing, especially in the form of tuition fees, remains deeply contested in Sub-Saharan Africa. Its proponents defend the importance of cost-sharing and maintain that at least a modest tuition fee is affordable to many or even most families - particularly with generally-available student loans and targeted or means-tested student assistance. Furthermore, the free or very low tuition fees also benefit middle and upper middle-class families but are paid for by all citizens mainly through taxes. However, the most important rationale for some cost-sharing is the fact that African governments do not have the resources to continue meeting all of the rapidly increasing revenue needs of public colleges and universities, especially in the face of the surging higher education enrolments and other competing demands or public revenues, such as elementary and secondary education, public health, social welfare, and public infrastructure (Pillay, 2013).

Opponents of cost-sharing, on the other hand, maintain that surging enrolments and other needs can be accommodated mainly through higher taxes on corporations and the financially well-off and through cutting wasteful governmental expenditures—especially those associated with patronage and corruption—as well as wasteful expenditures in the universities themselves. They maintain that ensuring access to higher education must be the very highest priority; that most African families cannot afford any tuition fees; and that student loans simply do not work and thus do not effectively supplement governmental revenue. Some opponents even see the pressure for cost-sharing as coming largely from the World Bank advancing the so-called Washington Consensus in favour of liberal capitalism (Pillay, 2013).

Taking the above concerns and debates on cost-sharing, some African countries have adopted accommodative schemes that mitigate the challenges. For instance, important lessons can be drawn from the South African and Kenyan experience

with regard to designing and implementing an effective student loan scheme. These schemes are directed at students from poor households who are identified as having the potential to succeed at university. They undergo means testing, and if successful, obtain a loan for study at university. These loans are income-contingent and must be paid back when the student graduates and gains employment. In South Africa, part of the loan is converted to a grant on the basis of success.

Despite all the debates several African countries have already introduced cost-sharing in the form of tuition fees to address the inadequacy of institutional revenue. This is particularly so in Cote d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Namibia, Mauritius, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Zambia, and Tanzania. South Africa has always had a system of fee paying in higher education. However, as stated earlier, not all countries apply cost-sharing equitably because of the dual-track tuition programmes. Apart from that, to address the issue of scarce public resources, Botswana established a new university on a private-public partnership basis. In this model, the state provided substantial funding for capital expenditure while the private sector is responsible for operational expenditure. A similar venture has been created in Zambia through the establishment of Mulungushie University. In Mauritius, on the other hand, all public institutions are not funded in the same way. Where there are seen to be high private returns, the state provides proportionally lower funds as opposed to institutions providing higher education with greater social returns for example teacher education (Pillay, 2013).

IMPLICATIONS FOR REGIONALIZATION AND THE FUTURE

Capacity Issues

One of the main characteristics of African higher education systems, as compared to other national systems in the world, is the immense disparity in terms of capacity. Even though regionalization of higher education basically found itself on co-operation and partnership along mutual interests, the disparity in terms of financial capacities among African higher education institutions is a major factor preventing many co-operative schemes among African higher education institutions. Those higher education institutions which have strong financial capacities in northern and southern Africa, for instance, tend to collaborate with higher education systems and institutions in the West rather than in Africa. This leads to more inter-regional collaboration than deep intra-regional co-operation. Solid research co-operation, joint degree programmes, and student mobility schemes demand a reasonable amount and sustainable source of funding. In most sub-Saharan African countries, finding funding for such programmes has always been challenging. As a result, the operationalization of most of these collaborative schemes often depends on foreign funding sources which are not basically sustainable and may increase the probability of continued collaboration with higher education institutions outside of Africa more than within Africa.

Tuition Fees and Student Mobility

The other important component of regionalization of higher education is the existence of comparable tuition policies among the higher education institutions so as to facilitate student mobility. In this regard, even though there has been promising progress made at sub-regional levels, for example among members of Southern African Development Community (SADC) and East African Community (EAC), there is still a lot to be done at the continental level. Important to note is that a comparable tuition policy does not imply having the same tuition fee throughout Africa. It involves developing a policy framework that enables mobile African students to pay the comparable amount of tuition as local students in the destination African country.

So far there are no integrated tuition policies in Africa at the pan-African level that define how higher education institutions treat students from another African country. However, there is a promising precedent in the SADC region (Pillay, 2008). Within the formal SADC protocol, South Africa, for example, has already decided to treat SADC students as home/local students by treating them equally with regard to fees and accommodation. The SADC has specifically recommended that higher education institutions in its member states reserve at least five percent of their admissions for students from member countries (SADC, 1997). Moreover, they have been working on the standardization of entrance requirements, harmonization of academic years, ease of credit transfer, provision of in-state tuition and fee rates to students from other SADC countries, the establishment of joint academic programmes, and the easing of immigration formalities to facilitate the mobility of students and academic staff. This illustrates the role of regionalization at the sub-regional level in Africa.

Since the SADC initiatives of regionalization, half of all SADC mobile students study in other SADC countries, mostly in South Africa. By comparison, only four percent of mobile students from elsewhere in Sub-Saharan Africa remains within their own region (UNESCO, 2012). This intra-region flow seems to be in line with the SADC vision for regionalism, and also with the principles of the 1997 SADC Protocol on Education and Training, at least as far as academic mobility is concerned. Mobile students from Angola, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, the Seychelles, South Africa, Tanzania, and Zambia are relatively well-dispersed across a range of host countries. On the other hand, mobile students from Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe mainly study in South Africa.

The recent trend of pooling resources together through regional organizations and allocating for various joint programmes is a very encouraging initiative to promote more regionalization processes among African higher education systems. Regional organization has the capacity to mobilize funding both from within and outside of Africa for various regionalization processes. The African Union higher education projects including the Mwalimu Nyerere mobility programme, the pan-African network, the Tuning Africa project and other research pools have, for example, created an opportunity to bring African institutions together from all corners of the

region. If the same efforts are pursued by other regional and sub-regional higher education institutions, it could bridge the disparity that exists now among African higher education finance.

Private Providers and Funding

Even though over the past 20 years, trends in higher education funding around the world have shown a declining tendency for public support in developed countries, the situation in Africa shows a relative growth. On average, Africa has allocated 0.78 percent of its GDP to higher education, compared with 0.66 percent on average for other developing countries and 1.21 percent for the OECD countries. But even with this relatively higher rate of funding, it is still not enough to meet the growing demand (OECD, 2014). This can lead to a significant rise in the role for private sources in the financing of higher education. It is thus inevitable that the future of regionalization of higher education in Africa will embrace the role of the private sector along the public one in terms of generating revenue. But the question of how merits further investigation.

Financing higher education in Africa has always been a challenge because of the limited amount of resources as compared to the growing enrolment rate. Higher education as a sector has also been competing with other sectors for public funding. The nature of higher education finance has a direct implication on the quality of higher education as it has already been proven in the 1980s as the financial crisis in many African countries led to the degradation of the higher education sector. The policy actions which are taken to alleviate the challenges of higher education finance, including the introduction of tuition and cost-sharing policies, have been also a subject of contention as it is also related to many other issues like student mobility.

As Knight (2012) wrote: "the regionalization train has already left the station. But questions like where it is headed, which tracks it will use, what passengers or cargo will be on board, how many stops it will make, and what is the final destination are yet to be answered." This applies to the role of financing in enhancing regionalization of African higher education. The future of higher education finance in the process of regionalization in Africa can be best achieved by an integrated and sustained effort of key actors involved in this process, such as higher education institutions, ministries of education, non-governmental organizations, sub-regional organizations, regional organizations, international organizations, international and regional development agencies, and professional bodies. The challenges are many, and the future is uncertain.

NOTE

[1] The HDI has been developed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and it attempts to provide an indication of the development status of countries by combining an economic indicator (GDP or income per capita) with two social indicators (education – mean years of schooling- and health – life expectancy).

REFERENCES

Altbach, P. G, Reisbeg, L., & Rumbley, L. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tackling an academic revolution.* Paris: UNESCO.

Johnstone, D. B. (2004). Higher education finance and accessibility and student loans in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa, 2*(2), 11–36.

Johnstone D. B. (2005). *Financing higher education: Cost-sharing in international perspective.* New York, NY: University at Buffalo, the state University of New York.

Knight, J. (2012). A conceptual framework for the regionalization of higher education in Asia. In J. N. Hawkins, K. H. Mok, & D. Neubauer (Eds.), *Higher education regionalization in Asia Pacific: Implications for governance, citizenship and university transformation*, New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

OECD. (2014). *State of higher education higher education programme* (IMHE). Paris: OECD.

Pillay, P. (2008). Higher education funding frameworks in SADC. In *Towards a common future: Higher education in the SADC region*. Johannesburg: Southern African Regional Universities Association.

Pillay, P. (2011). *Linking higher education and economic development: Implications for Africa from three successful systems*. Cape Town: Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET).

Pillay, P. (2013). *Student financing in the developing world: Sub-Saharan Africa*. In D. Heller & C. Calendar (Eds.), *Student financing of higher education: A comparative perspective*. New York, NY: Routledge.

SADC. (1997). Protocol on education and training. *SADC, Gaborone*. Retrieved from http://www.sadc.int/english/documents/legal/protocols/education_and_training.php

UNESCO. (2012). *New patterns in student mobility in the Southern African development community*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2016). *Institute of statistics database*. Montreal: UNESCO.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2014). *Human development report 2014*. Washington, DC: UNDP.

World Bank. (2010). *Financing of higher education in Africa*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Pundy Pillay
School of Governance
University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa

Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis
Bayreuth International Graduate School of African Studies (BIGSAS)
Universität Bayreuth, Germany

Jane Knight
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
University of Toronto, Canada

EMNET TADESSE WOLDEGIORGIS

11. THE INFLUENCE OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS[1]

INTRODUCTION

The process of regionalization of higher education in Africa is not an isolated process which has developed within its own policy dynamics. International processes and other regionalization initiatives have also influenced the development of higher education regionalization in Africa. Because of historical reasons, however, the impact of European policy initiatives have been more apparent than others in the context of Africa. African higher education institutions have historically been linked to European higher education institutions in terms of academic structure, governance, curriculum, assessment, quality assurance processes and language of instruction. Modern higher education in Africa itself is a product of European intervention. As a result, the higher education development, partnership patterns, and policy reform issues have been historically linked to European higher education processes.

Most African students and their professors have been trained within this academic setting built in the context of Europe. Thus, change in higher education setting in Europe has implications for the higher education dynamics in Africa. International financial and development institutions have also been instruments of European policy propositions within which African higher education have been operating for a long time since independence. Thus, the dependency of African higher education institutions on European higher education systems, in general, has always been strong to the extent that policy shift in the metropolis has an immediate spillover effect on the African periphery.

The AU has also been taking regional policy initiatives after the experience of the EU in a number of socio-economic and political policy programmes. The issue of regionalization and harmonization of higher education provision, in particular, has become even highly connected to European experience as Europe became the leading example and pioneer of regional integration and policy harmonization processes since the 1950s (Woldegiorgis, 2013). In the above context, the prime example mentioned as a pioneer of higher education regionalization processes is the Bologna initiative of Europe. The Bologna process is a higher education harmonization initiative in Europe which has been initiated by European Ministers of Education with the objective of introducing a three-cycle degree structure, quality assurance, and qualification recognition mechanisms among European higher education institutions since 1999 (Zgaga, 2006). Taking the Bologna process as a point of reference, the African Union has also launched the higher education

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 189–207.

harmonization strategy in August 2007. The AU harmonization strategy is intended to create a harmonized higher education system across the continent by bringing together previously diverse systems resulting from colonial legacies so as to realize mutual recognition of qualifications, improve quality and relevance of programmes, and enhance the mobility of students and academics across the continent.

This chapter, therefore, intends to touch up on the major similarities and differences of the AU higher education harmonization strategy and the Bologna process of Europe. Analysing such complex and diverse sets of actors and processes within the dynamics of regionalization require analytical framework so as to provide a comprehensive explanation and analysis of policy processes. In this regard, the analytical framework developed by Knight (2012) as Functional Organizational Political Approaches (FOPA) to regionalization of higher education becomes a crucial tool in analysing the African harmonization strategy and its relations with the Bologna process.

THE DYNAMICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION REGIONALIZATION IN AFRICA AND EUROPE

As per the functional organizational political approaches of regionalization of higher education (Knight, 2012) explained in chapter one, the political dimension of the model is important explaining the dynamics of regionalization both in Africa and Europe. The political dimension is intended to give explanatory context to the ideological justification of regionalization processes which is elucidated within the strategic documents and other policy declarations and conventions. Through analysing the policy documents, the political approach seeks to explore the aims, objectives, goals and intended outcomes of harmonization processes. While exploring the policy objectives, however, the political approach also gives a perspective on whether the policy and its objectives are developed through revolutionary or evolutionarily, bottom-up or top-down process. This section, therefore, addresses the 'how' question of the AU higher education harmonization strategy and the Bologna process; how the policies are initiated and to achieve what?

Regional higher education integration initiatives both in Europe and Africa are not mere outcomes of a single political policy declaration. Rather, they are products of evolutionary processes of various policy initiatives or sequences of declarations and conventions. For instance, even though the Bologna Declaration is believed to be the one that brought the issue of higher education integration at the regional level in Europe since 1999, there were other initiatives that led to the realization of the current process since the 1950s. Among others, the European Convention on the Equivalence of Periods of University Study (1956); the UNESCO Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the Europe Region (1979); the European Commission proposition on the adoption of the ECTS (1989); and the European Convention on the General Equivalence of Periods of University Study (1990) brought issues of common quality assurance

frameworks, transferability of credits, and comparability of qualifications to the region before the adoption of the Bologna process (European Treaty Series – No.21, 1956).

The same is true in the case of the AU higher education harmonization strategy. The basic principles of the strategy are outcomes of various policy initiatives of higher education co-operation and intergovernmental conferences of African Ministers of Education since the 1960s. Among others, the Regional Conference of University Leaders in Khartoum, Sudan, in 1960 and its subsequent document on inter-African co-operation in higher education development, the 1961 Addis Ababa and 1962 Madagascar conferences of African ministers of education and the resultant 20-year higher education development plan for Africa, the 1967 conference in Rabat of African ministry of education and university leaders which led to the establishment of the Association of African Universities (AAU), the 1969 conference of university leaders in Kinshasa, and the 1972 workshop in Accra on creating an African University and the resulting document on the challenges of African universities brought the discussion of higher education co-operation and

Table 11.1. Higher education regionalization in Europe and Africa

The Evolutionary Processes of Higher Education Regionalization in Europe and Africa	
Europe	*Africa*
European Convention on the Equivalence of Periods of University Study (1956).	The conference on inter-African co-operation in the development of higher education – Khartoum, Sudan (1960).
UNESCO Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the Europe Region (1979).	Addis Ababa conference on the Development of Education in Africa (1961).
The European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) (1989).	Madagascar conferences of African Ministers of Education on 20 years higher education development plan for Africa (1962).
The European Convention on the General Equivalence of Periods of University Study (1990).	The Arusha Convention (1981) on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees.
The Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in the European region (the Lisbon Convention) (1997).	Sub-regional harmonization initiatives.
The Sorbonne Declaration (1998).	African Union Harmonization Strategy (2007).
The Bologna declaration (1999).	
European Convention on the Equivalence of Periods of University Study (1956).	

partnership, mobility of students and professionals, issues of quality assurance and recognition of qualifications at continental level.

Apart from the various intergovernmental dialogues, the various conventions, and higher education harmonization initiatives have also contributed to the current harmonization strategy.

The early initiatives of higher education co-operation or policy harmonization both in Europe and Africa aimed simply to facilitate the mobility of students and comparability of studies. They were not intended to create a common degree structure and cycle, lifelong learning, employability, develop student-cantered learning outcomes, and create a regional higher education research area. The EU and AU were not even directly involved in most of the earlier initiatives. The spillover effect of other regional policy initiatives with the gradual transformation of Europe into the European Union and the Organization of African Unity into the African Union brought issues of higher education reform on to the regional agenda. Since the 1980s the role of higher education has thus expanded in the developed world into a process of transformation from an industrial to a knowledge society (Hoosen et al., 2009). This has basically changed the overall philosophy relating to higher education; the latter has increasingly been infused with additional elements focusing on economic competitiveness, the relevance of studies, and employability of graduates. It was this that brought about the involvement of the EU and AU through their respective commissions.

The Lisbon Agenda, for example, is an EU initiative along the lines of the Bologna process that aimed to improve the competitiveness of Europe in terms of innovation and the knowledge economy (Benelux Bologna Secretariat, 2010). The AU has also stressed the relevance of higher education institutions in the knowledge-based economy for furthering development in its initiative entitled the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). The NEPAD document provides an action agenda for higher education focusing on funding, governance and management, quality assurance, and public-private partnerships (NEPAD, 2001). As stated in paragraph 28 of the NEPAD document, the main idea behind it was to be competitive in the expanding global knowledge economy: "while globalization has increased the cost of Africa's ability to compete, we hold that the advantages of an effectively managed integration present the best prospects for future economic prosperity and poverty reduction" (NEPAD, 2001, p. 4). Thus, the current initiatives of both the Bologna process and the African Union higher education harmonization strategy go beyond promoting student mobility and comparability of qualifications to incorporating issues of quality, competitiveness, and relevance of qualifications for the knowledge economy. Apart from the evolutionary nature of the harmonization process in both regions, the principles and objectives of both the Bologna process and African harmonization strategies are also formulated incrementally.

When it was declared in 1999, the Bologna process did not become a fully-fledged document in the sense of documenting the entire objectives of the process. It was meant to strengthen the competitiveness and attractiveness of the European Higher

Education Area (EHEA) and had the following basic objectives: (i) establishing easily readable and comparable degrees (two cycles – bachelor's and master's); (ii) establishing a system of credits (ECTS); (iii) promoting mobility of students and researchers; (iv) ensuring European co-operation in quality assurance; and (v) introducing a European dimension into higher education (Bologna Declaration, 1999). Since 1999, however, the objectives of the Bologna process have expanded every two and, later, every three years when communiqués have been issued by the ministerial meetings.

The Prague Communiqué (2001), for example, introduced the idea of lifelong learning as a Bologna process objective and also emphasized the role of students and higher education institutions as stakeholders in the process. The Berlin Communiqué (2003) incorporated the issue of quality assurance at institutional, national, and European level; the inclusion of doctoral level as a third cycle; the recognition of degrees and periods of studies (Diploma Supplement); a European framework of qualifications; and creation of synergies between the EHEA and the European Research Area (ERA) by forging closer links between education and research. Two years later, the Bergen Communiqué (2005) added new goals and acted to reinforce the social dimension; adopted standards and guidelines for quality assurance; committed to elaborating national frameworks of qualifications; and sought progress in the award and recognition of joint degrees and in creating opportunities for flexible learning paths in higher education. Since 2009 the Bologna document has not incorporated additional objectives but has emphasized the full implementation of the above objectives so as to achieve the EHEA by 2020 (London Communiqué, 2007).

After the endorsement of the African Union higher education harmonization strategy document by the third Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF III) in 2007, African higher education ministers also started meeting every two years to evaluate the progress of the harmonization process (AUC, 2007). But unlike the Bologna process which incorporates new objectives every two years by communiqué, the COMEDAF meetings basically pass recommendations and action lines that need to be observed by the African Union Commission (AUC). In the Mombasa, Kenya, Communiqué of 2009, for example, COMEDAF IV urges the AUC to expedite the implementation of African Quality Rating Mechanisms. The 2009 Communiqué also endorses the adoption of a database of all agencies and institutions working on education in Africa to speed up operationalization of an African Cluster of Education Development. In the Abuja, Nigeria, Communiqué of 2012, COMEDAF V discussed the implementation path of the harmonization strategy, including the pan-African University. Thus the core objectives of the African higher education harmonization strategy have not been expanded much since 2007 (AUC, 2007).

Here one should keep in mind that the term 'harmonization' has been used in different contexts sometimes to describe the same phenomena like policy integration. Apart from academic usage, harmonization has also been used in different policy

documents. For instance, the term was coined in the Sorbonne Declaration, which was declared in 1999 in order to establish the European Higher Education Area. The title of the declaration is "Joint Declaration on Harmonization of the Architecture of the European Higher Education System" (Sorbonne Declaration, 1999, p. 1). The current AU higher education harmonization process has also coined the term and stated it on its policy document "the African Union Higher Education Harmonization Strategy". In both cases, the term is used to indicate the coming together or convergence of higher education provisions in their respective regions. Here, convergence is being defined as an increase in the similarity of policy objectives and goals.

Still, there is no agreed upon definition of 'harmonization', it can only be understood through its process. In this regard, even though the AU uses the term 'harmonization' in the regionalization of higher education, the understanding of the concept also does not imply 'uniformity' or 'homogenization' of all systems in Africa; rather, it is coined to indicate the convergence of policy processes towards agreed upon standards at continental level. In other words, it indicates a high level of regional higher education co-operation which involves the integration of policies. The AU harmonization strategy is also a voluntary act of convergence of national education systems to find a common line of policy co-operation to strengthen the provisions of higher education service at the continental level. The reason behind for the adoption of the harmonization strategy is the belief that such an initiative would facilitate and promote co-operation in information exchange, harmonization of higher education policies and processes, and the achievement of comparable qualifications that facilitate professional mobility.

Even though member states are not legally forced to be part of the process, the context and the rationale for harmonization process itself is implicitly pushing them to be part of it. The seemingly voluntary subjugation of member states to integrate and harmonize their higher education systems emanates from the very belief that there are certain common and shared challenges and opportunities that member states have in common. The existence of regional organizations basically justifies the fact that even though African states still maintain the Westphalian notion[2] of statehood and sovereignty, the growing context of globalization and the convergence of international values motivate them to integrate into certain policy issues. The AU higher education harmonization strategy is developed with the same assumption that the AU is not intended to impose any higher education policies on member states but facilitate the convergence of their policy so as to promote greater co-operation and integration among them (Woldegiorgis, 2013).

In terms of general objectives, both the Bologna process and the African harmonization strategy are comparable, as both documents took as their main objectives the creation of a regional higher education area, mutual recognition of academic qualifications, promotion of student and staff mobility, provision of a framework for the development of effective quality assurance mechanisms, and transferability of credits. These general objectives, however, are stated more specifically, through various communiqués, in the Bologna process than in the African

higher education harmonization strategy. The African higher education harmonization strategic document, however, sets six principles as the ideological foundations for the whole process, namely: (i) harmonization should be an African-driven process; (ii) it should be a true, mutual partnership of all the key players; (iii) it should be enhanced with appropriate infrastructural support and funding; (iv) it should involve the mobilization of all stakeholders in governments, institutions, civil society, and the private sector; (v) it should not disrupt, but should enhance, national educational systems and programmes; and (vi) it should involve improvement of quality through appropriate funding and infrastructural provisions in each country (AUC, 2007). However, even though the African higher education harmonization strategy document clearly stipulates the principles of the process, there is no indication as to how these principles should be operationalized.

In the process of policy formulation in both regions, differences regarding the ownership of the initiatives can also be observed. The higher education harmonization initiatives of Europe are internally driven, as they are initiated, implemented, funded, expert-advised, and process-owned by Europeans themselves. The African higher education regionalization initiatives, on the other hand, are externally driven, as most of the reforms are initiated, funded, expert advised, and process-owned by external actors like the EU, UNESCO, the World Bank, and donor countries. Because of this excessive external dependence for funding and the lack of ownership of most of the programmes for such a considerable period since the era of African independence or the 1960s, education ministers and governments of Africa have not felt an equal commitment to regional higher education co-operation or any urgency in achieving it. For instance, the first regional harmonization initiative in Africa through the 1981 Arusha convention was initiated and funded by UNESCO without

Table 11.2. Policy goals of the Bologna process and the African union harmonization strategy

Political/Policy Goals	
Bologna Process in Europe	*AU higher Education Harmonization*
Recognition of qualifications.	Recognition of qualifications.
Mobility of students and researchers.	
Co-operation in quality assurance.	Promote intra-African mobility of students and academics.
Two/three-degree cycle.	Quality assurance mechanisms.
Credit transfer and accumulation systems (ECTS).	Ensure African higher education institutions become an increasingly dynamic force in the international higher education arena.
Creating European Higher Education Area.	Creating African higher education space.
Recognition of qualifications.	

adequate engagement of African higher education institutions; since then, less than 28 countries out of 54 African countries have ratified the convention, and it has never been implemented (UNESCO, 2011).

Among the reasons for the slow implementation of the Arusha convention has been lack of political commitment to putting the convention into force, excessive external dependence on foreign sources of funding, poor co-ordination among participating parties, and lack of sense of ownership of the programme, according to AU officials (AU, 2013). The challenges of achieving regional higher education harmonization in Africa also have a historical context. As most African universities inherited their academic structure from their European colonizers, their systems became segregated along colonial lines (Anglophone, Francophone, Lusophone), facilitating more south-north co-operation than south–south. The next section elaborates these issues further looking into the functional and organizational processes of higher education harmonization in both regions.

OPERATIONALIZATION OF THE AU STRATEGY AND THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

The practical measures are taken to put the political objectives, aims, and decisions into action are called the functional dimension of the policy process. Various strategies are used by both the Bologna process and the African harmonization process to achieve harmonization of higher education systems in their respective regions. The AUC harmonization process, for example, has put in place four major harmonization instruments to try to bring African higher education systems together. The main programmes being implemented to promote the harmonization strategy are: The Nyerere Mobility Programme; African Quality Rating Mechanism and Accreditation; pan-African University; and Tuning Africa (Woldetensae, 2009). In the same way, the Bologna process also has functional elements to put into effect its own aims and objectives. The main ones are, among others: the adoption of the Diploma Supplement; the ECTS; the European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA); and the Erasmus mobility programme (Tempus Office Armenia, 2010).

The functional elements embedded in the African higher education harmonization process are comparable with the Bologna process at the theoretical level. In implementation terms, however, the functional elements of the Bologna process are already in place in Europe, while they are only in the process of implementation in Africa.

The Mwalimu Nyerere mobility programme, for example, was initiated in 2007 by the AUC to facilitate mobility of African students among African universities in the areas of science and technology; the aim was to promote intra-African mobility of students and retention of high-level African human resources. The programme provides scholarship grants conditional upon beneficiaries working in any African country for at least two years after graduation (Woldetensae, 2013).

Table 11.3. The fictional processes of the African union harmonization strategy

Objectives of AU Harmonization Strategy	*Functional Process Associated to the Objectives*
Mobility.	Mwalimu Nyerere programme.
Harmonization of Degrees and Curriculum.	Tuning Africa.
Promotion of African Higher Education through Centres of Excellence.	The Pan-African University Network.
Quality Assurance Framework.	AQRM and AfriQAN.

The programme was launched in 2011 and intended to provide scholarships for 250 postgraduate students for a four-year period. The Nyerere mobility programme is partially comparable to the European student Erasmus mobility programme, the EU's education and training programme which focuses mainly on student and staff mobility, in that it is a functional process designed to promote student mobility. The main objective of this functional element is to encourage European students to spend at least six months in other European higher education institutions apart from their home country, thereby having an enriched study experience and exposure to different cultures. An estimated three million students have participated in the programme which began in 1987 (Schuetze, 2012).

Student mobility is, however, a function of various variables, mainly of visa procedures, border security, and viable credit transfer systems, among others. In this regard, the Erasmus programme has utilized the structural benefits of the EU which, through the Maastricht Treaty, has already harmonized visa procedures to facilitate the free movement of European citizens across member countries. Thus, student cross-border mobility is much easier than in Africa where regional integration has not yet reached that level. Moreover, the Erasmus programme is financially stable, receiving an annual budget of €489 million from member countries (Schuetze, 2012). In this sense, the programme is internally driven, as most members show their consent by funding the project. The Nyerere mobility programme, on the other hand, is externally driven, as the project is mainly funded by the EU commission and is thus not financially sustainable from internal sources.

The other functional element entrenched in the harmonization of higher education systems in both regions relates to quality assurance and accreditation mechanisms. The basic principles and objectives of these functional elements in both regions are comparable, as they were established to improve higher education provision in the region. Both regions advocate a bottom-up quality assurance approach where higher education institutions are encouraged to develop their own quality assurance system based on regionally agreed standards that are then co-ordinated at national and regional level. The African Quality Rating Mechanism and Accreditation (AQRM) system, for example, was introduced to facilitate self-evaluation by institutions and programmes.

It is designed to allow institutions to benchmark progress in quality development in higher education provision and research, thereby helping them achieves international standards that make them competitive in the global knowledge market (Woldetensae, 2009). Institutional quality standards focus on issues of governance and management, infrastructure, finances, research, publication, innovation, and societal engagement. Programme-level standards, on the other hand, focus on programme planning and management, curriculum development, and teaching and learning. In the same way, the Bologna process also adopted quality assurance mechanisms as a functional element of the higher-education harmonization processes.

This functional element was launched when the European Ministers of Education adopted the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG) in 2005 (ENQA, 2009). What makes the European quality assurance initiatives unique, however, is that they incorporate specific mechanisms of qualification recognition called qualifications frameworks. The European Qualifications Framework (EQF) is intended to describe qualification profiles in terms of level, workload, and learning outcomes; in so doing it aims to make higher education systems more transparent, give them common reference points, and strengthen the links between qualifications and learning outcomes (ENQA, 2009). In the Bergen Communiqué (2005), ministers also adopted the overarching qualifications framework for the EHEA and committed to making their qualifications framework compatible with the overarching framework for qualifications in the EHEA by 2012. "We aim at having them (National Qualification Frame Works) implemented and prepared for self-certification against the overarching Qualifications Framework for the EHEA by 2012" (Louvain Communiqué, 2009, para. 2).

It should be remembered, however, that although both the Bologna process and the African higher education harmonization process established mechanisms of quality assurance process in their respective regions, the context in each is quite different. Basically, the European higher education quality assurance mechanism was established in the context of member countries already having set up some sort of national quality assurance structure. Thus, regional quality assurance system works essentially through co-ordinating national initiatives. The African regional quality assurance initiative, on the other hand, was started in a context where only a few member countries had actually established national level quality assurance structures. Most higher education structures in Africa do not have quality assurance systems, which makes setting up a continent-wide initiative challenging. Moreover, education systems in most African countries suffer from flaws that are completely inconsistent with quality. Recently, however, more African countries are establishing quality assurance institutions, even though the number is still insignificant; currently, 21 countries have national quality assurance mechanisms (Shabani, 2013) Most of them, however, are not yet operational because of lack of adequate funding, expertise, and institutional autonomy to act. Establishing a regional quality assurance mechanism without a pre-existing functional national quality assurance instrument is an inadequate approach.

ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACHES OF THE AU STRATEGY AND THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

There are various actors and organizational settings that interact at different levels to give the process of higher education harmonization initiatives an institutional character. The major actors of the Bologna process are: (i) ministers of education, responsible for political decisions like the Bologna Declaration; (ii) the Council of Europe, which provides support for other actors; (iii) the European University Association (EUA), which represents Europe's universities in the Bologna Process; (iv) the European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE), which engages in applied and profession-related research within the Bologna cycles; (v) the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA); (vi) the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and; (vii) Business Europe (Benelux Bologna Secretariat, 2010). On the same level, the major actors in the African higher education harmonization process are: (i) the Council of Ministers of the AU which is mandated to make political decisions; (ii) the AUC, which provides strategic directions for the process and co-ordinates the whole organizational settings; (iii) the AAU, which is in charge of facilitating the implementation processes of the programme; (iv) the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa (UNESCO/BREDA), which plays an advisory role for the effective organizational setting and implementation process; (v) the Association for the Development of Education in Africa Working Group on Higher Education, which provides support for the technical team; and (vi) the Regional Economic Communities (RECs).

Identifying actors and exploring their roles is vital in the organizational analysis because their pattern of participation, the level of co-ordination, decision-making processes, and degree of autonomy has implications for the success of policy execution. When the organizational structure of the Bologna process and the African higher education harmonization strategy are compared there are similarities found in actor composition. But when the various roles they play and their level of co-ordination and autonomy are compared there are strong differences. For instance, both the Bologna process and the African higher education harmonization strategy incorporate university associations as stakeholders. However, the role these play is quite different in each process. EURASHE, for example, plays a consultative role representing universities in the Bologna Follow-Up Group to ensure that the concerns of Europe's universities are understood and taken into account in the development of the process. The Association of African Universities, on the other hand, is mandated to co-ordinate the implementation process of the African harmonization strategy in addition to representing member universities in the process (AUC, 2007).

The context of university association in itself is quite different, as there are diverse sub-regional university associations across Africa in addition to the continent-wide one. These sub-regional university associations include the Southern African Regional University Association (SARUA), the Inter-University Council of East

Africa (IUCEA), the African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES), the Organization of the Francophone Universities (AUF), and the Association of Arab Universities (AARU). This fragmentation of university associations mainly leads to a multiplicity of membership, duplication of roles, and overstretched resource bases in Africa. As these sub-regional university associations are not structurally linked, there is also no formal co-ordination mechanism among them that can be used to further the harmonization process.

Though various actors are considered stakeholders in the regional higher education harmonization processes, accomplishing integrated policy process may not be easy unless there is a sound co-ordination mechanism. As argued by neo-functionalism, the policy integration efforts of one actor should have a co-ordinated spillover effect on other policy integration efforts if regional integration as a whole is to be successful (Haas, 2004). This implies the importance of close co-ordination among various actors if policy harmonization is to be achieved. Co-ordination in the Bologna process is accomplished by a support structure called the Bologna Follow-Up Group (BFUG). The BFUG is composed of all actors mandated to oversee the implementation of decisions of the ministerial meetings and meets every six months (Benelux Bologna Secretariat, 2010). As all stakeholders are represented in the BFUG, the chance of a country deciding to pursue a discrete process is minimal. The fact that the BFUG meets regularly (every six months) also gives actors a chance to check and balance their respective roles in the policy implementation process. As the BFUG is co-chaired by the country holding the EU Presidency and rotates every six months, it would not be possible to centralize authority across just a few actors.

There is no formal support structure like BFUG in the African higher education harmonization strategy. The Council of African Ministers of Education gave the mandate of leading the harmonization process in the continent to the AUC. The AUC delegated the implementation processes to the Association of African Universities (AAU), but to date, there is no formal support structure that co-ordinates the actors on a regular basis. Moreover, actor composition in the case of the AUC is not comprehensive enough in the sense of incorporating major stakeholders like students and business communities. The European Students' Union (ESU), for example, is a member of the BFUG, but no student association is a stakeholder in the African harmonization strategy. The same goes for the business community which is a member of BFUG through Business Europe (Benelux Bologna Secretariat, 2010). Thus, in terms of actor composition, the Bologna process is more comprehensive than the African higher education harmonization process. More relevant stakeholders need to be brought on board for the effective implementation of the African harmonization strategy. Even though the participation of different actors as stakeholders in the process is important, the process may fail to achieve its intended objectives unless there is proper co-ordination.

African universities feel pressure to align themselves with the Bologna reforms so as not to isolate themselves from their co-operation partners. Thus, the introduction of the Bologna process in Europe in 1999 initiated various fragmented bilateral and

multilateral higher-education reforms along the same lines across Africa, even before the introduction of harmonization process in 2007. For instance, Portuguese-speaking African countries, namely, Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, and São Tomé and Príncipe, adopted the Bologna process to create a Lusophone Higher Education Area through the Fortaleza Declaration (Declaração-de-Fortaleza, 2004) in 2002, before the AU harmonization strategy was endorsed. Some francophone African countries also adopted the Bologna degree structure: licence (three years), master's (two years), doctorate (three years) (LMD) system in 2005 (Knight, 2013) through the Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur (CAMES) before the AU harmonization strategy. The members of Southern African Development Community (SADC), in collaboration with the Southern Africa Regional University Association (SARUA) and the South African Qualifications Association (SAQA), have been in the process of harmonizing their higher education systems along the principles of the Bologna since 2001 (Knight, 2013). On the same level, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) also established its Education Sector strategy in 2003 to facilitate harmonization of academic programmes and recognition of qualifications before the continent-wide initiative (Hoosen et al., 2009). The Inter University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) also put in place a system of co-operation among universities in the region, thus facilitating academic mobility and recognition of qualifications prior to the AU harmonization strategy (IUCEA, 2012).

These isolated reform attempts on the part of sub-regions along the lines of the Bologna process contributed to duplication and fragmentation of harmonization efforts. Thus, the major organizational challenge of the AU harmonization strategy since its inception has been how best to co-ordinate all these fragmented initiatives across the region. The AUC considers sub-regional economic communities as important stakeholders in bringing all these initiatives together. One of the strategies adopted by AUC is the benchmarking of various processes to create the standards to be followed by sub-regional organization and allow the best practices to be capitalized upon.

COMPARATIVE IMPLICATIONS

The adoption of the Bologna process became the most advanced regional higher education initiative ever tried in terms of policy harmonization. This regional initiative, however, has also inspired other regions, including Africa to follow the same or similar patterns of higher education harmonization processes. Among others, the impact of globalization and internationalization of higher education has changed the context of higher education policies from a mere national to more of an international process. The concerns of regulations of student mobility, employability of graduates, transferability of credits, comparability of qualifications, issues of quality and relevance are no more the exclusive policy domain of a single state rather commonly shared among various countries. The fact that these challenges

are cross-cutting and common across countries of a particular region necessitates countries to look for a regional remedy in order to cope up with such international phenomenon. In this regard, the Bologna process is one step ahead and can be taken as an example for other initiatives that have come subsequently in other regions.

On the other hand, acknowledging the growing interest among other regions, the European Commission has also been promoting the Bologna process in Asia, Latin America, and Africa through providing both financial and technical support to these regions. In the Berlin Communiqué, in particular, European Ministers of education welcomed "the interest shown by other regions of the world in the development of the European higher education area" and encouraged "co-operation with regions in other parts of the world by opening Bologna seminars and conferences to representatives of these regions" (Berlin Communiqué, 2003, p. 5). The European Commission then institutionalized the above interest through what is called the 'external dimension' of the Bologna process with the objective of not only exporting the Bologna model to other parts of the world but also making the European higher education area more attractive to other regions. Accordingly, European Ministers of Education decided to adopt a strategy to provide both technical and financial support to other regions that are in the process of adopting the Bologna process in 2007 (Ruffio, Heinamaki, & Tchoukaline, 2010). After two years, in 2009, the first Bologna Policy Forum was held to promote closer co-operation among higher education institutions beyond the signatories the Bologna process. This meeting provided a consultative forum for Higher Education Ministers of non-European countries to discuss the possibility of extending the Bologna experience to their regions. Out of 15 countries, only a few African countries from Northern Africa (Egypt, Morocco, and Tunisia) participated at the meeting which was held on April 29, 2009.

Here, one should keep in mind that, the Bologna process has not only influenced developing countries from Africa but also developed nations from around the world. Countries like Australia, USA, and New Zealand have traditionally been destinations for international students as a result of which they have been generating huge revenue (Zgaga, 2006). The introduction of the Bologna process in Europe has however become a threat to these countries as it may cause a shift in the flow of fee-paying international students to Europe. This is because the 3+2 degree structure of the Bologna process makes study presumably less costly and time saving for international students to acquire a Bachelor's degree in most European higher education institutions unlike other countries adhering to a 4+1 system such as New Zealand, USA, Australia and the United Kingdom. This might make them lose their favoured position as study destinations for international students in the future (Vögtle, 2010). As a result, there have been various discussions within these countries about adopting the 3+2 degree structure so as to attract more international students, particularly from Asian countries.

The context of Africa in this regard is a bit different as it is related to the longstanding dependency of African institutions on European universities. As a result, even if internal dynamics within African higher education landscape played

a significant role in regional higher education reform initiatives, the introduction of the Bologna process led to the various fragmented sub-regional initiatives of higher education harmonization processes even before the introduction of the 2007 AU harmonization strategy. Most African higher education institutions have firm relationships with European universities on which the Bologna Process have a direct effect. Thus, without coping with the European higher education reform, African higher education institutions might face isolation and difficulties in finding higher education institutions with which they can co-operate and exchange students. African higher education institutions, therefore, felt the pressure to align with the Bologna reform in order avoid isolation from their historical partners (Woldegiorgis, Jonck, & Goujon, 2015).

Advancing its cause, the European Union Commission (EUC) has also been supporting the AU harmonization initiatives through funding and consulting the various projects under the external dimension of the Bologna process (Ruffio, Heinamaki, & Tchoukaline, 2010). The EU has excessively involved in the AU higher education harmonization process from the very outset initiating, funding, expert-advising, and in some cases process-owning the various functional elements of the harmonization initiatives. The AU harmonization document stated that the process is owned by AU but indicated also that it has many things in common with the Bologna initiatives. Despite the AUC's claim, however, it is hardly possible to state that the AU harmonization process is purely an African process since the various functional processes are initiated, implemented, funded, expert-advised and process-owned by European actors. The Mwalimu Nyerere programme that promotes student and academic mobility; Tuning Africa, which works towards harmonization of curriculum; the pan-African University Network, that established joint degree programmes; and the African quality assurance and rating mechanisms which are intended to setup common understanding on quality and recognition of academic qualifications are largely funded by the EU commission, the World Bank, and Donor countries mainly from Europe (Woldegiorgis, Jonck, & Goujon, 2015).

Taking European models as references for regional integration has been a common phenomenon in Africa since the transformation of OAU to AU which is also modelled after the EU. Because of its long history of integration, successive enlargements, and expansion of its scope, the experience of the EU integration often becomes a recurrent point of reference viewed as the epitome of regional integration and is often considered as a model to be followed by other regional groupings. The challenge is however, even though learning from the experiences of the Bologna process is rationally sound, implementing European models of harmonization without considering the specific contexts of Africa may make the AU a champion of bad practices and wrong implementation. Accommodating contexts have always been a concern in the process of adopting regional policy models from Europe. Even though the Bologna process could provide many lessons worth noting in the course of higher education policy integrations, the difference in the context of the two regions makes the success of policy travels a challenge.

The Bologna Process, from the very outset, has been created and implemented within the context of Europe which has the history of relative success in regional integration, unlike the AU. Moreover, prior to higher education integration, members of the EU managed to create a well-structured common economic area, harmonized immigration and security policies. Through the 1993 Maastricht Treaty, EU members even further redesigned their integration schemes to enhance European political and economic integration by creating a single currency, a unified foreign and security policy, common citizenship rights and by advancing co-operation in the area of immigration, asylum and judicial affairs (Charlier & Croché, 2009). All these settings make harmonization of higher education facilitating the movement of students and staff, institutional collaboration and system integrations across Europe easy and flexible. Apart from that, even though the bologna process gave formal recognition and created a framework of mobility of student and academics, qualification framework and quality assurance systems, most European universities had the culture of academic mobility and higher education co-operation even before the adoption of the Bologna Process. Thus, the European higher education harmonization process has evolved through time within the above socio-economic and political contexts in the region.

The above structural context which abundantly favour harmonization of higher education systems in Europe does not, however, exist in the context of Africa. Previous policy harmonization and regional integration initiatives have also been facing various challenges of institutional inefficiency, inadequate funding, lack of political commitment and weak co-ordination among different actors. As higher education reforms are context-specific, the question arises as to how the policy of harmonization of higher education systems in Africa can be implemented in a way that fosters greater regional integration, taking into consideration the context of African higher education systems. The current AU harmonization strategy is still in its infancy—the political, functional, and organizational processes are less co-ordinated in Africa than in Europe. After the endorsement of the African Union higher education harmonization strategy document by the third Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF III) in 2007 however, African higher education ministers also started meeting every two years to evaluate the progress of the harmonization process and enrich the objectives of the AU higher education harmonization strategy. But still, even though the African Union higher education harmonization strategy document clearly stipulates the principles of the process, there is no indication as to how these principles should be operationalized. The functional elements embedded in the African higher education harmonization process are also comparable with the Bologna process at the theoretical level. In implementation terms, however, the functional elements of the Bologna process are already in place in Europe, while they are only at pilot levels in Africa. Slow implementation in Africa is attributed to factors like poor top-down communication of the policy, excessive dependency on external funding, poor political commitment, fragmentation and duplication of processes, and the less participatory nature of the policy in terms of bringing all stakeholders on board.

CONCLUSION

As globalization brings common challenges and opportunities for nations of different contexts, interdependence in policy processes become a common phenomenon. Globalization has also boosted the mobility of goods, services, and people and the intensive use of information and communication technologies to bridge time and space in unprecedented ways. Globalization has thus also shaped the landscape of higher education reform issues. The increasing mobility of ideas and academic staff that has come with globalization provides wide possibilities for collaboration and global dissemination of knowledge in higher education, as well as issues of quality, relevance, recognition of qualifications and comparability of degrees, all of which have become policy concerns among nations. To address common challenges, various regional policy harmonization efforts have been initiated at the regional level in the field of higher education. The Bologna process at the level of the EU and the AU higher education harmonization strategy are among the most prominent initiatives in this regard. This paper looked at the policy documents of the two processes to discover the commonalities and differences between the processes, using the functional, organizational and political approaches provided by Knight (2013). Even though both the AU harmonization strategy and the EU Bologna process are evolutionary processes that have many common elements in terms of structures, actors, and organizations, the contexts are different. Though both policies are at different levels of implementation—the African Union higher education harmonization strategy is still in its infancy—the political, functional, and organizational processes are less co-ordinated in Africa than in Europe. In Africa, different implementation schemes are still ongoing to achieve the very objective of the strategy. Slow implementation in Africa is attributed to factors like poor top-down communication of the policy, excessive dependency on external funding, poor political commitment, fragmentation and duplication of processes, and the less participatory nature of the policy in terms of bringing all stakeholders on board.

NOTES

[1] Parts of this paper have been adapted from Woldegiorgis, E. T., Jonck, P., & Goujon, A. (2015). Regional higher education reform initiatives in Africa: A comparative analysis with Bologna process. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(1), 241. And Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2017). The African union higher education harmonization stratagy and context from the Bologna process. In A. Goujon, M. Haller, & B. M. Kmet (Eds.), *Higher education in Africa: Challenges for development, mobility and cooperation* (pp. 63–82). Cambridge : Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

[2] Westphalian sovereignty is the understanding that all nation states have sovereignty over their territorial boundaries, without the intervention of external actors in domestic policy processes. It is the political order based on the narrow sense of the political theory of Jean Bodin and the natural law theory of Hugo Grotius which was developed after the treaty of Westphalia was signed in 1648 (Camilleri & Falk, 1992).

REFERENCES

AU. (2013). *Personal Interview with AU officials on the issue of higher education harmonization strategy in Africa*. Conducted at the office of the AUC Education Desk, Addis Ababa.

AUC. (2007). *Harmonization of higher education in Africa: A strategy for the African Union, COMEDAF, Bureau of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union.* Addis Ababa: African Union.

Benelux Bologna Secretariat. (2010). *Towards the European higher education area: Bologna process*.

Berlin Communiqué. (2003). *Realising the European higher education area communiqué of the conference of ministers responsible for higher education.* Berlin: Berlin Communiqué.

Bologna Declaration. (1999). *The Bologna declaration on the European space for higher education: An explanation.* Bologna: Confederation of EU Rectors'.

Charlier, J. É., & Croché, S. (2009). *Can the Bologna process make the move faster towards the development of an international space for higher education where Africa would find its place? JHEA/ RESA, 7*(1), 39–59.

Declaração-de-Fortaleza. (2004). *Declaração dos ministros responsáveis pelo ensino superior da comunidade dos países de língua portuguesa.* Fortaleza.

ENQA. (2009). *Standards and guidelines for quality assurance in the European higher education area* (3rd ed.). Helsinki, Finland: European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. Retrieved from http://www.enqa.eu/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/ESG_3edition-2.pdf

European Treaty Series – No.21. (1956). *European convention on the equivalence of periods of university study* (151956 ed.). Paris.

Haas, E. B. (2004). *The uniting of Europe: Political, social, and economic forces, 1950–1957 (Contemporary European Politics and Society).* University of Notre Dame Press, Notre Dame.

Hoosen, S., Butcher, N., Khamati, B., & Njenga. (2009). Harmonization of higher education programmes: A strategy for the African union. *African Integration Review, 3*(1).

IUCEA (2012). *Introduction.* The Inter University Council for East Africa (IUCEA). Retrieved from http://www.iucea.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1&Itemid=294

Knight, J. (2012). *A conceptual framework for the regionalization of higher education: Application to Asia.* East-West Center Collaboration Expertise Leadership. Retrieved from http://www.eastwestcenter.org/education/international-forum-education-2020/education-leadership-institute/2012-institute

Knight, J. (2013). A model for the regionalization of higher education:The role and contribution of tuning. *Tuning Journal for Higher Education,* (1), 105–125.

London Communiqué. (2007). *Towards the European higher education area: Responding to challenges in a globalised world.*

Louvain Communiqué. (2009). *The Bologna process 2020 – The European higher education area in the new decade communiqué of the conference of European ministers responsible for higher education.* Louvain-la-Neuve.

NEPAD. (2001). *The new partnership for africaís development (NEPAD).* Retrieved from http://www.unep.org/roa/Docs/pdf/nepad/Action_Plan_for_the_Environment_Initiative.pdf

Oyewole, O. (2007). *Recognition in Africa: Taking Arusha forward.* Addis Ababa: African Union Commission.

Ruffio, P., Heinamaki, P., & Tchoukaline, C. C. (2010). *State of play of the Bologna process in the tempus countries of the Southern Mediterranean (2009/2010). A tempus study* (03). Bruxelles: Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, European Commission. Retrieved from EU Bookshop.

Schuetze, C. F. (2012, July 29). *The New York times: Europe: Erasmus exchange programme celebrates 25th Year*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2012/07/30/world/europe/30iht-educside30.html?_r=0

Shabani, J. (2013). Quality regimes in Africa: The reality and the aspirations. *Chronicle of African Higher Education*.

Singh, M., & Manuh, T. (2007). The contribution of higher education to national education system: Current challenges in Africa. *AAU Newsletter*, *13*(2).

Sorbonne Declaration. (1998). *Joint declaration on harmonization of the architecture of the European higher education system: by the four Ministers in charge for France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom, Paris, the Sorbonne.* Sorbonne.

Tempus Office Armenia. (2010, September 10). *Bologna process towards the European higher education area.* Yerevan: Tempus. Retrieved from http://www.tempus.am/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1170&Itemid=583

UNESCO. (2011). *Arusha convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other qualifications in higher education in African states* (SYNTHESIS REPORT ed.). Paris: UNESCO.

Vögtle, E. M. (2010). Beyond Bologna: The Bologna process as a global template for higher education reform efforts. *TranState Working Papers*, *129.*

Wallace, W. (1999). The sharing of sovereignty: The European paradox. *Political Studies*, *47*(3), 503–521.

Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2013). Conceptualizing harmonization of higher education systems: The application of regional integration theorieson higher education studies. *Higher Education Studies, 3*(2), 12–23. doi:10.5539/hes.v3n2p12

Woldegiorgis, E. T., Jonck, P., & Goujon, A. (2015). Regional higher education reform initiatives in Africa: A comparative analysis with Bologna process. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(1), 241.

Woldetensae, Y. (2009). *Regional harmonization of higher education for Africa: Background document*. Accra, Ghana: Association of African Universities.

Zgaga, P. (2007). *Higher education in transition: Reconsiderations on higher education in Europe at the turn of the millennium*. Office for the Faculty Board for Teacher Education, Umeå university, Sweden.

Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis
Bayreuth International Graduate School of African Studies (BIGSAS)
Universität Bayreuth, Germany

EMNET TADESSE WOLDEGIORGIS AND JANE KNIGHT

12. ACHIEVING AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION REGIONALIZATION

Realities, Challenges, and Prospects

INTRODUCTION

Even though regionalization of higher education in Africa has been underway for several years and was given a boost with the development of the African Union Strategy for the Harmonization of Higher Education Programmes (AU-HEP) in 2007, the process has been slow and faced many challenges. A key objective of higher education regionalization is to create common regional policy frameworks that facilitate mutual recognition of academic qualifications, promote student and staff mobility, ensure effective quality assurance mechanisms, create a system for the transferability of credits, and ensure the competitiveness of African regional higher education in the global knowledge system. In short, regionalization of higher education aims to improve the quality of higher education and its contribution to Africa's development.

As discussed in the previous chapters, there have been various initiatives established to help realize these objectives of regionalization in Africa. Among them are included, various intergovernmental conferences and pan-Africa education declarations made in the last two decades, the 2007 AU strategy for the harmonization of higher education programmes, the 2014 updated African Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications, the Mwalimu Nyerere programme that promotes student and academic mobility, the Tuning Africa project which works towards harmonization of curriculum and student competencies, the pan-African University Network, the African quality assurance and rating mechanism, the various higher education partnership schemes and centres of excellence, and the different regionalization initiatives by sub-regional economic communities.

Despite all these efforts, the progress seen on the ground in terms of higher education regionalization processes has been limited. The various components of regionalization policy initiatives have either not been implemented or their impacts have not been felt yet. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to explore the realities, challenges, and prospects for future growth and success of the regionalization of higher education in Africa.

J. Knight & E. T. Woldegiorgis (Eds.), Regionalization of African Higher Education, 209–220.

CONTEXTUAL ISSUES AND REALITIES

Historical Context

The regionalization of higher education always operates within historical, political, cultural, and economic contexts that influence the goals, strategies, and results of the process. In this sense, higher education regionalization in Africa has been situated within certain historical contexts shaping the process in different ways and over a long period of time (Woldegiorgis, 2017). Broadly speaking, it is important to underline the fact that modern higher education systems in Africa are outcomes of European interventions during colonial times. As a result, the higher education systems, curriculum, degree structure, medium of instruction and organizational settings of institutions are not only shaped by European models, but the systems also remained segregated for a long time along colonial lines with little integration among Anglophone, Francophone, and Lusophone based systems.

As elaborated in Chapter 2, the general process of regionalization in Africa has passed through important landmarks over the past several decades. The whole process cannot be seen as an independent chain of events or activities but rather a gradual transformation of interconnected and dynamic developments. It is important to note that all regionalization processes are framed in the context of the pan-African movement, the establishment of the Organization of Africa Unity (OAU), the various intergovernmental conferences organized by UNESCO, the restructuring of OAU into AU, the emergence of sub-regional economic communities and the subsequent regional and sub-regional higher education policies.

Regionalization of higher education in Africa must also be framed in relation to internationalization and Africanization of higher education. Internationalization of higher education consists of both campus-based activities such integrating international, intercultural and global dimensions into teaching and learning processes and curriculum, as well cross-border collaboration and partnerships between higher education institutions and systems at home and abroad (Knight, 2012). This is manifested through student and staff mobility, research collaborations, joint and double degree programmes, and theme based bilateral and multilateral networks. In Africa, there is traditionally more international collaboration with partners in other regions of the world than with other countries located in Africa. This is partly due to the fact that modern higher education systems in Africa are predominantly products of colonial interventions and international collaborations and have traditionally been with European-based partners thereby facilitating more North-South co-operation than South–South.

Africanization is another complex process providing a different kind of context and influence. As discussed in Chapter 3, Africanization can be construed to mean the process of becoming or making something African or having African features. This is more of an inward looking perception of Africanization and in the more globalized world, there can be negative consequences of such an orientation. The reality is that Africanization needs to be understood in the broader context of the

world where both the local and the global context are acknowledged and integrated. In other words, Africanization is more than liberating African institutions from their European mindset in terms of curricula and programmes, and making them more relevant to Africa. It involves incorporating, adapting and integrating other cultures both into and through the African vision (Makoba, 1977).

Regionalization of higher education in Africa attempts to bring both concepts of internationalization and Africanization of higher education together in a sense of maintaining both the international and African dimensions of higher education are of critical importance. Regionalization of higher education advocates the development and application of regional policy frameworks and collaborative programmes that bring together various national higher education systems and institutions.

In the last fifteen years, the role of regional collaboration to enable African higher education to meet the challenges of improving access, funding, quality, relevance, research and academics' qualification has been emphasized both at international and regional fora. But still, the process has been slow. There have been numerous planning and policy initiatives but limited operationalization and impact of them.

CHALLENGES AND PROGRESS

This section identifies and discusses some of the new and on-going challenges facing the implementation and sustainability of higher education regionalization in Africa. The challenges are many and diverse and occur at multiple levels including at the regional pan-Africa, sub-regional, national, and institutional levels.

Multiple Actors

Chapter 1 discusses the three approaches of the FOPA model and emphasizes the critical importance of the organizational architecture to promote, strengthen and sustain the higher education regionalization process. Table 12.1 gives examples of the numerous organizations and institutions involved in African higher education regionalization. While it is important to have this wide diversity of actors supporting regionalization, even more, important is that they co-operate and collaborate to move the agenda forward in a timely and effective manner. But reality vividly demonstrates that actors often have different goals and priorities as well as expected results. Having a multitude of actors can support regionalization when they share a common vision and complementary outcomes. However, the level of political power and influence of actors can be quite diverse and not always lead to collaborative strategies and mutual benefits. Even though it is essential to engage different actors in regionalization processes, one should not underestimate the challenges if actors are not working to common ends.

Thus, while it is commendable that the regionalization of higher education in Africa has managed to attract and bring together many actors they do not appear to be

Table 12.1. The organizational approach to regionalization – FOPA

Examples of key pan-African and sub-regional actors involved in African Higher Education Regionalization Processes
African Union (AU).
Conference of Ministers of Education of African Union (COMEDAF).
Association for Development of Education in Africa (ADEA).
Association of African Universities (AAU).
African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN).
The Conference of Rectors, Vice Chancellors and Presidents (CORVIP).
Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA).
Association for the Internationalization of Education (ANIE).
African Council for Distance Education (ACDE).
South Africa Regional University Association (SARUA).
Inter-University Council of East Africa (IUCEA).
Conseil Africaine et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Superior (CAMES).
The Association of Arab Universities (AARU).
African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF).
African Network of Scientific and Technological Institutions.
Consortium for Advanced Research Training in Africa (CARTA).
African Regional Bureau UNESCO.
African Development Bank ADB.

working collaboratively in terms of vision, mission, and commitment. Theoretically, key drivers for the alignment of higher education policy and regulatory frameworks should be African governments and their associated institutions through providing both financial and political support. But in practice, most regionalization processes have been extensively dependent on foreign donors, especially from Europe with limited contributions from African governments.

Donor Dependency

The funding of regionalization initiatives is key to the implementation of new policy frameworks and higher education co-operation programmes. Even though African based actors are involved there is mounting concern regarding the increasing dependency on external funding sources from foreign donors and actors. As discussed in Chapter 6 on academic mobility the funding for the Mwalimu Nyerere programme is largely dependent on the European Commission. This is also true for the funding of the Tuning Africa Project. The new Pan-Africa University (PAU) has received major financial support from the African Development Bank but relies on funding from bilateral donors such as Germany and Sweden to support the regionally based PAU network. This is a reality that cannot be ignored because there are insufficient funding sources in Africa to move the regionalization agenda forward and thus, regionalization would be in jeopardy without external donors (Woldegiorgis, 2017).

In addition to reliance on external donors for funding, there is growing evidence that Africa is increasingly dependent on Europe and the World Bank for policy advice. Chapter 11 clearly outlines the similarities and relationship between the main elements of the Bologna process and the priorities and primary activities of the AU-HEP. The question as to whether this is policy travel or policy export/import is highly relevant to the African context. Thus, even though the involvement of diverse set of actors is positive, the fact that the process is highly influenced by and dependent on international actors funding and expertise is an area which requires further monitoring and investigation.

Scope and Scale of Implementation

The functional approach in the FOPA model emphasizes the development and implementation of policy frameworks at the regional and sub-regional levels as well at collaborative programmes between higher education organizations and institutions across Africa. Table 12.2 provides examples from the multitude of regionalization initiatives discussed in the previous chapters, but the question remains as to whether these are paper based agreements and projects or whether they are being implemented in an effective and sustainable way.

The degree to which the regionalization initiatives have been implemented, monitored and quality assured raises important questions and serious concerns.

Table 12.2. The functional approach to regionalization – FOPA

Functional Approach	*Examples*
Policy Frameworks	African Regional Accreditation and Regional Qualification Frameworks. African Union Harmonization Strategy. NEPAD-E Africa Programme. African Quality Rating Mechanism. South African Qualifications Framework. East African Qualifications Framework.
Collaborative Programmes	Pan-Africa University. New Partnerships for Africa's Development (NEPAD). African Virtual University. African On-line Digital Library. Roster of African Professionals (AAU). Mwalimu Nyerere African Scholarship Scheme. Partnership for Higher Education in Africa (PHEA). Pan-Africa Institute of University Governance. Database of African Theses and Dissertations. AAU Staff Exchange Programmes. Tuning Africa Project.

Are they operational and if so, are they sustainable? The African Quality Rating Mechanism (AQRM) is one example. It was proposed by the AUC as a continental framework of quality rating in 2010 but there are less than 10 percent of African countries who are willing to take part in the process. Thus, out of about 350 universities in Africa only 32 institutions from 11 countries participated in the 2010 process. Out of the 32 responding institutions, nine were from Nigeria, six from South Africa and six from Kenya. There were two institutions each from Ghana, Zimbabwe and Tanzania, and one each from Egypt, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Mauritius, and Swaziland. Thus, it is important to ask whether this can be referred to as an operational pan-Africa regionalization initiative as it claims to be (Woldegiorgis, Jonck, & Goujon, 2015).

As discussed in Chapter 7, the 1981 Arusha Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications has been revised and a new version adopted in 2014 in Addis Ababa. But the question remains as to its implementation. As of December 2016, only 19 countries have signed the amended version and no country has given it legal status through the ratification process in their own national government (UNESCO, 2016). Thus there is some support for it by 16 out of 54 countries in Africa but no legal commitment to honour the requirements in the convention by any country. This lack of ratification by national governments to make it legally binding is similar to the state of the 1981 version of the convention. Thus it remains as an awareness raising tool with no legal teeth. Another sign new region-wide policy frameworks are difficult to implement.

The extent of political commitment can also be reflected through the allocation of funds for regional initiatives. As already discussed, several regionalization initiatives have ended up being dependent on foreign financial sources and the contribution of African governments has been limited. For example, the Mwalimu Nyerere programme which was established with the objective of promoting student and staff mobility across various higher education institutions in Africa, could not become fully functional because of lack of funding from member states. This programme is supposed to be the role model for other future mobility programmes in Africa, but the programme could not manage to get enough funding from the African governments. As a result, only 250 students have participated in the programme between 2008 and 2014. This number is insignificant compared to the large number of African students enrolled in higher education and the target set by the AU to promote intra-regional student mobility (Woldegiorgis, Jonck, & Goujon, 2015). Funded by the European Commission, this programme has now been broadened to include non-African countries and students resulting in a lost opportunity for a fully dedicated mobility programme focused on improving intra-regional student and staff mobility within Africa.

The Nyerere mobility programme, the pan-African University Network, the Tuning Africa project, the African Quality Rating Mechanism and AfriQAN network for quality assurance are all financially dependent on external donors. In principle, both regional and sub-regional organizations advocate that African regional projects should mainly be funded by African governments but the reality does not match this

assertion. In actuality most of the regionalization projects are donor dependent as recently stated by the Chairman of the AUC, her Excellency Nkosazana Dlamini-Zuma "…generally AU member states currently contribute only about 28 percent of the total *(project)* budget of the organization, and donors the remaining 72 percent …" (*emphasis added*) (Fabricius, 2015, p.na). Commenting that this situation allowed them to dictate the AU's activities. Thus, if higher education regionalization in Africa is largely donor dependent, it raises the issue of ownership of the whole process and the long-term commitment of African governments.

Role of International Governments in Policy Making

Among the things that make the African higher education regionalization process possible, but also somewhat vulnerable, is the fact that international actors played a significant role in terms of shaping the policy itself. The involvement of international actors like the EU, UNESCO, the World Bank and other individual countries has had a major role in terms of funding, policy advising, and managing African regionalization initiatives. They have shaped and funded several pan-African higher education regionalization processes over a significant period of time. As already noted the EU commission, for instance, has been heavily involved in the Tuning Africa project, the Nyerere mobility programme, and the African Quality Assurance initiatives. The World Bank and the African Development Bank have also had a central role in pushing the implementation processes through facilitating loans to Africa. The UNESCO, in collaboration with AU and AAU, have had a leading role in the revision and ratification process of the African convention on the recognition of qualifications.

Furthermore, regional actors like AU, AAU and sub-regional actors like RECs, sub-regional university associations, Quality Assurance Agencies and Ministries of education are also often financially and technically dependent on these international donors for their projects. This is a reality for moving the higher education reform and regionalization agenda forward in Africa. On one hand, it is to be lauded that there is this kind of international policy advice and financial support. On the other hand, serious questions as to local commitment and sustainability are going unanswered.

Consultation with Actors and Stakeholders

As discussed in Chapter 1, regionalization is optimal when it is both a top-down and bottom-up process. A political commitment from key pan-Africa organizations built on consultation and joint decision making with sub-regional and national governments is essential. Higher education institutions are significantly impacted by these decisions and also need to be consulted and brought on board if there is to be the successful implementation of many regional based reforms. The participatory nature of policy formulation and implementation is important to create not only a sense of ownership among stakeholders of the policy process but also to build a broad

coalition of support. The voices of university associations, Ministries of education, university leadership, faculty members and students are important contributors to policy development and effective implementation (Woldegiorgis, 2017). Even though it is not easy to engage all stakeholders in the process of region-wide policy initiatives, the lines of communication through which information and feedback flows need to be open and active to ensure put bottom-up and top-down consultation, engagement and eventual commitment. In this regard, most regionalization of higher education processes in Africa are characterized by their top-down approach where many actors at the operational level have not been adequately consulted.

Characteristics of the Regionalization Process

In Africa, and for the other regions of the world which are promoting greater regionalization of higher education, the process is slow and impacted by both supportive promotors and active critics of the process. This is to be expected. On the surface much can be done if there is a strong political and financial commitments by key players and stakeholders if they are consulted and engaged. But change is not easy or straight forward. It is a multifaceted and multi-layered process which likely involves several steps forward followed by some steps backward. This scenario prevails unless it becomes both a top-down and bottom-up approach with generous funding, committed supporters and the necessary skills, and knowledge in place.

There are many elements which characterize the regionalization process. These elements are situated on a sliding scale from information to formal, ad hoc to intentional, bottom-up to top-down, internal to external, incremental progression to quantum leap and reactive to strategic (Knight, 2013). If one was to apply these elements to the African situation there would be a wide diversity of opinions because challenges vary according to the needs and priorities of different actors and stakeholders. Priorities change, actors come and go, funding is difficult to access, co-operation and collaboration are processes fraught with trials and tribulations, political commitments waver, and the list of list of challenges grows longer.

Taking into account the diversity of actors, policy frameworks, new projects and programmes discussed in each of the book chapters, one can analyse the prevailing characteristics of the African higher education regionalization according to the elements already discussed. The regionalization process appears to be more formal, top-down and intentional than informal, bottom-up and ad hoc given the role and leadership that AU, other pan-African organizations and international bodies are playing. This is generally consistent with the decision and policy making for pan-Africa initiatives. As discussed, the apparent reliance on external international and bilateral actors is heavy both in terms of funding and expertise and increases the chances for potential success and also vulnerability.

Incremental progress definitely characterizes the regionalization process in the last decade. Overall the measured pace of implementation has failed to gather enough steam to collectively show a significant impact. Where the process is situated

on the spectrum from reactive to strategic is debatable. For individual initiatives, it clearly varies. But overall, one could locate the African regionalization process between pro-active and strategic points on the spectrum. Why? Because the number and diversity of initiatives that have been introduced at the pan-Africa and sub-regional levels are in fact growing, they align with the AU-HEP strategy, and address much needed higher education reform issues. The challenge is the implementation and sustainability of these issues. Many of the declarations and long term plans are intentional, strategic and welcomed but many of these same initiatives remain paper-based and stalled in political debate and wavering financial commitment when they start to be put into practice.

PROSPECTS

Critics (Woldegiorgis, 2017) of the slow pace of regionalization in Africa argue that the conventions, policy frameworks, pan-Africa programmes which are already in have not yet achieved their intended goals and question whether the whole process of regionalization has been more rhetoric than reality.

Yet, on the more optimistic side, and as discussed in both chapters three and nine, there are increased efforts to capitalize on the fact that knowledge holds a central position in the socio-economic development of nations. African centres of excellence, regional and continental networks and higher education institutions are striving to ensure that knowledge domains are effectively mobilized in the region, not only for addressing societal issues and economic success, but also to enhance the global competitiveness and collaboration of Africa with other regions in the world.

There is no doubt that compared to 15 years ago, there is more student and staff mobility, partnership and collaborative initiatives, joint research and curriculum harmonization, centres of excellences, integrated quality assurance processes and qualification frameworks. But is the cumulative impact "more than the sum of the parts"? This is not entirely evident and perhaps too soon to determine.

In terms of regional and sub-regional policy frameworks, Africa has come a long way. Despite the challenges, African institutions are now working more closely than before. The expansion of ICT has contributed positively to both internationalization and regionalization of higher education in Africa since it has facilitated the interconnectedness of African institutions not only among themselves but also with global knowledge nodes. African researchers and their institutions now have a wide variety of ways to increase access to information and publications. One of the positive signs for Africa has been the recent increase in scientific research and publications by African scientists. From 1996 to 2012, the number of academic papers published in scientific journals with at least one African author increased from about 12,500 to over 52,000. This almost doubled the share of the world's articles with African authors from 1.2 percent to around 2.3 percent (Schemm, 2013). This improvement in the past ten years does not however evenly represent the condition in the whole of Africa since research outputs are still skewed to a few countries. In the above

project, for instance, 80 percent of research outputs comes from three countries – Egypt, South Africa, and Nigeria.

One of the striking trends that can be witnessed in African regionalization is that sub-regional economic communities, such as EAC and SADC, are more efficient in initiating and implementing sub-regional higher education policy frameworks as compared to continental ones. Generally, member states are more committed and ready to share their sovereignty and resources with the sub-regional organizations than the continental one when it comes to regional policy initiatives. From the very outset, African countries opted for establishing sub-Regional Economic Communities (RECs) as an alternative to a continental one, as the role of OAU became doubtful in bringing socio-economic integration in the region. Thus, the low level of commitment from member states to finance AU projects can partly be attributed to their low level of confidence in AU itself and its ability to represent their interests. The AU seems a little too far from home for many African states to see the benefits of AU membership as they gauge the level of advantages offered by their own sub-regional economic communities. Thus, the option of strengthening pan-African regionalization by supporting sub- regional communities has been emphasized and has achieved a level of success in some of the sub-regions. But the challenge of developing an effective mechanism to link them to achieve greater continental wide higher education policy frameworks collaboration still faces major hurdles.

Knight (2013) has developed a mapping of regionalization terms and stages (see Chapter 1). Even though the mapping depicts a linear process the progress from one stage to another is seldom linear as it faces the high and low points of collaboration, co-ordination, alignment, convergence, and integration. It is interesting but challenging to speculate the stage of Africa's higher education regionalization efforts. As discussed, different regionalization initiatives have achieved varying degrees of implementation and impact and thus the challenge lies in trying to judge the overall process. It is critically important to take into account the objectives of the regionalization process in order to determine the desired and optimal stage of 'regionalness' for a region. Clearly, the desired and optimal stage differs among the major regions of the world. For instance, some regions believe that integration is not the ultimate goal as it can lead to standardization or homogenization of policies thus ignoring specific historical, cultural, economic, and social contexts of the many countries that make up a region. For Africa, the opinion would differ, but it appears that overall Africa higher education is currently between the co-operation and co-ordination/alignment stage (stage one and two), with greater convergence (stage three) and integration (stage 4) being the ultimate goal (see Chapter 1, Figure 1.1).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In order to understand the nuances and complexities of African higher education, one should keep in mind the importance of conceptualizing the historical contexts

through which regionalization has emerged. Current challenges and future prospects of regionalization of higher education are closely related to these historical contexts and the institutional dynamics of both regional and sub-regional organizations.

Even if internal dynamics within the African higher education landscape play a vital role in regionalization processes, most of the higher education regionalization initiatives are partly influenced and guided by global policy changes and international actors.

Overall, slow implementation of regionalization in Africa is attributed to factors like poor communication and commitment to policy changes, disproportionate dependency on external funding, wavering political commitment, fragmentation and duplication of processes, and the poor participatory nature of the policy in terms of engaging all stakeholders.

The lack of consistent and reliable data at the sub-regional level and also at the Pan-Africa level prevents a reliable monitoring of progress towards regionalization. Without robust and comparable data it is impossible to track trends, obtain an aggregate picture at the continental level, develop relevant and realistic policy frameworks and major programmes, and undertake long-term planning. The availability of regional data would be a major contributor to strengthening and expanding regionalization efforts.

The biggest challenge, however, has been bringing together the various fragmented regionalization initiatives of sub-regional units at continental level through winning their support. Even though there have been several continental initiatives of regionalization in Africa, the impact on the ground in terms of achieving their objectives has been limited because of the various implementation bottlenecks. There is a big discrepancy between the intended objectives and what have already been operationalized on the ground.

Doubt remains, but cautious optimism prevails, that higher education regionalization will reach its full potential of improving access and quality of education or mobilizing knowledge and innovation in light of the many challenges facing it. African higher education regionalization remains a long-term objective but is vulnerable to competing priorities and wavering political, financial and actors' commitments.

REFERENCES

Fabricius, P. (2015, February 12). *Is the AU starting to put its money where its mouth is?* (Addis Ababa). Retrieved from https://www.issafrica.org/ abgerufen

Knight, J. (2012). Concepts, rationales, and interpretative frameworks. In the internationalization of higher education. In D. Deardorff, H. De Wit, & J. Heyl (Eds.), *Handbook of international higher education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishers.

Knight, J. (2013). Towards African higher education regionalization and harmonization: Functional, organizational, and political approaches. In A. W. Wiseman & C. Wolhuter (Eds.), *The development of higher education in Africa: Prospects and challenges* (International Perspective on Education and Society Series). Bingley: Emerald Publishing.

Makgoba, M. (1997). *The Makgoba affair – A reflection on transformation*. Florida, FL: Vivlia.

Schemm, Y. (2013). Africa doubles research output over past decade, moves towards a knowledge-based economy. *Research Trends*, 11–14.

UNESCO. (2016). *Revised convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other academic qualifications in higher education in African states*. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.phpURL_ID=49282&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2017). *Regionalization of higher education in Africa: The operationalization of the African union higher education harmonization strategy.* Berlin: LIT Verlag.

Woldegiorgis, E. T., Jonck, P., & Goujon, A. (2015). Regional higher education reform initiatives in Africa: A comparative analysis with the Bologna process. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(1), 241–253.

Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis
Bayreuth International Graduate School of African Studies (BIGSAS)
Universität Bayreuth, Germany

Jane Knight
Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
University of Toronto, Canada

FURTHER READING

AAU. (2014, May). *Association of African Universities*. Retrieved from http://www.aau.org/

AAU. (2015). *Report of conference of rectors, vice-chancellors and presidents of African universities on internationalization of higher education in Africa.* Accra: AAU.

Accra Declaration. (2004). *Accra declaration on GATS and the inter-nationalization of higher education in Africa.* Accra: Association of African Universities.

ADEA. (2010). *Creating an African higher education and research area- concept note.* Accra, Ghana: Association for the Development of Education in Africa- Working Group on Higher Education.

ADEA. (2015). *Policy brief on "Harmonization of Higher Education in Africa or Why we need to Hang in There Together".* Accra, Ghana: Sushita Gokool-Ramdoo.

Adejo, A. M. (2001). From OAU to AU: New Wine in Old Bottles? *African Journal of International Affairs, 4*(1–2).

Adelman, C. (2009). *The Bologna Process for US Eyes: Re-learning Higher Education in the Age of Convergence.* Washington, DC: Institute for Higher Education Policy.

AERC. (2016). African Economic Research Consortium. http://aercafrica.org/index.php/layout?showall=&start=1.

AfDB. (2013). *AfDB Approves US$45 Million Grant for Creation of Pan-African University for Science, Technology and Innovation*. African Development Bank: http://www.afdb.org/en/news-and-events/article/afdb-approves-us-45-million-grant-for-creation-of-pan-african-university-for-science-technology-and-innovation-12155/.

Africa Biosciences Initiative (ABI). (2015 www.nepad.org/humancapitaldevelopment/abi.

African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (1993, September 20–25). *Colloque spécial du CAMES sur la reconnaissance et l'équivalence des diplômes étrangers.* Conference held at Niamey, Niger. Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/IMG/pdf/diplomes_colloque_special_niamey_20_25_1993.pdf

African Union Commission. (2004). Strategic Plan of the African Union Commission (2004–2007). Volume 1: Vision and Mission of the African Union.

African Union. (2001). *The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)*. Abuja: AU.

African Union. (2006). *Second decade of education for Africa (2006–2015), draft plan of action.* Addis Ababa: African Union.

African Union. (2006b). *Criteria and Guidelines for Establishing African Networks of Centres of Excellence in Science and Technology*. Ref. EXT/AU/EXP/ST/12 (II). Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

African Union. (2007). *Harmonization of higher education programmes in Africa: A strategy for the African Union: Summary Report. Meeting of the Bureau of the Conference of Ministers Of Education of the African Union.* Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: (COMEDAF II+).

African Union. (2007, May 29–31). *Developing an African Higher Education Quality Rating System.* Meeting of the Bureau of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF II+), , Addis-Ababa.

African Union. (2007a). *Harmonization of Higher Education Programmes in Africa: Opportunities and Challenges.* Third Ordinary Session of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF III). Paper AU/EXP/EDUC/2(III), Part 1. Johannesburg, South Africa: African Union.

African Union. (2009). *Developing a quality rating mechanism for African higher education* (Survey Questionnaire). Addis Ababa: African Union.

African Union. (2010). *Decision on the establishment of the Pan-African university Doc. EX.CL/579(XVII): Adopted by the Fifteenth Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the Union.* Kampala: AU.

African Union. (2011, May 11–13). *Regional convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees, and other academic qualifications in higher education in African states.* First extraordinary session of the Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF IV+), Nairobi, Kenya.

FURTHER READING

African Union. (2012, April). *African quality rating mechanism: 2010 pilot self rating of higher education institutions: Summarised Report.* Addis Ababa: AU. CAMES.

African Union. (2013). *Establishment of the Pan-African University – Department of human resources, science and technology.* Addis Ababa: AUC.

African Union. (2013). *Thematic partnership on migration, mobility and employment action plan 2011–2013 Fiches on Priority Initiatives.* Addis Ababa: African Union.

African Union. (2013). *Workshop on establishment of a continental accreditation agency for higher education in Africa.* Addis Ababa: AUC. Retrieved from http://hrst.au.int/en/sites/default/files/HRST_Workshop_Communique.pdf.

AIMS. (2013). *The African Institute for Mathematical Sciences* (AIMS-Senegal). Retrieved from http://www.aims-senegal.sn/

AIMS. (2016). African Institute for Mathematical Sciences. *Next Einstein Initiative*. Retrieved from http://nexteinstein.org/

AIMS. (2016b). Mathematical sciences the key to Africa's Future. *AIMS Annual Report 2013–14*. Retrieved from http://nexteinstein.org/our-annual-report/

Aina, T. A. (1994). *Quality and relevance: African universities in the 21st century.* Accra: Association of African Universities.

Ajayi, J. F., Goma, L. K., & Johnson, G. A. (1996). *The African experience with higher education.* Scott Quadrangle, Athens, OH: Ohio University Press.

Allais, S. (2010). *The implementation and impact of National Qualifications Frameworks: Report of a study in 16 countries.* ILO.

Altbach, P. G. (2004). Higher education crosses borders: Can the United States remain the top destination for foreign students. *Change, 36*(2), 18–24.

Altbach, P. G. (2007). Globalization and the university: Realities in an unequal world. In J. J. F. Forest & P. G. Altbach (Eds.), *International handbook of higher education* (pp. 121–139). The Netherlands: Springer.

Altbach, P. G., (2014). The giants awake: The present and future of higher education systems in China and India. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, *22*(46).

Altbach, P. G., & Davis, T. (1999). Global challenge and national response: Notes for an international dialogue on higher education. In P. G. Altbach & P. M. Peterson (Eds.), *Higher education in the 21st century: Global and national challenges* (pp. 3–8). Boston, MA: Boston Institute of International Education.

Altbach, P. G., & Knight, J. (2007). The internationalization of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 11*(3–4), 290–305.

Altbach, P. G., Reisbeg, L., & Rumbley, L. (2009). *Trends in global higher education: Tackling an academic revolution.* Paris: UNESCO.

Ansti, A. N. (2005). *State of science and technology training institutions in Africa*. Retrieved from www.ansti.org

Ashby, E. (1961). *Patterns of universities in non-European societies, London.* London: University of London School of Oriental and African Studies.

Ass/AU/Dec.1(1). (2002, July 8). *Assembly of heads of state and government first ordinary session, Durban.* Durban: OAU.

Assembly/AU/Dec.173 (X). (2008). *Decision on the implementation of the second decade of education for Africa – Doc. EX.CL/386 (XII)*. Addis Ababa: African Union.

Assembly/AU/Dec.92 (VI). (2006). *Decision on a second decade of education for Africa (2006–2015) and the framework of the plan of action.* Addis Ababa: African Union.

Assié-Lumumba, N. (1993). *Higher education in Francophone Africa: Assessment of the potential of the traditional universities and alternatives for development*. Washington, DC: World Bank.

Assie-Lumumba, N. T. (2006). *Higher education in Africa. Crises, reforms and transformation.* Dakar: CODESRIA.

Association of African Universities. (2008). *Report of validation meeting for African quality rating mechanism and harmonization strategy for higher education.* Accra: AAU.

Atteh, S. O. (1996). The crisis in higher education in Africa. *A Journal of Opinion: African Higher Education, 24*(1), 36–42.

AUC. (2011, December 13–14). *The role of the African university in promoting integration and intra-Africa trade*. Discussion paper presented at the African Union Commission Conference, Abuja, Nigeria.

Australian Government. (2011). Export income to Australia from education services in 2010–11. *Research Snapshot*. Retreived from https://www.aei.gov.au/research/Research-Snapshots/Documents/Export %20Income%202010-11.pdf

AVU. (2016). *African virtual university*. Retreived from http://www.avu.org/About-AVU/introduction.html

Awono Onana, C., Oyewole, O., Teferra, D., Beneitone, P., González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (2014). *Tuning and harmonization of higher education: The African experience*. Spain, University of Deusto Publications.

Ayoo, P. O. (2009). Reflections on the digital divide and its implications for the internationalization of higher education in a developing region: The case of East Africa. *Higher Education Policy, 22*(3), 303–318.

Babes, M. S. (2009). *Algeria towards a knowledge-based economy. Developing knowledge economy strategies to improve competitiveness.* Alexandria, Egypt: World Bank Development Institute.

Bailey, F., & Dolan, A. (2011). The meaning of partnership in development: Lessons for development education. *Policy and Practice: A Developement Education Review*, *14*, 30–48.

Barka, B. L. (2000). Keynote Address. *Regional Conference on Brain Drain and Capacity Building in Africa.* Addis Ababa.

Barrett, G. (2011, December 19). *Securing treaty change will be a hard sell*. Retreived from www.irishtimes.com/newspaper/opinion/2011/1219/1224309257084.html

Bateman, P. (2008). The African Virtual University. In *Handbook on information technologies for education and training* (pp. 439–461). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer.

Becker, G. S. (1994). *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis with special reference to education* (3rd ed.). Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.

Beerkens, E. (2004). *Global opportunities and institutional embeddedness: Higher education consortia in Europe and Southeast Asia.* Enschede: CHEPS.

Beneitone, P., Esquetini, C., González, J., Marty Maleta, M., Siufi, G., & Wagenaar, R. (2007). *Reflections and perspectives of higher education in Latin America.* Final Report, Tuning Latin America Project 2004–2007. University of Deusto Publications, Spain.

Benelux Bologna Secretariat. (2010). *Towards the European higher education Area: Bologna Process*.

Bergen Communiqué. (2005, May 19–20). *The European higher education area – Achieving the goals communiqué of the conference of European ministers responsible for higher education.* Bergen: European Commission. Retrieved from http://www.enqa.eu/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/050520_Bergen _Communique.pdf

Berlin Communiqué. (2003). *Realising the European higher education area communiqué of the conference of ministers responsible for higher education.* Berlin: Berlin Communiqué.

Bernheim, C. T., & Chaui, M. D. (2003). *Challenges of the university in the knowledge society, five years after the World Conference on Higher Education.* Paris: UNESCO Forum Occasional Paper Series Paper No. 4.

Black Spat Magazine. (2008, Spring). *The 2008 African international student census*. Retrieved from http://www.educexpo.com/ exhibitors/downloads/African%20students%20study.pdf

Bloom, D., David, C., & Chan, K. (2005). *Higher education and economic development in Africa.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Bologna Declaration. (1999). *The Bologna declaration on the European space for higher education: An explanation.* Bologna: Confederation of EU Rectors'.

Börzel, T. A. (2003). Conceptualizing the domestic impact of Europe. In K. F. Radaelli (Ed.), *The politics of Europeanization.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

FURTHER READING

Botswana Ministry of Education and Skills Development. (2009). *Report on the feasibility study to assess the viability of establishing a tertiary education hub in Botswana*. Botswana: Gabronne, Government of Botswana.

Breslin, S., & Hook, G. (2002). Micro-regionalism and world order: Concepts, approaches and implications. In S. Breslin & G. Hook (Eds.), *Micro-regionalism and world order* (pp. 1–22). Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Brinkerhoff, D. W., & Morgan, P. J. (2010). *Capacity and capacity development: Coping with complexity*. Retrieved from http://www.gsdrc.org/ go/display&type=Document&id=3788

Buchbinder, H., & Newson, J. (1991). Social knowledge and market knowledge: Universities in the information age. *Gannett Center Journal, 5*, 17–29.

Bulmer, S., & Lequesne, C. (2002). New perspectives on EU-member state relationships. *Questions de Recherche*, 1–35.

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2006). *Résolution no. 4 sur le passage au LMD.* Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/IMG/pdf/Resolution0406CAMES.pdf

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2007a). *Programmes: Reconnaissance et équivalence des diplômes.* Présentation du programme. Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/IMG/article_PDF/article_6.pdf

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2007b). *Proposition de référentiel au format LMD: Equivalence et reconnaissance du CAMES.* Retrieved from http://www. lecames.org/diplome_cames/files/référentiel_LMD-2.pdf

CAMES. African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education. (2013). *Répertoire sur la reconnaissance et l'équivalence et l'assurance qualité.* Retrieved from http://www.lecames.org/diplome_cames/

Campbell, C., & Rozsnyai, C. (2002). *Quality assurance and the develop-ment of course programmes.* Papers on Higher Education Regional University Network on Governance and Management of Higher Education in South East Europe, UNESCO, Bucharest.

Castells, M. (2000). The rise of the network society. In M. Castells (Ed.), *The global economy: Structure, dynamics, and genesis* (2nd ed.,pp. 101–147). Oxford: Blackwell.

Changsong, N. (2013). China-Africa education co-operation under the framework of FOCAC. *Institute of African Studies Zhejiang Normal University*. Retrieved from http://www. gsid.nagoya-u.ac.jp/syamada/ChinaAfrica%20Education%20Cooperation%20Under%20the%20Framework%20of%20FOCAC.pdf

Charlemagne. (2010, October 28). *Europe's need for e-freedom.* Retrieved from http://www.economist.com/node/17361454

Charlier, J. É., & Croché, S. (2009). *Can the Bologna process make the move faster towards the development of an international space for higher education where Africa would find its place? JHEA/RESA, 7*(1–2), 39–59.

Chawawa, M. (2013, 06 24). *Educating for employability in the global economy: The Diaspora option*. Retrieved from http://www.sundaystandard.info/article.php?NewsID=17156&GroupID=5

Chien, C. L., & Kot, F. C. (2012). New patterns in student mobility in the Southern Africa Development Community. *B. R. Mobility. Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA)*.

Cini, M. (2003). Intergovernmentalism. In M. Cini (Ed.), *European union politics* (pp. 93–108). Oxford: OUP.

Cisse, S. Y. (1986). *Education in Africa in the light of the Harare conference (1982).* Paris: UNESCO.

Cloete, N., Bailey, T., & Maassen, P. (2011). *Universities and economic development in Africa: Pact, academic core, and co-ordination*. Cape Town: CHET.

CNAES. (2013b). Concertation Nationale pour l'avenir de l'enseignement supérieur au Sénégal; National Dialogue for the Future of Higher Education in Senegal. *Concertation nationale pour l'avenir de l'enseignement supérieur au Sénégal. Rapport général.* Retrieved from http://www.cnaes.sn/

Commission for Higher Education. (2012). *AfriQAN – INQAAHE documentation of good practices in quality assurance.* Nairobi: CHE and AfriQAN.

Contel, F. B. (2015). Concepts of region and regionalization: Aspects of its evolution and possible uses to health regionalization. *Saude Soc. Sao Paulo, 24*(2), 447–459.

Cooper, A., Hughes, C. W., & Lombaerde, P. (2008). *Regionalization and global governance: The taming of globalization.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Cosam, J. (2016). The launch of the East African higher education area. *Private Communication.*

CPA. (2005). *Africa's S&T consolidated plan of action*. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/SC/pdf/sc_plan_action_en.pdf

Crone, J. B. (2015). *Mutual recognition of professional qualifications: The East African community* (Tralac Trade Brief N°S15TB04/2015). Retrieved from http://www.tralac.org/images/docs/7223/s15tb042015-cronje-mutual-recognition-of-professional-qualifications-eac-20150331-fin.pdf

Cross, M., & Rouhani, S. (2004). Vanishing borders and new boundaries: Student and staff mobility and the internationalization of South African higher education. In P. T. Zeleza & A. Olukoshi (Eds.), *African university in the twenty-first century* (Vol. I, pp. 234–249). Dakar: CODESRIA.

Cross, M., Mhlanga, E., & Ojo, E. (2009). Emerging concept of internationalization in South African higher education: Conversations on local and global exposure at the university of the Witwatersrand (Wits). *Journal of Studies in International Education*.

DAAD/UNESCO. (2012, November 15–17). Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (German Academic Exchange Service) (2012). *Conference on strengthening regional co-operation in quality assurance in Central and West African universities, in Dakar, Senegal.* Retrieved from http://www. Unescoafrica.org/highered

Damtew, T. (2003). *African higher education: An international reference handbook.* Indiana, IN: Indiana University Press.

Damtew, T., & Greijn, H. (2000). *Higher education and globalization: Challenges, threats and opportunities for Africa* (T. Damtew, & H. Greijn, Eds.). Maastricht: Maastricht University Centre for International Co-operation in Academic Development (MUNDO).

Davies, J. (1992). Developing a strategy for internationalization in universities: Towards aconceptual framework. In C. Klasek (Ed.), *Bridges to the future: Strategies for internationalizing higher education* (pp. 177–190). Carbondale, IL: Carbondale: Association of International Education Administration.

De Wit, H. (2002). *Internationalization of higher education in the USA and Europe*. London: Greenwood Press.

Declaração-de-Fortaleza. (2004). *Declaração dos ministros responsáveis pelo ensino superior da comunidade dos países de língua portuguesa.* Fortaleza.

DeLong, J., & Dowrick, S. (2002). Globalization and convergence. In A. T. M. Bordo (Ed.), *Globalization in historical perspective.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

DFID. (2016). *Support to African Economic Research Consortium (AERC): Research and capacity building programme 2010–2015*. Retrieved from http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/Project/60710/Default.aspx

Doctor, M. (2007). Why bother with inter-regionalism? Negotiations for a European Union – Mercosur agreement. *Journal of Common Market Studies, 45*(2), 281–314.

Domatob, J. K. (1996). Policy issues for African universities. *Issue: A Journal of Opinion*, 29–35.

Dowling, D., & Seepe, S. (2004). Towards a response curriculum. In S. Seepe (Ed.), Towards an African identity of higher education (pp. 185–189). Pretoria: Vista University.

Dutta, S., & Mia, I. (2009). *Global information technology report 2008–2009.* Paper presented at the World Economic Forum, Switzerland, Geneva.

Dzahene-Quarshie, J. (2013, December). Ghana's contribution to the promotion of Kiswahili: Challenges and prospects for African unity. *The Journal of Pan-African Studies, 6*(6), 69–85.

Dzvimbo, K. P., & Moloi, K. C. (2013). Globalization and the internationalization of higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa. *South African Journal of Education, 33*(3), 1–16.

EAC. (2009). *East African community: Protocol on the establishment of the EAC Common Market*. Arusha, Tanzania. Retrieved from http://www.minecofin.gov.rw/fileadmin/templates/documents/Common_Market_Protocol.pdf

EAC. (2010). *Protocol on the establishment of the East African Community Common Market.* Arusha: East African Community.

EAC. (2014, May 10). *Background on East African Community*. Retrieved from http://www.eac.int/index.php?option=com_content&id=1:welcome-to-eac&Itemid=53

EAC. (2015). *EAC develops plan for common higher education area*. Retrieved from http://ugandaradionetwork.com/story/higher-education-area-for-students-in-east-africa-in-offing

FURTHER READING

ECOWAS. (2003). *ECOWAS regional convention on the recognition and equivalence of degrees, diplomas, certificates and other qualifications in member states*. Dakar, Senegal: ECOWAS.

ECOWAS. (2012). *Annual report. Abuja*. Retrieved December, 2012, from http://events.ecowas.int/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/2012-Annual-report_English_VF.pdf

ECOWAS. (2013). *Résolution pour l'approbation et l'adoption du curriculum harmonisé de formation en médecine générale dans l'espace CEDEAO*. Retrieved from http://www.wahooas.org/IMG/pdf/1_Resolution_Curriculum_H_F_M_G.pdf

Egron-Polak, E., & Hudson, R. (2014). *Internationalization of higher education: Growing expectations, fundamental values.* IAU 4th Global Survey. Paris: International Association of Universities.

Ehrenberg, R. G. (2006). The perfect storm and the privatization of public higher education. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 38*(1), 46–53.

Eicher, C. K. (1973). Overcoming intelectual dependence. In T. Yesufu (Ed.), *Creating the African University: Emerging issues in the 1970s* (pp. 27–34). London: Oxford University Press.

Eisemon, T. D. (1982). Transplantation of science to anglophone and francophone Africa. *Science and Public Policy, 12*(4), 191–192.

Eldis. (2016). *African economic research consortium.* Retreived from http://www.eldis.org/go/home&id=4298&type=Organization#.VvZFqfl942w

Elken, M., Gornitzka, Å., Maassen, P., & Vukasovic, M. (2011). European integration and the transformation of higher education. Oslo: Univesity of Oslo.

Enders, J. T. (2004). Higher education, internationalization and the nation-state: Recent developments and challenges to governance theory. *Higher Education, 47*, 361–382.

ENQA. (2009). *Standards and guidelines for quality assurance in the European higher education area* (3rd ed.). Helsinki, Finland: European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. Retrieved from http://www.enqa.eu/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/ESG_3edition-2.pdf

EQF. (2015). *European Qualifications Framework*. Retrieved from http://scqf.org.uk/more/european-international/eqf/

Eriksen, E. O., & Neyer, J. (2003). The forging of deliberative supranationalism in the EU? In E. E. Neyer (Ed.), *European governance, deliberation and the quest for democratization.* Arena: Arena.

EUA. (2010). *Africa-Europe higher education co-operation for development: Meeting regional and global challenges*. Brussels, Belgium: AAU-EUA.

EUA. (2013). *Internationalization in European higher education: European policies, institutional strategies, and EUA support*. Brussels: EUA.

European Commission. (2013). *Thematic partnership on migration, mobility and employment action plan 2011–2013 fiches on priority initiatives.* Addis Ababa: AUC and EUC.

European Ministers of Higher Education. (2001, May 19). *Towards The European higher education area: Communiqué of the meeting of European ministers in charge of higher education in Prague*. Retrieved from http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/ bologna/documents/MDC/PRAGUE_COMMUNIQUE.pdf

European Ministers of Higher Education. (2013, September 19). *Realizing the European higher education area: Communiqué of the conference of ministers responsible for higher education*. Retrieved from http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/documents/MDC/Berlin_Communique1.pdf

European Treaty Series - No.21. (1956). *European convention on the equivalence of periods 0f university study* (151956 ed.). Paris.

Fabricius, P. (2015, February 12). *Is the AU starting to put its money where its mouth is?* Retreived from https://www.issafrica.org/ abgerufen

Fahey, T. (1987). Study abroad and development. *Development Review 1987*. Retreived from http://www.trocaire.org/resources/tdr-article/ study-abroad-and-development

Gakio, K. (2006). *African Tertiary Institutions Connectivity Survey (ATICS): 2006 Report.*

Gamble, A., & Payne, A. (1997). Regionalism and world order. *Journal of Latin American Studies, 29*(2), 495–548.

Garrett, R., Kinser, K, Lane, J., & R. Merola. (2016). *International branch campuses: Trends and developments, 2016*. The Observatory on Borderless Education and C-BERT (Cross-border Education Team), London, UK.

Garwe, E. (2016). Implementation of the revised Arusha convention on mutual recognition of qualifications in Zimbabwe. *Private Communication.*

Gondwe, M., & Walenkamp, J. (2011). *Alignment of higher professional education with the needs of the local labour market: The case of Ghana.* The Hague: NUFFIC.

González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (2006). *Tuning educational structures in Europe. Final Report – Pilot Project Phase 2, Universities' Contribution to the Bologna process*. Spain: University of Deusto Publications.

Gutto, S. B. O. (2006). Towards a new paradigm for pan-African knowledge production and application in the context of the African renaissance. *International Journal of African Renaissance Studies – Multi-, Inter- and Transdisciplinarity, 1*(2), 306–323.

Guy, J. S. (2009). What is global and what is local? A theoretical discussion around globalization. *Parsons Journal for Information Mapping, 1*(2), 1–16.

Haas, E. B. (2004). *The uniting of Europe: Political, social, and economic forces, 1950–1957 (Contemporary European Politics and Society).* Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

Habib, A. (2014). *Vice-Chancellor's address: US chief executive officers and executives breakfast.* Retrieved from http://www.witsfoundation.co.za/images/fullspeech.pdf

Hahn, K. (2005). *Towards a SADC area of higher education (NEPRU Research Report No. 30).* Windhoek: Namibian Economic Policy Research Unit (NEPRU). Retrieved from www.nepru.org.na

Hahn, K., & Teferra, D. (2014). Tuning as instrument of systematic Higher Education reform and quality enhancement: The African experience. *Tuning journal for higher education*, *1*(1), 127–163.

Harle, J. (2013). Strengthening research in African universities: Reflections on policy, partnerships, and politics. *Policy & Practice-A Development Education Review*, *16*, 80–100.

Hawawini, G. (2011). *The internationalization of higher education institutions: A critical review and radical proposal* (Faculty and Research Working Paper). Singapore: INSEAD. The Business School for the World.

Hayward, F. M. (2010). Graduate education in Sub-Saharan Africa. In D. Teferra & H. Greijn (Eds.), *Higher education and globalization: Challenges, threats and opportunities for Africa.* Maastricht: MUNDO.

Heine, B., & Heine, B. (2000). *African languages: An introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Held, D., & McGrew, A. (2000). *The global transformations reader: An introduction to the globalization debate.* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Heller, D. E., & Callender, C. (2013). *Student financing of higher education: A comparative perspective*. Routledge.

Herrmann, K. (2012, April). *The observatory on borderless higher education*. Uganda: Moving beyond price to recruit international students. Retrieved from http://www.obhe.ac.uk/newsletters/borderless_report_april_2012/uganda_moving_beyond_price_recruit_international_students

Higgs, P. (2003). African philosophy and the transformation of educational discourse in South Africa. Journal of Education, *30*(1), 5–22.

Hinchliffe, K. (1987). *Higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa.* London: Croom Helm.

Hoffmann, S. (1982). Reflections on the nation-state in Western Europe today. *Journal of Common Market Studies, 21*(1), 21–38.

Hoosen, S., Butcher, N., & Njenga, B. (2009). Harmonization of higher education programmes: A strategy for the African union. *African Integration Review, 3*(4), 1–36.

Hoppers, C. A. O. (Ed.). (2002). *Indigenous knowledge and the integration of knowledge systems: Towards a philosophy of articulation*. Claremont, South Africa: New Africa Education.

ICEF Monitor. (2013, July 19). *A closer look at African student mobility*. Retreived from ICEF Monitor: http://monitor.icef.com/2013/07/a-closer-look-at-african-student-mobility/

IEP. Institutional Evaluation Programme. (2010/2004). *10 rear anniversary. Institutional evaluation programme.* European Universities Association, Brussels. Retrieved from http://www.eua.be/eua/jsp/en/upload/IEP_anniversary_brochure.1086687063630.pdf

Ilieva, J., & Peake, M. (2016). The shape of global higher education: National policies framework for international engagement. *British Council, UK*. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/f310_tne_international_higher_education_report_final_v2_web.pdf

Ilon, L. (2003). Foreign aid financing of higher education in Africa. In D. T. Altbach & D. T. Altbach (Ed.), *African higher education: An international reference handbook* (pp. 61–72). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

INASP. (2013). *Scientific development in African countries: A scientometric approach 1996–2009*. Oxford: International Network for the Availability of Scientific Publications.

Itaaga, N., Musoke, K. M., & Anthony, M. M. (2013). Internationalization and regionalization of higher education in Uganda: A descriptive analysis. *Global Journal of Human Social Science Linguistics & Education, 13*(5).

Itaaga, N., Musoke, K. M., & Antony, M. M. (2013). Internationalization of higher education in Uganda: A descriptive analysis. *Global Journal of Human Social Science*, *13*(5), 1–8.

IUCEA. (2012). *Introduction.* Uganda: The Inter University Council for East Africa (IUCEA). Retrieved from http://www.iucea.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1&Itemid=294

IUCEA. (2016). *The Inter-University Council for East Africa* Retrieved from http://www.iucea.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1:overview-of-the-iucea&catid=81&Itemid=529

IUCEA. (2016a). *Inter-University Council for East Africa. Overview of the IUCEA.* Retrieved from http://www.iucea.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1&Itemid=294; http://www.academia.edu/4570148/The_Southern_African_Development_Community_Regional_Qualifications_Framework_Concept_Document

IUCEA. (2016b). *East African qualifications framework for higher education.* Retrieved from http://iucea.org/eahea/q-a-framework/east-african-qualifications-framework-for-higher-education/

Jeevanantham, L. S. (1999). Transforming higher education: Moving subjugated discourse from the periphery to the centre. In M. Cross (Ed.), *No easy road: Transforming higher education in South Africa* (pp. 54–76). Cape Town: Longman Publishers.

Johnstone, D. B. (2004). Higher education finance and accessibility and student loans in sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa, 2*(2), 11–36.

Johnstone, D. B. (2005). *Financing higher education: Cost-sharing in international perspective.* University at Buffalo, The state University of New York, Buffalo, NY.

Jowi, J. O, & Obamba, M. O. (2013a). *Research and innovation management: A comparative analysis of Kenya, Ghana, and Uganda*. Report prepared by the African Network for the Internationalization of Education for the OECD, Paris.

Jowi, J. O. (2010). Africa. In IAU (ed., *Internationalization of higher education: Global trends, regional perspective.* Paris: IAU.

Jowi, J. O. (2012). Africa responds to internationalization: Redefining the terms of engagement between Scholars worldwide. Internationalization of higher education: Perspectives from the South. *SARUA Leadership Dialogue Series, 2*(2), 49–58.

Jowi, J. O., Knight, J., & Sehoole, C. (2013). Internationalization of African higher education. In *Internationalization of African higher education* (pp. 11–31). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Juma, M. (2006). *Kenyatta University – African Virtual University, Kenya*. The Virtual University: Models & Messages, Lessons from Case Studies. UNESCO/IIEP, Paris.

Kacowicz, A. M. (1999). Regionalization, globalization, and nationalism: Convergent, divergent, or overlapping? *Alternatives: Global, Local, Political*, *24*(4), 527–555.

Keeling, R. (2006). The Bologna process and the Lisbon research agenda: The European Commission's expanding role in higher education discourse. *European Journal of Education, 41*(2), 203–223.

Keevy, J. (2014). *Referencing of qualifications frameworks: A new mode of recognition to take note of*. Retreived from http://www.academia.edu/4392465/Referencing_of_qualifications_frameworks_a_new_mode_of_recognition_to_take_note_of

Keevy, J., Borhene, C., & Deij, A. (2010). Transnational qualifications frameworks. *European Training Foundation.* Retrieved from http://www.etf.europa.eu/web.nsf/pages/Transnational_qualifications_frameworks

Kingdon, J. W. (2003). *Agendas, alternatives, and public policies.* Longman: HarperCollins College Publishers.

Kinyajui, K. (2007, July). *The transformation of higher education in Kenya: Challenges and opportunities.* Paper presented at the Mijadala on social policy, governance and development in Kenya sponsored by Development Policy Management Forum at Nairobi Safari Club, Nairobi.

Ki-Zerbo, J. (1973). Africanization of higher education curriculum. In T. Yesufu (Ed.), *Creating the African University* (pp. 11–20). London: Oxford University Press.

Klijn, E. H. (1997). Policy networks: An overview. In W. J. M. Kickert, E. H. Klijn, & J. F. M. Koppenjan (Eds.), *Managing complex networks: Strategies for the public sector* (pp. 14–34). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Knight, J. (1994). Internationalization: Elements and checkpoints (Research monograph No.7). Ottawa, Canada: Canadian Bureau for International Education.

Knight, J. (2003). Updated internationalization definition. *International Higher Education, 33*, 2−3.

Knight, J. (2004). Internationalization remodelled: Definition, approaches, and rationales. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 8*(1), 5−31.

Knight, J. (2008). *Borderless, offshore, transnational and cross-border education- are they different in J. Knight higher education in Turmoil: The changing world of internationalization*. Rotterdam, Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Knight, J. (2008). *Higher education in Turmoil: The changing world of internationalization.* Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Knight, J. (2009). New developments and unintended consequences: Whither Thou Goest, Internationalization? In R. Bhandari & S. Laughlin (Eds.), *Higher education on the move: New developments in global mobility* (pp. 113–125). New York, NY: Institute for International Education.

Knight, J. (2012). A conceptual framework for the regionalization of higher education: Application to Asia. *East-West Center Collaboration Expertise Leadership*. Retrieved from http://www.eastwestcenter.org/education/international-forum-education-2020/education-leadership-institute/2012-institute

Knight, J. (2012). Concepts, rationales, and interpretative frameworks. In the internationalization of higher education. In D. Deardorff, H. De Wit, & J. Heyl (Eds.), *Handbook of international higher education.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishers.

Knight, J. (2013). A model for the regionalization of higher education:The role and contribution of tuning. *Tuning Journal for Higher Education,* (1), 105–125.

Knight, J. (2013). Towards African higher education regionalization and harmonization: Functional, organizational, and political approaches. In A. W. Wiseman & C. Wolhuter (Eds.), *The development of higher education in Africa: Prospects and challenges. International perspective on education and society series.* London: Emerlald Publishing.

Knight, J. (2016). Transnational education remodeled: Toward a common TNE framework and definitions. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 20*(1), 34–47.

Knight, J., & De Wit, H. (1997). Internationalization of higher education in Asia Pacific countries. Amsterdam: European Association for International Education Publications.

Knight, J., & Liu, Q. (2017). *What is the state of research on Transnational Education? Highlights and Concerns* (In press).

Kotecha, P. (2012). Engaging universities in the regional integration project in Southern Africa. *SARUA Leadership Dialogue Series, 4*(2), 1–3.

Kotecha, P. (2012). *Higher education in the Southern African region: Current trends, challenges, and recommendations.* Paper presented at The Extra-Ordinary Meeting of SADC Ministers of Higher Education and Training, Johannesburg.

Kraft, M. E., & Furlong, S. R. (2012). *Public policy: Politics, analysis, and alternatives* (4th ed.). Green Bay, WI: CQ Press.

Krapohl, S. (2008). *New institutionalism meets international political economy: A new approach to the study of regional integration dynamics in- and outside of Europe*. Working Paper Prepared for Presentation at the GARNET Conference 'The European Union in International Affairs'. Brussels.

Kurth, J. (2001). Globalization: Political aspects. In N. J. Smelser & P. Baltes (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of the social & behavioural sciences* (Vol. 9). New York, NY: Elsevier.

L.Bartels, F. (1983). *Regional congerences and educational development in Africa from the Addis Ababa Conference 1961 to the Lagos Conference 1976.* Paris: UNESCO.

Ladrech, R. (1994). Europeanization of domestic politics and institutions: The case of France. *Journal of Common Market Studies, 32*(1), 69–88.

Lange, W. (1987). The source of African philosophy: The Ethiopian philosophy of man by Claude Sumner. *The International Journal of African Historical Studies, 20*(4), 734–735.

FURTHER READING

Laursen, F. (2010). *Comparative regional integration: Europe and beyond. The international political economy of new regionalisms series.* Farnham: Ashgate Publishing, Ltd.

Lawton, W., & Katsomitrous, A. (2012). *International branch campuses: Data and developments.* London, UK: Observatory of Borderless Higher Education.

Lemaitre, M. J., Matos, N., & Teichler, U. (2011, March). *East African- German Co-operation in enhancing quality assurance in higher education: An external review of the IUCEA-DAAD pilot initiative.*

Letsekha, T. (2013). Revisiting the debate on the Africanization of higher education: An appeal for conceptual shift. *The Independent Journal of Teaching & Learning, 8*, 1–13.

Leung, H.-M. (2003). *The effects of learning on growth-divergence and convergence-club memberships.* Singapore: Memberships. Singapore: Singapore Management University.

Lewis, G. S., Friedman, J., & Schoneboom, J. (2010). *Accomplishments of the partnership for higher education in Africa 2000–2010: Report on a decade of collaborative foundation investment.* New York, NY: Partnership for Higher Education in Africa.

Lindberg, L. (1963). *The political dynamics of European integration, Stanford.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

London Communiqué. (2007). *Towards the European higher education area: Responding to challenges in a globalised world.*

Louvain Communiqué. (2009). *The Bologna process 2020 – The European higher education area in the new decade communiqué of the conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education.* Louvain-la-Neuve.

Louw, W. (2010). Africanization: A rich environment for active learning on a global platform. *Progressio*, *32*(1), 42–54.

Lulat, Y. G. (2003). The development of higher education in Africa: A historical survey. In D. T. Altbach & D. T. Altbach (Ed.), *African higher education; an international reference handbook* (pp. 15–31). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Lulat, Y. G.-M. (2005). A history of African higher education from antiquity to the present. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers.

Maassen, P., Pinheiro, R., & Cloete, N. (2007). Bilateral country investments and foundations partnership projects to support higher education across Africa. Wynberg, UK: Center for Higher Education Transformation.

Magel, H. (2011, May 20). *Governance and regionalization: New paradigms for transparent politics and accountable civic engagement*. FIG Working Week, Marrakech, Morocco.

Magkoba, M. W. (2005). The African university: Meaning, penalties, and responsibilities. In D. Chetty (Ed.), *Towards African scholarship* (pp. 11–19). Durban: Public Affairs & Corporate Communications, UKZN.

Makgoba, M. (1997). *Mokoko: The Makgoba affair – A reflection on transformation*. Florida, FL: Vivlia.

Makgoba, W. M. (1999). *African renaissance*. Sandton, South Africa: Mafube.

Marginson, S., & Wende, M. V. (2007). *Globalization and higher education.* Paris: OECD/CERI.

Marie, K. A. (2013). Coping with english as language of instruction in higher education in Rwanda. *International Journal of Higher Education, 2*(2), 1–12.

Marope, P. T. M., Wells, P. J., & Hazelkorn, E. (Eds.). (2013). *Rankings and accountability in higher education uses and misuses.* Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/new/typo3temp/ pics/69b714f58c.jpg

Marshall, J. (2013, July 6). International mobility of African students – Report. *University World News*. Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130705203103913

Materu, P. (2007). *Higher education quality assurance in Sub-Saharan Africa: Status, challenges, opportunities,and promising practices*(World Bank Working Papers No. 124). Washngton, DC: World Bank.

Mattli, W. (2000). Sovereignty bargains in regional integration. *International Studies Review*, 149–180.

Mazrui, A. (1980). *The African condition: A political diagnosis.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mbatchi, B. (2016). le programme des comités consultatifs interafricains du CAMES. *Private communication.*

McNamara, J., & Knight, J. (2015). Transnational education data collection systems: Awareness, action, analysis. *British Council and DAAD*. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/education/ihe/knowledge-centre/transnational- education/tne-education-data-collection-systems

McNamara, J., Knight, J., & Fernandez-Chung, R. (2013). The shape of things to come 2: The evolution of transnational education. *British Council.* Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/education/ihe/knowledge-centre/transnational-education/the-shape-of-things-to-come-2

Mencinger, J. (2004). *Can university survive the Bologna process?* Invited plenary lecture at the symposium 'Socio-economic perspectives in the Life Sciences', Vienna.

Mihyo, P. B. (2008). *Staff retention in African universities and links with the diaspora study*. Addis Ababa: Association of African Universities.

Milej, T. (2016). Centre promotes excellence in legal training. In *East African Universities Guide 2015–2016* (pp. 146–147). Nairobi: East African.

MIN/EDUC/REPORT(V). (2012). *Report on the fifth ordinary session of the conference of ministers of education of the african union (comedaf v).* Abuja: African Union, Department of Human Resources, Science and Technology.

Ministry of Education and Scientific Research. (2006). *Developing Mauritius in a knowledge hub and a centre of higher learning, Government of Mauritius.* Retrieved from http://chet.org.za/manual/media/files/chet_hernana_docs/Mauritius/National/MESR%202006_Developing%20Mauritius%20into%20a%20knowledge%20hub.pdf

Mittelman, J. H. (1996). Rethinking the new regionalism in the context of globalization. *Global Governance*, *2*, 189–213.

Mkandawire, T. (1995). Three generations of African academics: A note. *Transformation, 28*, 75–83.

Mkude, D., & Cooksey, B. (2003). Tanzania. In D. Teferra & P. G. Altbach (Eds.), *African higher education: An international reference handbook* (pp. 583–594). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Mngomezulu, B. R. (2010). *Analytical reports, The political factor in the development of education in East Africa, 1920s–1963.*

Mngomezulu, B. R. (2012). *Politics and higher education in East Africa from the 1920s to 1970.* Bloemfontein: Sun Press.

Mngomezulu, B. R. (2013). What does the Africanization of a university entail? Lessons from East Africa. *Africa: Journal of Politics, Economics, and Society, 3*(1), 97–113.

Mohamedbhai, G. (2008). *The effects of massification on higher education*. Accra: Association of African Universities.

Mohamedbhai, G. (2012a, November 5–9). *Global rankings of universities: Where do African universities stand?* Paper presented at PULSAR Residential Workshop, Johannesburg, South Africa. Retrieved from http://www.sarua.org/files/PULSAR/Presentations/3-Prof%20Mohamedbhai%20Global%20Rankings.pdf

Mohamedbhai, G. (2012b). Are national goals for doctoral education realistic? *University World News*, (Issue No. 212). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20120306150045171

Mohamedbhai, G. (2012c, November 5–9). *African quality rating mechanism: Pilot results and challenges in future implementation.* Paper presented at PULSAR Residential Workshop, Johannesburg, South Africa. Retrievedf from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20120928170840119

Mohamedbhai. G. (2013). Internationalization of African higher education: A different approach? In H. de Wit, F. Hunter, L. Johnson, & H.-G. van Liempd (Eds.), *Possible futures: The next 25 years of the internationalization of higher education* (pp. 138–141). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: European Association for International Education.

Mohiddin, A. (1998, December). Partnership: A new buzz-word or realistic relationship? *The Society for International Development, 41*(4), 5–12.

Mokopakgosi, B. (2013). Why the university of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland Failed: Lessons from the brief history of a regional University of Southern Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies, 39*(2).

Moll, I. (2004). Curriculum responsiveness: The anatomy of a concept. In H. Griessel (Ed.), *Curriculum responsiveness: Case studies in higher education*. Pretoria. South African Universities Vice-Chancellors Association.

Mseleku,T. (2004). African scholarship: Some challenges facing intellectuals in South African higher education institutions. *Journal of African Scholarship, 1*(2). Retrieved from http//ingedej.ukzn.ac.z

Msila, V. (2008). Ubuntu and school leadership. *Journal of Education*, *44*, 67–84.

Musisi, N. (2003, October 1–3). *A reflection on and taking stock of innovations at Makerere University*. The Ford Foundation conference on Innova-tions in African Higher Education, Nairobi, Kenya.

NAFSA. (2014, June). *Economic benefits of international students.* Association of International Educators. Retrieved from http://www.nafsa. org/_/File/_/econ_benefits_intl.pdf

Nandy, A. (2000). Recovery of indigenous knowledge and dissenting futures of the university. In S. Inayatullah & J. Gidley (Eds.), *The university in transformation: Global perspectives on the futures of the university* (pp. 115–123). Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.

Nayyar, D. (2002). *Governing globalization: Issues and institutions.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ndlovu-Gatsheni, S. J. (2013). *Coloniality of power in postcolonial Africa: Myths of decolonization*. Dakar: CODESDRIA.

Nealle-Shuttte, M., & Fourie, J. (2006). Challenges to internationalization in African higher education. *South Africa Journal of Higher Education*, *20*(1), 118–142. (or overlapping? Working Paper #262. Kellogg Foundation.)

Nekwhevha, F. (2000). Education transformation and the African renaissance in a globalising world. *Journal of Education*, *25*, 19–48.

NENEPAD. (2001). *The new partnership for africaís development (NEPAD).* Retrieved from http://www.unep.org/roa/Docs/pdf/nepad/Action_Plan_for_the_Environment_Initiative.pdf

NEPAD. (2010). *Africa innovation outlook 2010*. New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), Addis Ababa.

NEPAD. (2016). *Water centres of excellence*. Retrieved from http://nepadwatercoe.org/centres-of-excellence/

Nganga, G. (2014, January 17). *Why higher education harmonization is taking so long*. Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140117145931648

Nkrumah, K. (1965). *Neo-Colonialism: The last stage of imperialism.* London: Thomas Nelson & Sons, Ltd.

Nkunya, M. H. H. (2013, September 14). East Africa higher education boss warns of more harmonization delays. *University World News* (Issue No. 287). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20130913115149427

Nkunya, M. H. H. (2014, January 17). Why higher education harmonization is taking so long. *University World News* (Issue No. 303). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140117145931648

Nkunya, M. H. H. (2015). Approval of the East African qualifications framework for higher education for its operationalization. Retrieved from http://www.eac.int/~eacint/news/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1510:approval-of-the-east-african-qualifications-framework-for-higher-education-for-its-operationalization&catid=48:eac-latest&Itemid=69

Nkunya, M. H. H., & Cosam, J. C. (2012). *Developing a regional quality assurance system for higher education in East Africa: Progress and experiences.* Kampala, Uganda: Inter-University Council for East Africa.

Nkunya, M. H. H, & Joseph, C. C. (2011). Developing a regional quality assurance system for higher education in East Africa: Progress and experiences. *Inter-University Council for East Africa*.

Nyamnjoh, F. B. (2004). A relevant education for African development: some epistemological considerations. *African Development, 29*(1), 161–184.

OAU. (1991). *Treaty establishing the African economic community.* Abuja: Organization of African Unity.

Obanya, P., Shabani, J., & Okebukola, P. (1998). *A guide to teaching and learning in higher education.* Dakar: UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Africa (BREDA).

OECD. (2000). *Education at a glance:OECD indicators* (Cedex 16). France: OECD Publications Service.

OECD. (2002). *Frascati manual: Proposed standard practice for surveys on research and experimental development* (6th ed.). Paris: OECD Publications Service.

OECD. (2014). *State of higher education higher education programme* (IMHE). Paris: OECD.

Ogachi, O. (2009). Internationalization vs regionalization of higher education in East Africa and the challenges of quality assurance and knowledge production. *Higher Education Policy, 22*(3), 331–347.

Ogom, R. O. (2007). Tertiary education and development in Sub-Saharan Africa at the dawn of the twenty first century: A lost hope, or present opportunity? *National Social Science Association*.

Okebukola, P. (2006). *Quality assurance in higher education: The Nigerian experience*. The Quality Assurance in Tertiary Education Conference, Sevres, France.

Okebukola, P. A. (2011a, June 27–30). *Nigerian universities and world ranking: Issues, strategies, and forward planning.* Paper presented at the 2011 Conference of Association of Vice-Chancellors of Nigerian Universities, held at Covenant University, Ota.

Okebukola, P. A. (2011b). *Peer review of quality assurance in Africa.* Retrieved from http://www.academia.edu/5166995/Peer_Review_Of_Quality_Assurance_Agencies_In_Africa

Okebukola, P. A. (2013, September 24–25). *Legislative framework for enhancing minimum standards in Nigeria's federal education system.* Paper presented at the Conference of the Nigeria Legislature on Education Organized by the Senate Committee on Education on the theme of "Transforming Nigeria's Education Sector: The Legislative Agenda.": National Universities Commission, Abuja, Nigeria.

Okebukola, P. A. (2014). *Emerging regional developments and forecast for quality in higher education in Africa*. *CHEA International Quality Group Annual* Conference, 1-14. Washington, DC.

Okebukola, P. A., & Fonteyne, B. (2015, February). Developing a Pan-African quality assurance and accreditation framework (Final Draft Report).

Okebukola, P. A., & Shabani, J. (2012). *Report of the study on the establishment of the Africa regional quality assurance framework*. Study commissioned by the ADEA (Association for the Development of Education in Africa) Working Group on Higher Education, Tunis.

Okebukola, P., & Shabani, J. (2007). Quality assurance and accreditation in higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa. In Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI) (Ed.), *Higher education in the world 2007: Accreditation for quality assurance—what is at stake?* (pp. 46–59). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Okeke, C. I. (2012). A neglected impediment to true Africanization of African higher education curricula: Same agenda, differential fee regimes. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa, 8*(2), 39–52.

Oladejo, M. A., & Gesinde, A. M. (2014). Trends and future directions in open and distance learning practice in Africa. *Journal of Education and Practice, 5*(18), 132–139.

Olsen, J. (2007). *Europe in search of political order. An institutional perspective on unity/diversity, citizens/their helpers, democratic design/historical drift, and the co-existence of orders.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Olsen, J. P. (2002). The many faces of Europeanization. *Journal of Common Market Studies, 40*(5), 921–952.

Onana, C. A., Oyewole, O., Teferra, D., Beneitone, P., González, J., & Wagenaar, R. (Eds.). (2014). *Tuning and harmonization of higher education: The African experience*. Bilbao, Spain: Deusto University.

Organization of Afrian Unity. (1964). *The charter of organization of African unity.* Addis Ababa: OAU. Retrieved from http://www.au.int/en/sites/default/files/OAU_Charter_1963_0.pdf

Organization of African Unity. (1997). *The first decade of education for Africa (1997–2006).* Addis Ababa: OAU.

Oyewole, O. (2007). *Recognition in Africa: Taking Arusha forward.* Addis Ababa: African Union Commission.

Oyewole, O. (2010). Africa and the global knowledge domain. In D. Teferra & H. Greijn (Eds.), *Higher education and globalization: Challenges, threats, and opportunities for Africa*. Maastricht: MUNDO.

Oyewole, O. (2011). *Harmonization of degree structures and regional qualification frameworks in African higher education space.* Paper presented at the Conference of Rectors, Vice-Chancellors, and Presidents (COREVIP) of African Universities, Association of African Universities, Stellenboch, South Africa.

Oyewole, O. (2013). African harmonization: An academic process for a political end? *Chronicle of African Higher Education*, No. 1. Retrieved from https://htmldbprod bc.edu/prd/f?p=2290:4:0::NO:RP,4:P0_CONTENT_ID:119500

Papon, P., & Barré, R. (1993). Scienc and technology system: Instiutions. In UNESCO, *World science report* (pp. 124–133). Paris: UNESCO.

PAU. (2016). *Pan-African University*. Retrieved from http://www.pau-au.org/

Pillay, P. (2008). *Higher education funding frameworks in SADC*. Towards a Common Future: Higher Education in the SADC Region, Southern African Regional Universities Association, Johannesburg.

Pillay, P. (2011). *Linking higher education and economic development: Implications for Africa from three successful systems*. Centre for Higher Education Transformation (CHET), Cape Town.

Pillay, P. (2013). *Student financing in the developing world: Sub-Saharan Africa*. In D. Heller & C. Calendar (Eds.), *Student financing of higher education: A comparative perspective*. Routledge, London, & New York, NY.

Price, M. (2015, March 10–12). *Chair's Address at the launch of the African Research Universities Alliance (ARUA)*. African Higher Education Summit, Dacar.

Psacharopoulos, G. (1985). Returns to education: A further international update and implications. *Journal of Human Resources, 20*(4), 583–604.

Qiang, Z. (2003). Internationalization of higher education: Towards a conceptual framework. *Policy Futures in Education, 1*(2), 248–270.

Radaelli, C. (2000). *The Europeanization of public policy: Notes on theory, methods and the challenge of empirical research.* Retrieved from http://www.eiop.or.at/

Radaelli, C. (2003). The Europeanization of public policy. In K. F. Radaelli (Ed.), *The politics of Europeanization.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ramose, M. B. (1998). Foreword. In S. Seepe (Ed.), *Black perspectives on tertiary institutional transformation*. Johannesburg: Vivlia.

Ramphele, M. (1999). *Immigration and education: International students at South African universities and technikons* (Migration Policy Series Number 12). Cape Town & Kingston: The Southern African Migration Project.

Rauhvargers, A. (2007). The Diploma Supplement—a useful tool for higher education in change? *PPT presentation at the Official Bologna Seminar on Recognition issues in the Bologna Process,* Riga, Latvia.

Ravenhill, J. (1986). Africa's continuing crises: The elusiveness of development. In J. Ravenhil (Ed.), *Africa in economic crisis.* London: Macmillan.

Rhodes, R. A. W., & Marsh, D. (1992). *Policy networks in British government*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ross-Larson, B. C. (2006). *Assessing regional integration in Africa II: Rationalizing regional economic communities* (2nd ed., Vol. 2, B. C. Ross-Larson, Ed.). New York, NY: United Nations Publications.

Rouhani, S. (2007). Internationalization of South African higher education in the Post-Apartheid Era. *Journal for Studies in International Education*, 470–485.

Ruffio, P., Heinamaki, P., & Tchoukaline, C. C. (2010). State of play of the Bologna process in the tempus countries of the Southern Mediterranean (2009/2010). *A Tempus Study* (03). (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, European Commission. Available from EU Bookshop.)

RUFORUM. (2016a). *The regional universities forum for capacity building in agriculture.* Retrieved from http://www.ruforum.org/about-us

RUFORUM. (2016b). *Annual report 2013–2014, Annex 3*. Retrieved from http://www.ruforum.org/sites/default/files/Annual&20Report&202013&202014.pdf

Rugumamu, S. (2004). Africa's search for regional co-operation and integration in the 21st century. *Working Paper presented as the African Capacity Building Programme* (ACBF).

SADC. (1992, August 17). Declaration and treaty of the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Windhoek, Namibia: SADC. Retrievedf from http://www.sadc.int/files/8613/5292/8378/Declaration__Treaty_of_SADC.pdf

SADC. (1997, October 8). Protocol on education and training in the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Blantyre, Malawi. Retrieved from http://www.sadc.int/files/3813/5292/8362/Protocol_on_Education__Training1997.pdf

Saha, N. (2015). Higher education regionalization in Asia Pacific: Implications for governance, citizenship and university transformation. *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education, 1*(3). Retrieved from http://preserve.lehigh.edu/fire/vol1/iss3/4

Sahawel, W. (2014). African Virtual University to Launch 29 e-Learning Centres. *University World News* (Africa Edition, Issue No. 330).

Saint, W. S. (1992). *Universities in Africa: Stratagies for stablization and revitalization.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

Salim, S. A. (2001, August). The challenges facing Africa for the coming decade. *DPMN Bulletin, 8*(2), 6.

Salmi, J. (2003). Constructing knowledge societies: New challenges for tertiary education. *Higher Education in Europe, 28*(1), 65–69.

Samoff, J., & Carrol, B. (2004). *Conditions, coalitions, and influence: The World Bank and higher education in Africa.* The Annual Conference of the Comparative and International Education Society, Salt Lake City, UT.

SARUA. (2014, May 13). *SARUA's aim is thus to strengthen the leadership and institutions of higher education in the southern African region*. Retrieved from http://www.sarua.org/

Sawyerr, A. (2002). *Challenges facing African universities.* Paper prepared for 45th Annual Meeting of the African Studies Association, Washington, DC.

Sawyerr, A. (2004). African universities and the challenge of research capacity development. *Boston College & Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa, 2*(1), 211–140.

Schemm, Y. (2013). Africa doubles research output over past decade, moves towards a knowledge-based economy. *Research Trends*, 11–14.

Scholte, J. A. (2000). What is happening? In J. B. Smith (Ed.), *Globalization: A critical introduction* (pp. 13–15). New York, NY: Martin's Press.

Schuetze, C. F. (2012, July 29). *The New York times: Europe: Erasmus exchange programme celebrates 25th Year*. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2012/07/30/world/europe/30iht-educside30.html?_r=0

Scott, P. (1998). Massification, internationalization and globalization. In P. Scott (Ed.), *The globalization of higher education* (pp. 108–129). Buckingham: The Society for Research into Higher Education/ Open University Press.

Second Action Plan. (2013). *Thematic partnership on migration, mobility and employment action plan 2011–2013.* European Commission.

Seepe, S. (2004). *Towards an African identity of higher education*. Pretoria: Vista University and Skotaville Media.

Sehoole, C., & De Wit, H. (2014). The regionalization, internationalization, and globalization of African higher education. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *1*(1), 217–241.

Sehoole, C., & Knight, J. (2013). (Eds.). *Interationalization of African higher education: Towards achieving the MDGs*. Netherlands: Sense Publishers.

Sehoole, C. T. (2006). Internationalization of higher education in South Africa: A historical review. *Perspectives in Education, 24*(4), 1–13.

Seidel, H. (1991). Internationalization: A new challenge for universities. *Higher Education, 21*(3), 289–296.

Shabani, J. (2006). Higher education in French-speaking sub-Saharan Africa. In J. J. Altbach & J. J. Altbach (Ed.), *International handbook for higher education.* The Netherlands: Springer.

Shabani, J. (2008). The role of key regional actors and programmes. In D. Teferra & J. Knight (Eds.), *Higher education in Africa: The international dimension* (pp. 464–489). Accra/Boston, MA: AAU/ CIHE.

Shabani, J. (2013). Quality regimes in Africa: The reality and the aspirations. *Chronicle of African Higher Education*.

Shabani, J. (2014, January 26). UNESCO virtual institute to help improve higher education quality. *University World News* (Issue No. 304). Retrieved from http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140123180356367

Shabani, J., & Obebukola, P. A. (Eds.). (2013). *Guide to effective teaching and learning in higher education in Africa.* Bamako, Mali: UNESCO Bamako Office.

FURTHER READING

Shabani, J., & Okebukola, P. A. (Eds.). (2014). *Guide on quality assurance in higher education in Africa.* Bamako, Mali: UNESCO.

Shabani, J., Okebukola, P., & Oyewole, O. (2014). Quality assurance in Africa: Towards a continental higher education and research space. *International Journal of African Higher Education*, *1*(1).

Shackleton, L. (2007). *USHEPIA 1992–2007*. Retrieved from http://www.ushepia.uct.ac.za/sites/default/files/image_tool/images/322/About/Evaluations_PDFs/USHEPIA-REPORT-1992-2007.pdf

Shanyanana, R. N., & Ndofirepi, A. P. (2015). Contestation in the 21st century African university: Local and global challenges and opportunities. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 6*(1), 53–60.

Shields, P. M., & Tajalli, H. (2006). Intermediate theory: The missing link in successful student scholarship. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, 313–334.

Siaciwena, R., Siabi-Mensah, K. M., Mattee, A. Z., Bbuye, J., & Sibalwa, D. (2000). *Case studies of non-formal education by distance and open learning*. Uganda: Commonwealth of Learning.

Sichone, O. B. (2006). Globalization and internationalization of higher education in South Africa: The challenge of rising Xenophobia. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa, 4*(3), 33–53.

Singh, M., & Manuh, T. (2007). The contribution of higher education to national education system: Current challenges in Africa. *AAU Newsletter*, *13*(2).

Skilton, R. (2016). ICIPE: Providing young African scientists with opportunity to study. In *East African Universities Guide 2015–2016* (pp. 144–145). Nairobi: East African.

Smith, K. E. (2003). EU external relations. In M. Cini (Ed.), *European Union politics* (pp. 229–245). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sorbonne Declaration. (1998). *Joint declaration on harmonization of the architecture of the European higher education system: by the four Ministers in charge for France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom, Paris, the Sorbonne.* Sorbonne.

Stromquist, N. (2002). *Education in a globalized world: The connectivity of economic power, technology, and knowledge.* Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.

Supachai, Y., & Nopraenue, D. (2008). *Harmonization of higher education: Lessons learned from the Bologna process.* Bangkok: Seameo Rihed.

Tadaki, M. (2013, June). How are we doing internationalization? *University World News*, *274*.

Tati, G. (2010). Student migration in South Africa: A special reference to the youth from francophone Africa. *Espace populations sociétés [En ligne]*, 281–296.

Teferra, D. (2000). *Revisiting the doctrine of human capital mobility in the information age*. The Regional conference on brain drain and capacity building in Africa, Addis Ababa.

Teferra, D. (2012, January 30). Harmonization and tuning: Integrating the African higher education space. *The World View*. Retrieved from http://www.insidehighered.com/blogs/harmonization-and-tuning-integrating-african-higher-educationspace

Teferra, D., & Altbach, P. G. (2004). African higher education: Challenges for the 21st century. *Higher Education, 47*(1), 21–50.

Teichler, U. (2001). Changes of ERASMUS under the umbrella of SOCRATES. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 5*(3), 201–227.

Teichler, U. (2004). Changing structures of the higher education systems: The increasing complexity of underlining forces. In *Diversification of higher education and the changing role of knowledge research* (pp. 3–17). Paris: UNESCO Forum Regional Scientific Committee for Europe and North America.

Teichler, U. (2004). The changing debate on internationalization of higher education. *Higher Education, 48*(1), 5–26.

Teichler, U. (2009). Internationalization of higher education: European experiences. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, *10*(1), 93–106.

Teichler, U. (2009). Student mobility and staff mobility in the European higher education area beyond 2010. In B. M. Kehm, J. Huisman, & B. Stensaker (Eds.), *The European higher education area: Perspectives on a moving target.* Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

Tempus Office Armenia. (2010, September 10). *Bologna process towards the European higher education area.* Yerevan. Tempus. Retrieved from http://www.tempus.am/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1170&Itemid=583

Tempus Study. (2010). *State of play of the Bologna process in the Tempus countries of the Southern Mediterranean (2009–2010).* Armenia: European Commission Education Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency.

Terada, T. (2003). Constructing an 'East Asian' concept and growing regional identity; From EAEC to ASEAN +3. *The Pacific Review, 16*(2), 251–277.

Teshome, Y. (2008). *Challenges facing higher education in Africa & lessons from experience: A synthesis report for the Africa-U.S*. Higher Education Initiative, Washington, DC.

TheAfrica-EUPartnership. (2014, May 07). *The Africa-EU Partnership 2 UNIONS, 1 VISION*. Retrieved from http://www.africa-eu-partnership.org/areas-cooperation/migration-mobility-and-employment/higher-education

Thompson, B. (1993). *Economic integration efforts in Africa: A milestone-the Abuja Treaty.* 5 Afr. J. Int'l & Comp. L. 743.

Tiffen, A. (2014). The new neo-colonialism in Africa. *Global Policy.* Retrieved from http://www.globalpolicyjournal.com/blog/19/08/2014/new-neo-colonialism-africa

Tijssen, R. (2007). Africa's contribution to the worldwide research literature: New analytical perspectives, trends and performance indicators. *Scientometr, 71*, 303–327.

Tilak, J. (2008, December). Higher education: A public good or a commodity for trade? Commitment to higher education or commitment of higher education to trade. *Prospects (UNESCO), 38*(4), 449–466.

Torres, A., & Rhoads, R. (2006). Introduction: Globalization and higher education in the Americas. In A. Torres & R. Rhoads (Eds.), *The university, state, and market: The political economy of globalization in the Americas* (pp. 3–39). Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Tuck, R. (2007). An introductory guide to national qualifications frameworks. *ILO*.Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_emp/@ifp_skills/documents/instructionalmaterial/wcms_103623.pdf

Tünnermann, C., & Souza, M. (2003). *Challenges of the university in the knowledge society, five years after the World Conference on Higher Education* (UNESCO Forum Occasional Papers Series). Paris: UNESCO.

UB. (2016). University of Botswana. *History*. Retreived from http://www.ub.bw/content/id/1366/History/

UEMOA. (2007). Union Économique et Monétaire Ouest Africaine; West African Economic and Monetary Union. *Directive No.03/2007/CM/UEMOA portant adoption du système Licence, Master, Doctorat (LMD) dans les universités et établissements d'enseignement supérieur au sein de l'UEMOA.*

Umlilio we Mfundo. (2007). *Review of status and capacities for the implementation of the protocol on education and training* (Unpublished report). SADC, Botswana.

UNECA & AUC. (2006). *Assessing regional integration in Africa II*. Rationalizing Regional Economic Communities, UNECA.

UNESCO & UNECA. (1961). Final report on the conference of African states on the development of education in Africa. *Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa.* Addis Ababa: UNESCO and UNECA.

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). (1993). *Recommendation on the recognition of studies and qualifications in higher education*. Paris, France: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13142&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO. (1962, September 3–12). *Conference on the development of higher education in Africa.* Tananarive: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1963, November 12). *United Nations educational, scientific and cultural organization* (Executive Board, 66). EX/Decisions, Paris. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0011/001132/113218E.pdf

UNESCO. (1968, July 16–27). *Final report on the Conference of education and scientific and technical training in relation to development in Africa which was held in Nairobi.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1976, November 26). *Recommendation on the development of adult education, adopted by the General Conference at its nineteenth session*. Nairobi. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/NAIROB_E.PDF

UNESCO. (1981). *Arusha convention on the recognition of qualifications in higher education in Africa.* Arusha: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (1991). *Inter-Africa co-operation for education development: Sixth conference of ministers of education and those responsible for economic planning in African member states.* Dakar: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0010/001003/100373eb.pdf

UNESCO. (1993). *United Nations educational, scientific and cultural organization*. Recommendation on the Recognition of Studies and Qualifications in Higher Education, Paris, France. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13142&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO. (1997). *The convention on the recognition of qualifications concerning higher education in the European region 1997 also known as the Lisbon Convention* (UNESCO, 1997). Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13522&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.htmlhttp://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002226/222664e.pdf

UNESCO. (2009). Communique. 2009 World Conference on *Higher education: The new dynamics of higher education and research for societal change and development.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2009). *Global education digest 2009:Comparing education statistics across the world.* Montreal, Quebec: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

UNESCO. (2010). *Trends in tertiary education: Sub-Saharan Africa.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2011). *Arusha convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other qualifications in higher education in the African States* (SYNTHESIS REPORT ed.). Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2012). *New patterns in student mobility in the Southern African development community*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2012). *New patterns in student mobility in the Southern African development community*. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2014, December 12). *Revised convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other academic qualifications in higher education in African States.* Addis Ababa: UNESCO. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=49282&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO. (2015, April). *Global inventory of regional and national qualifications frameworks* (Volume II: National and Regional Cases). UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, Hamburg, Germany. Retrieved from http://www.uil.unesco.org/fileadmin/keydocuments/LifelongLearning/en/Global%20Inventory%20of%20Regional%20and%20National%20Qualifications_v2.pdf

UNESCO. (2016). *Institute of statistics database*. Montreal: UNESCO.

UNESCO. (2016). *Revised convention on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other academic qualifications in higher education in African states*. Retrieved from http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.phpURL_ID=49282&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html

UNESCO. (2016). *The second meeting of drafting of the global convention on recognition of higher education qualifications takes a step forward*. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/new/en/media-services/singleview/news/the_second_meeting_of_drafting_of_the_global_convention_on_r/#.V__fxfmLTIU

UNESCO/ED/203. (1964, March 9–14). *Final report of the regional conference on the planning and organization of literacy programmes in Africa held in Abidjan, Ivory Coast.* Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO/OECD. (2005). *Guidelines for quality provision in cross-border higher education.* Paris, France: UNESCO.

UNISA. (2016a). *University of South Africa. Who we are*. Retrieved from http://www.unisa.ac.za/Default.asp?Cmd=ViewContent&ContentID=27363

UNISA. (2016b). University of South Africa. *Student Enrolments*. Retrieved from http://www.unisa.ac.za/Default.asp?Cmd=ViewContent&ContentID=15888

UNISWA. (2016). University of Swaziland. *History of the University of Swaziland*. Retrieved from http://www.uniswa.sz/uniswainfo/history.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2014). *Human development report 2014*. Washington, DC: UNDP.

USHEPiA. (2016). *University Science, Humanities and Engineering Partnerships in Africa*. Retrieved from http://www.ushepia.uct.ac.za/ushepia/about

Valaydon, A. (2016, April). *Personal correspondence with Jane Knight*.

Van Damme, D. (2001). *The need for a new regulatory framework for recognition, quality assurance and accreditation, paper for Paris*. UNESCO Expert Meeting, Paris.

Van't L &, V. (2016). *The changing nature of doctoral studies in Sub-Saharan Africa: Challenges and Policy Development Opportunities at six universities in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Paris: International Association of Universities (IAU).

Varghese, N. (2009). *Private sector as a partner in higher education development in Africa (ADEA-WGHE-AAU-IIEP Policy Brief)*. Paris: UNESCO.

Verbik, L., & Lasanowski, V. (2007, September). International student mobility: Patterns and trends. *The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education*.

Vögtle, E. M. (2010). Beyond Bologna: The Bologna process as a global template for higher education reform efforts. *TranState Working Papers*, *129*.

WAHO. (2013). *Harmonized curriculum for Undergraduate Medical Training*. Retrieved from http://www.wahooas.org/IMG/pdf/Curriculum_Harmonise_de_Medecine_Generale_CEDEAO.pdf

Wallace, W. (1999). The sharing of sovereignty: The European paradox. *Political Studies*, *47*(3), 503–521.

Walraven, K. (1999). *Dreams of power: The role of the organization of African unity in the politics of africa 1963–1993*. Aldershot: Ashgate.

Wanni, N., Hinz, A., & Day, R. (2010). *Good practices in educational partnerships guide: UK-Africa higher and further education partnerships, The Africa Unit, UK/Africa Partnerships in HE/FE.* Retrieved from http://www.hea.ie/files/Good_Practice_Guide-1.pdf

Warner, N. (2010, May 3–4). *Lessons and potential: The USHEPiA Programme Model*. Presentation made at the Conference on 'Access to Success: Fostering Trust and Exchange between Europe & Africa', Accra, Ghana.

WCEFA. (1990). *World Declaration on Education for All.* New York, NY: UNESCO.

Wende, M. V. (2001). The international dimension in national higher education policies: What has changed in Europe in the last five years? *European Journal of Education, 36*(4), 431–441.

WENR. (2007, April 1). *The impact of the Bologna process beyond Europe*. Retreived from http://wenr.wes.org/2007/04/wenr-april-2007-bologna-process-beyond-europe/

Wiener, A., & Diez, T. (2009). *European integration theory.* Oxford: Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2008). *Cost sharing in Ethiopia: An analysis of challenges and prospects*. Aveiro: Universidade de Aveiro.

Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2013). Conceptualizing harmonization of higher education systems: The application of regional integration theorieson higher education studies. *Higher Education Studies, 3*(2), 12–23. doi:10.5539/hes.v3n2p12

Woldegiorgis, E. T. (2017). *Regionalization of higher education in Africa: The operationalization of the African union higher education harmonization strategy.* Berlin: LIT Verlag.

Woldegiorgis, E. T., & Doevenspeck, M. (2013). The changing role of higher education in Africa: A historical reflection. *Higher Education Studies*, *3*(6), 35.

Woldegiorgis, E. T., & Doevenspeck, M. (2015). Current trends, challenges and prospects of student mobility in the African higher education landscape. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(2), 105.

Woldegiorgis, E. T., Jonck, P., & Goujon, A. (2015). Regional higher education reform initiatives in Africa: A comparative analysis with Bologna process. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *4*(1), 241.

Woldetensae, Y. (2009). *Regional harmonization of higher education for Africa: Background document.* Accra, Ghana: Association of African Universities.

Woods, D., Padayachee, A., Chanie, P., & Olsson, A. (2012). *Case study: Pan-African university.* Programme on Innovation, Higher Education and Research for Development IHERD, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

World Bank. (1974, 1980). *Education sector working paper.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank. (1988). *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for adjustment, revitalization, and expansion.* Washington, DC: WorldBank.

FURTHER READING

World Bank. (1994). *Higher education: Learning from experiance.* Washington, DC: WorldBank.

World Bank. (1995). *African Development Report.* Abidjan: African Development Bank and African Development Fund.

World Bank. (1998). *World development indicators 1998.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

World Bank. (2009). *Accelerating catch-up: Tertiary education for growth in Sub-Saharan Africa.* Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2010). *Financing of higher education in Africa*, Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2010). *Financing of higher education in Africa*, Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank. (2014). *World Bank to Finance 19 centers of excellence to help transform science, technology and higher education in Africa* (Press Release). Washington, DC: World Bank.

World Bank & UNESCO. (2000). *Higher education in developing countries: Peril and promise.* Washington, DC/Paris: World Bank/UNESCO.

Yavaprabhas, S. (2010). Regional harmonization of higher education in ASEAN. *Global Higher Education Forum 2010.* Penang, Malaysia: Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Yesufu, T. (1973). *Creating the African University.* London: Oxford University Press.

Yezengaw, T. (2008). *Challenges facing higher education in Africa & lessons from experience.* A synthesis report for the Africa-U.S. higher education initiative, Washington, DC.

Zeleza, P. T. (2006). Beyond Afropessimism: Historical accounting of African Universities. *Pambazuka News*.

Zeleza, P. T. (2012). Internationalization in higher education: Opportunities and challenges for the knowledge project in the global south. *SARUA Leadership Dialogue Series*, *4*(2), 4–27.

Zeleza, P. T. (NO Year). *African universities and globalization Paul Tiyambe Zeleza* (unpublished Article). Retrieved from http://agi. ac.za/sites/agi.ac.za/files/fa_1_feature_article_3.pdf

Zgaga, P. (2007). *Higher education in transition: Reconsiderations on higher education in Europe at the turn of the millennium*. Office for the Faculty Board for Teacher Education, Umeå University, Sweden.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Pablo Beneitone is Director of Tuning Academy at the University of Deusto in Spain. During most of his professional and academic career, he has been responsible for managing international higher education projects at university and national levels (ALFA, TEMPUS, Erasmus Mundus, Erasmus +). At the University of Deusto, he has been working with the Tuning project since 2001 and was project manager of Tuning Latin America and Tuning Africa, and was involved in other regional programmes including Russia, China, India, and Europe, all of which supported by European Commission. He has published extensively on the 'Tuning Methodology' and given Tuning-related conference presentations in more than 30 countries. He holds a Bachelor degree in International Relations and a Master in International Co-operation. His doctoral research focuses on the internationalization of curriculum.

Michael Cross is currently the Director of the Ali Mazrui Centre for Higher Education Studies at the University of Johannesburg, South Africa. He began his career as a lecturer at the Faculty of Education, the University of the Witwatersrand in 1986. A respected author and researcher, he is well known for his expertise in higher education policy issues. He has been awarded teaching and research fellowships at several institutions including the Johns Hopkins University, Northwestern University, Stanford University, Stockholm University and Jules-Vernes University in Amiens. He is author and co-author of several books, book chapters and numerous articles in leading scholarly journals. He has served as an education specialist in several major national education policy initiatives in South Africa, such as the National Commission on Higher Education and the Technical Committee on Norms and Standards for Educators. He has also served as a member of education evaluation teams in Africa, Europe, and USA.

Ahmed El-Gohary is currently President of the Egypt-Japan University for Science and Technology (E-JUST) in Alexandria, Egypt. His main interest is to support higher education in Egypt and the region. Dr. El-Gohary has a long history of strong collaboration with many African countries which has focused on capacity building programmes for the Sub-Saharan African countries through conducting multi-centre African research studies. He worked as a consultant for curriculum reform for both the World Health Organization and the Arab Association of Universities. He is a reviewer and assessor for international and regional journals and agencies. He co-ordinated and actively participated in many European Projects related to higher education.

James Otieno Jowi is the founding Executive Director of the African Network for Internationalization of Education (ANIE) whose secretariat is based at Moi University in Kenya. He is also a Senior Lecturer at the School of Education, Moi University and specializes in Comparative Studies in Education, Higher Education and Internationalization of Education. He holds a Bachelor of Education and a Masters in Linguistics from Moi University, a Masters in Comparative and International Education from University of Oslo, Norway and is completing a doctorate in Leadership and Governance of Higher Education at the Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies (CHEPS), University of Twente, Netherlands. He has published and presented numerous conference papers in his research areas.

Jane Knight of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto, focuses her research on the international dimension of higher education at the institutional, national, regional and international levels. Her work in over 70 countries with universities, governments, and UN Agencies helps to bring a comparative, development and international perspective to her research, teaching and policy work. She has been a visiting scholar at numerous universities including in the USA, India, Japan, Malaysia, United Arab Emirates, Germany and South Africa. She is the author of numerous publications on internationalization concepts and strategies, quality assurance, institutional management, trade, education hubs, and cross-border education. She is the co-founder of the African Network for the Internationalization of Education and sits on the advisory boards of several international organizations, universities, and journals. She is the recipient of several awards and honorary doctorates from the University of Exeter in the United Kingdom and Symbiosis International University in India and received the Outstanding Researcher Award from the European Association for Institutional Research and the Gilbert Medal from Universitas 21 for her contribution to higher education internationalization.

Tolly Mbwette is currently a board member and President of the Pan-African University council. Between 2004 and 2005, he was Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic) of the Open University of Tanzania and became Vice-Chancellor from 2005-2015. He also serves on several other boards including being Chair of the African Network for Internationalization of Education and Chair of the Governing Board of the Tanzania Telecommunications Company Limited. He is a Professor of Environmental Engineering at the College of Engineering and Technology, University of Dar Salaam as well as a Professor of Environmental Science and Technology at the Open University of Tanzania. He is a prolific author of academic papers, chapters and has also presented numerous papers at various global fora. In addition, he serves as a consultant to many bodies and has prepared many research and consultancy reports.

Bhekithemba Richard Mngomezulu is Professor of Political Science at the University of Western Cape and serves as the chief executive officer of the Mzala Nxumalo Centre for the Study of South African Society. He holds seven academic

degrees in Politics, History and Education. Five of these degrees were obtained at South African universities while two (including his Ph.D.) were obtained at Rice University in Texas, USA. Professor Mngomezulu is the author of many academic publications and has presented numerous research papers at national and international conferences. He is the President of the Economic History Society of Southern Africa and belongs to many other academic bodies. He also serves on the Nelson Mandela Museum Council. His research interests include: international relations, African comparative politics, higher education and traditional leadership.

Goolam Mohamedbhai served as Vice-Chancellor at the University of Mauritius from 1995 to 2005. He was Secretary-General of the Association of African Universities, President of the International Association of Universities, and a member and Vice-Chair of the governing Council of the United Nations University. He is the recipient of several honorary doctorates and awards, including the 2009 Symons Award from the Association of Commonwealth Universities for outstanding contribution to the ACU and Commonwealth Universities, and the 2014 GUNI-Africa and AfriQAN Distinguished Service to Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Africa Award. He has widely published on African higher education and currently serves as board member of several African organizations.

Amasa Philip Ndofirepi is a senior researcher with Mzala Nxumalo Centre for the study of South African Society and a research associate of the Ali Mazrui Centre for Higher Education Studies, University of Johannesburg. He has a Ph.D. in Philosophy of Education from the University of the Witwatersrand and a Master's Degree in Philosophy of Education from the University of Zimbabwe. Owing to his long experience in higher education in general and teacher education, in particular, Amasa has a wide set of research interests and is currently focusing his work on issues on Knowledge, change and social justice in the African university.

Peter A. Okebukola is the President of Global University Network for innovations (GUNI)-Africa and a professor of science and computer education at Lagos State University. He has been awarded the prestigious 1992 UNESCO Prize for the Communication of Science and several international gold medals in science and computer education as well as a number of honorary D.Sc. degrees. He is a consultant to a number of international organizations including UNESCO, UNICEF, The World Bank, African Union, European Union and the UNDP. He is a former Executive Secretary of the National Universities Commission in Nigeria and the recipient of the National Honour of the Officer of the Order of the Federal Republic. He is the current Chairman of the Advisory Council of the CHEA International Quality Group.

Olusola B. Oyewole is the current Vice Chancellor of the University of Agriculture, Abeokuta in Nigeria and a professor of food science and technology. Previously he has served as a senior expert in quality assurance, mobility, and scholarships at the

African Union and co-ordinator of the British government sponsored a project on the "Mobilization of Regional Initiatives for the revitalization of higher education in Africa" at the Association of African Universities. He has also served as the project officer of the World Bank project on "Quality Assurance for African Higher Education systems" at the Association of African Universities.

Pundy Pillay is research director at the School of Governance, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg and a professor of Economics and Public Finance. Previous positions include being a senior economist at RTI International; head of the Policy Unit, Office of the President, South Africa; director, Financial, and Fiscal Commission, South Africa, and senior lecturer, Economics, University of Cape Town. Other than South Africa, he has worked in Bangladesh, Egypt, Kenya, Iran, Lesotho, Namibia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Rwanda, Uganda, and Zambia. His research interests are in public finance, the economics of education, inequality and poverty, and public policy.

Juma Shabani worked for 17 years at UNESCO as senior specialist for higher education in Africa, director of the UNESCO Harare and Bamako Cluster Offices, UNESCO representative to several countries and Regional Economic Communities and was responsible for development and co-ordination of UNESCO's programmes in higher education at the Headquarters in Paris, France. Before joining UNESCO, he held several senior positions including: Deputy Secretary General of the Association of African Universities; Vice-Rector of the University of Burundi and professor of mathematical physics at the University of Burundi. Professor Shabani also served as Vice President of the African Academy of Sciences and Director of the Virtual Institute for Higher Education in Africa. He is currently Member of the High-Level Panel of the Pan-African University; President of the International Conferences on Quality assurance in Higher Education in Africa; and Secretary of the Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI)-Africa. He holds a Ph.D. in mathematical physics from the Catholic University of Louvain in Belgium and is a prolific author.

Emnet Tadesse Woldegiorgis is a Political Scientist researching higher education issues since 2006. He did his Ph.D. at the University of Bayreuth, Germany, where he is currently a post-doctoral researcher. His research focuses on regionalization and internationalization of higher education in Africa. He did his joint Master's Degree in Higher Education Studies at Oslo University in Norway, Tampere University in Finland and Aveiro University in Portugal. Prior to his position at Bayreuth University, he has been working as Head of Quality Assurance Office, Department Head and team leader at Mekelle University, Ethiopia, for four years. He has published a number of articles and book chapters on higher education issues particularly, theories of regionalization, student mobility, cost-sharing, and harmonization of higher education systems in Africa.

INDEX