



**TILAHUN GIDEY
GEBREMESKAL**

**O PAPEL DA PRIVATIZAÇÃO NA DIVERSIDADE DO
ENSINO SUPERIOR: A EXPERIÊNCIA DA ETIÓPIA**

**THE ROLE OF PRIVATIZATION IN HIGHER
EDUCATION DIVERSITY: THE ETHIOPIAN
EXPERIENCE**



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Thesis presented to the University of Aveiro to fulfil the formalities essential to obtain the degree of European Master in Higher Education (Erasmus Mundus), done by the scientific supervision of the Dr. Pedro Nuno Freitas Lopes Teixeira, Associate Professor at the Faculty of Economics of the University of Porto

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palavras-chave

Diversidade, Etiópia, Ensino Superior, sector privado, instrumentos políticos

resumo

O sector privado, apesar de recente, está a tornar-se num sector com um papel cada vez mais relevante no sistema de ensino superior da Etiópia. Este estudo tem o objectivo de investigar o papel da privatização do ensino superior etíope, focando-se primordialmente na diversidade institucional e programática. Por isso, reunimos dados de vinte e quatro instituições de ensino superior públicas e de cinquenta e seis instituições de ensino superior privadas que conferem graus. De forma a conseguir-se uma melhor observação do papel do sector privado através das variáveis disponíveis, em cada ponto da análise foram feitas referências ao sector público. Os resultados indicaram que existiam diferentes padrões de distribuição regional entre os sectores público e privado, sendo o sector público motivado pela equidade regional e o sector privado pelo mercado disponível para os seus serviços. Também se chegou à conclusão de que existem diferenças entre os dois sectores em relação ao tipo de clientes que servem, tal como foi sugerido pelos padrões de inscrições nos diferentes tipos de ensino superior observados. Para além disso, foram observadas semelhanças entre os dois sectores em relação às inscrições dos estudantes em diferentes categorias disciplinares. Descobriu-se que as ferramentas de políticas examinadas neste estudo desencorajam a diversificação. De um modo geral o sector privado não está a contribuir de forma significativa para a diversidade do ensino superior, e mais concretamente para diversidade institucional. Por outro lado, o sector privado demonstrou uma predominância de comportamento de evitação de risco, que contribui negativamente para a diversidade de ensino superior. Deste modo, para que o sector privado contribua significativamente para a diversidade que a expansão do ensino superior exige, os responsáveis pelas definições de políticas necessitam de reconsiderar a sua abordagem em relação ao sector privado de ensino superior.

keywords

Diversity, Ethiopia, higher education, private sector, policy tools

abstract

The private sector, though young, is increasingly becoming an important sector in its role in the Ethiopian higher education system. This study has the purpose of investigating the role of privatization in the Ethiopian higher education focusing on program and institutional diversity. Thus, we have gathered data from twenty four public and fifty six degree offering private higher education institutions. In an attempt to see the role of the private sector in the variables at hand, at each point of analysis references were made to the public sector. Results indicated that different patterns of regional distribution existed between the public and the private sectors with the public sector driven by regional equity and the private counterpart by available market for its services. It was also found out that differences exist between the two sectors in relation to the clientele they are serving as suggested by the enrolment patterns in the different modes of higher education deliveries observed. In addition, similarity was observed between the two sectors in relation to enrolments of students in different disciplinary categories. The policy tools examined in this study were found to discourage diversification. All in all the private sector is not significantly contributing to higher education diversity, particularly institutional diversity. On the other hand, the private sector has shown a prevalence of risk avoiding behaviour which negatively contributes to higher education diversity. This has been evident in the concentration of the private sector in certain types of disciplines. Thus, for the private sector to significantly contribute to diversity which higher education expansion demands, policy-makers need to reconsider their approach to the private higher education sector.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

2020OPC	2020 Open College
AAU	Addis Ababa University
ACCH	Addis Continental College of Health
ADATBC	Addis Ababa Technology and Business College
ADMUC	Admas University College
ADSC	Addis College
ADU	Adama University
AFBC	Africa Beza College
AFHC	Africa Health College
ALKHC	Alkan health College
ALPUC	Alpha University College
AMU	Arbaminch University
ATDCPS	Atlas Dental College and Pharmacy School
AUC	Ambo University College
AXU	Axum University
BDU	Bahir Dar University
BEHC	Bethel Health College
BMC	Blue Mount College
BNC	Blue Nile College
CHC	Central Health College
CPUBCTC	CPU Business and Computer Technology College
DBU	Debre Birhan university
DDU	Diredawa University
DIUC	Dynamic International University College
DKU	Dessie-Kombolcha University
DMU	Debre Markos university
DU	Dilla University
ECUSTA	Ethiopian Catholoic University of Saint Thomas Aquinas
ESCC	Ethiopian Civil Service College
ETADC	Ethiopian Adventist College
EZHC	Ezana Health College

GRCBCS	Grace College of Business and Computer science
GU	Gondar University
HARAGTC	Harar Agro Technical College
HAYMC	Hayat Medical College
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HCSTC	Hilco Computer Science and Technology College
HRU	Haramaya university
HWU	Hawassa University
ILC	International Leadership Institute
INC	Infolink College
JJU	Jijiga University
JU	Jimma University
KCTE	Kotebe College of Teacher Education
KEHC	Keamed Health College
KUC	Kunuz College
LUC	Lucy College
MEDBC	Medico Biomedical College
MEIT	Mekele Institute of Technology
MEKMLC	Mekaneyesus Management and Leadership College
MITC	Microlink IT College
MTU	Mizan Tepi University
MU	Mekele University
MWU	Mada Wolabu University
NABC	New Abysinnia College
NATC	National College
NGUC	New Generation University College
NIC	Nile College
NMC	Nelson Mandela College
NMUC	New Millennium University College
OMHC	Omega Health College
PISC	PESC Information Systems College
POIT	Poly Institute of technology

PVC	Paradise Valley College
QUC	Queens College
ROYC	Royal College
RVUC	Rift Valley University College
SHITBC	Sheba IT and Business College
SHSC	Selihom Health Sciences College
SMUC	St Mary's University College
SNC	Selam Nurses College
SNNP	Southern Nations and Nationalities and Peoples
SU	Semera University
TOPC	Top College
TRCM	Tropical College of Medicine
TZECB	Tech Zone Engineering & Business College
UMC	Universal Medical College
UU	Unity University
WSU	Wolaita Sodo University
WU	Wollega University
YIDEC	Yardstick International Distance Education College
ZBC	Zega Business College

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The issue of diversity in higher education came to the forefront in higher education policies, policy researches and literatures since the second half of the 20th century. Government policies towards higher education have often iterated intention of creating higher education systems that are more flexible, adaptive, and responsive to community needs and economic priorities (Goedegebuure et al., 1994:317). In some countries, coordinating agencies have been set up to ensure that post-secondary institutions serve societal needs, with the minimum of duplication. In others, academic institutions have been brought into centralized systems that allocate responsibilities and resources (Altbach, 1999a:311).

The issue of diversity has become also very important in the case of Ethiopia. The political support the Ethiopian government has given towards higher education diversity can be traced to the Ethiopian Education and Training Policy (FDRE, 1994). A statement taken from the introductory section and a few articles from different sections of the policy document show this. In the introduction section it is stated:

...Higher education institutions are found only in very few regions: they are overcrowded and their research capacity is very low (Page 3).

In the general objectives section the policy stipulates the following as one of the objectives of education and training:

Bring up citizens who can take care of and utilize resources wisely, who are trained in various skills, by raising the private and social benefits of education (Article 2.1.2).

An article from the curriculum section states:

The preparation of curriculum will be based on the stated objectives of education, ensuring that the relevant standard and the expected profile of students are achieved (Article, 3.1.1).

And at last in its educational structure section the policy states:

Parallel to general education, diversified technical and vocational training will be provided for those who leave school from any level of education (Article 3.2.8).

To date there are widely held arguments that market coordination of higher education yields diversified higher education. However, it seems that there is no an agreement among scholars as to the role of governments in market forms of higher education steering to effect diversity. By market steering of higher education we mean a situation in which higher education is driven by markets principles such as demand, supply, consumer choice, often leading to the privatization of the public higher education (including funding) and the provision of higher education by private sector.

As higher education expands and student enrolments grow, higher education institutions proliferate and tend to become differentiated by type and role to cater for student cohort with an array of differentiated interests, goals for education and abilities (Altbach, 1999b:8). The high demand for post-secondary education and the inability of the public sector to meet the demands have created favourable conditions for the proliferation of private higher education institutions in Ethiopia. Currently, the private higher education institutions outnumber the public ones. Yet little is known about the role privatization has played in diversity of higher education. Diversity can have intersectoral dimension as between public and private as well as intrasectoral dimension that is between institutions belonging to the same sector- public or private.

This study sets out to see the role of private higher education institutions in diversity in Ethiopia. Thus, the study basically focuses on the private sector which makes it intrasectoral study. Though intrasectoral diversity itself is multidimensional as will be seen later, this study deals with institutional and programme diversity. This research report has five chapters. After the introduction, the second chapter presents the theoretical ideas as well as empirical evidences depicting the role of private higher education institutions on diversity. In the third chapter is discussed privatization of higher education in the Ethiopian context. In the fourth chapter is presented the methodology used in this study and the

analysis of the data. The fifth chapter will present some concluding remarks about the issues studied.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In the higher education setting, the concept diversity is treated and understood differently. A useful general definition that is relevant for this study is provided by Trow (1995), and cited by Meek et al. (2000:3). Trow describes diversity in higher education as:

“... the existence of distinct forms of post-secondary education, of institutions and groups of institutions within a state or nation that have different and distinctive missions, educate and train for different lives and careers, have different styles of instruction, are organised and funded and operate under different laws and relationships to government.”.

The above quotation indicates that in the higher education context diversity is multidimensional. And when one talks of diversity, he/she has to be specific as to which aspect is considered. Indeed there are claims that one of the problems contributing to inconsistent findings on diversity effect of policy is lack of operationalization of the concept. Corroborating this point, Neave (1996) emphasizes that the degree of dynamism of any higher education system is dependent on the level of aggregation at which observation occurs. He also stresses the importance of defining at what level questions of diversity and convergence are being investigated: discipline, institution or system.

As indicated in the introduction section of this paper, diversity of higher education is assuming greater importance nowadays. It is also becoming one of the agenda of higher education policy statements of nation states. This should not come to a surprise considering its perceived benefits. For example, Stadtman cited in Meek & Wood (1998:5) states:

Diversity increases the range of choices available to learners; it makes higher education available to virtually everyone; it matches education to the needs and abilities of individual students; it enables institutions to select their own mission and confine their activities; it responds to the pressures of a society (complex and diversified in itself); and it becomes a precondition of college and university freedom and autonomy.

Despite long-standing failure in being specific enough in an aspect of diversity considered, scholarly works that are focusing on specific aspects of higher education diversity are emerging. Cases in point relevant to this study are Teixeira & Amaral (2001) and Huisman & Morpew (1998). Teixeira & Amaral made case studies of higher education systems of Portugal, Romania, Hungary, Chile, Brazil, the Philippines, and Thailand. In their study, programme diversity was one of the focal areas. Their findings indicated that private institutions have sought to innovate and to provide new kinds of programmes and other products in circumstances in which the public institutions were more constrained or less dynamic. However, they also unveiled that the innovations concentrated in popular subject areas with low investment costs. Huisman & Morpew, on the other hand, examined the effects on programme innovation and duplication of government policies in the USA and Dutch higher education. They found out that within the USA state systems studied, centralized systems were less likely to add duplicative degree programmes and more likely to add innovative degree programmes and thereby increase the diversity of their system's total programme offerings. In contrast, among the Dutch universities, centralization policy discouraged programme diversity.

Diversity cannot be understood in isolation from the way in which governments manage and structure higher education systems (Meek et al., 2000:1). It is incontestable fact that governments' initiatives to privatize the provision of higher education constitute an important element in this regard. Privatization provides a good starting point for the discussion of the relationship of markets to diversity (Teixeira & Amaral, 2001:361).

Upon the enactment of Higher Education Proclamation (FDRE 351/2003), Higher Education Strategy Centre was established in Ethiopia. This centre is autonomous one but accountable to Ministry of Education. According to Article 89 of the proclamation, this centre is entrusted to: 1) formulate strategies that will enable the guidelines of the higher education to be successful and compatible with current domestic and international changes; 2) guide the reform guideline carried out in the higher education sector; 3) formulate strategy that enables higher education to address the needs of the country; 4) formulate long-term higher education strategy in line with the development plan of the government; 5) conduct research and studies on current policies, practices, education and training

matters and propose viable alternatives and serve as a resource centre for reform activities; 6) give opinion of reform on the higher education strategy and plan of the country and 7) determine the salary and benefits of staff, upon approval by the government.

This centre conducted an extensive study intended to give recommendations to the 13 new universities the Ethiopian government planned to establish by 2006. Drawing on literature reviews, document analysis, interviews, a series of workshops and focus group discussions with stakeholders, the centre forwarded a list of recommendations. One of these recommendations was that the new higher education institutions should be part of a set of interrelated and complementary institutions, each with a particular and different function and goals within the system. In direct relation to diversity the centre documented that in its series of workshops stakeholders argued for the view that the new universities should not be replicas of the existing universities in their programmes (Ashcroft, 2005). The centre specifically recommends the new higher education institutions should be much more specialist, all but a few focusing on a limited range of subjects, having large specialist resources and facilities and enrolling many hundreds of students on each of the few programmes offered (*ibid*). This indicates that the issue of higher education diversity is among the emergent agenda in the country's higher education.

In Ethiopia private provision of higher education started just a decade ago. According to MOE (2009) and HERQA (2008) currently 56 private higher education institutions have the accreditation to offer degree programmes. Though privatization of higher education has increased access to secondary school leavers thereby adding to the country's human capital, little is known whether it has resulted in diversity, especially institutional and programme diversity. In addition, studies conducted elsewhere are coming with inconsistent results. Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine the role of privatization in institutional and programme diversity in the Ethiopian higher education system.

To this effect, the study seeks to answer the following leading questions.

1. What has been the impact of private higher education institutions in institutional diversity?
2. What have been the effects of private higher education institutions in programme diversity?
3. What has been the effectiveness of some policy tools on the behaviour of private higher education institutions, namely by steering them towards diversity?

1.2 Significance of the Study

This study is significant in that it may:

1. add up to a cross national perspective on the institutional as well as programme diversity role of privatization.
2. contribute to help the government to take informed measures to effect institutional and programme diversity.
3. create awareness on the part of private higher education institutions to take into account the contribution they are making to higher education diversity.

1.3 Delimitation of the Study

Diversity of higher education encompasses not only programmatic and institutional but also other aspects such as staff and student diversity. However, because of time limit to gather data and unavailability of such a data in a specific centre, the study deals with institutional and programme diversity. Research constitutes an important aspect of diversity in higher education studies. However, Ethiopia's higher education system is very weak in terms of the quality and volume of its research activity and output (Ashcroft, 2004). Moreover, there are no documentations of research activities as stipulated in the reports of quality audits done by HERQA from 2007-2008. Thus, research is not included in this study.

Institutional diversity was seen only from the perspectives of regional distribution, intrasectoral variation of the private higher education institutions by ownership patterns, and share in graduating students for the same reason as above. As regards programme

diversity, mode of delivery of programmes, duplication indices of programmes and enrolment patterns of students in the programmes are used as indices.

In this study, only undergraduate degree programmes were included as one index to cater programme diversity. Postgraduate studies are not included. This is so because at the private sector there are only two institutions that offer such programmes in limited areas. Thus, it would not add significantly to our knowledge of programme diversity. Moreover, since over 97.2% of all enrolment is at the undergraduate degree level (MOE, 2009:59) diversity at undergraduate programmes can be used as indicator of diversity in the Ethiopian higher education system.

1.4 Definition of Terms

Higher Education: - In the Ethiopian system of education higher education is a structure that refers to studies leading to qualifications to first degree and above the first degree (MOE, 2009:59).

Privatization: - In this study privatization refers to ownership and financing of higher education by sources other than the government.

CHAPTER TWO

PRIVATIZATION AND DIVERSITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

This chapter deals with issues related to privatization and diversity of higher education. Three different areas are dealt here. The first section sheds light on the different dimensions of higher education diversity. The second section deals with the relationship between steering and diversity in higher education. The third section introduces us with the different ways private higher education institutions may contribute to diversity.

2.1 Dimensions of Diversity in Higher Education

In many studies, higher education diversity is treated as multidimensional. Some of these typologies are found in Birnbaum (1983) cited in Huisman (1995), Kivinen & Rinne (1996), and Marginson (1998). The following paragraphs expose readers to the dimensions the authors proposed.

Birnbaum (1983) cited in Huisman (1995:22) distinguishes between internal and external diversity. Focusing on external diversity he identifies seven forms. 1) Systemic diversity refers to differences in institutional type, size and control found within a higher education system. 2) Structural diversity refers to institutional differences resulting from historical and legal foundations or differences in the division of authority within institutions. 3) Programmatic diversity involves the degree level, degree area, comprehensiveness, mission and emphasis of programmes and services provided by the institutions. 4) Procedural diversity involves differences in the ways that teaching, research and/or services are provided by institutions. 5) Reputational diversity refers to the perceived differences in institutions based on status and prestige. 6) Constitutential diversity relates to differences in students served and other constituents in the institutions (faculty, administrators). 7) Values and climate diversity involves differences in social environment and culture.

On the other hand, Kivinen & Rinne (1996: 98) maintain that diversification can be analysed on at least some of the following dimensions. 1) Divergence between the university's societal functions which *inter-alia* involves research, research driven training,

and postgraduate education versus their extension into vocational training, continuing education, contract research, 2) geographical distribution 3) curricular or programmatic differentiation, 4) differentiation between different sectors of higher education, 5) diversification in clientele, 6) diversification in the duration of courses, and 7) diversification in terms of funding.

At last, Marginson (1998:82) provided a summarized typology and distinguished between horizontal and vertical diversity. By horizontal diversity he refers to diversity between institutions where differences in function or activities have no necessary implication for institutional ranking of any kind - that is, those differences are not necessarily associated with differences in status and/or resource levels. On the other hand, by vertical diversity he refers to a situation where the differences in function or activity are associated with differences of rank, whether formal or informal. Horizontal diversity is what Clark (1983: 36) calls sectoral differentiation in his discussion of division of academic systems. According to Clark this type of differentiation takes four general forms: a single sector of institutions within one governmental system; single public system and multiple sectors under the hegemony of one level of government; several sectors in more than one formal public system; and several sectors under private support as well as public system allocation (1983: 53-54).

To sum up, the above paragraphs have indicated that the concept of diversity as it relates to higher education encompasses many components. Thus, when one talks of diversity he/she has to be specific enough about what component. In this regard, it will be sound to characterize a higher education system more diverse in some aspects and less of it in others. The typologies identified by Kivinen & Rinne (1996) are easy to measure compared to the other typologies. Moreover, because in the Ethiopian context as there are no ranking systems used to differentiate institutions based on prestige some of the dimensions forwarded by Birnbaum (1983) and Marginson (1998) become less relevant. Thus, this study depends on the typology forwarded by Kivinen & Rinne (1996). However, for feasibility reasons, only geographical distribution and curricular or programmatic differentiation dimensions will be considered.

2.2 Higher Education Steering and Diversity

Higher education institutions are surrounded by and depend on economic, political and social environments. Thus, their interaction with these environments determines their survival. The relationship between higher education and these environments can be analysed using approaches to organisational change and stability. Two of the main approaches in the study of organisational change and stability are resource dependency and the neo-institutional perspectives. These perspectives share two basic assumptions: 1) organisational choice and action are limited by various external pressures and demands, and 2) the organisations must be responsive in order to survive (Gornitzka, 1999: 7). These two perspectives can be easily applied to higher education institutions with respect to diversification.

A resource dependency perspective argues that organisations are other-directed, constantly struggling for autonomy and discretion faced with constraints and external control (Pfeffer & Salancik cited in Gornitzka, 1999:7). In this perspective, organisations are perceived as having a major capacity for change, but their response to demands from the environment is not automatic and passive, but active and volitional (*ibid*).

Neo-institutional theory on the other hand proposes that organisations operate in an environment dominated by rules, requirements, understandings, and taken-for-granted assumptions about what constitutes appropriate or acceptable organisational forms and behaviour (Scott, 1987; Oliver, 1997). While resource dependency theory posits that organizations undergo changes based on economic rationality, neo-institutional theory emphasises the survival value of organisational conformity to institutional environments (Gornitzka, 1999:9). These institutional environments involve governmental policies and programmes.

Both resource dependency and neo-institutional perspectives can be applied to analyze the effects of steering models governments adopt on behaviours of higher education systems. Steering model refers to the approaches governments use to control specific public sectors such as higher education (Gornitzka & Maassen, 2000:268). In his classic book Clark (1983: 136) treats steering models as ways of integration and identifies three such forms:

the state, the academic oligarchy, and the market. By state coordination he means the situation in which the state determines the governance and the functioning of the higher education system using bureaucratic and political machineries. Coordination by the academic oligarchy describes a situation in which the knowledgeable, the specialities in different fields of knowledge judge in anything to do with academic work. In this form of coordination lay members of governing bodies judge on finances, building, public relations and other ancillary matters. The machineries of academic oligarchy are expansion of subject expertise and expansion of collegial bodies. At last, by market coordination Clark refers to a situation in which exchanges that take place in higher education are unregulated. It includes consumer market, labour market and institutional market.

There are widespread views that market forces are a far better means for achieving differentiation of institutional types, programmes and activities than centralised government steering and regulation (Meek & Wood, 1997; Ryder, 1996). Nevertheless, for some people like Geiger (1996), the effectiveness of market steering in yielding diversity depends on the economic situation of the nation the higher education institutions concerned are based. For him, periods of economic stringency are conducive for market forms of coordination to result in diversity. But some studies are showing the importance of governmental interventions (Huisman, 1995; Maassen & Potman, 1990; Meek, 1991).

Resource allocation or funding and accreditation and quality assurance exercises can be cited as some of the most powerful tools that can be used by states to influence differentiation in higher education. As regards funding or resource allocation, there are evidences that targeting resources to strong academic programmes (Bastedo & Gumport, 2001) and terminating weak academic programmes (Bastedo & Gumport, 2001; Gumport, 1993; Slaughter, 1993) increased differentiation of systems. There are also evidences that competitive funding of institutions (Horta et al., 2008), maintaining binary model of higher education system and funding the sectors only for their missions (Karmel, 1998) are another financial tools that can result in higher education diversification. With regard to quality assurance and accreditation, there are evidences that the minimum standard notion carried by accreditation and quality assurance agencies most often promote convergence rather than diversity (see Proitz et al., 2004 for example).

To conclude, seen from resource dependency perspective it could be said that in a situation in which higher education institutions are rewarded for their behaviour (in terms of funding and prestige for instance) it is likely that others in the system will imitate them - isomorphism. In other instances, higher education institutions may transform themselves (it could be in terms of missions or programmes) following the changing local market demands - contributing to diversity. Both instances indicate that diversity or its opposite isomorphism cannot be understood without taking into account the environmental contexts of higher education institutions. On the other hand, drawing on neo-institutional theory, it could be argued that organizations can undergo changes if they are in line with norms and regulatory frameworks surrounding them. This theory captures the unintended as well as the intended outcomes of the attempts governments make in relation to diversification of higher education institutions. Thus, in this study an attempt will be made to see if these perspectives can explain the diversification study at hand.

With regard to the steering approaches, the studies seen above pointed out that diversification of higher education can best be understood in the context of steering mechanisms put in place. In addition, the notion that market forces are sufficient forces to affect higher education's diversity can be challenged by the very fact that there are always market imperfections (Jongbloed, 2003; Teixeira et al., 2004) in institutions like higher education that the governmental hand is warranted. Thus, it could be argued that market forces or governmental steering alone do not result in higher education diversity. A steering approach that blends the two forces which Neave and Van Vught (1991) term state supervision model is an effective instrument of promoting higher education diversity. The state supervision model combines the positive aspects of state coordination model and market coordination model. The use of state coordination alone would normally result in homogeneity as it focuses on uniformity of activities of higher education systems. On the other hand, relying only on the market model of coordination may result in emulation of activities in higher education. But in state supervision model, higher education institutions are given considerable autonomy over their activities with the government steering them with its funding and accountability mechanisms.

In the Ethiopian context, a policy framework that will change the picture that we have in higher education diversity is issued in 2008 as we will see it later in this paper. However, it is too early to see its effects on diversity. Thus, in this study the policy tools addressed are only funding and accreditation and quality assurance exercises.

2.3 Private Higher Education and Diversity

Private higher education is characterized as having diversity as its key feature (Levy, 2006). Private higher education institutions can contribute to diversity by adding to sectoral differentiation, introducing specialized, market driven, and short cycle courses by serving a variety of clientele including non-traditional students. In relation to this, studies have been conducted on the roles of the private sector in sectoral differentiation, and programme diversification, as well as regional distribution of private higher education institutions.

While many studies have reported that private higher education institutions contribute less to programme and regional diversity (see Correia et al., 2002; De Cohen, 2003; Teixeira & Amaral, 2001 for example), there are evidences that private higher education institutions are situated in places accessible to students underrepresented in the public sector. For instance, in Poland private universities and colleges became more easily accessible to young people from the country side and from working-class families than were the public higher education institutions (Szablowski, 2001). Moreover, in some cases they have been linked with the introduction of new programmes. For instance, in Russia private universities have satisfied a need in areas of study unavailable in public institutions - courses and degrees in management, business, market economy, and related subjects that did not exist in the Russian curriculum (Kodin, 1996).

Private higher education institutions are also known for challenging traditional education systems by introducing more competition and innovative programmes and delivery methods; helping make higher education more competitive; assisting in diversifying the budgeting of higher education; and benefiting through links with prestigious institutions, mainly in developing countries (Guri-Rosenblit et al., 2007:7).

Private higher education institutions can contribute to diversity by way of creating more access to different groups of society. For instance, there are evidences that in South Africa the private higher education institutions have been relatively equally accessible to the white and non-white South Africans with more black Africans enrolled in them (Ng'ethe et al., 2008:22-23). In other cases private higher education institutions have been found to increase ethnic diversity of students. For instance, in New Zealand the private sector enrolled more students from ethnic groups that were underrepresented in the public sector (Malcolm, 2005). Levy (2008) also documented that the private sector in Asian countries such as Japan, Korea and China involves many students from socioeconomic backgrounds lower than that in the public institutions, notwithstanding tuition charges. He argues that the major factor hindering students from the poor is not higher education tuition but rather factors that limit their chances to do well through schooling and thus to qualify for selective public higher education.

There are also some indications that private higher education institutions may in some cases be doing better than their public counterparts in the enrolment of women. Varghese (2004) maintains that many of the not for profit private higher education institutions in Africa are offering courses in women-friendly subject areas which contribute to increased access to women. In fact, in some of the universities such as Daystar in Kenya women outnumber men in enrolment (*ibid*). In the same vein, Levy (2008:8) states "...In Kenya, where women do significantly worse on scientific entry exams and thus in those cases cannot gain access to public universities, private universities play a crucial role..."

Despite these, there are also instances where isomorphism features private higher education institutions. While the literature on private higher education more often depicts or assumes rational and free choice dynamics that lead mostly to diversity (Levy, 1999:16), the new institutionalism highlights isomorphism, a process of convergence that yields similarities among organizations. (Di Maggio & Powell, 1983).

DiMaggio and Powell (1983, 150-156) identified three chief categories of isomorphism: Coercive, Mimetic, and Normative. Coercive isomorphism involves imposition by forces from outside the higher education institution either from the state so called state coercion

or another sector of higher education so called societal coercion. In contrast, the other two forms involve more voluntary action by the institution. Mimetic isomorphism arises when higher education institutions that are unclear on their goals decide to copy others they regard successful. On the other hand, in the case of normative isomorphism, higher education institutions are clear about what to do but tend to appear similar to others due to prior socialization of the professionals (the academics and the administrative staff) to dominant norms. Membership of faculty in national and international professional associations results also in normative isomorphism by way of keeping faculty informed about advances and patterns of research and application that contribute to faculty members' current and future research topics. As a result of this, faculty may undertake research or curricula in these areas, resulting in isomorphism.

Applying the typologies identified by DiMaggio & Powell, Levy (1999) analysed isomorphic patterns of private higher education institutions in Argentina, Hungary, and China as proxies to Latin America, Eastern Europe and Latin America respectively. Levy found societal coercion to be motivator of isomorphism in Argentina. Whereas in Hungary and China the state was found to be the coercive power.

Coercive isomorphism may also emanate from the subsectors of the private sector as Levy (1999) found in the influence of the religious institutions of Argentina and Hungary. Religious institutions exerted coercive isomorphic pressure by lining up with the public sector in the standards and quality banner in case of Argentina and by lobbying the government against the newer secular private higher education institutions in case of Hungary. With regard to the non-coercive isomorphism, Levy maintains that mimetic isomorphism is more likely than the normative one in all the three countries, since the private higher education sector teaching staff is at low level of professionalism and the institutions snap up the public universities' full-timers to teach part-time at them.

Summing-up, the contribution of private higher education is multifaceted. However, that depends on a number of contextual factors. Some of these factors could be whether they fully finance themselves or receive some funds from the government and amount of tuition fees they charge compared to the public sector. In a country like Ethiopia where more than

90 percent of private higher education institutions are for profit and not funded by the government, coercive isomorphism may not be so strong. However, with the accreditation and quality assurance exercises in place, there can be some pressures for the private sector to follow the traditions in the public sector. Also, with the profound poaching of academic personnel from the public sector (Tefera, 2005:9) and because staffs of the private sector are often graduates of the public sector which best epitomizes Ethiopian case as the private sector is quite a recent development and these staff are socialized to certain norms, normative isomorphism may find its ways. Mimetic isomorphism may also prevail in the institutions. However, this occurs not in line with Di Maggio & Powell's (1983) view that mimetic isomorphism occurs when institutions copy successful others. Instead such copying would occur in Ethiopia due to presumed student demand evident from number of students enrolled in other higher education institutions.

CHAPTER THREE

PRIVATIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: THE ETHIOPIAN CASE

This chapter introduces us to the Ethiopian educational context, with particular prominence given to the higher education system and the recent emergence of private higher education sector in Ethiopia. The chapter gives particular attention to issues of accreditation and quality assurance, because they are likely to have essential implications to the link between privatization and diversity in higher education. The chapter also analyses some major policy developments on the professional mix of graduates, which are having significant implications to the private sector.

3.1 Brief Overview of Ethiopia and its Education System

Located in the horn of Africa Ethiopia is one of the oldest and independent states in the world. Based on the 2007 Population and Housing Census, the population of Ethiopia is estimated to be about 74 Million. While 83.9 % of the population is rural dweller, only 16.1 % is urban dweller. The country is divided into nine regional states namely:-Afar, Amhara, Benishangul Gumuz, Gambela, Harari, Oromia, Somali, Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples, and Tigray, and two city administration councils namely: - Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa. Figure 1 shows the states and city administration councils.



Fig 1. Administrative Map of Ethiopia.

(Adapted from http://www.telecom.net.et/~undp-eue/map_page.htm)

The country's Per Capita Income as estimated in 2007 is USD 220¹. Education shares 22.8% of the country's budget for 2007/2008². The education structure is organized as three years of kindergarten, eight years of primary school, four years of secondary school and three or more years of higher education. The primary school is divided into first cycle (covering grades 1-4) and second cycle (covering grades 5-8). Where as the secondary school is divided into first cycle secondary (covering grades 9 and 10) and second cycle secondary (preparatory) (covering grades 11 and 12). There are three national examinations in the system. The first one is PSLCE- Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination taken at the end of the second cycle primary education, EGSECE- Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination taken at the end of the first cycle secondary school, and EHEECE- Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination taken at the end of preparatory school. Students who have earned the points in EHEECE set to qualify for public higher education institutions will be enrolled in the public sector. Students who did not achieve pass marks in all of the three national examinations will be admitted to one of the different levels of Technical and Vocational Training and Education Schools. Table 1 shows the Gross Enrolment Ratios and the share of the different levels of education from the total education budget.

Table 1. Some Indicators of the Ethiopian Education System

Level of Education	Gross Enrolment Ratio	Budget Share Relative to the Education Budget
Kindergarten	3.9%	61.1%
Primary First Cycle	127.8%	
Primary Second Cycle	60.2%	
Secondary First Cycle	37.1%	
Secondary Second Cycle	5.8%	
Technical and Vocational Education and Training	Not Available	9.1%
Higher Education	4.6%	25.6%

Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2000 E.C. 2007-2008

¹ World Development Indicators Database, World Bank, revised 24 April 2009

² Estimate taken from Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2007-2008

From Table 1 we can learn that compared to the global decline that is observed in relation to the higher education budget from the public purse, the Ethiopian case appears different. Higher education seems to get a large share. This is so because the system is expanding rapidly from two just two universities in 2000 to twenty one universities in 2008. In addition, enrolment including undergraduate and postgraduate degree studies has jumped from 31967 in 2000 to 225119 in 2008. Apart from these and importantly, the system is still highly financed by the government with 85 percent subsidy for tuition fee. But we need to bear in mind that the government does not finance the private sector at all. Thus, all the above figures refer to the public sector.

In Ethiopia, since its start, higher education was funded on line item basis. Higher education institutions develop their budget plans and send it to Ministry of Education. Then they send their representatives to the ministry to make negotiations. A very serious disadvantage of this funding mechanism has been because universities were not allowed to keep unutilized funds and transfer them for another fiscal year, they usually make unnecessary expenditures towards the end of the fiscal year. Despite the legal support for internal revenue generation, public higher education institutions did not have incentives for it. Instead, the government would allocate budgets to them by deducting their internally generated funds.

Despite the provision on article 57 of the Higher Education Proclamation (FDRE, 351/2003) that a block grant funding based on a formula was to be introduced into the public higher education institutions, the line item budgeting has sustained. It was believed that the new funding mechanism would serve as an instrument to implement the education policy of the government and make the institutions more efficient, competitive, and innovative (Meritosis, 2003:3). Nevertheless, this funding mechanism is to be put in practice similarly to all the public higher education institutions. As regards the private higher education institutions, more than 90 percent of them get their funds from tuition fees. They do not receive any financial support from the government.

3.2 The Rise and Expansion of Private Higher Education in Ethiopia

Higher education in Ethiopia is only five decades old with the oldest being University College of Addis Ababa established in 1950 in the Feudal Regime that ruled the country for over three decades. The 1960's and 1970's saw the establishment of many colleges including public health colleges, teacher education colleges, and agricultural colleges among others. As one of the underdeveloped higher education systems, until 1991 Ethiopia had only two universities (Addis Ababa University and Alemaya University) and 17 colleges (World Bank, 2003). Now there are 24 public higher education institutions.

Since its birth, and until recently, Ethiopian higher education can be characterized as an elite system in terms of student selection. Less than one percent of the age cohort did get access to higher education which was exclusively publicly owned. 1974 saw a major change in the socio-political context of the country. The feudal regime was overthrown by the military which stayed in power until 1991. This military rule characterized itself as a communist and discouraged private ownership. During this period, there was no any private higher education institution in the country.

In 1991 the present government took over power from the military government. Shortly afterwards, this government took radical measures to reform education, higher education included. A major step is the promulgation of Education and Training Policy in 1994. This policy paved the ground for the emergence as well as the proliferation of private higher education. Today private higher education institutions constitute an important segment of the system. Currently there are 56 private higher education institutions that are either preaccredited or accredited to offer undergraduate degree programmes (MOE, 2009: HERQA, 2008). Two institutions offer master level degree programmes. As of 2007 private higher education institutions have enrolled 16.9 percent of the higher education student body (MOE, 2009: 53). By 2013 the enrolment share of degree offering private higher education institutions is planned to increase to 40 percent of the national higher education intake (Wondwossen, 2008:23). This shows that private higher education institutions are getting increasingly important in the country's higher education system, thus worth studying in which institutional diversity and programme diversity are just a few.

The Ethiopian private higher institutions are presented with problems as well as frequent criticisms from the public, that may possibly deter their growth. One major problem facing private higher education institutions is the view that they are for profit and so do not deserve any special support from any public body (Yizengaw, 2007:72). This public perception has found itself in many forms. Despite their share of enrolment as well as supply of graduates to the labour market and unlike what figures for the social rate of return of higher education in Sub-Saharan African countries would suggest, private higher education institutions in Ethiopia are receiving no financial support from the public purse. This undoubtedly leads the private institutions to rise up tuition fees to a level that is very high for applicants. Eyob cited in Wondwossen (2008:188) noted that the average tuition fee in private institutions for degree programmes is ETB 3132.43 (equivalent to USD 272.08 current value). In such a situation an Ethiopian household needs to spend 24.8 percent of its annual income to send a single member to a private higher education institution. However, the national household expenditure average on education, entertainment and recreation combined is 1 percent country wide and 2.5 at an urban level, which makes it far from easy for families to educate their children. Saving is not also a good option as it is very low at household level (3.6% for rural and 5.2% for urban dwellers), which requires seventeen years of saving to pay for the tuition of a single student (*ibid*).

A contrasting reality in the public support to private higher education institutions comes from observation of some African countries. Johnstone (2004) has documented that in Liberia, the state provides subsidies to private and church-operated postsecondary institutions. It also provides financial aid to private institution students to cover the cost of tuition and textbooks. In Togo, the state subsidises private institutions that offer short-period technician degrees. In Mozambique, some scholarships are made available to private higher education students to help them pay their tuition fees.

In the Ethiopian context there is also the view that the government has the major responsibility to fund the public sector that the private sector need not seek financial assistance (Wondwossen, 2008:21). This has led to lack of political support to the sector in terms of funding. For instance, a look at the Higher Education Proclamation (FDRE, 351/

2003) shows that it does not talk about whether the government will financially support the sector. The chapter in the proclamation devoted to the sector talks merely about accountability. It is undeniable that the nation's income as well as higher education enrolment is too low. Thus, to allow for more access to higher education the government may prefer to expand its highly subsidized public sector than to support the private sector. However, the private sector could have been understood as one alternative to increase access with decreased expenditure from government bursary.

The public criticism on private higher education relates to quality. As in other parts of the world who have just come out from communism, the private higher education institutions in Ethiopia are perceived by many as substandard. In the Ethiopian context students enrolled in private higher education institutions are those who cannot find their ways in the public sector for their low admission scores. There are also instances where the cumulative GPAs of graduates of private higher education institutions are generally higher than their counterparts from the public sector suggesting inflation. Students who have dropped out from public higher education institutions because of academic inadequacies happen to graduate successfully from some private higher education institutions. All these might lead the public to hold the common belief that private higher education institutions are of low quality. Wodwossen (2008:192) adds that the fact that many private higher education institutions have grown from language schools and computer centres with limited resources must have added to public suspicion on the quality of private higher education. Levy, cited in Wondwossen (2008:192), on the contrary asserts that in a situation in which private higher education institutions grow on the tombs of communism, it is common that people are suspicious of them.

A recent move on the part of the private sector in Ethiopia is the establishment of the Ethiopian Private Higher Education Institutions Association (EPHEIA) in July 2004. This association currently has 44 private higher education member institutions (Wondwossen, 2008:208). The establishment of this association has made it easier for the government to contact the association authorities on issues of concern than contacting individual institutions. In addition, the private sector is gaining representation in key organs related

to higher education such as Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA) and Higher Education Strategic Centre (HESC) (*ibid*).

To sum up, the private higher education though young has made a remarkable achievement in terms of providing access to students who cannot make their way to the public sector for accommodation problems. It has also seen unprecedented growth in terms of number of institutions from non-existence before a decade to 56 degree offering institutions in 2008. The criticisms coming from the public corner on them as well as the problems the institutions themselves have however need to be taken care of. The Ethiopian Private Higher Education Institutions Association can be a useful agent as well as forum in this regard.

3.3 Quality Assurance and Accreditation of Higher Education in Ethiopia

It appears that quality assurance and accreditation are assuming increasing importance in the higher education agenda of various higher education systems. This has come due to the relative distance of the government from direct control of higher education and the emergence of private providers. In the Ethiopian context, the issues of quality assurance and accreditation were not important agenda before a decade. It is after the emergence of private higher education institutions that they assumed importance.

Before the establishment of what is today known as Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency here after HERQA, higher education accreditation in Ethiopia was done by Ministry of Education. The ministry simply offered accreditation towards the end of a training programme. With the ever blossoming of private higher education institutions however the ministry felt the need to establish a special organization that will have quality assurance and accreditation responsibilities.

HERQA was established by the enactment of Higher Education Proclamation passed in 2003 (FDRE, 351/2003). This agency is funded by government and is accountable for the Ministry of Education. All sorts of accreditation permit are issued by Ministry of Education upon the recommendations of HREQA. The establishment of this agency has brought preaccreditation as a new tool to quality assurance unlike the previous quality

assurance exercise which confined itself only to accreditation. HERQA (2007) sets out a list of requirements that need to be satisfied by an institution asking for preaccreditation. These requirements relate to a) curriculum organization, b) physical facilities that include classrooms, workshops, laboratories, computer rooms, libraries etc. and c) academic staff profile. Should HERQA reports to Ministry of Education that an institution has satisfied the requirements, the institution will get a one year valid preaccreditation from Ministry of Education for its degree programmes within 15 days upon the receipt of recommendations from HERQA (FDRE, 351/2003, article 63). On the other hand, if an institution is denied the preaccreditation permit, it can reapply fulfilling the requirements within 90 days after the date of notification of the denial (*ibid, article 65*).

The requirements for accreditation permit focus on the aforementioned requirements for preaccreditation permit denoting that accreditation exercises in the country focus only on inputs. If an institution is reported to have fulfilled requirements, it will get accredited for its programmes within 10 working days from the date of receipt of HERQA's recommendations (*ibid, article 68*). This accreditation is valid for three years (*ibid, article 74*), suggesting that it needs to be renewed after three years.

Apart from recommending to the Ministry of Education for issuance or rejection of preaccreditation, accreditation, or renewal of accreditation, HERQA now involves in institutional quality audit based on which it produces quality audit report. In issuing the report, HERQA aims to support higher education institutions by recognizing their good practices and by indicating areas where changes in practice can enhance the quality and relevance of their activities (HERQA, 2006a). Thus, this practice does not lead to important decisions related to accreditation. Instead, it is improvement driven. The focal areas assessed in the quality audit are: 1) vision, mission, and educational goals, 2) governance and management system, 3) infrastructure and learning resource services, 4) academic and support staff 5) student admission and support services, 6) programme relevance and curriculum, 7) teaching, learning and assessment, 8) student progression and graduate outcomes, 9) research and outreach activities, and 10) internal quality assurance (HERQA, 2006b). This external quality audit procedure according to HERQA (2006c) adheres to the following steps.

1. Higher education institution here after HEI carries out an institutional self evaluation and prepares a Self Evaluation Document;
2. HEI sends HERQA its Self Evaluation Document and informs HERQA of its wish to have an institutional quality audit;
3. HERQA and HEI agree a date for the audit;
4. HERQA establishes an external institutional quality audit team in consultation with the HEI;
5. HERQA institutional quality auditors make a one-day briefing visit to the HEI;
6. HERQA institutional quality audit team makes a four-day institutional quality audit visit to the HEI;
7. HERQA issues a quality audit report;
8. HEI prepares an action plan to enhance quality and relevance.

Summing-up, in the Ethiopian context, external quality audit exercises are divorced from accreditation. While accreditation is meant for accountability, quality assurance focuses on improvement (Proitz et al., 2004). The procedures followed in accreditation and quality assurance activities are reflections of international trends (see for instance Proitz et al., 2004; Billing, 2004). The impacts of external quality audits are not always positive. Stensaker (2003) has documented positive as well as negative impacts of external audits. In the positive side, he cites studies showing improvements in teaching and learning, organization, and management of higher education institutions. On the other hand, he documented that external quality audit also contributes to more ambiguous or even negative outcomes, for example, that money spent on the audit outweighs the potential benefits for institutions (and for the system as a whole), and that such systems trigger greater centralisation and more ‘bureaucratisation’ in higher education institutions. This suggests that HERQA needs to be cognizant that its great expectations might yield mixed results. This warrants study in the area.

3.4 First Degree Structure in Ethiopia

As opposed to the previous degree programme preaccreditation and accreditation guideline (MOE, 2002) which did not recognize three years degree programmes, now Ministry of Education promotes degree programmes of varying length – three years, four years, and

five years (MOE, 2003b; HERQA, 2007). However, in any of the guidelines which programme should take how long is not indicated. In this regard, private higher education institutions are simply following the traditions in place in the public sector. As a result, the lengths of study programmes for the same programme are the same in both sectors.

Thus, in both the public and the private sector with the exception of a few degree programmes such as law which lasts four years all Band VI (Social Sciences and Humanities) programmes are three years long. The same holds true for all Band II (Natural and Computational Sciences), Band IV (Agricultural and Life Sciences) programmes with the exception of Veterinary Medicine lasting four years and Band V programmes (Business and Economics). Longer programmes are found in Band I (Engineering and Technology) and Band III programmes (Medicine and Health Sciences). All engineering and technology programmes last four years. In case of medicine and health sciences while medicine lasts five years, such fields as pharmacy and anaesthesia last four years.

Despite the apparent lack of directives as to which programmes should last how long, there is a limit set by Ministry of Education as regards the minimum work loads for degrees with varying lengths. HERQA (2007:6) stipulates that for an institution to get preaccredited for a three year long degree programme, the programme should be organized in such a way that supportive courses constitute 36 credit hours (one credit hour lasting 50 minutes), and major subject area 72 credit hours. For four year degree programme, the mix should be 48 credit hours of supportive courses and 96 credit hours of major subject. For the five years long degree programme, it is 60 credit hours for supportive courses and 120 credit hours for the major subject.

2.5 New Guideline for Professional Mix of Graduates in the Ethiopian Context

A policy document that has a relatively direct implication to programme and institutional diversity is a white paper entitled “Annual Intake and Enrolment Growths and Professional and Programme Mix of Ethiopian Public Higher Education: Strategy and Conversion Plan, 2001-2005” which is published by Ministry of Education in March 2008. Readers should note that the years indicated in the plan i.e. 2001-2005 are in the Ethiopian Calendar which

means 2008/09-2012/13 in Gregorian calendar. This document envisages that the professional mix of first degree programmes' graduates of the public higher education institutions should be in such a way that Engineering and Technology programmes constitute 40 percent, Natural and Computational Sciences 20 percent, Medicine and Health Sciences 5 percent, Agricultural and Life Sciences 5 percent, Business and Economics 20 percent, and Social Sciences and Humanities 10 percent. The document identifies the disciplinary categories as: Engineering and Technology as Band I, Natural and Computational Sciences Band II, Medicine and Health Sciences Band III, Agricultural and Life Sciences Band IV, Business and Economics Band V, and Social Sciences and Humanities Band VI.

Apart from specifying the professional mix of graduates from the public universities the policy document seems to envisage the establishment of two universities and restructuring of an existing university with exclusive mission of provision of technology courses. The document justifies its initiation *inter-alia* by the following points. Ethiopia is going to transform its agricultural sector to industrialization. There are experiences that that there cannot be sustainable development of industrialization or modern sector with out a sufficient expertise density in science and technology. Ethiopia has suffered from brain drain to which it has not taken effective administrative measures and the brain drain would affect it in the very professions it would require most for the country's development.

It could be said that the proposal on the programme mix has not yet taken effect in the enrolment of students in the public higher education institutions as more students have continued to be enrolled in the business and economics and social sciences and humanities areas. The annual intake plans for the 2009 academic year the public higher education institutions communicated to the Ministry of Education indicates that with the exception of civil service college which actually has a different mission the institutions have reported that they have the capacity to enrol a total of 72874 new students. When we see the enrolment mix of students by discipline the institutions have planned to enrol 13215, 16732, 6051, 7346, 14547, and 15343 students for Bands I to VI respectively. This indicates the percentage of enrolment of students for the Bands I to VI respectively are 18.13, 22.47, 8.3, 10.08, 19.96, 21.05, which shows that the professional mix guideline has

already started to be felt to some extent by the institutions. However, considering the well established tendency of students to enrol more in the business and economics and social sciences and humanities courses and the enrolment mix of natural sciences and social sciences in the preparatory schools, the achievement of this plan for some time now looks suspicious unless Ministry of Education starts to assign students to different bands against their choices which students were not used to. One of the basic premises underlying diversity of higher education as stated in the early part of this chapter is to increase access to higher education for students with a variety of characteristics and interests. But if students are forced to join programmes that are out of their interests and that do not match their abilities then diversity per se becomes less important.

With the introduction of the new graduate mix for the public sector aiming at enrolling or graduating seventy percent of students in the engineering, technology, natural and computational sciences disciplines, a new window will be opened to the private sector. However, depending on the availability of labour market, it will encourage the private sector to continue focusing on the low cost courses which are planned to be less emphasized in the public sector. Alternatively, it may lead to convergence of the private sector towards the public counterpart if the new guideline is highly aligned to the labour market. Which prevails of course remains to be seen in the years to come

In conclusion, it goes without saying that for the professional mix guideline to materialize, starting from the elementary school concerted efforts must be exerted to get children to be interested in the basic sciences and align them with the planned guideline. Then when the proposed guideline comes into full effect, it undoubtedly favours proliferation of engineering and technology and natural and computational sciences at the expense of the soft disciplines, in the public sector.

To sum up, the present chapter has introduced us with basic facts about Ethiopia in relation to education in general and higher education in particular. We have seen that both the public and the private sector have proliferated in the last decade. Yet Higher education in Ethiopia remains to be elite. Considering this there are preparations on the part of the government to establish 10 new universities and the private sector is entrusted with

enrolling 40 percent of higher education students by 2013. In fact, it remains to be seen whether or not the private sector follows the new guideline for professional mix of students thereby leading to diversity or convergence. In any case however the vision the government has towards the private sector in terms of enrolment will require it to have a different attitude than it now has to the sector. But at present what is the role of the private sector in higher education diversity? The following chapter answers this question.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter shows the methodology followed to address the questions raised in chapter one as well as results of analysis of data pertaining to the basic questions raised.

4.1 Methodology

This section introduces us with the methods employed to select samples of the study. It also shows us the ways data are collected as well as the analytical tools employed to analyse the data.

4.1.1 Samples and Sampling Technique

The target populations of this study are public and private higher education institutions. Comprehensive sampling was employed to select the public higher education institutions. So, in this study were included all of the twenty four degree offering public higher education institutions. As regards the private sector, all the fifty six degree offering private higher education institutions were selected purposefully.

4.1.2 Data Collection Tools

The data collection tool used in this study was document analysis. In this study national census document, educational statistics annual abstracts of Ethiopia, guidelines for accreditation of degree programmes offered by higher education institutions, quality audit reports as well as other publications by Higher Education Relevance and Quality Agency (HERQA) were consulted.

4.1.3 Data Analysis Methods

All the data pertaining to institutional diversity were analysed qualitatively. But percentages were also determined to see the share of private sector in graduating students. As regards programme diversity, percentages and ratios were calculated. Ratios were determined to examine the programme innovation or duplication indices in both the public and the private higher education institutions. In this case, ratios of duplicative programmes to the total existing programmes were determined. This method was used by Huisman &

Morphew (1998). Percentages were used to examine enrolment patterns of students in different disciplinary categories or bands as well as students enrolments in the different modes of delivery of higher education. In this study programmes with different names are considered different. However, it is understandable that institutions may come up with programmes with a difference in title but with no remarkable or any content difference at all with the already existing programmes. To determine if age of an institution in both the public and the private sector relates to the number of programmes it is running, Spearman Rank Correlation Test at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance was employed. While the role of funding and accreditation and quality assurance on higher education diversity involved qualitative analysis, analysis of the homogenization or diversification tendency of HERQA was also done using Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test at $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance.

4.2 Analysis of Data

This section is description and analysis of the data collected. Here the basic questions listed in the first chapter will be answered in their order. To give clear picture of regional disparity of the public and private higher education institutions locations, data on regional distribution of the Ethiopian population is presented below. In this study, the source of all enrolment figures is the Education Statistics Annual Abstract published in January 2009. While the data for the types of programmes are taken from both the 2009 Education Statistics Annual Abstract and HERQA (2008) document.

Table 2. Regional Distribution of Ethiopian Population

Region	Population Size		Population Age 18-24	
	Figure	% in the Country	Figure	% in the Age Group
Addis Ababa*	2,738,248	3.70	581,920	5.84
Afar	1,411,092	1.91	181,939	1.82
Amhara	17,214,056	23.29	2,330,173	23.40
Benishangul Gumuz	670,847	0.91	96,337	0.97
Diredawa*	342,827	0.46	56,208	0.56
Gambella	306,916	0.42	48,061	0.48
Harari**	183,344	0.25	27,944	0.28
Oromia	27,158,471	36.74	3,510,961	35.26
SNNP	15,042,531	20.35	1,878,707	18.86
Somali	4,439,147	6.01	676,062	6.79
Tigray	4,314,456	5.84	569,044	5.71

Source: Summary and Statistical Report of the 2007 Population and Housing Census

* Both Addis Ababa and Diredawa are cities with Addis Ababa the capital of the country

**Harari is a region that includes only the city of Harar and its outskirts

4.2.1 Regional Diversification

In this section an attempt is made to compare the regional distribution of the public and the private higher education institutions. Moreover, we will analyse the expansion pattern of the private sector. We hypothesize that private higher education institutions are more concentrated in the well developed or economically wealthier regions. Another hypothesis is that the private sector spreads from the capital city to the regions or provinces.

4.2.1.1 Regional Distribution of the Public Higher Education Institutions

There is an attempt on the part of the government to establish at least one university in each regional state. Currently, the public higher education institutions are distributed in eight of the eleven regional states and city administration councils. Gambela, Harari and Benishangul Gumuz are the regional states where there is no public higher education

institution. These states together constitute only 1.57 percent of the Ethiopian population. A large number of the higher education institutions are found in Amhara regional state, Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples regional state (5 Universities each), and Oromia regional state (3 universities and 1 university college). Table 3 shows the regional distribution and enrolment patterns of the higher education institutions.

Table 3. Mode of Delivery, Students Enrolment in each Mode and Regional Distribution of Public Higher Education Institutions

S. No	Regional State	No. of HEIs	Number of Students Enrolled in Different Modes				
			Reg	Even	Sum	Dist	Total
1	Addis Ababa	3	22,549	21,481	3,982		48,012
2	Afar	1	1,102				1,102
3	Amhara	5	26,424	6,824	7,600	7,407	48,255
4	Diredawa	1	2,388	170			2,558
5	Oromia	6	37,883	10,693	14,570	4,782	67,928
6	SNNP	5	23,755	6,289	7,580	231	37,855
7	Somali	1	2,328	409			2,737
8	Tigray	2	11,963	2,112	217		14,292
Total Enrolment			128392	47978	33949	12420	222739
Percentage			57.64	21.54	15.24	5.58	

Key:-

Reg = Regular Even = Evening Sum = Summer Dist = Distance

Even though the concentration of the institutions in the three regional states at first glance is surprising, it is explainable by the simple fact that the regions constitute more than 80% percent of the country's population. This shows that the government establishes universities taking into account the population size of regional states. This has been evident when the government upgraded existing higher education institutions into six universities – Arbaminch University, Bahir Dar University, Dehub University (Now Hawassa University) Gondar University, Jimma University, and Mekelle University. MOE (2005a:12) states that this expansion of higher education has taken into account equitable distribution of the higher learning institutions among the different regions of the county. The government believes the equitable distribution of higher education institutions serves

to enhance the capacity of regional states to contribute to the socio-economic development of the regions and to strengthen the decentralisation process (*ibid*).

That the government is establishing universities in almost all the regions contributes to equity to access to the regions in delivery modes other than the regular one. This is so because the higher education institutions do not have the prerogative to enrol or admit students in the regular mode; Ministry of Education is in charge. However, when the provision of Article 31 of the Higher Education Proclamation (FDRE, 351/2003) takes effect, universities will set their own entrance exams to admit students. It follows then because of distance and financial difficulties there will be less likelihood of student mobility from one regional state to the other to pursue higher education. Instead, students will enrol in institutions closer to them. In that case, the regional distribution of the universities will have full and more direct consequences on their enrolment patterns given the majority of their enrolments are by regular students.

4.2.1.2 Regional Distribution of the Private Higher Education Institutions

Currently, fifty six private institutions have the accreditation to offer degree programmes (MOE, 2009; HERQA, 2008). Among these institutions forty three of them operate in Addis Ababa City Administration Council. When we look into the other regional states, institutions offering degrees in the regions are one in Afar, five in Amhara, one in Benishangul Gumuz, four in Diredawa City Administration Council, four in Harari, one in Somali, nine in Oromia, six in Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples, and eight in Tigray regional state. None of the institutions found in Gambela offer degree programmes. Table 4 shows the regional distribution as well as enrolment patterns by mode of delivery of private institutions.

Table 4. Mode of Delivery, Students Enrolment in Each Mode and Regional Distribution of Private Higher Education Institutions

Region HQ Located	Total No. of HEIs	Number of HEIs Expanded from HQ to Each Regional State										Country Total Enrolment by Delivery Mode				
		AA	Af	Am	Beni	Dir	Har	Som	Oro	SNNP	Tig	Reg	Even	Sum	Dist	Total
Addis Ababa	41	41	1	3	1	2	3	1	6	4	3	5,110	8,918	16	21,734	35,778
Amhara	2			2								30				30
Diredawa	2					2						26	20			46
Harar	1						1					145			20	165
Oromia	3	1							3			411	602			1,013
SNNP	2									2						
Tigray	5	1									5	1,271	2,438		911	4,620
Total Number of HEIs		43	1	5	1	4	4	1	9	6	8					
Total Number of Students by Delivery Mode												6,993	11,978	16	22,665	41,652
Percentage of Students by Delivery Mode												16.79	28.76	0.04	54.42	

Key:-

Reg = Regular

Eve = Evening

Dist = Distance

HQ = Head Quarter

Sum = Summer

From the aforementioned figures in table 4 one can see that the private higher education institutions are highly concentrated in the Addis Ababa city administration council. Next to Addis Ababa, the highest number of degree offering private higher education institutions is found in Oromia. This should not come to a surprise as Addis Ababa is the political as well as the economic capital city of the country and Oromia is the wealthiest region. The limited number or unavailability of the degree offering institutions in Afar, Benishangul Gumuz, Gambela and Somali regional states can be explainable by lack of qualified academic staff or low demand for the institutions' programmes. Apart from this, closer examination of the data shows more than ninety five percent of the institutions that are offering degree programmes in the different regions are located only at the capital cities of the states. This can be explainable by the fact that the regional capitals are more likely to generate demands, are better off in the supply of academic staffs as well as infrastructures like telecommunication and the internet.

Another interesting fact that can be learned from table 4 is that forty one of the fifty six institutions are based in the capital - Addis Ababa, while the other fifteen are based in other regional states. Among the fifteen institutions, it is only one institution namely Rift Valley University College that has managed to open a branch in the capital. This presumably indicates the pattern of expansion is from the capital to the other regional states. A striking result from the above table is that while there are fourteen health colleges, all of them are based and operate only in the capital, with the exception of Alkan Health College having a branch in the Amhara regional state. This exclusive presence of the colleges in the capital can relate to the relative advantage of the capital in availability of hospitals and clinics where students can go out for apprenticeship or internship. According to the 2004 Health and Health Related Indicators Publication by Federal Ministry of Health, the largest number of hospitals is found in Addis Ababa with its 30 Hospitals followed by Oromia regional state with its 29 Hospitals but scattered in many cities and towns. Addis Ababa also has greater concentration of privately owned higher clinics with its 92 of the 125 such clinics found in the entire country. Thus, it should not come as a surprise if health colleges are concentrated in just a city in which more hospitals and clinics are concentrated.

4.2.2 Intrasectoral Variation of the Private Higher Education Institutions by Ownership

An analysis was made to investigate if there are patterns in expansion of the different segments of the private sector as well as the role of the NGO owned institutions to programme diversity. Table 5 shows the expansion patterns of the NGO owned and the privately owned segments.

Table 5. Relationship between Ownership and Expansion Pattern

Year of Establishment	Number of Institutions by Ownership	
	NGO owned	Privately owned
In the 90's	2	3
2000-2002	0	31
2003-2008	3	17

Table 5 shows that there are five NGO owned private higher education institutions. Three of them are affiliated to different sects of the Christian faith. These are - Ethiopian Adventist College founded in the 90's category, Ethiopian Catholic University of Saint Thomas Aquinas, and Mekaneyesus Management and Leadership College founded in 2003-2008 category. The other two are Harer Agro Technical College which is owned by an NGO known as Menschen für Menschen and Mekele Institute of Technology owned by Tigray Development Association. Even though religious affiliated private higher education institutions are so scanty in Ethiopia, the data could show us that the development of these institutions does not parallel the patterns seen elsewhere in which case religious affiliated institutions constitute the first wave of private higher education institutions (see for instance Altbach, 1999b; De Cohen, 2003; Levy, 2006). This may be due to the fact that the Coptic (Orthodox) church has been dominant sect in Ethiopia for long period of time before the communist junta took power in 1974 that the other Christian sects and Islamic religion found it difficult to participate in providing higher education. Despite its competitive advantage however the Orthodox Church has not opened modern higher education institution either.

Two of the three church affiliated private higher education providers are involved in providing low cost courses such as business and social sciences and humanities which parallels the behaviours of the for profit private higher education institutions which further contributes to dedifferentiation. Whereas Ethiopian Catholic University of Saint Thomas Aquinas is involved in offering engineering and technology programmes apart from the soft sciences. Nevertheless, the courses are those available both at the public and the private higher education sectors. On the other hand, both of the NGO owned institutions, Harar Agro-Technical College and Mekele Institute of Technology exclusively offer engineering and technology programmes. Interestingly enough, most of the courses offered by these institutions are not only new to the private sector they are also unavailable in the public sector which is a plus to the diversity of programmes.

With regard to expansion of the privately owned and of course demand absorbing private higher education institutions, it can be discerned from the table that the years 2000- 2002 are times of unparalleled expansion compared to the following six years. This may partly relate to the establishment of the Higher Education Quality and Relevance Agency in 2003. Before 2003 the accreditation task was done by Ministry of Education during which many institutions did not find it difficult to get accredited (Wondwossen, 2008:154). But after HERQA was established, a relatively smaller number of private higher education institutions were accredited. This however does not mean applications for preaccreditation or accreditation have weakened. In stead, it may show HERQA has been more rigid and restrictive than Ministry of Education. Aligned to this Tesfaye & Kassahun (2009) have documented that from 2006-2008 from a total of 115 applicant institutions, which includes duplicative counting for the institutions that have more than one campus, 48 of them were denied preaccreditation. Even though they have not made it clear whether their finding includes reaccreditation which most likely does, the same authors documented that from 2006 to 2008 out of 88 applicant institutions (duplicative counting for campuses included) for accreditation 20 of them were denied .

4.2.3 The share of the Private Higher Education Sector in the Supply of Graduates

As a way examining whether the private sector is becoming an important player in the labour market, an analysis was made as regards the share of the private sector in supplying skilled man power into the labour market. Table 6 shows the trend of the private sector in rate of graduation from the time it began to graduate students to the year 2008.

As can be seen from the table the number of students that graduate from the private sector has increased right from the beginning. The same trend was also observed in the public sector except in the year 2002. The public sector saw a decline in the number of graduates in the year 2002 compared to the previous year. This is due to the fact that a large number of students were suspended from graduation by the biggest university, Addis Ababa University because of their alleged violent protests against the university. Albeit its age, the private sector has seen at least more than 500 percent increase in rate of graduation in just six years time. Now the share of graduates from the private sector has moved from 2.41 percent in 2003 to 18.08 percent in 2008 notwithstanding the underreporting from it. Thus, it could be possible to say the private sector is growing in importance as a differentiated sector from the public one.

Table 6. Trends in Graduation of Students in the Public and the Private Sector

		2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
	Total	4,016	4,761	4,104	6,294	7,600	11,535	25,335	29,845	47,979
Public	Number	4,016	4,761	4,104	6,142	7218	10,768	24,501	29,401	39,304
	Percent				97.59%	94.97%	93.35%	96.71%	98.51%	81.92%
Private	Number	0	0	0	152 ³	382	767	834	444 ⁴	8,675 ⁵
	Percent				2.41%	5.03%	6.65%	3.29%	1.49%	18.08%

³Graduates from Unity University. These students attended their studies with out accreditation from Ministry of Education then got accreditation at graduation

⁴Data unavailable for 16 private higher education institutions as they have not reported to Ministry of Education

⁵ Data unavailable for 23 private higher education institutions as they have not reported to Ministry of Education

4.2.4 Programme Diversity

This section analyses programme diversity in terms of modes of delivery: regular, evening, summer, and distance. Here a comparison is made between the public and the private sector. In addition, how duplicative programmes are in both the public and the private sectors are analysed to see the difference between the two sectors. Apart from these, courses that the private sector is highly concentrated on will be identified and interpreted. At last, students' distribution to the different bands will be analysed.

4.2.4.1 Mode of Delivery of Public Higher Education Sector

Table 3 shows that all of the 24 public higher education institutions are delivering higher education in different modes. While all of them train in regular mode, 20 of them do in evening, 16 of them in summer and 4 of them in distance modes. From this it is possible to discern that the institutions are reaching different age groups. This is because students who are living in the surrounding areas of the universities and want to upgrade themselves to a bachelor degree level enrol in the evening programmes provided by most of the public higher education institutions. Adult population who are employed- self, private or public get chances for higher education through the summer mode run by 16 of the institutions. However, when we look at the enrolment patterns, 57.64 % of the total enrolment is accounted for by traditional students, that are secondary school leavers. Evening students usually are composed of traditional students who could not meet the academic standards to enrol on regular basis, and people from the work place. Thus, it could be argued that evening programme students cannot be characterized as non-traditional students. It is only the summer and the distance programmes that mainly reach non-traditional student group. These modes account for 20.82% of the total enrolment. Therefore, considering the enrolment of the regular and the combined enrolment of the summer and the distance programmes it can be argued that the public higher education institutions are attended mainly by traditional students.

4.2.4.2 Mode of Delivery in the Private Higher Education Sector

Because of lack of report form the private sector as indicated in MOE (2009), data as regards modes of delivery and students' enrolment comes from 33 institutions that have reported to the Ministry of Education. Table 4 indicates that all of the 33 private higher

education institutions train in regular, 27 of them in evening, 1 of them in summer and 9 of them in distance modes. From this we can notice that like the public sector the private sector institutions are reaching a variety of student groups. Clienteles of regular programmes of these institutions are often secondary school graduates (traditional students) who could not meet the standards set by Ministry of Education to join public higher education institutions. It is unlikely that clients with jobs join these programmes. Understandably, they will resort to enrolling to one of the other delivery modes. Thus, it is safe to say that the proportion of traditional students enrolment in the private sector is 16.79% a far less proportion than that of the public sector. In direct contrast to the feature of the public sector, more than half of (54.42 %) of enrolment in the private sector is in distance mode leading to the conclusion that private sector is serving more the non-traditional than the traditional student group.

4.2.4.3 Diversity of Academic Programmes

The data for the public higher education institutions were collected from Education Statistics Annual Abstract, MOE (2009). 23 of the 24 public higher education institutions are traditional institutions with one of them dedicated only to teacher education programmes. The other institution trains staff in the public service sector. The institution focuses on law, leadership, management and economics. Undergraduate degree programmes of 21 of the 24 institutions were tabulated and analysed as data on the types of academic programmes and enrolments by programmes for the three institutions namely: - Axum University, Kotebe College of Teacher Education and Mizan Tepi University were lacking. In the traditional institutions, student assignment is done by Ministry of Education. On the other hand, the Ethiopian Civil service college admits people working in the public sector who meet the standards in its entrance examination. With the exception of Ambo University College, Ethiopian Civil Service College and Kotebe College of Teacher Education, all the institutions are multidisciplinary. Data for the private sector comes from the 2007/2008 Education Statistical Annual Abstract MOE (2009) and HERQA (2008). The subsequent paragraphs present the analyses of the duplication ratios of academic programmes.

The programmes offered at both the public and the private sector are categorized into six bands described in the previous chapter. Band I includes Engineering and Technology, Band II Natural and Computational Sciences, Band III Medicine and Health Sciences, Band IV Agricultural and Life Sciences, Band V Business and Economics, and Band VI Social Sciences and Humanities programmes. Table 7 is an overview of the number of public and private higher education institutions offering programmes in different bands. Because the purpose is to provide a glimpse of the relative emphasis of the higher education sectors on different bands, the numbers of programmes in each band are put in ranges.

Table 7. Number of Public and Private Higher Education Institutions offering Programmes in Each Band

	Range of Number of Programmes	Number of Institutions offering Programmes in a Given Band					
		Band I	Band II	Band III	Band IV	Band V	Band VI
Public Sector	0	6	1	8	5	1	1
	1-5	10	9	8	10	11	7
	6-10	2	10	3	4	7	9
	>10	3	1	2	2	2	4
Private Sector	0	36	51	38	54	26	39
	1-5	20	5	18	1	29	15
	6-10	0	0	0	1	1	2
	>10	0	0	0	0	0	0

To examine the role played by private higher education institutions to programme diversity, duplication rate of programmes in the public higher education institution as well as that in the private sector were calculated. Table 8 shows the number of public and private higher education institutions offering Band I through Band VI programmes and the ratio of duplicative programmes to the total number of programmes in the band as introduced by the public and the private sector each. Please refer Appendices A.1 - A.6 for complete listing of the programmes and the number of institutions offering each programme in the public as well as the private sector.

Table 8. Diversity of Programmes in Each Band as Offered in the Public and in the Private Higher Education Institutions

Band	Public Sector			Private Sector		
	Total No. of Programmes offered	No. of Duplicative Programmes	Duplication Index	Total No. of Programmes Offered	No. of Duplicative Programmes	Duplication Index
I	42	14	0.33	17	7	0.41
II	16	12	0.75	1	1	1.00
III	24	12	0.5	9	4	0.44
IV	47	13	0.28	6	4	0.67
V	45	16	0.36	18	9	0.50
VI	48	21	0.44	12	7	0.58

Table 8 shows that the public higher education institutions offer 42 different programmes that fall in the Engineering and Technology disciplines category (Band I). But 14 of the programmes are duplicative resulting in duplication ratio of 0.33. Whereas in the private sector, there are 17 programmes 7 of which are duplicative yielding a duplication ratio of 0.41. It can be seen that the private higher education institutions offer Band I programmes that number far less than those in the public sector. Apart from this, they have concentrated in a very limited Band I programmes (see Appendix A.1). In this regard notable is computer science. Among the 20 private higher education institutions that all in all offer 17 Band I programmes, 9 of them offer computer science. This can be explained by the fact that Ethiopia is not immune from the increased influence of ICT that has swept the world. Moreover, the fact that ICT has started to be offered at both the preparatory and higher education levels as a mandatory supportive course in Ethiopia might have increased the demand for teachers of the course. In addition, compared to the engineering courses it is less costly for the private sector to offer.

The same table shows the public higher education institutions offer 16 different programmes that fall in the Natural and Computational Sciences disciplinary category (Band II). But 12 of the programmes are duplicative resulting in duplication ratio of 0.75.

In case of the private sector, there is only one programme namely mathematics education (see Appendix A.2) that is offered only by five institutions yielding a duplication ratio of 1.0. That the private sector offers only mathematics education relates to the nature of the programme and the prevalent acute shortage of sciences and mathematics teachers in the secondary schools of Ethiopia. Thus, demands in these areas are undoubtedly high but compared to other sciences disciplines which require laboratory works, mathematics is cheaper to offer.

With regard to Band III, the public higher education institutions offer 24 different programmes that fall in the Medicine and Health Sciences disciplines category (Band III). As 12 of the programmes are duplicative, the duplication ratio is found to be 0.50. Whereas in the private sector, there are 9 Band III programmes 4 of which are duplicative yielding a duplication ratio of 0.44. Not only do the private higher education institutions offer Band III programmes which amount far below those in the public sector (see Appendix A.3), they also have concentrated in a very limited Band III programmes. In this regard notable are nursing and pharmacy. Among the 18 private higher education institutions that all in all offer 9 programmes, 12 of them offer nursing and 7 of them pharmacy. That the institutions are concentrating on nursing more than others is explainable by the fact that compared to the other courses in the band nursing is less expensive. For instance, it does not incur expenditures on drugs, laboratory equipments or reagents. Paradoxically enough their concentration on pharmacy which is expensive to run due to its manufacturing courses suggests that as long as they can cross subsidize their programmes private higher institutions may also offer expensive courses sometimes.

Concerning Band IV, the public higher education institutions offer 47 different programmes that belong to Agricultural and Life Sciences disciplines category (Band IV). But 13 of the programmes are duplicative resulting in duplication ratio of 0.28. Whereas in the private sector, there are 6 programmes 4 of which are duplicative yielding a duplication ratio of 0.67. An important finding in this category is that the private sector is offering just a handful programmes (please refer Appendix A.4 for the list of the programmes). That the sector is offering these handful courses can be explained by the fact that the programmes are not as costly as the other ones which are provided by the public sector. For instance,

they do not demand large spaces such as land for growing crops and laboratories for animals as well as the animals themselves.

With respect to Band V, the public higher education institutions offer 45 different programmes that fall in the Business and Economics disciplines category (Band V). But 16 of the programmes are duplicative resulting in duplication ratio of 0.36. Whereas in the private sector, there are 18 programmes 9 of which are duplicative yielding a duplication ratio of 0.50. Apart from offering Band V programmes that amount far less than those offered in the public, the private sector has concentrated in a very limited Band V programmes. In this case, notable programmes are accounting with 19, economics with 12 and management with 11 institutions offering them (see Appendix A.5), suggesting the increased demand from the market.

Finally concerning Band VI, the public higher education institutions offer 48 different programmes belonging to the Social Sciences and Humanities disciplines category (Band VI). But 21 of the programmes are duplicative resulting in duplication ratio of 0.44. Whereas in the private sector, there are 12 programmes 7 of which are duplicative yielding a duplication ratio of 0.58. Another observation that can be made in this band is that unlike the public sector, the private sector has concentrated in a very limited Band VI programmes (see Appendix A.6 for the list of the programmes). Among these programmes notable is law with 12 of 19 Band VI offering private higher education institutions concentrated on it. This might come due to the perceived shortage of people in the field that has come as a result of decentralization process which is intended by the government to provide legal and judiciary services at lower levels of administration.

Summing-up, compared to the public sector the private sector has focused on a limited number of programmes. The disciplinary categories in both the public and the private sectors are characterized by duplication of courses. But as exemplified by the figures for Bands I, II, IV, V and VI the private sector is more duplicative than the public counterpart. Thus, it can be argued that the private sector appears to demonstrate less diversity than its public counterpart in terms of its programmes.

Closer scrutiny of the types of the programmes offered by the two sectors can reveal two general patterns: introduction by the private sector of a handful number of programs that are unavailable in the public sector, and overconcentration of both sectors in some similar programmes. Among the Band III programmes, 6 of the 9 programmes offered by the private sector are available in the public sector (refer Appendix 1.C please). With respect to Band IV, 5 of the 6 programs offered by the private sector are also available in the public sector (please see Appendix 1.D). Concerning Band V, 14 of the 18 programs offered in the private sector are available in the public counterpart (refer Appendix 1.E please). With regard to Band VI, 8 of the 12 programs offered in the private sector are found in the public sector (see Appendix 1.F please). The only Band where the private sector offers more programs unavailable in the public sector is Band I. In this band 8 of the 17 programs found in the private sector are unavailable in the public sector (refer Appendix 1.A). Despite the availability of some programs in the private sector that are nonexistent in the public one, the programs do not add up significantly to program diversity. This has been shown in the duplication ratios calculated for the private sector alone as discussed in the previous paragraphs.

With respect to the other pattern, as can be seen in Appendix 1.A among the institutions that offer Band I programmes, the largest number in both the public and the private sectors offer computer science. From Band II programmes, mathematics education is observed to be one of the most frequent programmes in the public sector and the only programme offered by the private ones (please see Appendix 1.B). Among Band III programmes, nursing was found to be highly duplicated in both the public and the private sectors (refer Appendix 1.C). In Band V programmes, both the public and the private sector concentrate highly on accounting, economics, and management (please refer Appendix 1.E). At last, as regards Band VI programmes (refer Appendix 1.F), both the public and the private sectors concentrate on law. For the private sector, even if cost of provision and availability of markets are important to course provisions as explained in the above paragraphs, the results here might show tendencies of course emulations. But which sector emulates which needs to be seen by examining the dates of launching of the courses in both sectors as well as the programme development processes undertaken by the two sectors.

4.2.4.4 Relationship between Age of an Institution and the Number of Programmes it Offers

It is understandable that a variety of factors operate to influence the number of programmes institutions run. Age of the institution, resources - financial, human and physical, and policy environment are among the list. In this study, the correlation between age of an institution and number of programmes it runs was investigated using Spearman Rank Correlation Test at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$. This statistical tool was used because an eyeballing examination of the data for private higher education institutions indicates non-normality of distribution and the observations for the public sector are too small for parametric tests.

Results indicated that for the public sector $r_{cal} = 0.72$. But $r_{cri} (\alpha = 0.05, 21) = 0.435$. Thus, since $r_{cal} > r_{cri}$, we conclude that there is statistically significant correlation between age of an institution and the number of programmes it runs. This shows that as the public institutions get older they tend to add more degree programmes, which is explainable by the fact that the older institutions get more resourceful than the newer ones to add more degree programmes. For the private sector, $r_{cal} = 0.07$ and $r_{cri} (\alpha = 0.05, 56) = 0.264$. This shows that in case of the private sector age of an institution has little or no relationship with the number of degree programmes it runs. This perhaps shows lack of sustainability of degree programmes in the private sector. Please refer Appendices B and C for the raw data.

4.2.4.5 Programme Diversity in Enrolment across the Different Bands

Since the distribution of the different programmes in the six bands does not fully capture how private higher education institutions are playing a role in programme diversity, analyses were done with regard to the pattern of students' enrolment in all the bands in both the public and the private higher education institutions. As regards the private higher education institutions, since it was possible to get enrolment data only for those that report to the Ministry of Education, raw numbers are not used in the analysis. Instead the numbers were converted into percentages in relation to the total enrolment of students in the entire private sector. Table 9 shows the results of the public and that of the private sector.

Table 9. Types of Disciplinary Areas (Bands) offered in Public and Private Higher Education Institutions and Corresponding Enrolments

		Students Enrolment by Band and Sex																	
		Band I			Band II			Band III			Band IV			Band V			Band VI		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
*Public	Sum	19829	4277	24106	26624	5817	32441	15323	4798	20211	19748	3481	23229	36061	14924	50985	42580	14467	57047
	%	9.54	2.06	11.59	12.80	2.80	15.60	7.37	2.31	9.72	9.50	1.67	11.17	17.34	7.18	24.52	20.48	6.96	27.44
Private	Sum	2958	1160	4118	519	43	562	490	882	1372	6522	928	7450	12281	7891	20172	7041	937	7978
	%	7.10	2.78	9.89	1.25	0.10	1.35	1.18	2.12	3.29	15.66	2.23	17.89	29.48	18.95	48.43	16.90	2.25	19.15

Total Number of students in the Public sector = 207929

Total Number of students in the Private sector = 41652

Key:-

M = male F = Female T = Total

* Data on number of students in the distance mode in each band are not available for Bahir Dar University

The percents calculated refer to percentage of enrolments in each cell relative to the total enrolment in the sector- public or private higher education

Table 9 reveals that in the public sector the percentage of students enrolled in Band I, Band II, Band III, Band IV, Band V, and Band VI disciplinary categories respectively are 11.59, 15.6, 9.72, 11.7, 24.52, and 27.44. This shows in the public sector more than half of the enrolments are in Bands V and VI. Only around one quarter are enrolled in Bands I and II combined which can clearly be identified as hard sciences. Thus, the expansion of the public higher education sector is in favour of the softer disciplines. The table also depicts that in the public sector while males constitute 77.02 percent of the total enrolment of the sector, females constitute 22.98 percent denoting a huge gulf between males and females attendance in the public sector in favour of males. When we examine the sex composition of enrolments in the six bands, males' percentage of enrolment for the bands in their order respectively are 9.54, 12.80, 7.37, 9.5, 17.34, and 20.48. Whereas the figure for females are 2.06, 2.8, 2.31, 1.67, 7.18, and 6.96 respectively. From this emerges an interesting finding that more than half of females' enrolment is in the soft disciplines (Band V and VI).

On the other hand, in the private higher education sector the percentage of students enrolled in Bands I, II, III, IV, V, and VI disciplinary categories respectively are 9.89, 1.35, 3.29, 17.89, 48.43, and 19.15. This shows that in the private sector above 67 percent of the enrolments are in Bands V and VI. Only about 11 percent are enrolled in Bands I and II combined. Thus, the expansion of the private higher education like the public sector is in favour of the softer disciplines.

The table also depicts that in the private sector while males constitute 71.57 percent of the total enrolment of the sector females constitute 28.43 percent showing a similar pattern to the public sector. When we examine the sex composition of enrolments in the six bands, males' percentage of enrolment for the bands in their order respectively are 7.10, 1.25, 1.18, 15.66, 29.48 and 16.90. Whereas the figure for females are 2.78, 0.10, 2.12, 2.23, 18.95, and 2.25 respectively. Similar to the finding in the public sector emerges an interesting finding that about three quarter of females' enrolment is in the soft disciplines (Band V and VI).

All in all, irrespective of sex difference in both the public and the private sectors, there is high concentration of students in the soft disciplines (Band V and VI) though more

exaggerated in case of females. In addition, not central to this study though it can be seen that female enrolment in both sectors is by far lower than that of males. However, females are better represented in the private than in the public sector.

4.2.5 Policy Tools Affecting Higher Education Diversity

This section analyses the role of two policy tools: namely, funding and quality assurance and accreditation exercises in affecting the behaviours of the public as well as private higher education institutions. Analyses will focus on how the funding mechanisms in place could affect diversity in the two sectors. With respect to quality assurance and accreditation, an examination will be made on conditions required to get accredited and on published quality audit reports.

4.2.5.1 The Role of Funding in Diversity of the Ethiopian Higher Education System

Several studies (Karmel, 1998; Horta et al., 2008; Jones, 1996 for instance) have documented either competitive or differential funding of different sectors increased higher education diversity. Thus, it could be argued that the line item budgeting that characterized the public higher education institutions of Ethiopia would result in homogenization rather than diversification. With regard to the proposed block grant funding, requirements for differential funding for higher education institutions for different missions are not put in place. Thus, unless changes are made to the newly proposed funding mechanism, different results are not expected as well. With respect to the private higher education institutions, because they depend highly on tuition fees, they do not risk being innovative in their programmes for fear that such programmes might remain under-enrolled.

Currently while students of public higher education institutions are sharing part of cost of their education, those in the private sector fully cover their educational expenses. That students are financing their own studies would create competition between institutions in a sector and in the entire system. However, in case of the public sector the amount students have to pay for their education is fixed- 15 percent of tuition fee (FDRE, 351/2003). Thus it could be argued that the institutions cannot have specific niches. Moreover, the fact that regular students' enrolment is done centrally by Ministry of Education limits the possibility

of the institutions to achieve diversity. Considering the distance education mode where majority of their students are enrolled in the case of the private sector, competition due to charging tuition fees is nonexistent because there are no marked differences between institutions in the amount of tuition fees. The tuition fees are between 3.6 and 4.05 USD per credit hour.

4.2.5.2 The Role of Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Diversity of the Ethiopian Higher Education System

In the Ethiopian context, the quality assurance and accreditation exercises tend to promote homogenisation rather than diversification. The standardization tendency spans course loads of degree programmes to contents of a degree course.

We saw in the previous chapter that there are fixed limits set by HERQA with respect to course load mix of supportive and major area courses. This resulted in length of courses to be the same for all institutions in the public sector. Given the influence of tradition in the public sector, length of degree programmes does not vary between the private and the public sectors as well as with in the private sector. Moreover, in cases in which the private providers come up with a degree programme with longer years than it is in the public sector they are discouraged by supervisors of Higher Education Relevance and Quality for fear that the motive behind extending the programme may be profit.

Interestingly enough, HERQA is advocating the inclusion of common contents at a course level in degree programmes. To illustrate, HERQA Subject Benchmarking Guidelines (HERQA, 2006d: 24) for a first degree in chemistry has stated the following to be included in the subject among others.

1. The principles of quantum mechanics and their application to the description of the structure and properties of atoms and molecules
2. The principles of thermodynamics and their application to chemistry
3. The principal techniques of structural investigations including spectroscopy
4. The properties of aliphatic, aromatic, heterocyclic and organ metallic compounds
5. Major synthetic pathways in organic chemistry, involving functional group interconversions and carbon-carbon and carbon-heteroatom bond

Apart from the above homogenising tendencies, the requirements set by HERQA for private higher education institutions to get accreditation also seem to be deterrents to the institutions' ability to run more degree programmes. For instance, some of the requirements cannot even be met by many in the public sector that are established on decree. To cite one, article 1.5 sub-article 1.5.3.6 of the Institutional and Programme Accreditation Guideline (HERQA, 2007) states that for a higher education institution to get accredited for a certain degree programme, it has to have a staff mix of 30% PhD holders or assistant professors, 50% masters degree holders, and 20% bachelor degree holders. This requirement can undoubtedly limit the proliferation of different programmes by the private sector.

Analysis of the quality audit reports by HERQA strengthens the claims that accreditation and quality assurance activities demonstrate homogenising tendencies. Applying the procedures stated in the previous part of this thesis, HERQA had conducted quality audit from July 2007 to February 2008 for the first time at eight public universities namely:- Adama University, Arbaminch University, Bahir Dar University, Gondar University, Haramaya University, Hawassa University, Jimma University, and Mekele University. Even though there are no quality audit reports of this sort for the private sector as it is still in the HERQA's plan, the quality audit exercise at the public sector is good informative of the nature of higher education quality audit exercise in Ethiopia in relation to diversity.

Based on its external quality audit visits HERQA had forwarded a list of recommendations. Since an institution cannot be recommended on what it is commended for, commendations were also considered in this study. The recommendations and commendations were analysed to see if there is homogenising or heterogenising tendency. This approach has been used by Prøitz et al. (2004) in their analysis of homogenising or heterogenising tendencies of EQUIS (European Quality Improvement System) system of accreditation developed by European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD). These authors examined the proportion of mandatory and non-mandatory (direct and indirect to use their terminologies) recommendation systems and the total number of recommendations forwarded under each quality area. For them, the differences in the proportion of recommendations in the various areas indicate a tendency towards uniformity. They also

believed that comparing the number of recommendation statements in the main areas of concern and in the non-main ones would suggest whether there is a generic organizational model to which there is an expected convergence.

As the quality audit examined in this study has no direct consequences on accreditation, it did not have categories of mandatory and non-mandatory recommendations. Moreover, HERQA did not make any distinction between main and non-main areas of concern. Thus, a different approach than used by Prøitz et al. (2004) had to be used. To this effect, the frequencies of similar and different recommendations as well as commendations forwarded to the institutions under each quality audit area were compared. In this study not all the recommendations and commendations are analysed. Items that bear little or no relationship to the concept of diversity and the teaching learning process were dropped. An example of such items is the recommendation that the institution should improve variety and quality of foods to students.

To analyse if there are statistically significant differences between similar recommendations and commendations and different recommendations and commendations, a two tailed Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test at $\alpha = 0.05$ was used. This test was used because it can be used with non-normal distributions. The null hypothesis to be tested here is: there is no statistically significant difference between the number of similar recommendations and commendations and the number of different recommendations and commendations. Table 10 shows the frequency of similar and different recommendations and commendations across the quality audit focal areas as well as the result of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test.

Table 10. Summary Table of Similar and Different Commendations and Recommendations forwarded by HERQA in its Quality Audit

S.No	Focal Area of Quality Audit	No. of Commendations & Recommendations		Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test
		Similar	Different	
1	Vision, mission, and educational goals	12	7	W =2.5
2	Governance and management system	14	16	
3	Infrastructure and learning resource services	17	15	
4	Academic and support staff	23	10	
5	Student admission and support services	17	3	
6	Programme relevance and curriculum	12	9	
7	Teaching, learning and assessment	16	6	
8	Student progression and graduate outcomes	8	5	
9	Research and outreach activities	17	13	
10	Internal quality assurance	11	10	

Table 10 shows that $W_{cal} = 2.5$. But $W_{cri} (\alpha = 0.05, 10) = 10$. Thus since $W_{cal} < W_{cri}$ we reject the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant difference between the number of similar and different recommendations and commendations. Since the ranks in the test were calculated in the direction of the number of similar recommendations and commendations minus that of different recommendations and commendations we can conclude that the recommendations and the commendations are more of similar than different. This suggests the quality audit exercise favours standardisation or homogenisation more than diversification.

All in all, it can be argued that the quality assurance and the accreditation exercises in the country encourage homogeneity more than diversity. This may corroborate the widely held view that one of the most feasible ways for governments confronted with the soaring demand for higher education is to simply promote growth in the private higher education that mimics the public sector (Law, 1995; Levy, 1999:30).

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUDING REMARKS

No doubt the soaring demand for higher education and a shift in ideology world wide including Ethiopia has helped the emergence of private higher education institutions in the world in general and in Ethiopia in particular. There are evidences that private higher education institutions contribute to higher education systems' diversity. But as diversity is multidimensional, when we talk of diversity we have to be clear enough about the level of disaggregation. Higher education diversity can be explained by resource dependency perspective and neo-institutional theory of organizational change and stability. Steering approaches that combine the positive roles of the state and the market are believed to result in higher education diversity.

Although private higher education is a very recent phenomenon in Ethiopia, the sector has seen tremendous development in terms of creating increased access and supplying skilled manpower to the labour market. The private higher education institutions tend to also establish niches and try to make use of any available potential demands.

In this study it was found out that while the location of public higher education institutions is motivated by fair regional distribution, the private sector seems to be derived by availability of market for its services. Accordingly, private higher education institutions are concentrated in the capital city of the country and Oromia region, which are relatively speaking the wealthier areas of the country. Moreover, as it is the capital city of the country, Addis Ababa provides better opportunities like infrastructures and labour market demand. Similar results were found in Mexico (Kent & Ramirez, 1999), Portugal (Amaral & Teixeira, 2000), Thailand (Praphamontripong, 2008), and Brasil (Teixeira & Amaral, 2001). Teixeira & Amaral related this phenomenon to the level of development of the regions where the institutions are located (*ibid*).

Another important finding of this study is that while the public higher education institutions are reaching more of the traditional students, the private sector has been predominantly accessed by non-traditional students. Corroborating this point, in their exploratory study that has included several countries from different corners of the world

Teixeira & Amaral (2001) have found out that the increased demand for higher education stimulated by private sector provision has resulted, among other things, in more 'non-traditional' students (e.g., mature applicants and those from disadvantaged). This is also true in Ethiopia but for a different reason than given by the researchers above. In Ethiopia the public higher education institutions are not well into the distance education. In contrast, the private sector is performing better than its public counterpart. Thus students who are not able to join evening programmes in the public sector or live far away from public higher education institutions are more likely to join the distance programmes of the private sector.

This study has also shown that the majority of enrolment for the private sector is in the soft sciences a finding which is in consonant with findings of Amaral & Teixeira (2000) in Portugal, De Cohen (2003) in Argentina, Malcolm (2005) in New Zealand, Teixeira & Amaral (2001) in Brasil, and UNESCO (2003:5) in Slovenia, Poland, Estonia, Romania and Hungary. Correia et al. (2002) also obtained similar results. That the private higher education institutions in Ethiopia are focusing in the soft sciences notably the business and economics and social sciences and humanities is perhaps due to the fact that these disciplines are less costly to offer and the sector has to fully finance itself from students' tuition fees. In addition, as the country has entered a new era of liberalized economy only in the 90's the boom in the private investment might have created favourable ground for demands in the business and economics fields. Moreover, as opposed to the previous military regime which has diplomatically alienated the country from the outside world, the present government has created favourable ties with the west. This undoubtedly has attracted the west to launch and extend NGOs and work in the country. Cognizant of the aftermaths of lengthy civil wars, drought, and the adverse effects of HIV/AIDS in the country many NGOs have been established. Most often these NGOs need personnel trained in the humanities and social sciences and business and economics disciplines.

Examination of programme diversity has shown that both the public and the private higher education institutions of Ethiopia are characterized by high programme duplication ratios, which normally suggest less diversification. However, caution should be taken in the interpretation of these numerical results. For one thing, it is difficult to justify as to when

we have to count a programme as duplicated, should how many institutions offer it. For another thing in a country like Ethiopia where higher education enrolment is only 4.6 % including second degree and terminal degree enrolment (MOE, 2009: 59) the calculated high ratios of duplication should not surprise readers. However, when enrolment ratio increases significantly and the Ethiopian higher education system ceases to be elite, the numbers would call attention.

But a striking finding about programme diversity is the overconcentration of students of both the public and the private sector in the soft sciences. This is even more exaggerated in case of females. This justifies the government has a long way to go to overcome the hurdle before it to get its new guideline for professional mix of university students materialized.

In case of the public sector, the funding mechanism that is operating now is line item budgeting which encourages convergence more than diversity. Moreover, since the newly proposed block grant funding is to be employed similarly to all institutions, it does not encourage diversity either. On the other hand, in case of the private higher education institutions, since they depend highly on tuition fees they do not risk to diversify their programmes as well as their operations in different regions.

Another major finding of this study is that the accreditation and quality assurance exercises in Ethiopia encourage homogenisation. This corroborates with the claims made by authors such as Amaral (1998), Billing (2004), and Stensaker (2000). Drawing on the arguments put forth by these authors, it can be said that since all accredited objects should be compared with the same standard, it is easy to imagine that the accreditation processes can act as a process of standardisation for those institutions under scrutiny.

The steering approach followed by the Ethiopian government parallels what is known as state supervisory model. Even if it still remains to be the major funder of the public higher education, it does not exercise direct control over the internal activities of the sector. In case of the private sector, the government does not fund it. Neither does it directly intervene with its internal activities. However, the quality assurance activities it carries out

with both the public and the private sectors and the accreditation it carries out with the private sector are serving as its remote control of the system.

Drawing on the higher education steering approach the government has adopted, findings of this study can confirm both the resource dependency perspective and neo-institutional theory. The private higher education institutions studied in the present piece are not distributed well into the different regions of Ethiopia and focus on a limited number of programmes. This is attributable to a large extent to the fact that they mainly depend on tuition fees and receive no financial resources from the government which indicates that the limited resource they have is influencing their contribution to higher education diversity.

Since the establishment of HERQA the proliferation of the private sector has reduced. Moreover, even though there are no quality audit reports on private higher education institutions yet, the analysis done on the quality audit reports on the public sector is suggestive to the likely homogenising trend to hold in the private sector as well. These are suggestive that neo-institutional theory can in part explain higher education diversification process in Ethiopia.

At last, this study has attempted to provide a glance at the role the privatization process of higher education is playing in shaping the scenario of higher education diversity. Coming back to the basic questions raised in chapter one, we can conclude that privatization of higher education has contributed a little to both programme and institutional diversity. Moreover, the policy tools examined appeared to encourage convergence than diversity in private higher education institutions. But admittedly, the study has faced limitations such as unavailability of data for many private higher education institutions, and other important dimensions of higher education diversity are lacking. Thus, the research developed suggests the need to be complemented by other analyses that consider as many dimensions of higher education diversity as possible. This would include looking into diversity of students in terms of socioeconomic background and staff, in various dimensions.

Well influenced by time and notion of higher education in the Ethiopian context, this study has focused on only degree offering institutions and degree programmes. Even though it is not identified as higher education in the Ethiopian context, the non-university sector, which in Ethiopian context is called Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is producing graduates at a certificate and diploma level. But data could not be obtained on these institutions for the private sector. Every regional state is responsible for the control and the accreditation of the institutions. Thus, data on these institutions basically requires going to every region and contacting responsible bodies which undeniably is too costly and time demanding to do in a big country like Ethiopia. This clearly contributes to non-comprehensiveness of the present study. In addition, in this study it was learned that data obtained from Ministry of Education suffer from incompleteness.

With the better expansion of higher education in the country, the Ethiopian case analysed here suggests the need for more effective governmental regulation of programmes so as to effect diversification. But institutional diversity appears to deserve immediate attention from the government. However, to stand legitimate to regulate programmes and to help improve overall diversity in the sector and in the system as a whole the government has to take the private sector not only as a business enterprise but also as an important sector contributing to its human power needs for the country's development. This can include finding ways of funding the sector and instituting incentives to encourage diversification efforts of the sector.

In the years to come HERQA is going to make quality audits in private higher education institutions and publish reports. Thus, we recommend using these reports in the future higher education diversity studies.

At last we recommend any one interested to make diversity studies consider studying certificate and diploma level programmes offered in TVETs. Moreover, it will be worthwhile to consider if there are academic and vocational drifts between the higher education and the TVET sector.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Diversity of Programmes in the Public and Private Higher Education Institutions

A.1 Engineering and Technology (Band I) Programmes as Offered in the Public and in the Private the Higher Education Institutions

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (20 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
1	Architectural Design Technology Education	1	0.33		0.41
2	Architecture	4			
3	Architecture & Urban Planning			1	
4	Automotive Technology & Management			2	
5	Automotive Technology Education	1			
6	Biotechnology	1			
7	Building Construction	1			
8	Chemical Engineering	2			
9	Civil Engineering	8		1	
10	Comp Sciences Information	3		1	
11	Computer Engineering			1	
12	Computer Science	10		9	
13	Computer Science & Engineering			1	
14	Computer Science & IT	2		1	
15	Computer Science & IT Education	1			
16	Construction Technology	1			
17	Construction Technology and Management	1		3	
18	Construction Technology Education	1			
19	Cultural Heritage	1			
20	Electrical & Communication Engineering			1	

A.1 (Continued)

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (20 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
21	Electrical & Computer Engineering	1			
22	Electrical & Electronics Engineering			2	
23	Electrical Engineering	7			
24	Electrical/ Electronics Technology Education	1			
25	Electronics Technology	1		2	
26	Environmental Engineering	1			
27	Food Technology	1			
28	Geo-informatics Technology Education	1			
29	Hydraulic Engineering	1			
30	Industrial Engineering	2			
31	Information and Communication Technology			1	
32	Information Science	4		2	
33	Information Systems Education	1			
34	Information Technology			3	
35	IT Education	2			
36	Irrigation Engineering	1			
37	Manufacturing Engineering			1	
38	Manufacturing Technology	1			
39	Manufacturing Technology Education	1			
40	Mechanical Engineering	5			
41	Meteorology Science	1			
42	Petroleum	1			
43	Software Engineering			1	
44	Surveying Technology Education	2			
45	Textile Education	1			
46	Textile Engineering	1			
47	Urban Engineering	2			

A.1 (Continued)

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (20 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
48	Urban Management	1			
49	Urban Planning	1			
50	Water Engineering	2			
51	Wood science and Technology Education	1			
52	Woodwork Technology Education	1			

A.2 Diversity of Natural and Computational Sciences (Band II) Programmes as Offered in the Public and in Private the Higher Education Institutions

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (5 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
1	Applied Maths & Statistics	1	0.75		1.00
2	Biology	10			
3	Biology Education	17			
4	Chemistry	10			
5	Chemistry Education	17			
6	Earth Science	2			
7	Environmental Science	1			
8	Geoenvironmental Science	1			
9	Geology	2			
10	Health & Physical Education	8			
11	Industrial Chemistry	1			
12	Maths	9			
13	Maths Education	17		5	
14	Physics	7			
15	Physics Education	17			
16	Statistics	8			

A.3 Diversity of Medicine and Health Science (Band III) Programmes as Offered in the Public and in the Private Higher Education Institutions

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (18 HEIs)	
		Number of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	Number of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
1	Accelerated Health Officer	2	0.50		0.44
2	Anaesthesia	3			
3	Cataract Surgeon	2			
4	Clinical Nursing	1		2	
5	Dental Medicine			1	
6	Dental Science			1	
7	Dental Technician			1	
8	Dental Therapy	1			
9	Dentistry	1			
10	Environmental Health	6			
11	Health Education	1			
12	Health Officer	9		2	
13	Health Officer(Post Basic)	1			
14	Medical Education	1			
15	Medical Lab. Technology	6		3	
16	Medical Technology	1		1	
17	Medicine	6			
18	Midwifery	5			
19	Midwifery (post Basic)	1			
20	Nursing	11		12	
21	Occupational Health	1			
22	Ophthalmic Nurse	1			
23	Optometry	2			
24	Pharmacy	6		7	
25	Physiotherapy	1			
26	Public Health Nursing	2			
27	Radiography	1			

A. 4 Diversity of Agricultural and Life Science (Band IV) Programmes as Offered in the Public and in the Private and Higher Education Institutions

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (3 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
1	Agribusiness Development & Management		0.28	2	0.67
2	Agricultural & Biological Engineering	1			
3	Agricultural Business Management	1			
4	Agricultural Economics	2		2	
5	Agricultural Engineering & Management	1			
6	Agricultural Extension	1		1	
7	Agricultural Resource & Economic Development	1			
8	Agricultural Water Management	1			
9	Agronomic Irrigation	1			
10	Animal & Wildlife Sciences	1			
11	Animal Production & Health	1			
12	Animal Science	10			
13	Animal Science & Technology	1			
14	Animal Sciences & Marketing	1			
15	Cooperatives	4		2	
16	Cooperatives & Marketing	1			
17	Crop & Horticulture Science	2			
18	Crop Production	1			
19	Crop Production and Protection	1			
20	Crop Science	1			
21	Disaster Risk Management & Sustainable Development	1		1	
22	Dryland Crop & Horticultural Science	1			
23	Ecotourism	1			
24	Farm Forestry	1			
25	Fishery, Wetland & Wildlife Management	1			

A. 4 (continued)

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (3 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
26	Food Science and Post Harvest Technology	2			
27	General Forestry	1			
28	Horticulture	5			
29	Land Administration	1			
30	Land Resource Management	1			
31	Land Resource Management & Environmental Protection	1			
32	Livestock and Range Land Management	1			
33	Mid-Career Agricultural Extension	1			
34	Natural Resource Management	8			
35	Natural Resource Economics & Mang.	1			
36	Pastoral Livestock Production & Range Land Management	1			
37	Plant Science	6			
38	Plant Science & Protection	2			
39	Production Forestry	1			
40	Rural Development	3		3	
41	Rural Development & Agricultural Extension	2			
42	Rural Development & Family Science	1			
43	Soil & Water Conservation	1			
44	Soil & Water Engineering Management	2			
45	Soil Resource & Water Management	1			

A. 4 (continued)

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (3 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
46	Veterinary Medicine	8			
47	Water Resource & Environmental Engineering	1			
48	Wildlife and Ecotourism	1			

A.5 Diversity of Business and Economics (Band V) Programmes as Offered in the Public and in the Private Higher Education Institutions

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (30 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	Number of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No of Programmes
1	Accounting	16	0.36	19	0.50
2	Accounting & Finance	5		3	
3	Accounting & Finance Education	1			
4	Accounting Education	4			
5	Accounting Information Systems			1	
6	Administration Services Management & Technology System	1			
7	Banking & Insurance Education	1			
8	Banking & Finance	2			
9	Banking and Insurance	1			
10	Bus Administration Information Systems	2		1	
11	Business Administration	2		5	
12	Business Education	3			
13	Business Education Procurement	1			
14	Business Education Banking	1			
15	Business Education Information Technology	2			
16	Business Education Marketing	1			
17	Business Education Purchasing	2			
18	Business Education Secretary Science & Office Management	1			
19	Business Management	6		9	
20	Business Management Education	2			
21	Development Management	2		1	
22	Economics	17		12	
23	Economics & Finance			1	
24	Economics Education	1			

A.5 (continued)

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (30 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	Number of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No of Programmes
25	Finance & Development Economics	1			
26	Hotel Management	1			
27	Human Resource Management & Leadership			1	
28	International Trading	1			
29	Management	10		11	
30	Management Information System			7	
31	Management Information System Education	2			
32	Marketing	2		2	
33	Marketing Management	4		7	
34	Marketing & Sales Management	1			
35	Marketing & Sales Management Education	3			
36	Office Administration & Office Technology	1		1	
37	Office Administration & Technology Education	1			
38	Office Technology Education	1			
39	Organizational Management			1	
40	Procurement & Supplies Management	2		1	
41	Public administration & Development Management Education	1			
42	Public Administration	3			
43	Public Administration & development Management	1			
44	Public Administration & Personnel Management	1			
45	Public Finance Management	1			
46	Purchasing	1			
47	Purchasing & Supplies Management	1		1	

A.5 (continued)

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (30 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	Number of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No of Programmes
48	Purchasing & Supplies Management Education	3			
49	Secretary Science & Office Management	1			
50	Tourism Management	1			

A.6 Diversity of Social Sciences and Humanities (Band VI) Programmes as Offered in the Public and in the Private Higher Education Institutions

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (19 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
1	Amharic Education	12	0.44	3	0.58
2	Anthropology	3			
3	Broadcast	1			
4	Civics & Ethical Education	7			
5	Community Development			1	
6	Community Development & Leadership			1	
7	Development & Environmental Management	1			
8	Educational Planning and Management	5		3	
9	Educational Psychology	2			
10	English	1			
11	English Education	16		5	
12	English Language & Literature	1			
13	Ethiopian Lang. & Literature	1			
14	Ethiopian Language & Literature Education	1			
15	Fine arts and Design	1			
16	Foreign Lang. & Literature	1			
17	French	1			
18	Geography	4			
19	Geography & Environmental Education	5			
20	Geography & Environmental Studies	2			
21	Geography Education	12		3	
22	Global Studies & International Relations			1	
23	Governance	1			
24	Governance & Development	1			
25	History	2			
26	History & Civic Education	1			
27	History Education	16		2	
28	Journalism	1			

A.6 (continued)

S. No.	Name of the Degree Programme	Public Sector		Private Sector (19 HEIs)	
		No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes	No. of HEIs Offering the Programme	Ratio of Duplicative Programmes to the Total No. of Programmes
29	Journalism & Communication	3			
30	Language	1		1	
31	Language & Literature	1			
32	Language & Literature Education	1			
33	Law	12		12	
34	Linguistics	1			
35	Music	1			
36	Oromigna Education	6		1	
37	Oromo Folklore	1			
38	Pedagogical Sciences	3			
39	Philosophy	1			
40	Political Science & International Relations	3			
41	Principalship	1			
42	Print	1			
43	Psychology	8			
44	Radio	1			
45	Social Anthropology	1			
46	Sociology	9			
47	Sociology & Social Anthropology			2	
48	Special Needs	2			
49	Supervision	1			
50	Television	1			
51	Theatre Arts	1			
52	Tigrigna	2			

Appendix B. Ages of the Higher Education Institutions and Undergraduate Degree Programmes Offered in the Public Sector

S. No	HEI	*Year Started	Age in Yrs	No. of Prog.
1	ADU	1993	16	40
2	AAU	1958	51	69
3	AUC	1967	42	15
4	AMU	1986	23	40
5	BDU	1963	46	47
6	DBU	2007	2	21
7	DMU	2007	2	18
8	DKU	2007	2	9
9	DU	1996	13	33
10	DDU	2007	2	18
11	ESCC	1996	13	5
12	GU	1953	56	36
13	HRU	1950	59	49
14	HWU	1976	33	47
15	JJU	2007	2	25
16	JU	1952	57	56
17	MWU	2007	2	27
18	MU	1991	18	36
19	SU	2007	2	14
20	WSU	2007	2	16
21	WU	2007	2	33

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient $r = 0.72$

* Refers to the year at which the institution was established as a higher education institution. Thus, for those universities formed by merger, the establishment year of the oldest institution merged in the university is used.

Appendix C. Ages of the Higher Education Institutions and Undergraduate Degree Programmes Offered in the Private Sector

S. No	HEI	*Year Started	Age in Yrs	No. of Prog.	S. No	HEI	*Year Started	Age in Yrs	No. of Prog.
1	2020PC	2008	1	4	29	MEDBC	2002	7	2
2	ADATBC	2002	7	1	30	MEKMLC	2005	4	1
3	ADSC	2001	8	1	31	MEIT	2003	6	4
4	ACCH	2008	1	1	32	MITC	1999	10	7
5	ADMUC	2000	9	8	33	NATC	2002	7	2
6	AFBC	2000	9	5	34	NMC	2002	7	4
7	AFHC	2007	2	3	35	NABC	2005	4	6
8	ALKHC	2002	7	2	36	NGUC	2002	7	7
9	ALPUC	1996	13	16	37	NMUC	2001	8	5
10	ATDCPS	2004	5	3	38	NIC	2002	7	3
11	BEHC	2006	3	1	39	OMHC	2005	4	1
12	BMC	2008	1	8	40	PVC	2008	1	6
13	BNC	2002	7	1	41	PISC	2004	5	2
14	CHC	2002	7	2	42	POIT	2002	7	2
15	CPUBCTC	2001	8	2	43	QUC	2002	7	3
16	DIUC	2007	2	5	44	RVUC	2002	7	5
17	ECUSTA	2008	1	3	45	ROYC	2000	9	3
18	ETADC	1996	13	1	46	SNC	2000	9	1
19	EZHC	2008	1	2	47	SHSC	2002	7	1
20	GRCBCS	2001	8	2	48	SHITBC	2001	8	8
21	HARAGTC	1996	13	3	49	SMUC	2000	9	14
22	HAYMC	2005	4	2	50	TZEB	2007	2	2
23	HCSTC	2000	9	1	51	TOPC	2001	8	2
24	INC	2002	7	2	52	TRCM	2002	7	1
25	ILC	2005	4	3	53	UU	1998	11	6
26	KEHC	2002	7	1	54	UMC	2002	7	2
27	KUC	2002	7	1	55	YIDEC	2006	3	6
28	LUC	2005	4	2	56	ZBC	2002	7	2

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient $r = 0.07$

* Refers to the first time the institution got preaccreditation or accreditation to provide higher education as there was no preaccreditation process prior to 2003.