

The Objects of Transformation in Higher Education

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This question has been intensely debated in South Africa. The National Commission for Higher Education set up an extensive raft of working groups and expert groups, and numerous specialist reports which culminated in the Commission's report, published in 1996. Four years later, a second series of investigations culminated in the National Plan for Higher Education. More recently, the Presidency has engaged with the South African Vice Chancellors' Association (now Higher Education South Africa) and new working groups are being established around the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative (ASGISA).

South Africa is not alone in this intense focus on national university systems and their roles and responsibilities. In a world in which economic growth and national competitiveness depends on high-level education and the opportunity for continually re-skilling the workforce, governments tend to be anxious about the return on investment in education. In response, those working in universities become nervous about utilitarian policies that may not respect the autonomy of institutions, the broader social benefits of university education, and the principles of academic freedom.

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In this paper, I will look at the purposes of higher education in South Africa through the lens of the Education White Paper of 1997. This important policy document interpreted the National Commission's report of the previous year, and framed the Higher Education Act of 1997.³ Together, these interventions staked out the democratic government's position on the segregated, and deeply flawed, assets that it had inherited from the apartheid state in 1994. In many respects, the 1997 White Paper has shaped the South African university system for the decade that has followed, and will continue to shape the system in the years to come. My argument will be that the core purposes of Higher Education – the objects of transformation – are inherent in this established discourse of public policy, but have yet to be realized in practice. This implies that South Africa has yet to achieve appropriate returns on the national investment in its higher education system.

The Purposes of Higher Education

The Education White Paper of 1997 sought to measure the state of the country's universities at the time against the yardstick of four general purposes. These were defined as follows:

- “to meet the learning needs and aspirations of individuals through the development of their intellectual abilities and aptitudes throughout their lives”;
- “to address the development needs of society and provide the labour market, in a knowledge-driven and knowledge-dependent society, with the ever-changing high-level competencies and expertise necessary for the growth and prosperity of a modern economy”;
- “to contribute to the socialisation of enlightened, responsible and constructively critical citizens”;
- “to contribute to the creation, sharing and evaluation of knowledge”.

The White Paper, building on the work of the National Commission before it, found that the country's thirty-six universities and technikons fell far short of addressing these purposes in a satisfactory way. There were five key areas of deficiency.

Firstly, access and opportunity for students and staff was “inequitable ... along lines of race, gender, class and geography”. There were “gross discrepancies” in participation rates of students of different races, “indefensible imbalances” in the ratios of black and female staff in comparison with whites and males, and “untenable disparities” between institutions themselves, with “historically black” institutions enjoying far fewer resources than “historically white” institutions. Given that, by the late 1980s, South Africa's university system was in a category of its own, with participation rates of below 10% for African South Africans and over 70% for White South Africans, the White Paper's prioritization of issues of access and opportunity was not surprising.

Secondly, the White Paper noted a “chronic mismatch” between the graduates emerging from the higher education system and the needs of the economy. In particular, there was a need for graduates in science, engineering, technology and commerce to meet the needs of a “modernizing economy”.

Thirdly, universities in South Africa had an obligation to “help lay the foundations of a critical civil society, with a culture of public debate and tolerance which accommodates differences and competing interests”. The higher education sector, the authors of the White Paper noted, had “much more to do, both within its own institutions and in its influence on the broader community, to strengthen the democratic ethos, the sense of common citizenship and commitment to a common good”.

Fourthly, universities were giving “insufficient attention to the pressing local, regional and national needs of the South African society and to the problems and challenges of the broader African context”. In contrast to this outward looking approach, too many universities and technikons were inclined to “academic insularity” and “closed system disciplinary programmes”.

Fifthly, the governance of higher education was characterised by “fragmentation, inefficiency and ineffectiveness, with too little co-ordination, few common goals and negligible systemic planning”. At many campuses, democratic participation and the effective representation of staff and students in governance structures was still contested, as it had been in the apartheid era.

This five-pronged critique constituted the agenda for transformation of higher education in South Africa – the search for the fulfilment of the core purposes of teaching and learning, socialization, the creation and dissemination of knowledge and fuelling the fires of economic development. The trajectory that transformation was to follow in seeking these goals should be steered by a set of eight core principles:

- Equity and redress – “fair opportunities both to enter higher education programmes and to succeed in them”;
- Democratisation – “governance of the system of higher education and of individual institutions should be democratic, representative and participatory and characterised by mutual respect, tolerance and the maintenance of a well-ordered and peaceful community life”;
- Development – “conditions must be created to facilitate the transformation of the higher education system to enable it to contribute to the common good of society through the production, acquisition and application of knowledge, the building of human capacity, and the provision of lifelong learning opportunities”;
- Quality – “maintaining and applying academic and educational standards, both in the sense of specific expectations and requirements that should be complied with, and in the sense of ideals of excellence that should be aimed at”;
- Effectiveness – “An effective system or institution functions in such a way that it leads to desired outcomes or achieves desired objectives”;
- Efficiency – “An efficient system or institution is one which works well, without unnecessary duplication or waste, and within the bounds of affordability and sustainability”;
- Academic Freedom – “the absence of outside interference, censure or obstacles in the pursuit and practice of academic work”;
- Institutional Autonomy – “a high degree of self-regulation and administrative independence with respect to student admissions, curriculum, methods of teaching and assessment, research, establishment of academic regulations and the internal management of resources generated from private and public sources”.

While there has been consistency in the rhetoric of higher education transformation in the decade since the publication of the White Paper, it can be argued that there has only been substantial change in one of the five areas prioritized for transformation. Thus participation rates remain largely unchanged.⁴ Overall participation in higher education in South Africa in mid 2005 was 16%. When considered by race, participation for whites was 61%, participation for Indians was 50% and participation rates for Coloured and African South Africans were 12%. In 1993, participation rates for Africans are estimated to have been 9%, and for whites 70%. This indicates that participation rates for white South Africans continue to be among the highest in the

world, and participation rates for African South Africans among the lowest. South Africa's higher education system remains markedly unequal, with only small changes over the past twelve years.⁵ Institutions remain "geographically differentiated" and there is now a general acceptance that a differentiated system is desirable, rather than the redistribution of resources to "level the playing fields" that was advocated in the early 1990s.⁶ The perception of a "chronic mismatch" between the output of universities and the labour market needs of the economy persists, and has found new expression in ASGI-SA. Similarly, there is little evidence that universities have been realigned to the local, regional and national needs of a developing society, or to the cause of critical public discourse, and the President's recent intervention in the debate about the future of Universities has resuscitated the concerns of the White Paper a decade earlier.⁷

It is only in the area of governance that the 1997 transformation agenda has been advanced to a significant and measurable degree, with the successive amendments to the 1997 Act that serve to strengthen the higher education system at the expense of institutional autonomy, and the controversial and centrally-driven process of mergers and incorporations that has reduced the number of institutions, abolished the former-technikon sector and created the "university of technology" as a new institutional form.⁸

Given this, there is value in revisiting the 1997 transformation agenda, and in asking how it can be reconstituted to refocus and realign the objects of transformation in South African public higher education.

The Necessary Conditions for Transformation

By its nature, the complex discourse of public policy changes with time, and this is evident in the discourse of transformation of higher education. Dominant ideas in the transitional years between 1990 and 1994, which helped shaped the recommendations of the 1996 National Commission on Higher Education, included sufficient consensus, stakeholder participation in governance and rapid expansion in student enrolment, erasing the effects of racial segregation through "massification" of participation of marginalized groups, notably Africans.⁹ This discourse shifted notably in the critical months between the publication of the NCHE report in 1996 and the finalization of the White Paper and Higher Education Act in the following year. The Broad Transformation Forums of the early 1990s became the Institutional Forums of the Act, with advisory powers only. While stakeholder participation survived nominally in the concept of "co-operative governance", the trend was towards increased centralization, as is evident in the successive amendments to the Higher Education Act.¹⁰ Given this, it is not surprising that the state's primary transformational emphasis has been on governance, on welding together a national system that can be responsive to the imperatives of economic development. The countervailing imperative of the 1997 White Paper – the development of "enlightened, responsible and constructively critical citizens" – has all but disappeared from the state's agenda.

This concept of transformation as efficiency and effectiveness – two of the eight guiding principles of the White Paper – is dominant in the sense that is driven by the authority and resources of the state. The broader discourse contains diverse strands of

opinion and opposition, including different views on how transformation should proceed. One such argument stresses the principles of academic freedom and institutional autonomy, seeing these as critical qualities in a nation's higher education system if those holding power are to be kept honest.¹¹ Another argument combines the principles of institutional autonomy and quality to emphasise the central role of universities in creating and disseminating knowledge.¹² A further perspective stresses equity and redress, arguing for far greater financial support for students (including the right to free education) and the achievement of equity in staffing. The complexity and variety of these positions indicate that the agenda for higher education transformation is far from settled.

It is also clear that, in retrospect, the 1997 White Paper contained the seeds of mutually exclusive priorities. For example, "providing the labour market ... with the ever-changing high-level competencies and expertise necessary for the growth and prosperity of a modern economy" requires, in practice, a focussed attention on science, engineering and technology student recruitment and graduation. Increasing understanding of what is required of a "developmental state", building on the successes of the "Asian Tigers" in the 1990s and the contemporary phenomena of India and China, paints a picture of a university system that would offer little opportunity for meeting "the learning needs and aspirations of individuals" or for "the socialisation of enlightened, responsible and constructively critical citizens". Similarly, the practical requirements of university administration make it difficult to address both access and redress, and to focus on achieving quality in research; in an environment of scarce resources, there will at some point be a choice between purchasing a top-end item of research equipment and increasing financial aid to students from poor families.

It is difficult to see how these contradictions can be resolved within the frame of the White Paper, and therefore within the terms of the formal policy agenda for higher education transformation as it is still framed. It seems, rather, that there some other, prior and necessary, conditions that need to be addressed before the agenda for transformation can be re-evaluated. Indeed, these prior and necessary conditions take shape within the contradictions of the White Paper itself.

South Africa has persistently high unemployment and exclusion from the benefits of economic growth. To escape this persistent marginalization, many more young adults must gain access to higher education – the "massification" prioritized by the National Commission for Higher Education and the increased participation levels targeted as a priority by the White Paper. However, it is widely recognized that taking advantage of such an opportunity requires resources – economic and social capital, including appropriate prior-education. But such resources are largely unavailable because their absence is the very definition of marginalization. To communities caught in this trap, the promise of higher education is a cruel chimera, an opportunity that is claimed to be one of the fruits of freedom and democracy, but which always seems unreachable, and which evaporates before it becomes tangible.

Planners and policy makers are also caught in a trap and an inherent circularity. A vibrant and expanding higher education system is essential to competitiveness and economic growth in the future. But the continuing economic and social marginalization of the present inhibits the start of a virtuous circle of student

recruitment, human capital development, economic growth and further student recruitment. In consequence Higher Education comes to seem inefficient, reactionary and ineffectual, and public confidence in the value of education declines, raising the spectre of disfunctionality and collapse.

This suggests that the prior and necessary conditions that need to be tackled are poverty and inequality – the extreme and prevalent social exclusion that denies opportunity to potential learners, however inherently talented, and prevents public institutions from increasing participation and gaining returns on their organizational investments.¹³

In retrospect, and perhaps only evident with hindsight, the policy discourse of the early 1990s may have missed a key point. South Africa has always derived its models for higher education from the north, and the inspirations for the National Commission's re-conceptualization were drawn from the broad social democratic policies of Europe. But modern educational approaches such as these were developed in the context of comparatively low – and declining – levels of inequality, and relative affluence. It is not at all clear that the same policies can be successful in the face of extreme inequality and increasing poverty, which are the condition of contemporary South Africa.¹⁴

The point is analogous to the argument for the Basic Income Grant, applied successfully in Brazil (with South Africa, currently the most unequal country in the world), but resisted in South Africa.¹⁵ Opponents of the Basic Income Grant argue that it would increase dependency and dis-incentivize initiative. But proponents counter that, for those families locked in poverty and comprehensively marginalized from the consumer economy, the only viable incentive is to tackle the vicious cycle of exclusion by a direct injection of resources to provide basic health care and nutrition and – as is the case in Brazil – by requiring participation in education as a condition for receipt.

The argument advanced here is similar to the case for the Basic Income Grant. In a country with extensive poverty and marked inequality, increased participation in higher education may not be achievable by the equivalent of a “trickle down” effect, in which learners are gradually drawn in. It may rather be necessary to focus on a direct intervention into the root causes of social exclusion, using knowledge resources of all forms to kick-start the cycle of inclusion, education, economic growth, and further inclusion.

Poverty and Knowledge

There is a growing consensus on the essential characteristics of poverty. This is event from a series of major reports that have been completed in recent years, which in turn draw from a growing body of analytical literature. The Development Bank of Southern Africa sees the core problem as a deteriorating spiral in which impoverished communities manage largely with money transfers from the small number who can find unskilled work at the margins of the formal economy and who receive social grants from the state. These resources are inadequate to permit the development of a microenterprise sector of small traders, artisans and service providers, and so there can be no equality of opportunity to break out of the cycle of poverty.¹⁶

The Commission for Africa, concerned more ambitiously with sub-Saharan Africa as a whole, writes in its report of “circles of poverty”: “around a sixth of the entire population of sub-Saharan Africa – that is more than 100 million men, women and children – are chronically poor. They are people who experience such persistent poverty that they cannot break free of it using their own resources. They are reliant on day labouring. They have little education and few assets. A period of illness can mean selling the last of what they own to eat. The smallest crisis can tip them over the edge of bare survival into starvation and destitution. They are individuals and families trapped in vicious circles of poverty. They often choose to grow the least productive crops because those are the ones which have least risk of failure when poor rains come. They dare not risk ambition. And their vicious circles of poverty so easily turn into downward spirals. When parents are unable to invest in the health, education, skills or nutrition of their children, these children will be disadvantaged and more likely to be poor themselves”.¹⁷

The World Bank takes the idea further, and uses the concept of the poverty trap – as it affects groups of people, rather than individuals – as the key to its analysis and recommendations for more effective development. Again, the significant point is that inequalities in different sectors reinforce one another, making it impossible for communities to change their circumstances, despite their best efforts and inherent assets for improvement and success.¹⁸

The United Nations’ Millennium Development team builds an econometric model for understanding poverty traps such as these, and for planning effective interventions. In this model, existing and extreme poverty makes domestic saving virtually impossible, with the result that there is little capital accumulation. Because of this, there can be little investment in either infrastructure or in the development of people’s skills through education, and this chronic underinvestment discourages external investment in local economies because of high risks and low returns. Low – or negative – economic growth exacerbates clusters of social problems such as chronic diseases, poor governance and environmental degradation, further limiting savings, investment and capital growth.¹⁹

Each of these four reports makes recommendations for interventions to break the cyclical nature of poverty traps. Their proposals are not always in agreement with one another. Nevertheless, there is a large degree of overlap, and the combined pool of proposals contained in the four reports can be expressed as thirty interventions falling into seven categories: the environment, infrastructure, rights, education and research, health, agriculture and business. These interventions are summarized in Table 1.

Poverty Traps: Areas for Intervention	
Environment	
Environmental sustainability	Commission for Africa, 2005
Climate change	Commission for Africa, 2005
Infrastructure	
Transport systems	World Bank, 2005
Water supply and sanitation	World Bank, 2005; Commission for Africa, 2005
Power	World Bank, 2005
Telecommunications	World Bank, 2005
Urban infrastructure	Commission for Africa, 2005; Millennium Development Project, 2004
Regional integration	Millennium Development Project, 2004

Rights	
Gender equity	Commission for Africa, 2005; Millennium Development Project, 2004
Land rights	World Bank, 2005
Justice systems	World Bank, 2005
Social protection	World Bank, 2005
Strengthened governance systems	Commission for Africa, 2005
Education and Research	
Early childhood development	World Bank, 2005
Basic education	World Bank, 2005; Commission for Africa, 2005; Millennium Development Project, 2004; Millennium Development Project, 2004; DBSA, 2005
Higher education and training	Commission for Africa, 2005; Millennium Development Project, 2004
Mobilization of science and technology	Millennium Development Project, 2004
Publicly available knowledge resources	Millennium Development Project, 2004
Health	
Public health systems	World Bank, 2005; Commission for Africa, 2005; Millennium Development Project, 2004; DBSA, 2005
Nutrition	Millennium Development Project, 2004
Family planning	Millennium Development Project, 2004
Access to drugs	Commission for Africa, 2005
AIDS	Commission for Africa, 2005
Agriculture	
Land reform and agricultural development	DBSA, 2005; Commission for Africa, 2005
Increased rural productivity	Millennium Development Project, 2004
Business	
Financial services and microcredit	World Bank, 2005
Strengthened product markets	World Bank, 2005
Trade reform	World Bank, 2005
Improved investment climate	Commission for Africa, 2005
Small business development and entrepreneurship	Commission for Africa, 2005; DBSA, 2005

Table 1: Poverty Interventions

The shape of poverty that emerges from this series of policy studies is a self-reinforcing vortex of circumstances that will ensnare an individual, however determined he or she is to break free. The causes of poverty traps are now reasonably well understood, and with this analysis comes the identification of the corrective interventions that are required.

These four reports are, however, less clear about the source of knowledge and expertise to direct these interventions. Both the Commission for Africa and the United Nations' Millennium Development team propose very large financial interventions in various combinations of national tax revenues and foreign grants. While both propose investment in Africa's universities and research facilities, this is more to ensure long term sustainability, rather than to meet immediate needs. And, of course, proposals that depend on increased foreign aid – in whatever form – are hostage to political circumstance. Thus the G8 Summit in mid-2005 was not overly responsive to the Commission for Africa's proposals for a massive increase in aid, the Commission has now been disestablished, and priorities are beginning to move elsewhere.²⁰ It could be said that the persistent rejection of the financial implications of proposals for development is itself a structural characteristic of the poverty trap.

Another way of addressing this issue is to ask whether the knowledge resources needed to address this set of thirty prioritized interventions are present, but misaligned. Sub-Saharan Africa has a respectable number of universities as well as a range of research institutes. While capacity of course varies, many of these institutions structure their knowledge and expertise as well-established and

understood academic disciplines ordered in cognate structures. Research and teaching follows these disciplinary lines, which in turn enable international networks through which knowledge is identified, ratified and communicated.²¹ How do the institutional structures of the university system align with the areas of priority identified as critical for breaking poverty traps?

A typical comprehensive university combines teaching with research and vocational preparation and will be organized as divisions within each of which are clusters of broadly cognate disciplines. Teaching and research staff within these disciplines will interact both within their own institution but also – and crucially – with colleagues in other institutions, who share their training and interests. When the thirty interventions identified in recent reports on poverty are mapped against the organizational structure of such a typical university, we find that all of them align in some combination or other with disciplines or disciplinary clusters. This can be illustrated by a diagram in which the directed actions required to attack poverty are mapped against discipline-based areas of specialization (Figure 1).

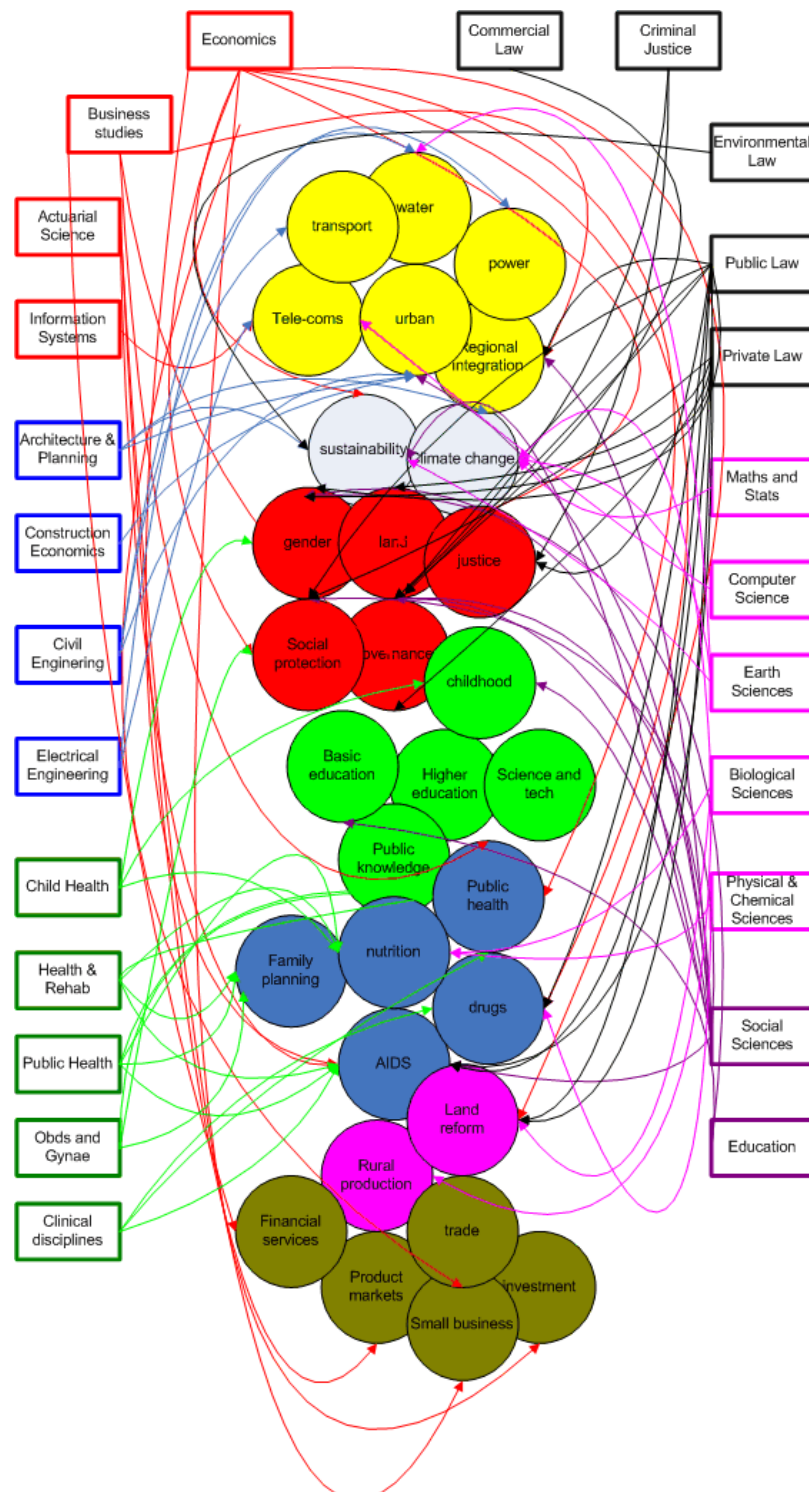


Figure 1: Poverty, and the organization of the university

This exercise reinforces the point that the knowledge to defeat poverty exists, or can be attained through focussed research. This is both because advanced analytical skills have been applied to understanding poverty traps in themselves - how they form and how they are perpetuated, and because each and every aspect of poverty can be related to an established field of study – to previous and current teaching and research in a typical university.

Ethics of Practice

In reassessing the objects of transformation for universities a decade after the key policy directions of the 1997 White Paper, I am suggesting a reaffirmation of the basic tenets of redress and social justice, informed by the subsequent experience of just how hard these tenets can be to achieve in the face of adverse structural conditions. This shift can be conceptualized as the need for an explicit ethics of practice.

Here, Bent Flyvberg's concept of "situational ethics" is valuable. Following Bourdieu and Foucault, Flyvberg develops the idea of *phronesis* – practical wisdom – that foregrounds engagement and context in the development and application of new knowledge: "the objective is to balance instrumental rationality with value-rationality by increasing the capacity of individuals, organisations and society to think and act in value-rational terms ... *phronetic* researchers ... take their point of departure in their attitude to the situation in the society being studied. They seek to ensure that such an attitude is not based on idiosyncratic morality or personal preferences, but instead on a common view among a specific reference group to which the researchers refer".²²

Applied to the purposes of public higher education in South Africa, the appropriate "point of departure" is apparent. Universities in South Africa exist by virtue of public funds, drawn from a fiscus that is one of the most unequal in the world in terms of income, and are located in a society with persistent unemployment and high levels of poverty. Since universities have the expertise needed to tackle these issues in a focussed and effective way, making measurable contributions to alleviating both cause and effect, the case for an ethics of practice that focus on inequality, poverty and social exclusion could not be clearer.

An ethics of practice focused in this way would contribute to the reconceptualization of a higher education system that has, in many respects, lost its way in the policy debates, arguments about resources and autonomy and institutional restructuring that have characterized the last ten years. Prior to 1990, the "liberal" universities defined themselves – to their own communities and to the rest of the world – in their opposition to apartheid. At the University of Cape Town, for example, the iconic image was of staff and students massed behind the Vice-Chancellor, bullhorn in hand, facing off police with riot shields and teargas.²³

The ethical focus on poverty and inequality proposed here does not supplant the principles of freedom of enquiry that were defended as part of the opposition to the apartheid state. Indeed, the contrary is the case, since the complexities of poverty traps and associated issues require all the established conditions for academic work that are synonymous with the traditional idea of the university. But circumstances have changed, as Flyvberg's emphasis on the primacy of context helps us define. Before 1990, the most substantial threat to liberal universities in South Africa was absorption into the apartheid state's all-embracing project of control in the interests of white privilege. Today, the most substantial threat to the university – and to South Africa's democratic settlement – is continuing inequality, and economic and social exclusion. To use just one of many possible indicators, poverty measured against the widely-used \$1-a-day adjusted threshold increased from 4.3 million people (11.5% of the population) in 1993 to 8.6million people (19.8% of the population) in 2000.²⁴ No publicly-funded institution can remain untouched by a national context such as this, and for a public university to remain "institutionally silent" about poverty today

would be the equivalent of remaining silent about the evil of apartheid twenty years ago.

To return, then, to the opening question: what is the return that South Africa can expect on its investment in public higher education institutions? The core purposes identified in the 1997 White Paper remain unexceptionable. Any modern country would expect its university system to provide for individual opportunity and the development of high-level expertise necessary to a competitive national economy. Universities everywhere are expected to create new knowledge of a high standard, and the university traditions of the north and west valorize the development of critical discourse in an environment of freedom and autonomy of thought, even as such principles are violated on a routine basis. However, ten years on from the White Paper, and with poverty still entrenched and inequality increasing, these returns appear increasing insufficient. Unless universities focus the power of knowledge on addressing poverty and inequality it may well be the case that the economic and social foundations on which they rest as institutional forms are damaged beyond repair.

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¹ National Commission on Higher Education 1996; Republic of South Africa 2001; Presidency 2005a, 2005b.

² See for example Berdahl 1990; Gomes 2000; Hayward 1997; Marquina and Haberfeld 2000; Neave and van Vught 1994.

³ Republic of South Africa 1997a, 1997b.

⁴ Participation rates are conventionally measured by the proportion of an age cohort that is admitted to a higher education institution. In international terms, a participation rate of 50% and above is considered high.

⁵ Data from Jane Hendry, Institutional Planning Department, University of Cape Town.

⁶ This shift of policy was formalized in the National Plan for Higher Education completed in 2000, which formed the basis for subsequent institutional restructuring; Republic of South Africa 2001.

⁷ Presidency 2005a.

⁸ Cloete 2002; Hall, Symes and Luescher 2002; Hall and Symes 2005

⁹ National Commission on Higher Education 1996.

¹⁰ Cloete, Fehnel, Maassen, Moja, Perold and Gibbon 2002; Hall and Symes 2005

¹¹ See Hall 2006 for an overview of positions on academic freedom and institutional autonomy.

¹² Muller 2000

¹³ For the relationship between educational opportunity and income, see Van der Berg and Burger 2003; Bhorat and Ooshuizen 2006; Louw, Van der Berg and Yu 2006; Van der Berg 2006.

¹⁴ For an overview and analysis of poverty, inequality and public policy in South Africa, see Seekings and Nattrass 2005.

¹⁵ See Standing and Sampson 2003.

¹⁶ Development Bank of Southern Africa 2005, page 13.

¹⁷ Commission for Africa 2005, page 38.

¹⁸ World Bank 2005, page 43.

¹⁹ Sachs, McArthur, Schmidt-Traub, Kruk, Bahadur, Faye and McCord 2004.

²⁰ See *The Economist*, "Special Report: Aid to Africa", July 2nd 2005 for a cynical but realistic example of the reception that the Commission for Africa report received. The Commission for Africa's web site reports that the "Secretariat to the Commission for Africa closed on 31 July 2005 having finished its work, and that the site is now an archive. www.Commissionforafrica.org. Accessed 13 November 2005.

²¹ Burton Clark, 1978, provides a classic description of the disciplinary ordering of knowledge in the university.

²² Flyvberg 2001, page 130.

²³ Saunders 2000.

²⁴ Development Bank of Southern Africa 2005; United Nations 2002; Van de Ruit and May 2003.