

## **African Perspective of the Challenges and Prospects of Massification of Higher Education**

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### **ABSTRACT:**

This article provides an overview of massification on higher education in Africa over the past four decades. It discusses the forces behind its expansion, challenges and prospects in its attempt to offer quality education. In recent years, Africa's higher education has undergone an unprecedented transformation, including the phenomenal expansion of the sector in terms of numbers and diversity of institutions and academic programmes, rapid growth in enrollments, development of quality assurance frameworks, and enhancement of institutional governance, among other things. These transformations are a consequence of many new events, which have allowed the sector to start regaining its key position in terms of Africa's development. In Africa, the massification of higher education has taken place mainly because of advancement at primary and secondary education levels, therefore, resulting in a large group of graduates seeking access to higher education. Africa has witnessed increased enrollments into post-secondary training institutions, and therefore, higher education has faced challenges such as funding, institutional management and governance, quality and relevance and strain on its infrastructure. Massification in higher education in Africa is characterised by capacity expansion both in private and public universities in the wake of the high demand. Massification has brought in some of the prospects such as continuous improvement in education systems, innovations, knowledge management, and country's development. The study concludes that the government should provide some assistance to universities and colleges but restrict their establishment and growth to those that can provide new programs in areas of critical need such as technology, economics and sciences.

**Key Terms:** Massification, Higher education, Challenges

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## Introduction

The massification of higher education has its roots in the United States of the 1920s whereas Europe followed forty years later, parts of Asia in the 1970s and the developing countries even later, but with the highest growth. In the 1980s scientists claimed that “the prevalence of mass education is a striking role of the modern world. Education is becoming compulsory, the essential universal institution”. The rising number of students is one indicator which can be observed all over the world, and today there are more than 150 million students in higher education worldwide (an increase of 53 % in ten years) and this expansion process is not going to come to a halt (Bernhard, 2012).

Tertiary education is a prized commodity in Africa and the world over. As more and more people seek for this qualification, its value continues to decline as masses seek for the training. Africa has witnessed increased enrollments into post-secondary training institutions. The demand for this training has been twofold with factors on supply-side and demand-side playing a part. The supply side has seen large qualified students exit the secondary level and stagnated working people who seek academically qualified to scale job groups. The demand side has seen higher and higher qualifications needed for jobs that initially required a lesser qualification (Bernhard, 2012).

New and non-traditional learners have also appeared on the scene; these are "mature" students, that is, those who are over 30 years, who either had missed the opportunity of benefiting from higher education, or who want to advance on their qualifications, or who desire a career change. Lifelong learning is now a usual trend worldwide.

This huge demand for higher education is creating great pressure for institutions and systems which are required to provide higher education of relevance and quality to the many students who are attempting to better their lives through higher education (Mohamedbhai, 2008).

The rise of the African middle class has seen a major increase in the last three decades. Middle-class citizens are those earning more than US\$2 a day and less than US\$10 with this group accounting for more than 310 million people in Africa (Cheeseman, 2014). Gumport et al. (2007) indicated that increasing middle class, family wealth and rapid development had fueled the need for higher education. The middle class means the availability of money for spending and enlarging choices. This has enabled many families to support their family members in school for courses previously seen as expensive. With increased democratisation and stability in African countries, people have had to consider personal and professional development. The burgeoning middle class in African countries that is well informed and capable has put pressure on the governments to support education systems more. The democratisation efforts championed by the middle class lead to opening and innovation in the higher education system and increased access to loans to finance higher education (Cheeseman, 2014).

The demand has forced governments and entrepreneurs to act. Private colleges have matured to universities providing undergraduate and postgraduate education. The public universities have on their part responded by opening many campuses in major towns and establishing distance and online programmes to cater for the growing demand (Jegede, 2012). The massification has also been fueled by Africa being increasingly favoured as a study abroad

destination by other continents. Chow and Villarreal (2011) founded that for sub-Saharan Africa had grown in popularity as a US-study abroad study for the academic year 2010/2011 group of students. Following the other continents in the massification trend, Africa could be grappling with issues of massification stage while others experience maturation and post massification issues like Asia and America. This is according to Gumpert et al., (2007) founded that national higher education systems go evolve from massification to maturation to post-massification.

#### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Mohamedbhai (2008) used the term massification in the context of higher education systems to describe the rapid increase in student enrollment in the latter part of the twentieth century. While the use of national enrollment ratios or participation rates may be suitable to explain massification of higher education in countries that are industrialised, this may not usually be the case for developing countries. Hence, most African countries have a very low higher education enrollment ratio, but they have experienced a very speedy increase in actual numbers of students enrolled in higher education; that, too, should be considered as massification. Enrolment in tertiary education grew faster in sub-Saharan Africa than any other region over the last four decades. While there were fewer than 200,000 tertiary students enrolled in the region in 1970, this number soared to over 4.5 million in 2008 more than a 20-fold increase (UNESCO, 2010).

Teshome (2008) indicated the face of increasing enrollment in higher education over four-fold between 1985 and 2005 in sub-Saharan Africa which led to the

quality of education and research decline, the relevance of teaching and research not maintained, and institutional quality assurance and enhancement mechanisms are either not in place or are very weak and inefficient. The issue of large classes is connected to the trend of massification, which implied the rapid increase in student enrollment witnessed towards the end of the twentieth century. Gross enrollment ratios of higher education globally have risen from 13.8% in 1990 to 29% in 2010. Whilst the same degree of enrollment doesn't exist in sub-Saharan Africa, which has a lower higher education enrollment rate, there has been more than a doubling of gross enrollment ratios from 3% in 1990 to 7% in 2010 (Hornsby & Osman, 2014). According to Munene (2007), estimated Africa's population growth rate has been among the highest in the world with a mean yearly growth rate of 4.4%. Rwanda, Ethiopia, Nigeria, and Angola are the sub-Saharan countries that have witnessed the largest growth rate and will continue to grow until 2025. It is not a coincidence that these countries are also among those that witnessed a sizeable surge in higher education enrollment. Enrollment rates in tertiary education in most of Africa are at an average of just 6%. Africa has dramatically increased access to primary education, although there are still 30 million children out of school in Africa. Compared to all world regions, enrollment in Africa's higher education sector is the fastest-growing (Jowi, Knight, & Sehoole, 2013).

The pressure to get access to higher education institutions continues to grow as more and more learners qualify and enrol in the institutions from secondary education (SEIA, 2008). Effah (2005) reports that between the years of 1996 to 2004, only about 25-40% of applicants to higher education in Africa were admitted. Indeed, Lumumba

(2006) affirms that: "While Africa's higher education enrollment is low compared to other regions in the world, this sub-sector has been growing disproportionately quicker than the national economies, including the offer of jobs in the market and other supportive institutions and infrastructure."

Establishment and subsequent growth in the number of private universities is a factor contributing to massification on higher education. There were hardly any private universities to speak of at the dawn of independence in the 1960s, but by 2003, the number had grown so that in countries like Kenya, Uganda, and Ghana, had already had private universities exceeding public ones. Besides the increase in private institutions, massification has been aided by the increasing privatisation of public universities through a mix of privately-sponsored fee-paying students, partnerships and linkages. Public universities in Kenya, Uganda, Nigeria and Senegal have opened their institutions to fee-paying students who do not receive state subsidies to finance their education, unlike their government-sponsored counterparts. Establishment of satellite campuses in order to meet the increasing demand for higher education is realised in the African continent (Munene 2007).

Privatisation means several things in higher education. While a public university is usually considered to be an institution responsive to and funded by a local, provincial or national government, private universities do not exhibit a coherent model. Private institutions may run entirely with private assets or partially with public funds; they may be for-profit or nonprofit; they may operate completely outside of local regulation or be accountable to the host government; they may have owners or investors or operate as foundations. The trend toward privatisation also has meaning in the public sector where institutions are being urged (if not required) to minimise their dependence on

public funds, be more "entrepreneurial" and competitive, and to demonstrate efficient, professional management (UNESCO, 2009).

Notwithstanding its private predecessor (including colonial ones), sub-Saharan Africa has come late to modern private higher education, but the growth is notable. Breakthroughs started in the 1980s, but it was until the 1990s that there was widespread and major growth. Most countries host private institutions, with Francophone Africa being greatly surpassed by Anglophone Africa. Kenya, Uganda, Nigeria, and others are among the countries with vital private sectors, yet most countries' private share remains relatively small. Kenya, having moved to one-fifth private, is a rare African example of decline, not due to demographics so much as public universities' taking in "private" paying students. Nowhere in Africa is the private sphere more than a fourth of total higher education enrollment. Yet the sector is garnering and growing more and more attention (UNESCO, 2009).

### Higher Education

Higher education became a popular term in the second half of the twentieth century depicting the intellectually most demanding stage of pre-career education. 'Terms such as 'postsecondary', 'tertiary', or 'third-level' education underscore the organisation of the education system according to 'stages of learning': upon completion of primary and secondary education, the term 'higher', however, 'suggests a specific quality' of the advanced stage, expecting students to learn to question prevailing rules and tools and to understand theories, methods, and substance of 'academic' knowledge. Higher education also differs systematically from other sectors of education in comprising many 'institutions with a twofold function': not

only teaching and learning but also ‘research’ that is the creation and preservation of systematic knowledge (Jowi et al., 2013).

Mohamedbhai (2008), defined higher education as representing all forms of organised educational learning and training activities beyond the secondary level. These may be at the universities, polytechnics, training colleges as well as in all forms of professional institutions. According to Jowi (2012), higher education is a leading instrument in promoting development. This conviction is particularly true for Africa. Right from independence, African founding leaders clearly recognised the important role that high quality higher education could play in building new nations.

Thus, since its inception, Africa’s higher education sector has viewed the developmental role as being core to its mission, purpose and mandate. The year 1960, when many African countries were on the threshold of independence, was heralded as the Year of Africa and marked what was termed the ‘development decade’. The role of the African university in development was strongly emphasised, leading to the establishment of national universities in most of the newly independent countries. The scale of the educational divide that separates Africa and other world regions is almost inestimable, and the gap can only be bridged by the effects of collective action. One of the areas for collective action is to expand access to education.

**Table 1: Increase in Enrolment in Tertiary Education in African Countries**

Country	Tertiary Enrolment			Percentage Increase
	1999	2005	1999-2005	Annual Average
Burkina Faso	9,878	27,942	182%	30%
Burundi	5,037	16,889	235%	39%
Ethiopia	52,305	191,212	265%	44%
Kenya*	47,254	93,341	98%	16%
Lesotho	4,046	7,918	96%	16%
Mali	18,663	32,609	75%	12%
Mauritius	7,559	16,852	122%	20%
Rwanda	5,678	26,378	365%	61%
Senegal	29,303	59,127	102%	17%
South Africa	632,911	735,073	16%	3%
Swaziland	4,880	5,897	21%	3%
Tanzania	18,867	51,080	171%	28%

Source: UIS, 2007 \*Based on figures from the University of Nairobi’s Institutional Report

**Prospects of massification of Higher Education in Africa**

The world development indicators 2015 shows that African countries, especially sub-Saharan countries lagging behind in meeting the millennium development goals. Most of the

countries in which the massification cycle took root earlier these goals have been substantially achieved. The prospect of higher African population accessing higher education gives brighter prospects of achieving almost all millennium

development goals. Ajagbe & Roberts (2013) observed that universities produce manpower whose knowledge and leadership is needed to improve lives. Universities also lead in contributing cutting edge knowledge to deal with food security, disease, climate and environmental change and poverty. To this end, higher education acts as a means and an end. Universities power the reduction of the issues that limit access to education and hence fueling the larger access to higher education.

African countries have taken strides to meet the challenge of higher demand for post-secondary education. With several African countries appearing high in the ranking of the world university rankings, the competition to offer quality higher education is on. Many of the African universities are more aware of the conditions they need to have to compete and truly achieve world-class status effectively. The rankings and improved access to information by the public continue to put pressure on African universities to improve the quality of their programs. This gives a promising continuous improvement in education systems.

Institutionalisation of the higher education management gives a promising prospect to the African higher education country by country and holistically continent wise. The commission of University Education (CUE) in Kenya is keeping tabs on the university education in Kenya giving guidelines regularly and informing the public. National Accreditation Board (NAB) of Ghana, National Universities Commission of Nigeria (NUCN), Uganda National Council of Higher Education (UNCHE) of Uganda and other national authorities in each African country to offer guidance in higher education. In addition to the national organisations manning higher education issues their exists, Association of

African Universities (AAU), and Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) and other world university forums for sharing knowledge and experiences (Jegede, 2012).

Knight (2015) painted a picture of the next frontier in higher education- the upsurge of education hubs. She observes that country-level educational hubs are a planned effort to build a critical mass of local and international – higher education institutions and providers, students, research and development centres, knowledge industries, working collaboratively on education, training and knowledge production or innovation. Countries like Qatar, United Arab Emirates, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Botswana and Singapore have pioneered with the idea and are muddling through their challenge of funding and sustainability. Just as Africa universities and countries have followed up in the massification trend, there is a prospect of them following these new developments in higher education.

The prospects of resolving the challenge of financing higher education is a global issue that each country tries to resolve, even for countries that have gone through the massification and now dealing with maturation or post-massification. Many countries in Africa also are looking for ways to innovatively resolve the issue of funding while maintaining the quality of instruction. Cost-sharing, as a measure to share costs incurred for higher education, has been adopted by a number of African countries. Teferra (2013) identifies countries like Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe as having implemented the cost-sharing measure in higher education while other countries like Zambia and Malawi have not used it.

Another viable prospect raising funds for universities in Africa is that of establishing limited companies run

independently from the university whose sole purpose is to make profit. The good thing with this idea is that there is no limit other than the company management's envisagement in the amount of funds that could be raised through legal business. Many universities have thousands of potential customers in their students, staff, governments and communities who could generate a huge amount of funds if these university companies sought to feed their publics profitably. This idea has been espoused by Kenyan universities like Egerton University and Moi University, which have independent companies run by independent CEOs. Business run by these firms includes a cafeteria, farming, facility rentals (Teferra, 2013).

With traditional learning having been conceptualised to have students present in a classroom receiving lectures from lecturers, the high demand experienced in Africa is forcing universities to go beyond the classroom innovatively. Jegede (2012) envisaged the use of open and distance learning as a means of dealing with massification. By 2012 enrolment rate was at 6% but he saw it jumping to 50% with the use of open and distance learning by 2017. Many African universities have established online and distance learning programmes in a number of African countries.

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African universities to improve the quality of their programs. This gives a promising continuous improvement in education systems. (Jegede, 2012).

### Challenges of Massification on Higher Education

Globally, massification has many consequences for higher education systems, not just in terms of the growth of student numbers but the accompanying changes in the character, composition, and aspirations of the student population as well as of staff, the diversity and range of course offerings, the variety of institutions, the demands for reform, the demand for greater accountability, changes in governance structures and funding mechanisms, and above all, the demand for responsiveness and relevance to the beneficiary and to societal needs (Mohamedbhai, 2008).

Higher education in Africa has persistently faced several challenges, particularly with growing societal demands. With few resources, inadequate capacity and a history of neglect, the sector has been struggling over the years to respond to these increasing demands, leading to ongoing capacity gaps. The sector has also suffered from weak governance, inadequate funding, and leadership, low quality of academic programmes, and stifled academic freedom (Mohamedbhai, 2008).

These challenges require urgent intervention if the sector is to play a meaningful role in the attainment of the MDGs. Given the critical contribution and the role higher education can play in poverty reduction, job creation, research, innovation, knowledge generation, and the creation of just and equitable societies, a daunting task, therefore, befalls African universities.

Today's higher education institutions are facing great tension and strain because of ongoing societal

developments. Knowledge changed to a factor of production, and theoretical knowledge gains more importance as a basis for political decisions and source of innovation in highly industrialised societies. This study will focus on the following challenges: Institutional Management and Governance, Funding, Quality and Relevance, Democratisation and Capital Formation and Infrastructure.

### ***Institutional Management and Governance***

One major obstacle being faced by African higher education institutions are the undue interference from governments and states as to how the institutions should be run (Mohamedbhai, 2008). According to Teshome (2008), weak leadership, management and governance exacerbate the challenges faced by higher education institutions in Africa. Management inefficiencies run out scarce resources away from the fundamental objectives of increasing access, quality and relevance and thinly spread human and financial resources. Underutilised facilities, low student-staff ratios, duplicative program offerings, uneconomical procurement procedures, high dropout and repetition rates, and allotment of a large share of the budget to non-educational expenditures are largely related to management and leadership inefficiencies and capacity limitations. Academic leaders are rarely trained in the management of higher education institutions. Generally, institution leaders at all levels are poor in strategic planning, market research and advocacy, research management, financial planning and management, human resource management, performance management and partnership building and networking skills.

Devarajan, Monga, and Zongo (2011) argued that higher education in Africa suffers from institutional rigidities that make it hard for colleges and universities to adjust their

curriculum and strategies to be more responsive to changes in global knowledge and labour market demands. In some countries such as Cameroon, Tanzania and Madagascar universities are highly centralised and under the strict control of ministries of education which select and appoint faculty members (often using political criteria), determine salaries and conditions for promotions. In other countries like Angola and Liberia, universities have considerable legal autonomy.

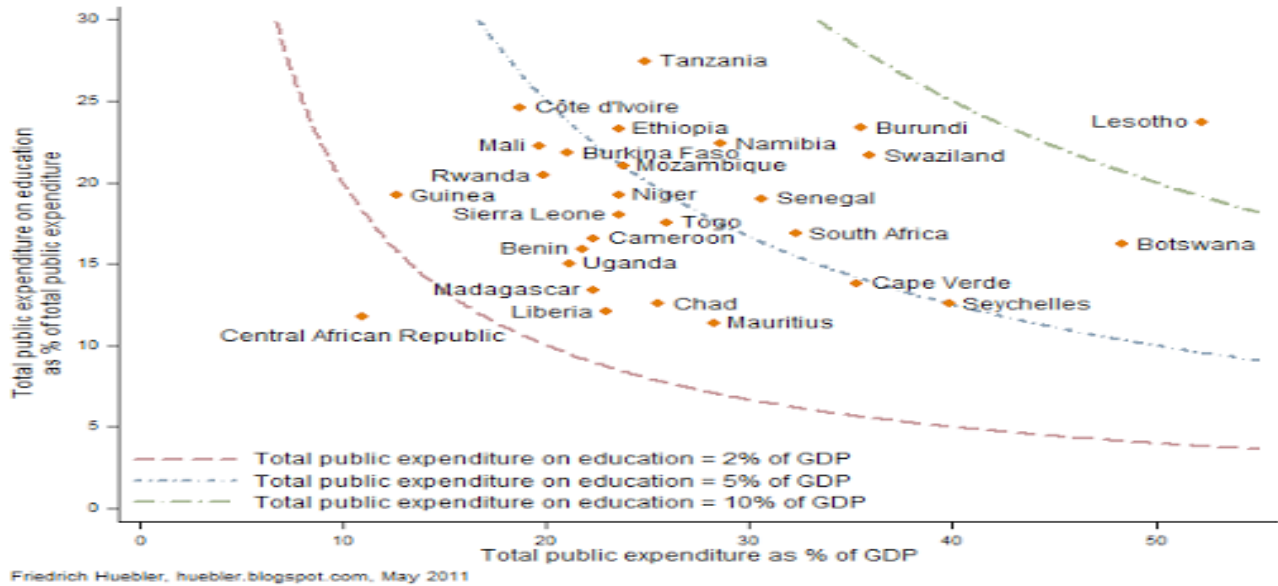
Poor governance is another critical problem facing higher education institutions in Africa. Until recently President or Head of States or Prime Ministers in most countries were the titular Chancellor who then appoints the vice-chancellor of most institutions of higher learning. This was particularly the norm during the immediate years of independence. For example, some countries have universities councils that appoint chancellors; the central government remains an important force in the administration and governance of universities in most countries. The academic profession has less power in Africa than it does in the Western world (Altbach & Teffera, 2013). The role of the state in the administration and finance of African institutions of higher learning is evidenced by the overdependence on the central government for financial resources. The crucial role of the state in higher education is even compounded by the role played by multilateral cooperation and donor agencies as most countries depend on the agencies for funding most of their social and economic programs (World Bank 2010).

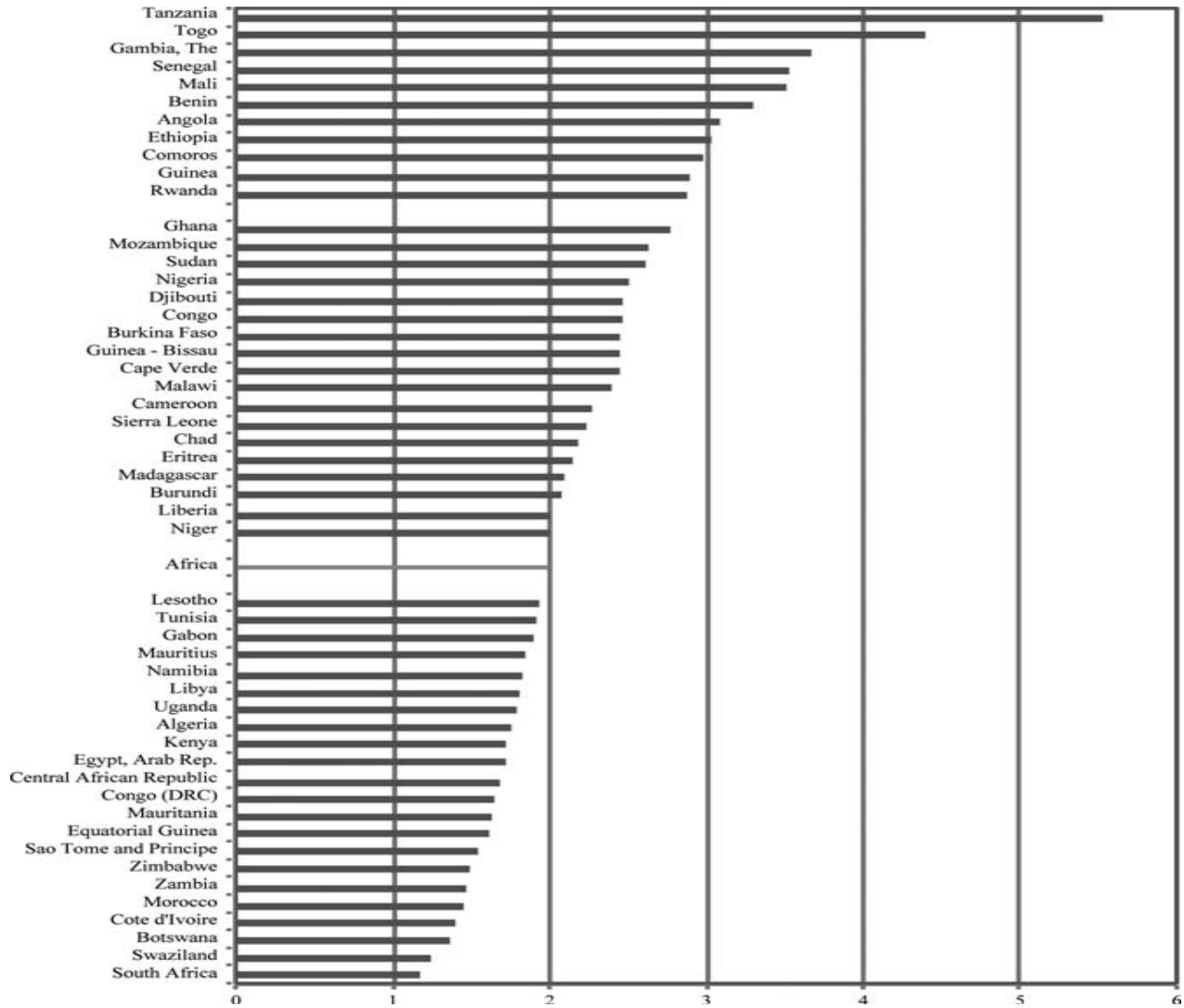
### ***Funding***

Massification, fuelled by demographics and the higher percentage of students completing secondary school and desiring higher education, is increasing unit costs for research and instruction. The overall cost pressure is increasing at rates beyond which most countries' public

revenue streams can keep pace. This is a vital trend, given that public revenue has traditionally accounted for some if not all, of the higher education expenses in many of the world's countries. (UNESCO, 2009). Mohamedbhai (2008) indicated that most African higher education institutions depend greatly on the state for funding as well as for

policy-making as far as the public sector is concerned. In South Africa, for example, the idea of government almost unilaterally funding higher education was “fallacious in a developing country”. The government simply did not have the money (Macgregor, 2014).





**Figure 2: Number of Students, Expressed as a Multiple of the 2006 Level, Expected in 2015 on the Basis of Current Higher Education Growth Trends (Source: Devarajan, Monga, & Zongo, 2011)**

The financing gaps are likely to worsen in the future and raise even more problems for Africa’s higher education system. The ever-increasing number of college and university students (directly related to the progress achieved in primary and secondary school enrollment) suggests that the current trends may be financially

unsustainable. It is conservatively projected that Africa will have between 18 and 20 million higher-education students by 2015, with about 10 countries (including Tanzania, Senegal, Mali, Ethiopia and Rwanda) recording at least triple the number of students they had in 2006 (Figure 1) above. Given the currently narrow tax base and fiscal constraints of most African economies, and their dependence on foreign aid for much of their investment budgets, it is critical that the challenge of accommodating a large number of students and providing them with high-quality education be carefully analysed.

Unfortunately, higher institutions, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, massively depend on central government finance with little support from the private sector. This “massification” and inadequate public support for higher education had impacted on the quality and relevance of academic programs needed to compete in the knowledge-based economy. Although Africa has witnessed shrinking of public expenditure per student cost of 30 per cent over the last 15 years, its average annual current public expenditure per student remains relatively high of approximately US\$2,000 in 2006 – twice the amount allocated in non-African developing countries. Within the framework of financial sustainability, African universities have been operating under the yearly fiscal and economic performances of their respective countries (World Bank, 2010).

Teferra (2013) observed that high-end expertise, expensive equipment and instruments, extensive infrastructure (such as labs, libraries and dormitories) and the accompanying requisite logistics (such as information technology) and a complex academic culture entail the higher education sector. To capture the scene the World Bank’s view of the sub-Saharan African countries enrollment in higher education is that it has grown faster than financing capabilities leading to decline in quality of instruction and

innovation (World Bank, 2010). This challenge of financing higher education faces the African governments, and they have to grapple with. Looking forward, this will be a challenge for a while, as sector stakeholders find a way to finance higher education at a faster rate to save the quality of the education being provided.

### **Quality and Relevance**

Higher education's quality is a multidimensional construct, which should encompass all its activities, and functions;- teaching and academic programmes, research and scholarship, students, staffing, buildings, facilities, equipment, services to the community, and academic environment. It can also be defined as multi-dimensional, dynamic, multi-level and concept that associates to the contextual settings of an educational pattern, to the institutional objectives and mission, as well as to the specific standards within a given institution, system, programme, or discipline (UNESCO, 2009).

Higher education policymakers and scholars wonder if the rapid massification of education has resulted in decreased quality. Drop in quality may also be a natural consequence of the changing demographics and a decrease in public funding for higher education, especially for per capita measure. As countries have begun to expand access to higher education with a minimum increase in public resources, students’ preparation levels are generally lower than before yet their classroom sizes are bigger under massified higher education (Shin, 2015).

The challenge for most policymakers is the coming up with a higher education system that combines quality with mass access. In countries where students are charged fees, more and more institutions, in their bid to raise funds, have resorted to enrolling less qualified students. When it comes

to Africa, the problem of balancing the seemingly mutually exclusive demands of greater access and maintaining quality seems much more intense due to lack of resources (Mohamedbhai, 2008).

Private higher education is the fastest-growing sector of higher education worldwide. The private sector may be necessary, but it presents serious problems in many countries among them low standards, lack of a financial strategy and transparency, that places institutional profits above quality or standards. Of course, not all private institutions exhibit these characteristics, but many do. Harnessing the private sector for the public interest is a key necessity (Albatch, 2012).

Teshome (2008) agreed that Africa's higher education institutions face a decline in quality of education, learning and research. Universities run with overcrowded and deteriorating physical facilities, insufficient equipment and instructional materials, limited and obsolete library resources, outdated curricula, poorly prepared secondary students, unqualified teaching staff, and an absence of academic rigour and systematic evaluation of performance. Lack of access to the international academic environment and the global knowledge pool has a big contribution.

Materu (2007) in a World Bank report, indicated that the main challenges limiting QA in Africa universities are cost and human capacity. Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), with around 740 million people, some 200 public universities, a fast-growing number of private higher education institutions and the smallest tertiary, gross enrollment ratio in the world (about 5 per cent), is now paying greater attention to issues of quality at the tertiary level. Rapid growth in admissions amidst declining budgets during the 1980s and 1990s, the development of the private supply of higher education and pressure from a rapidly changing labour market have combined to raise new concerns about

quality. Countries are becoming more aware of the need for effective quality assurance and quality improvement. Senior officials from various countries, including Ethiopia, 1Madagascar, 2 South Africa, 3 and Nigeria, 4 have expressed concern about the need to enhance quality of tertiary institutions, the need to assure the public on the quality of private providers, and the importance of ensuring that tertiary education offered in both private and public tertiary institutions meets acceptable international and local standards. Those challenges, together with the need to collect data on quality factors so that policy (Materu, 2007).

Oanda (2013) reported the staff/student ratio in most of the institutions was 1:30 but with some sections having ratios of up to 1:100. This has resulted in growing administrative duties and teaching load of the staff, affecting their ability to take part in research. It has also affected the teaching quality, the huge groups resulting in overcrowded lecture halls and, in some cases, abandonment of practicals and tutorials. Library facilities have also been overstretched, and most institutions are unable to provide adequate numbers of computers for use by the students. But perhaps the greatest negative effect of massification has been on the physical infrastructure of the universities, including the students' residences. Very few new buildings have been put up, and most of the existing ones are inadequate for huge numbers of students and not having been preserved, have greatly degenerated. Due to the call for variegation of mass higher education, more and more courses have been brought in, in both public and private tertiary institutions. In Africa, many students graduate in courses that are irrelevant to the needs of their society and hence end up joining the thousands of unsuccessful job applicants who do not comprehend why they have a degree yet they cannot get

employment (Mohamedbhai, 2008). Teshome (2008) argued that there was a widespread concern in the relevance of curricula, as expressed by the overall mismatch between programs of study and labour market requirements. Institutions are generally ineffective at preparing students with applicable skills and reflecting the needs of the employment market.

Absence or lack of effective regional, national and institutional quality assurance and enhancement systems and agencies in African countries and universities further exacerbate the problems of quality and relevance. Structured quality assurance procedures in higher education at the national level are a very recent development in most African countries, but the position is quickly changing. Technical capacity is the most pressing restraint in national quality assurance agencies and institutional systems (Teshome, 2008).

#### **Infrastructure**

Overcrowding of lecture rooms, laboratories, libraries and students' residences results in deterioration of the physical infrastructure and wearing out of equipment. (Mohamedbhai, 2008)

Africa's higher education institutions have seen little or no infrastructure advancements for the last few decades.

Learning infrastructure is widely inferior due to overdependence on public financing and insufficient budget. Infrastructure, such as a library, internet access, textbooks, laboratories, equipment, and classroom space are critical bottlenecks resulting in degeneration of the quality of education and learning (Teshome, 2008).

#### **CONCLUSION**

A number of strategies have been adopted by various countries in Africa to cope with massification at their national levels. These include setting up of private institutions, diversification of higher education institutions, the introduction of cost-sharing and student loan scheme in public universities, the use of distance education and virtual learning, and others. At the institutional level, the strategies include training of staff to deal with large cohorts of students, setting up of institutional quality assurance system, innovative approaches to generate more funds, greater use of ICT in management and teaching, and improving the quality of life of the students. In addition, the government should encourage universities to offer a course that matches the job market with an emphasis on technical discipline and sciences.

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