

1 “We Eat Sushi Now”: Targeting Hungry Students at 2 South African Universities

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3 Abstract

4 Media reports, research, and student support services are paying an increasing
5 amount of attention to the hunger experienced by students at South African
6 universities. This article demonstrates that most of this attention is rooted in a
7 food security paradigm, or in approaches that mitigate the effects of student
8 hunger. It avoids addressing the causes of hunger, which lie in oppressive
9 systems such as the neoliberal world food system and the operation of the
10 entrepreneurial public university. Our discussion of trends at the University of
11 the Western Cape (UWC) takes two trajectories: We explore the ways in which
12 universities’ practical and research priorities reinforce hegemonic responses to
13 hunger, and we reflect on explicitly politicised currents of critical work around
14 students and hunger. What certain scholars and activists have termed “critical
15 food system literacy” signals how transformative strategies and knowledge
16 production are being developed at some universities—sometimes beyond the
17 parameters of what is conventionally seen as food-centred advocacy, activism,
18 or research.

19 **Keywords:** critical food literacy; food justice; food security; food sovereignty;
20 hunger; South African universities; neoliberalism; students; world food
21 system
22

23 Introduction

24 When one of this article’s co-writers arranged a quick meal of soup during a workshop
 25 at the end of the day, a student responded: “But I eat sushi.” This declaration revealed
 26 the performative enactment of an identity that is cosmopolitan and middle-class, rather
 27 than parochial and working-class. In reflecting on the performative force of this
 28 declaration, we began to think about how often South African university students’
 29 relationships to food have been defined monolithically, rather than in ways that illustrate
 30 the complex and sometimes contradictory nature of these relationships. We also
 31 reflected on what motivates the current wave of research, advocacy, and practical
 32 interventions into student hunger. Is this only a response to what one recent journal
 33 article identifies as an “emerging and alarming problem among university students”
 34 (Sabi et al. 2019, 144)? Or does the upsurge in work on hungry students warrant critical
 35 scrutiny of the multiple discursive, political, and economic influences that shape
 36 university research agendas and student support services?

37 The aims of this article are twofold. On one hand, we examine dominant trends in the
 38 research and practical work around food and university students in South Africa. Guided
 39 by feminist, materialist, and discourse analysis theory, we reflect on how the notion of
 40 the “hungry student” has been constructed in the context of neoliberal universities. On
 41 the other hand, we map out trends at the university with which we are most familiar, the
 42 University of the Western Cape (UWC), to illustrate how universities’ managerial and
 43 financial imperatives can actively undermine students’ ability to eat nutritious food. We
 44 also explore some of the marginalised conceptual and practical strategies around
 45 students’ relationships to food. We show that this knowledge is richer and more
 46 productive than the findings and solutions provided in much of the recent research and
 47 practical work on student hunger undertaken at South African universities and
 48 universities elsewhere.

49 Explaining Student Hunger

50 Universities in South Africa have been focusing increasingly on research into student
 51 hunger. Furthermore, many are now driving interventions into food access for students
 52 as their primary constituency. South African work in this area includes studies in
 53 journals and books (Munro et al. 2013; Rudolph et al. 2018; Sabi et al. 2019; Van den
 54 Berg and Raubenheimer 2015) as well as postgraduate theses (Drewett 2018; Sabi
 55 2018). It also includes advocacy and practical action. Several South African universities
 56 have launched programmes for combating hunger experienced by students. These
 57 include the “Stop Hunger Now” initiative at the University of Johannesburg, the
 58 University of the Free State’s “No Student Hungry” Programme, and the launching of
 59 a farmer’s market at the University of the Witwatersrand (see Makwela 2018).

60 Intellectual work straddling advocacy and scholarship has led to initiatives such as
 61 Stellenbosch University’s task team report on students and hunger in 2019 (see Dunn-
 62 Coetzee and Foflonker 2019). The combination of research and advocacy has also been

63 demonstrated in seminars and talks such as a roundtable titled “Curbing Student Hunger
64 Challenges”, hosted by UWC’s Dullah Omar Institute in October 2017 (see UWC
65 2017), and a seminar hosted by the University of Pretoria’s Centre for the Advancement
66 of Scholarship in November 2019 (see UP 2019). The National Research Foundation-
67 funded Centre of Excellence in Food Security, housed at UWC, has also highlighted
68 hunger among students (see Makwela 2018). In 2019 the topic was covered twice on
69 the website *The Conversation*, which seeks to circulate the findings of academic
70 research among a wide audience (see Sabi 2019; Wegerif and Adeniyi 2019).

71 The burgeoning postgraduate research, scholarship, advocacy, and practical work on
72 different campuses has taken a variety of forms. Especially noteworthy in much of this
73 work, however, is the centrality of “food security”. Foregrounded in the titles of many
74 articles and theses, or central to the description of programmes, food security discourse
75 currently provides the conceptual and analytical framework for what has become an
76 industry of scholarship and practical work around students and food.

77 In her analysis of three influential food research sites at the University of KwaZulu-
78 Natal (UKZN), Anne Harley explores the politics of food security paradigms and
79 identifies three main flaws in them (2019, 90–92). One is their fixation on tracing hunger
80 to individual and symptomatic causes. This leads to solutions focusing on ameliorating
81 the hunger experienced by individuals or groups. As Rupert Alcock (2009) shows, food
82 security methodologies and analysis involve the quantitative and specialist-driven
83 analysis of access to food of groups experiencing deprivation. A second, related flaw of
84 the food security model is its neglect of the structural determinants of hunger. Rather
85 than confronting the histories and socio-economic circumstances that create hunger,
86 food security paradigms concentrate on reforming the symptoms of these legacies
87 (Harley 2019, 90–92). A third distinguishing characteristic is these paradigms’ origin in
88 global governance under neoliberalism (Harley 2019, 90–92). Food security approaches
89 did not emanate from social justice movements or the perspectives of those who are
90 hungry. William Schanbacher (2010) emphasises that the post-World War II period
91 ushered in a global food regime steered by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the
92 World Bank, and the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Promoting what came to be
93 defined as “food security” was a top-down measure, with “security” seen to be
94 achievable “through economic policies including trade liberalization, privatization,
95 deregulation of national industry and the opening of markets” (Schanbacher 2010, viii).

96 As Harley (2019) shows, the dominant food security lens, which focuses on hunger
97 among university students, indicates how university-driven research can work to
98 legitimate the dominant food system. Consequently, prominent and frequently used
99 concepts, explanatory frameworks, and solutions in influential work on food and hungry
100 students attend “to the ongoing repair work necessary to prevent the cleavage between
101 structure and superstructure from becoming openly visible” (Harley 2019, 92).
102 Recognising food security paradigms as hegemonic does not imply that those who draw
103 on them consciously set out to validate systems of oppression; instead, the dominance

104 of the approach reveals how certain understandings and concepts simply become
 105 “common sense”. The ubiquity of the model works to drown out other perspectives from
 106 which to understand hunger and from which to develop research and practice attentive
 107 to its socio-economic and political origins and effects.

108 Among these perspectives are food sovereignty and food justice models, which emerged
 109 out of activist struggles and which challenge the reformist orientation of food security
 110 discourses. They also propose transformative changes based on understanding how
 111 social subjects are situated in exploitative global food systems (see Holt-Gimenez
 112 2010, 2). The current world food regime operates to control food production and
 113 consumption on a global scale. Supported by institutions like the World Bank and the
 114 IMF, large global corporations monopolise food resources and generate profits by
 115 controlling the industrial production and the selling of food, and inflating prices through
 116 their control of the markets. The global food system therefore entrenches power
 117 relations at the national level, with access to food as a commodity being determined by
 118 entrenched inequalities within countries.

119 Food justice and food sovereignty movements are usually differentiated in terms of the
 120 latter’s focus on the global capitalist exploitation of rural resources and subjects around
 121 the world. The food sovereignty movement originated in a global peasants’ movement,
 122 La Via Campesina, between 1993 and 1996 (see Holt-Gimenez 2010, 2). Following its
 123 origins in social justice struggles, food sovereignty has come to constitute a politicised
 124 paradigm for challenging global corporate capitalist monopolies. Food justice
 125 movements are primarily urban-based and concentrate on localised and urban forms of
 126 exploitation, dominance, and access in food systems controlled by corporations (see
 127 Holt-Gimenez 2010, 2).

128 Despite certain differences in orientation and emphasis, food justice and food
 129 sovereignty approaches share a concern with tracing the causes of hunger to the global
 130 dominance of multinational corporations, as well as the political and ideological
 131 systems that support their power. Consequently, certain research and activist analysis,
 132 often without referencing food justice or food sovereignty, echo these approaches in
 133 challenging the reformist orientation of food security paradigms. For example, in a short
 134 article for *The Conversation*, Marc Wegerif and Oluwafunmiola Adeniyi (2019)
 135 acknowledge “some positive impact” of food assistance provided to students at different
 136 campuses. But they also highlight the necessity for critical, publicly disseminated
 137 knowledge production about food systems in universities, policies that stress food as a
 138 right, and political efforts to hold the government and tertiary institutions responsible
 139 for addressing students’ rights.

140 Earlier efforts to challenge or transcend short-term solutions are also important. In fact,
 141 it is noteworthy that in South Africa, both research and practical interest in hunger
 142 among students mushroomed in the wake of student protests in 2015. Until this time,
 143 few South African universities, student support services, or research projects paid much

144 attention to how students experienced food, or the lack thereof. Concern about hunger
 145 from the mid-1990s until well into the new millennium focused primarily on food access
 146 for learners in schools. This reinforced a perception that university students, by virtue
 147 of their status, had successfully extricated themselves from lives of want and were well
 148 on the way towards financial well-being and lives of affluence.

149 Only small pockets of progressive researchers dealt with the detrimental impact of
 150 apartheid and capitalism on students' access to nutritious food and other "non-
 151 academic" learning resources. Writing about the period between 1996 and 2001, for
 152 example, Terri Barnes argued that post-apartheid proposals to "address the problems of
 153 institutional inequality ... relied more on notions of developing institutional fitness for
 154 mandated missions within given financial constraints than on reparation for past
 155 discrimination or injustice" (2006, 160). Charlton Koen (2007) identified specific
 156 factors influencing students' ability to complete their studies and to graduate. Drawing
 157 attention to the inadequacy of foregrounding student intake, he showed how the majority
 158 of students' academic experiences at South African universities were affected by
 159 inadequate housing and living conditions, sub-standard educational backgrounds,
 160 inadequate nutrition, and the psychosocial effects of constantly "living as poor" (Koen
 161 2007, 78). In similar ways to Koen, Nazneen Firfirey and Ronelle Carolissen (2010)
 162 analysed UWC students' experiences of poverty at the individual and structural levels.
 163 They draw attention to the ways in which alleviating students' hunger is connected to
 164 higher educational transformation and macro-level interventions.

165 The protests that were organised alongside and in the name of #RhodesMustFall and
 166 #FeesMustFall also politicised hunger among students. Protestors developed critical
 167 analysis of hunger in the context of social injustice and economic exploitation. Within
 168 their activist discourse, the violence of a "colonial education" failed to address their
 169 political, intellectual, and psychosocial needs. This violence also included neoliberal
 170 capitalism, which was seen to drive escalating fees at public universities and obliged
 171 students to pay for essential services such as accommodation, transport, and food
 172 alongside their tuition fees (see Booysen 2016, 1–20).

173 Among the many issues that students raised between 2015 and 2016 was the need for
 174 adequate food, thus bringing the "shameful secret" of hunger among many students
 175 (often formulaically categorised as middle-class) to light in campus and public debate.
 176 This laid the problem squarely before university managers and, of course, the state.
 177 Significantly, students sought to render hunger visible *in relation to* broader efforts to
 178 unravel how public universities are being affected by neoliberal restructuring. For
 179 example, their attention to the outsourcing of workers as well as spiralling tuition fees
 180 confronted a specific form of economic exploitation: the institutionalising of privatised
 181 services defended by key institutional actors and the state's withdrawal of support for
 182 universities (see Dominguez-Whitehead 2017).

183 Harley (2019, 89) describes a five-day festival at UKZN as an important effort to wage
 184 “a war of position against hegemonic discourse of food security”. By foregrounding a
 185 food sovereignty approach, as well as dialogue and debate around politicising strategies
 186 and hunger, this event questioned influential reformist food security teaching and
 187 research sites at the university. In the face of the national growth of food security
 188 perspectives on students’ experiences, this “war of position” against dominant
 189 approaches to student hunger has become extremely important.

190 Patterns in UWC’s Food Culture¹

191 It is ironic that the upsurge of work about hungry students undertaken in universities co-
 192 exists with institutional legacies, stakeholder partnerships, and planning that actively
 193 intensify many food-related challenges for students. Examples of such challenges that
 194 have been seen repeatedly at UWC are the high cost of food at outlets on and close to
 195 campus, the prominence of low-nutrient fast food, and the privileging of economically
 196 and politically powerful stakeholder interests in university planning related to food.

197 Like many other universities, UWC responded to national demands to outsource food
 198 services for students by closing dining halls in its residences, making students reliant on
 199 a reduced number of outsourced dining halls, as well as shops and supermarkets. UWC
 200 is located on the periphery of the city of Bellville, and is surrounded by industries and
 201 housing developments. Amenities such as restaurants and shops are remote, and
 202 canteens located on university premises close in the late afternoon. The closest
 203 supermarket providing groceries is a SPAR, situated in a small mall approximately one-
 204 and-a-half kilometres from campus. Apart from this basic supermarket, the mall has
 205 several fast food outlets, including McDonalds, Kentucky Fried Chicken, and Steers.

206 Students’ access to food is also affected by the limited availability of outlets on campus
 207 from the late afternoon. The only outlet available in the evening is a bar, The Barn (open
 208 from midday until the early hours of the morning), where students are able to buy
 209 gatsbys,² hamburgers, and chips. Students’ reliance on store-bought food requires them
 210 to make elaborate arrangements to purchase and store food. Because many purchase
 211 groceries to reduce their spending on bought meals, they need to invest in stoves,
 212 microwaves, and fridges. Since student loans are often stretched to include supermarket
 213 vouchers for purchasing food, many can ill afford the additional expenses of appliances
 214 for cooking and food storage.

215 The university’s eating ethos mirrors the entrepreneurial priorities now normalised at
 216 UWC, as well as at other universities nationally and globally. For example, after the

1 The discussion in this section is based on the observations and knowledge of the authors as well as interviews conducted by Mary Hames with student volunteers at the Gender Equity Unit (GEU).

2 A gatsby is a long sandwich filled with chips, lettuce, polony, spicy sausages, calamari or fish, and topped with a variety of sauces. It is usually cut up into pieces and is meant to be shared.

217 university signed an agreement—which included the university receiving financial
 218 support—with the Chinese government, a Chinese restaurant opened on campus. This
 219 outlet explicitly caters for students with buying power, indicating that its establishment
 220 was motivated entirely by the need to secure diplomatic and funding alliances.

221 Fast food services have become increasingly wide-ranging, with many promoting
 222 millennial designer foods. One of the oldest sit-down restaurants, Aunty Val’s, closed
 223 at the end of 2019. After providing balanced meals and local dishes for staff and students
 224 for many years, this source has been replaced by new ventures catering for “global”
 225 tastes. Trendy chains such as Vida e caffè now sell expensive speciality coffees, snacks,
 226 and sandwiches aimed at “millennial” consumers. Feedem, another of the new food
 227 vendors, has two outlets on campus with vastly different menus: the outlet at the
 228 residences offers cheap, high-carbohydrate burgers, chips, large pieces of chicken, and
 229 rice, while the other, located in one of the new science buildings and often used by
 230 academic staff, offers wraps, salads, and balanced meals.

231 The privileging of corporate food ventures to the detriment of many students’ food
 232 needs is also evident in the thwarting of certain student-led efforts to buy, cook, or sell
 233 cost-effective and local food. Since the closure of dining halls run by the university,
 234 several women students have sought to cook and sell food to other students. This food
 235 is usually cheaper than other foodstuffs available to students. It has also often been
 236 valued as traditional and “home-cooked”.³ (The only outlet on campus that sells local
 237 food is located close to the train station. The location of these facilities at the margins
 238 of the campus reveals the erasure of the food tastes and needs of a large percentage of
 239 the student population.) However, because these food-sellers have operated informally
 240 and are not registered vendors, their initiatives are considered illegal and have been
 241 prohibited. This situation highlights the inability of key institutional actors to respond
 242 seriously to student-centred needs and strategies around food, and it is ironic given that
 243 one of the newly established graduate attributes is entrepreneurship.

244 Universities and Neoliberalism

245 The alignment of UWC’s provisions for students with entrepreneurial, private-sector,
 246 and donor priorities reveals how universities can “currently act as instruments of
 247 hegemony” (Harley 2019, 93). In what follows, we deepen our explanation of this
 248 hegemonic operation by showing how the food security approach “becomes the means
 249 of upholding relations of power and maintaining the authority to control the knowledge
 250 of which it speaks” (Alcock 2009, 5).

251 Commenting on global trends, Margaret Thornton (2015) draws attention to the current
 252 role of the public university as both the engine and locus of neoliberal transformation.

3 This information was revealed in discussions among students and Mary Hames, as the director of the GEU, in workshops during 2019.

253 By vocationalising courses and overtly defining education as a marketable commodity,
 254 universities have been promoting education primarily as an investment. Higher
 255 education is made available to a few who are destined to increase their employment
 256 opportunities once educated; at the same time, the content of education has been
 257 instrumentalised in line with a neoliberal understanding of social needs. Explaining how
 258 neoliberal standards are reconfiguring the purpose of higher education in South Africa,
 259 Ivor Baatjies (2005, 25) writes: “Education, formal and non-formal, is increasingly
 260 being packaged according to qualifications, delivered through prepackaged curricula
 261 based on predetermined outcomes, and integrated within the economic agenda—an
 262 integration framed within a discourse of improving competitiveness, jobs, standards,
 263 and quality.” He also argues that the packaging of higher education to meet the needs
 264 of the market is accompanied by university audit cultures and bureaucracies that mirror
 265 those of business corporations. South African universities are therefore being
 266 restructured to ensure that academics and students acquire or use “knowledge, skills and
 267 dispositions to compete efficiently and effectively in a ruthless global economy”
 268 (Baatjies 2005, 25).

269 In accordance with the market-driven imperative to maintain an efficiently functioning
 270 society of economically contributing citizens (rather than a socially just one of
 271 participating citizens), the reformist thrust of food security alleviates some of the
 272 debilitating effects of hunger. At the same time, a food security lens fails to pay attention
 273 to the broader contexts in which those who are hungry live and work. What could be
 274 seen as a research, advocacy, and policy industry around student hunger can therefore
 275 be located in the context of a university’s neoliberal social engagement.

276 Alcock (2009, 10) notes that food security paradigms have a “pervasive predilection for
 277 empirical clarity ... symptomatic of traditional positivist epistemologies”. This is
 278 strongly evident in much of the scholarship on university students and hunger. For
 279 example, Louise van den Berg and Jacques Raubenheimer (2015, 160) use a toolkit and
 280 quantitative methods to conclude the following:

281 The prevalence of food insecurity according to the one-item measure was 65%. Using
 282 the 10-item measure, 60% of the students experienced food insecurity “with hunger”,
 283 and 26% food insecurity “without hunger” ... Using the regression model, the strongest
 284 significant predictors of food insecurity were race, gender, being a first-generation
 285 student, not having enough food money, having borrowed food money from parents,
 286 having asked for food and having sold belongings to obtain food.

287 This positivist approach is typical of research in the natural sciences. What is striking,
 288 however, is the spread of these positivist approaches in the social sciences and
 289 humanities. Gary Anderson (2017, 1007) attributes this to the global depoliticising of
 290 research in universities, which leads “critical and qualitative researchers [to be]
 291 marginalized within the academy and by gatekeepers who fund research”. He goes on
 292 to show that some social science and humanities researchers and students are
 293 increasingly embracing positivist frameworks and methodologies to meet dominant

294 standards of value as defined in many journals, by university auditing mechanisms, and
 295 by the external funders who now often support academic research. It is therefore
 296 noteworthy that Nicholas Munro et al. (2013) adopt a similar methodological strategy
 297 to that of Van den Berg and Raubenheimer in their contribution to dietetics. Publishing
 298 in the journal *Perspectives on Education*, they summarise their work on student hunger
 299 in the following way (Munro et al. 2013, 168):

300 Data to assess vulnerability to food insecurity in a sample of 1083 students from UKZN
 301 (Pietermaritzburg Campus) was collected between 2007 and 2010 via a questionnaire
 302 developed specifically for this purpose. The results indicate that 20.8% of the sample
 303 experienced some level of vulnerability to food insecurity, with 16.1% reporting serious
 304 levels of vulnerability, and 4.7% experiencing severe to critical levels of vulnerability
 305 to food insecurity.

306 As these studies reveal, food security approaches descriptively confront a socially
 307 created problem through extensive, technical, and seemingly “objective” categorisation
 308 and measurement. This labelling impulse is evident in the constructed binary between
 309 experiences defined as “insecure” (deviant) and those that exemplify the “norm” (food
 310 security). “Food security” implies a measurable standard that allows people to be fully
 311 “functional” within the existing status quo. In contrast, “food insecurity” mechanically
 312 signals that others are lacking and require salvation from this “lack”. This binary
 313 pathologises those who are hungry as problems requiring fixing, rather than as social
 314 subjects within a system that causes injustices.

315 Related to the pathologising of hungry people as social problems are welfarist, remedial,
 316 and philanthropic solutions. One example is the rise of private sector assistance to
 317 students. Big food companies such as Tiger Brands have been highly visible in efforts
 318 to combat student hunger (Tiger Brands 2019). By offering donations of food to several
 319 South African universities, Tiger Brands has appeared to declare its commitment to
 320 equalising food access, yet its financial success relies on sales of essential items, such
 321 as bread, at prices that many cannot afford. It is significant that in 2007 the company
 322 was ordered to pay a R98.7 million penalty when it admitted to bread price-fixing
 323 (Nisselow 2018). By illegally colluding with other companies to raise bread prices,
 324 Tiger Brands demonstrated the ruthlessness of its profit-making goals and revealed the
 325 primarily strategic purpose of its philanthropic work. The role of big food companies in
 326 drives to alleviate hunger has in fact become overtly manipulative. Companies often
 327 provide funds for supporting research at universities, and the hidden agenda in such
 328 donor-sponsored work is for research to elevate sponsors as relevant and supportive
 329 stakeholders, rather than to critique corporations’ social impact. Since universities now
 330 often rely on donor support for research, academics can easily be led to pursue research
 331 agendas that boost or protect the image of donors, rather than addressing the priorities
 332 of the subjects of their research. This political regulation of research can occur through
 333 seemingly academic institutional regulation, such as ethical requirements and research
 334 screening committees. It is therefore noteworthy that the Tiger Brands Foundation

335 partners with the University of Johannesburg’s Africa Centre for Development as well
 336 as the University of the Free State (Tiger Brands Foundation 2021).

337 Another welfarist solution is the development of food or vegetable gardens that allow
 338 students to plant their own food. Tiger Brands, in addition to its food donations for
 339 students, began partnering with Siyakhana Community Gardens in 2017 to establish
 340 food gardens to “empower students with life-long skills in growing their own food”
 341 (Tiger Brands 2019). Yet food gardens—within the broader context of a world food
 342 system in which a few global corporations control most food resources and markets—
 343 merely mitigate glaring injustices. As Marie Beth Pudup (2008) has argued, the
 344 institutionalising of gardens has become a widespread strategy within new forms of
 345 governmentality. Gardens have been seized on as therapeutic spaces for establishing
 346 “positive” connections between citizens, space, and nature, and often function to
 347 regulate citizens as docile bodies.

348 Many welfarist approaches to hungry students in South Africa enlist models developed
 349 in North America. South African universities often collaborate with institutions in the
 350 north and co-create projects that reinforce conservative solutions. Numerous North
 351 American studies in various disciplines have turned to students’ experiences of “food
 352 insecurity” at various colleges (see, for example, Henry 2017; Meza et al. 2019; Payne-
 353 Sturges et al. 2018). This work has been accompanied by the establishment of food
 354 banks and pantries, the handing out of food parcels, and, more recently, using social and
 355 print media to advertise food handouts. Like the food pantry concept, the North
 356 American practice of packathons⁴ has been taken up on certain South African campuses.
 357 Connected to the spreading of Christianity (and the feeding of spiritual hunger), young
 358 people are urged to pack food parcels as part of a project of gifting to others. In 2018,
 359 UWC students joined the “Rise Against Hunger” organisation as part of the 67-minute
 360 challenge on national Mandela Day. The idea of linking physical hunger to spiritual
 361 hunger feeds into Christian morality and appeases the neoliberal social accountability
 362 ethic adopted by for-profit organisations. Like many gestures of benevolence, these
 363 reassuringly create a collective sense of contributing to the social good without
 364 addressing what social injustice really means.

365 The shallowness of charitable acts as responses to hunger has raised public debate in
 366 North America. Hilal Elver, the UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food, recently
 367 argued, “Do not confuse food charity with ‘right to food’” (UN 2020). Elver suggests
 368 that welfarist tactics such as food banks and food charities reinforce the vulnerabilities
 369 and powerlessness of food buyers, while also displacing the responsibility of the state.

370 The call to universities to address student hunger reflects many neoliberal governments’
 371 demands that research and teaching at universities should be augmented by public

4 A packathon is a food packing event where participants pack meals for distribution. See Feed the Hunger (2021).

372 engagement. At face value, this seems positive, yet the current demands are in fact a
 373 requirement that they deepen their participation in the market economy, through
 374 “relevant” teaching and research and by supporting the political apparatus for
 375 reproducing this economy. In the USA, this was made evident when the governor of
 376 New York, Andrew Cuomo, mandated that all public colleges and universities in the
 377 state should have food pantries (see Smith 2019). Responding incisively to this, Bridget
 378 Huber (2019) argued that government is shirking its responsibility to provide equitable
 379 access to higher learning. She also drew attention to the dehumanising impact of food
 380 handouts, citing the practice of alerting students via apps and social media when there
 381 is food left over after campus events.

382 Building “Critical Food Literacy”

383 The term “food literacy” has been used to refer to the ability to assess the nutritional
 384 value and health benefits of particular foods, as well as the skills to select and prepare
 385 these (see Yamashita and Robinson 2016, 272). Like the efforts to politicise struggles
 386 around food in food justice and food sovereignty movements, the term “critical food
 387 literacy” conveys an understanding of how social experiences of food systems and food
 388 access are connected to oppressive economic, ecological, and political contexts. Lina
 389 Yamashita and Diana Robinson (2016, 270) describe it as “the ability to examine one’s
 390 assumptions and grapple with multiple perspectives that underlie food systems,
 391 understand the larger sociopolitical contexts that shape food systems, and take action
 392 toward just, sustainable food systems”.

393 In the context of dominant conservative approaches to food, Harley (2019, 98) remarks
 394 that “there have been very few signs that food sovereignty is gaining traction” at UKZN.
 395 However, she also states that alternatives do exist. Her remarks are likely to be
 396 applicable to many other universities, where critical knowledge is constantly
 397 challenging systems of power, both in and beyond the university. In this final section,
 398 we review some of the efforts to politicise the subject of students’ food access at UWC.

399 As the director of the Gender Equity Unit (GEU), which took responsibility for making
 400 food a campus citizenship issue, one author has directly worked with students on the
 401 politics of hunger. In response to the prevalence of hunger among undergraduates, the
 402 unit started its Food Programme (GEUFP) in 2007 through the initiative of one of the
 403 volunteer students, Liansky Bestenbier. Believing that UWC should take responsibility
 404 for giving students full access to the institution, Bestenbier worked with other student
 405 activists to organise food drives involving staff and students. These drives were
 406 accompanied by awareness-raising talks, film festivals, and discussions about human
 407 rights, social justice struggles, and the contexts of hunger. Built into this programme,
 408 therefore, was the understanding that hunger among certain groups is a direct result of
 409 others’ unjust privileges—what Raj Patel (2008) describes as the dialectic between
 410 “stuffed and starving”. The global food industry produces enough food for the world’s
 411 population, but corporate greed for monopolies and profit, high levels of food waste,
 412 and excessive consumption among certain groups create starvation among those with

413 histories of economic and social subordination. By probing the world food system,
 414 corporate food industries' greed, and elite entitlement, the programme challenged the
 415 objectification of hungry students as "problems". Instead, it emphasised collective
 416 responsibility and action, guarding against the degradation that accompanies singling
 417 out "needy" students.

418 Certain students involved in the GEUFP undertook academic work in the area they were
 419 practically involved in. In 2010, one of the co-founders of the GEUFP, Nazneen
 420 Firfirey, completed her MPhil degree in psychology on the UWC-based food
 421 programme at Stellenbosch University. Even though the research was undertaken at
 422 Stellenbosch, this was one of the first in-depth studies on students and food related to
 423 UWC, and it led to a journal publication (see Firfirey and Carolissen 2010).

424 For the GEU, access to food has also been a feminist concern, with various programmes
 425 addressing ways in which gendered access to the university involves much more than
 426 women's entry into the institution. The gendered dimensions of food access were
 427 addressed in a play written and performed by women student volunteers in 2019,
 428 performed on campus, at the Magnet Theatre in Cape Town, and at the Grahamstown
 429 Arts Festival. Titled *My Daily Bread*, the production surfaced the gendered politics of
 430 food, eating, and hunger both at the university and in broader society, while also
 431 critiquing the way in which research can objectify black women. Far from neutralising
 432 hunger as a fact in society, the play stressed that black women's attempts to access food
 433 are often underscored by social violence. The title invokes the Lord's Prayer, in which
 434 the speaker, positioned as a supplicant in the way that many hungry people are in
 435 socially unjust societies, pleads for daily sustenance. The opening scene quotes
 436 John 6:35: "Then Jesus declared 'I am the bread of life. Whoever comes to me will
 437 never go hungry, and whoever believes in me will never be thirsty'." Christian
 438 affiliation and belief play a major role in many students' lives, with many religious
 439 bodies being registered at the university as student organisations.⁵ The play was
 440 therefore courageous in seeking to encourage an awareness of the limits of religious
 441 faith in securing the basic necessities to ensure women's survival.

442 The performance also showed how black women's bodies are continuously under
 443 surveillance, and how punitive measures are applied when women disobey patriarchal
 444 strictures to subordinate their hunger to the hunger of others. It also shifts from the rural
 445 to the urban context, stressing the persistence of systemic violence and the food
 446 deprivation experienced by black women with different occupations and from different
 447 classes. Some scenes describe rural women needing to feed their families in the absence
 448 of their husbands, who are migrant workers. Others reveal young women trying to
 449 conceal their desperate hunger in the context of the middle-class ethos of the university
 450 at which they are students. The play also touches on the callousness of a class-obsessed

5 This situation is not unique to UWC and affects many other South African universities. Our research suggests a similar situation exists at many universities in North America.

451 world, where those with class privileges often express their superiority through attitudes
 452 towards food. One privileged young woman character, for example, self-righteously
 453 urges others to avoid the food they usually buy and instead eat Greek salad and tuna
 454 because it is healthy. This conveys how students can be humiliated by those who
 455 presume to teach them how to eat “correctly” without understanding their social
 456 situation. The theme of humiliation is extended in a scene describing a white academic
 457 food security expert, who exposes her racist and simplistic findings in a scene
 458 illustrating how academic research is aired on public television and becomes hegemonic
 459 in national debates.

460 Issues of cultural identity and food are also raised in relation to the marketing of
 461 traditional foods. In a scene titled “Cultural Appropriation”, the performance exposes
 462 how traditional food has been repackaged as exoticised cuisine on the menus of many
 463 restaurants; at the same time, the dominant food culture in South Africa continues to
 464 disparage indigenous food knowledges and the foodwork of many poor black women.
 465 The following lines comment on this paradox:

466 I find it funny how they mock our cultures but imitate it so much.
 467 Not only through buying *ischolo*, taking a picture and captioning it with words like
 468 “motherland”, “Africa” or some other bullshit.
 469 But they do it with our food as well
 470 Under some guise of it being “traditional cuisine”
 471 Serving it with plates and cups
 472 Calabashes that have significance in our culture
 473 But to them it is just another day in the office
 474 Another culture being appropriated, erased and commodified.

475 *My Daily Bread* demonstrates the way in which food can be used a lens for exploring
 476 forms of power and privilege that are both specific and localised, and also historical and
 477 global. Beyond the question of who is “stuffed and starving” (Patel 2008) and why,
 478 questions about food tastes, the dominance of certain foodways, the use of food as
 479 cultural capital, and the marketing of food can unravel intersecting power relations and
 480 dominant discourses.

481 Conclusion

482 The hungry university student is in many ways a negation of neoliberal myth-making.
 483 According to capitalist logic, the university-trained student should be the future driver
 484 of society, poised to lead it to ever-increasing heights and to reap its material rewards.
 485 The fact of the widespread hunger experienced by university students undermines this
 486 fiction. It is a reminder that neoliberalism’s impact—the spiralling cost of higher
 487 education, increasing unemployment despite constant evidence of “development”, and
 488 the stress of securing daily needs in the face of soaring prices for basic necessities—can
 489 make the experience of being a university student traumatic. Yet the obvious evidence
 490 of neoliberalism’s effects continues to draw mainly moderate and reformist responses

491 to student hunger, which have started to function like an industry of what Thornton
 492 (2015, 7) terms “research compliance” within universities. Carlos Torres (2011, 182)
 493 explains this routine work in the neoliberal public university by stating that

494 neoliberalism ... has been able to formulate a new common sense that has percolated
 495 deeply into the social consciousness ... Common sense ... becomes incorporated into
 496 the language, affects people’s sense of identity, modifies their perceptions, alters the
 497 constant dialogue between perception and action and ends up constituting a course of
 498 action, almost an unchallenged set of principles that need to be duplicated or replicated
 499 tout court.

500 Harley (2019) rightfully stresses the difficulty of intervening in these sedimented
 501 common-sense responses to food-related social challenges. Drawing attention to the
 502 way that the various institutional actors at universities can actively depoliticise critical
 503 work around food, she alerts us to universities’ reproductive role under neoliberalism.
 504 Yet alternatives to dominant practices have precedents, often in discourses and research
 505 that do not explicitly or consistently address food, such as the previously mentioned
 506 #FeesMustFall protests and research undertaken by progressive scholars. We may,
 507 therefore, find that the challenges to the hegemonic understandings of food are more
 508 robust than some assume. Stuart Hall and Alan O’Shea (2013, 10) alert us to this in their
 509 reactivating of Gramsci’s notion of “good sense”, the opposite of hegemonic common
 510 sense, as “the apparently obvious taken-for-granted understandings that express a sense
 511 of unfairness and injustice about ‘how the world works’”.

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