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INTERNATIONALIZATION OF AN AFRICAN UNIVERSITY IN THE POST-
COLONIAL ERA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

DISSERTATION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
College of Education
at the University of Kentucky

By
Iddah Aoko Otieno

Lexington, Kentucky

Co-Directors: Dr. Beth Goldstein, Professor of Education
Dr. Jeffrey Bieber, Professor of Education

Lexington, Kentucky

2012

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

INTERNATIONALIZATION OF AN AFRICAN UNIVERSITY IN THE POST-COLONIAL ERA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

This case study uses post-colonial and dependency theoretical lenses to investigate the forces influencing policy, procedures, and participation in international activity in the post-colonial African university environment of Kenya's first national public university—the University of Nairobi (UoN). The research addresses (1) the approaches and strategies adopted by UoN to engage in international activity; (2) the changes that have taken place over time in international activity engagement at UoN since the attainment of political independence by the Republic of Kenya; and (3) the rationales driving participation in international activity. This investigation included library research, document analysis, multiple campus visits, and 20 formal interviews with the faculty and administrators of the University of Nairobi, Kenya. I argue that even though the University of Nairobi now exhibits some degree of agency in her international engagement as an independent post-colonial African University, limitations to this agency are evident given her colonial genesis as a university college linked to the University of London. Despite the fact that greater control has been realized in curricula issues, institutional level governance, income generating projects, and joint research

collaboration and international partnerships, the road to independence in international engagement in a post-colonial university environment is still under construction. The University of Nairobi faces many challenges in her efforts to find a place in the global community of higher education. These challenges include, but are not limited to, lack of resources for human capacity building, shortage of faculty and staff, heavy teaching load, bureaucracy, loss of faculty control in setting their research agendas, commercialization of higher education, intellectual property rights violations, and brain drain. Rationales driving internationalization at the University of Nairobi are a consequence of contextual factors, some of which are external to the university and others internal and individual in nature. For example, whereas the academic rationales for participation, including research outlet, professional development, and networking are commonly cited as key motivators for international engagement, equally powerful economic motivators drive participation. I conclude this investigation by questioning the assumption that there can be balanced interdependence between marginalized African institutions of higher education (IHEs) and the developed world, as internationalization proponents suggest, arguing that these institutions are yet to break away from the colonial mold that led to their creation.

KEYWORDS: African Higher Education, Internationalization, Post-colonialism, Dependency, Agency

Iddah Aoko Otieno

Student's Signature

April 16, 2012

Date

INTERNATIONALIZATION OF AN AFRICAN UNIVERSITY IN THE POST-
COLONIAL ERA: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Dr. Tom Otieno of Eastern Kentucky University, and my three amazing children, Ephraim, Christopher, and Rebecca Otieno of Model Laboratory School.

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I stand tall today on the shoulders of many without whose patience, encouragement, and understanding this work would not have seen the light of day. First and foremost, I would like to recognize my dissertation committee co-chairs, Dr. Beth Goldstein and Dr. Jeffrey Bieber, whose useful insight and timely feedback guided this work to a successful completion. Thank you both for believing in me. I am also grateful to Dr. Jane Jensen and Dr. Linda Levstik for taking time out of their busy schedules to read and comment on my work. I am also indebted to Dr. Monica Visona for agreeing to serve as my outside examiner.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAU	Association of African Universities
ACE	American Council on Education
ANIE	African Network for International Education
AU	African Union
CAE	College of Architecture and Engineering
CAVS	College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences
CBPS	College of Biological and Physical Sciences
CBU	Capacity building
CEBIB	Centre for Biotechnology & Bioinformatics
CEES	College of Education and External Studies
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
CHIVPR	Centre for Hiv Prevention and Research
CHS	College of Health Sciences
CHSS	College of Humanities and Social Sciences
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CIPL	Center for International Programmes and Links
CODESRIA	Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa
CODL	Centre for Open and Distance Learning
COMESA	Common Market for East and Southern Africa
DAAD	Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst (German Academic Exchange Service)
DCs	Developed Countries

EEU	European Economic Union
EFA	Education for All
GEN	General
GATS	General Agreement on Traders and Services
GoK	Government of Kenya
IAS	Institute of Anthropology, Gender & African Studies
IAU	International Association of Universities
ICT	Information and Communications Technology Centre
IDA	International Development Agency
IDIS	Institute of Diplomacy and International Studies
IDS	Institute for Development Studies
IHEs	Institutions of higher education
IICBA	Institute for Capacity Building in Africa
IGAD	Inter-governmental Authority on Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IUCEA	Inter-University Council for East Africa
JAB	Joint Admission Board
JICA	Japanese International Cooperation Agency
KIHEs	Kenyan Institutions of Higher Education
KPU	Kenyan Public University
LDCs	Less Developed Countries
MOEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development

NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OIP	Office of International Programmes
PDP	Parallel Degree Program
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PSRI	Population Studies and Research Institute
RCB	Research and capacity building
RES	Research
RSC	Research, Staff/Student Exchange and Capacity Building
RSE	Research and staff/student exchange
RSI	Research, staff/ student exchange and information exchange
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programs
SCDE	School of Continuing and Distance Education
SCT	Student scholarships/training
SSE	Staff/student exchange
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nation's Development Project
UNEP	United Nations Environmental Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNITID	Institute of Tropical & Infectious Diseases
UoN	University of Nairobi

USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VIC-RES	Victoria Research
WTO	World Trade Organization

CHAPTER ONE

RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

This case study uses post-colonial¹ and dependency theoretical lenses to investigate the forces influencing policy, procedures, and participation in international activity in the post-colonial African university environment of Kenya's first national public university—the University of Nairobi (UoN). The research addresses (1) the approaches and strategies adopted by UoN to engage in international activity; (2) the changes that have taken place overtime in international activity engagement at UoN since the attainment of political independence in the Republic of Kenya; and (3) the rationales driving participation in international activity. This investigation included library research, document analysis, multiple campus visits, and 20 formal interviews with faculty and administrators of the University of Nairobi, Kenya.

1.2 Background to the Problem

The choice of my research investigation started as a result of my intellectual curiosity in understanding the challenges facing institutions of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa² in the years following the attainment of political independence. I started formal schooling in my native Kenya before relocating to the United States of America to pursue my master's and doctorate degrees. My admission to Maseno University, currently one of only seven public universities in the Republic of Kenya, exposed me to

¹ The term post-colonial is used in this study both as a historical marker and a theoretical lens in analyzing an emergent African institution of higher education's experiences with internationalization in the years following the attainment of political independence in the Republic of Kenya (1963 to the present).

² Sub-Saharan Africa as used in this study denotes all African countries located south of the Sahara.

the challenges African institutions of higher education face in keeping their doors open to the increasing number of Kenyans seeking higher educational opportunities. A few things stood out as I completed my undergraduate education at Maseno University: the classes were crowded, books were scarce, the professors were overworked, the students were militant, and the frustrated administrators found themselves in the middle of it all—balancing between tight budgets and a plethora of many other institutional level challenges. My sojourn in the United States has provided me the intellectual space to reflect on higher education systems beyond the borders of Kenya. I have been associated with higher education in America for the past sixteen years, both as a student and an educator.

In my many roles in academia, I have had the unique privilege of coordinating a faculty exchange program between my college and a public university in Kenya. Issues revolving around institutional level decisions to participate in international activity have long intrigued me. Apart from casual conversations with faculty and administrators, from both sides of the divide, regarding their decisions to engage in international activity, I found myself wanting to know more regarding why institutions of higher education seek to enhance the international dimension. My library research raised new questions regarding international engagement, especially from the perspective of marginalized, Third World institutions of higher education (IHEs). My contact with visiting Kenyan scholars on our campus regarding their views on internationalization turned into an intellectual journey into what it means to internationalize from a peripheral, marginalized position. As I delved into the literature on internationalization of higher education, it became clear to me that institutions of higher education world over have traditionally

been impacted by forces outside their environments; and that internationalization is not a new phenomenon in the world of international higher education. In the Western world, for example, the modern university idea traces its roots to French, English, and German models (Rudolph, 1990). In the non-Western world, like my native Kenya, European university models were implanted through colonial rule (Ashby, 1964; Teferra & Knight, 2008; Samoff & Carroll; 2003; Altbach, 2002, 2004). The twenty-first century college and university continue to experience constant pressure emanating from a changing higher educational landscape brought forth by economic, technological, political, cultural, and scientific trends that directly affect the planning for and delivery of higher educational services. Consequently, it is not uncommon to find institutions of higher learning (re)positioning themselves to participate in this increasingly transnational environment through institutional level activities, programs, policies, and procedures created specifically to facilitate this participation. The most widely cited approaches include, but are not limited to, curriculum development, international student programs, visiting scholar programs, study / work abroad programs, faculty and staff development programs, institutional and community linkages, international faculty recruitment, and international projects (Teferra & Knight, 2008; Stromquist, 2007, Knight, 2004; IAU, 2003; de Wit, 2002; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998).

My interest in understanding the forces influencing participation in international activity from a Third World perspective was a result of the opposing views emerging from the literature review on why institutions of higher learning internationalize. It became apparent that while proponents of institutional level initiatives to engage in international activity normally stress their benefits to participating institutions, including

economic gains, cultural diversity, homeland security, educational and research opportunities, and increased knowledge base (Green, Olson & Hill, 2006; Green & Olson, 2003; Knight, 2003; American Council on Education, 1995; Holzner & Greenwood, 1995), critics see them as a harmful tool of domination and control by the developing world over historically marginalized third world countries (Stromquist, 2007; Altbach, 2004, 2005; Anderson-Levitt, 2003; de Wit, 2002, Willinsky, 1998; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Hargreaves, 1996; Knight and de Wit, 1997; Arnove, Altbach, & Kelly, 1992; Mazrui, 1984; Carnoy, 1974). When viewed against the backdrop of their historical beginnings, Third World institutions' experiences with colonialism, neocolonialism, cultural imperialism, and socio-economic mechanisms of oppression and exploitation call for a modified and contextualized approach in understanding institutional, national, and regional challenges in participating in international activity (Knight & Teferra, 2008; Mohammedbhai, 2003; 2009; Altbach, 2003, 2005; Stromquist, 2007; Teferra & Altbach, 2003; Sammoff & Carroll, 2004; Arnove, 1980; Mazrui, 1984; Rodney, 1982; Carnoy, 1974).

This case study examines institutional level responses to the changing higher educational environment as carried out within the context of a Kenyan Public University (KPU) environment— the University of Nairobi (UoN). The research investigates the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation in international activity as Kenyan institutions of higher education seek to find their place in the global community of higher education providers in the years following political independence.

1.3 Research Outline

This dissertation is divided into seven chapters. Chapter One introduces the research problem by presenting the competing views on internationalization of institutions of higher education (IHEs) and why the case of the University of Nairobi as a post-colonial African university matters in the internationalization debate. Chapter Two provides a critical review of the internationalization of higher education literature and offers a theoretical context for my investigation. The Kenyan higher educational context is discussed at length with the aim of showing how colonialism influenced higher education in Kenya and the rest of sub-Saharan Africa. Chapter Three provides a detailed description of the research site, participant selection, research methods and procedures, and research limitations. Chapter Four provides a campus portrait of institutional level activities and approaches surrounding international activity engagement at the University of Nairobi. Chapter Five focuses on the major turning points with regards to the international dimension at the University of Nairobi since its inception as a post-colonial African university. It is designed to illustrate how UoN has shown certain degrees of agency in the international realm since independence. In Chapter Six, the rationales driving participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi and the attendant risks this participation engendered in a post-colonial African University environment are presented. Chapter Seven focuses on the limitations to this agency in a post-colonial African university environment. This last chapter summarizes the major findings of this study and gives my final observations from a researcher perspective.

1.4 Research Significance

This study is poised to make significant contributions to the field of comparative international higher education, which has traditionally been dominated by the experiences of the developed world. Several researchers have raised concern as to the need for further research on the experiences of the Third World countries with internationalization (Knight & Teferra, 2008; Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004; de Wit, 2002; 1995; Knight & de Wit, 1997). A study on the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation in international activity as carried out within the context of a post-colonial Kenyan institution of higher education will certainly expand the body of knowledge on the experiences of historically marginalized Third World IHEs with international activity. Specifically, it stands to broaden our understanding of institutional, national, and regional challenges faced by these institutions in their quest to find their place in the global community of higher education providers. The experiences of the University of Nairobi, the oldest institution of higher education in the Republic of Kenya, could “contribute to an understanding of similar cases” in Kenya and other institutions of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa and the developing world (Glesne, 1999, p. 153). Although this case study involved only one African institution of higher education, the results can be used to better prepare Third World institutions of higher education in their participation in international activity. The data gathered in this case study could also form the basis for future research on internationalization efforts at institutions of higher learning in the developing world.

1.5 Delimitations and Definitions

This study is delimited by the researcher in several ways. Data included in this investigation are drawn from only one Kenyan public university, the University of Nairobi. The experiences of other Kenyan public universities, private universities, and other non-degree granting and tertiary institutions in Kenya were not included in this investigation. Although document analysis was used as an additional data collection strategy, this case study mainly focused on 20 in-depth interviews with faculty and administrators in key positions of authority at the University of Nairobi, excluding students and other stakeholders in the internationalization process (for example personnel from the Ministry of Education, major lending agencies like the World Bank and United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the Republic of Kenya). Research focusing on these groups may produce different results beyond the scope of the current investigation, as other qualitative researchers have noted (Glesne, 2006; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). For the purposes of this case study, Kenya Public Universities (KPU) denotes institutions of higher education created in the years following political independence in the Republic of Kenya, and funded by the Government of Kenya (GoK) through the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST), as opposed to private universities which are subjected to fewer government regulations. Faculty denotes academic staff of the University of Nairobi, the setting for this case study. Administrators refer to key persons in positions of responsibility at UoN, including but not limited to Vice Chancellors (equivalent to University presidents in the U.S.), Deputy Vice Chancellors, Academic Deans, Directors of Programs, and Departmental or Unit Heads.

1.6 Summary

Studies on internationalization of institutions of higher education have mainly focused on the experiences of the developed world. Research shows that institutions of higher education located in the former European colonies in Africa and those in the developing world enter the field of international education on an unequal footing given their historical beginnings. Engaging in international activity from the periphery requires tough institutional level choices in the face of monumental challenges brought forth by an increasingly interconnected world. This case study focuses on institutional level responses to the changing higher educational environment as carried out within the context of a Kenyan Public University (KPU). This research investigates the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation as Kenyan institutions of higher education seek to find their place in the global higher education community in the years following political independence. The case of the University of Nairobi was used to illuminate the phenomenon of internationalization from the perspective of a peripheral Third World institution of higher education in the years following the attainment of political independence.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction: Internationalization of Higher Education

This section presents a review of internationalization literature focusing on its contested meanings, approaches, stakeholders, rationales, and models for internationalization in institutions of higher education (IHEs). It concludes with an examination of the theoretical foundations that guided this investigation. This background information is necessary in order to understand the forces driving policy, procedures and participation in international activity in both the developed and developing world.

2.1.1 Defining Internationalization

Even though internationalization has taken a center stage in the strategic plans and mission statements of many colleges and universities world over, its meaning remains a highly contested issue. Olson and Green (2006) in their recent publication *Global Learning for All*, the third in a series of working papers on internationalizing higher education in the United States, have observed that “it is difficult, if not impossible, to undertake an examination of internationalization without confusion” (p. v). Two authoritative voices in comparative international education, Hans de Wit, the Vice President for International Affairs at the University of Amsterdam, Netherlands and Jane Knight of the Comparative International Development Education Center based in Ontario, Canada define internationalization as “the process of integrating an international

and intercultural dimension in the teaching, research and service functions of the institution” (1997, p. 8). This definition, some scholars have argued, mainly focuses on the “organizational approach” toward internationalization of institutions of higher learning, ignoring the global factor in the internationalization process. Van de Wende (1997) expanded this definition by adding a *global* component to the understanding of internationalization, which led him to define it as “any systemic effort aimed at making higher education responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalization of societies, economies, and labor markets (cited in Knight, 2004, p. 10).

More recently, Knight (2004) has remodeled her earlier definition to include both *institutional* and national *sector* levels as critical components in the internationalization process. Her revised definition of internationalization is “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of post-secondary education” (p. 11). By including the *intercultural* and *global* dimensions in her definition, Knight extends the scope of internationalization to include the local and the global. Whereas internationalization denotes the “relationships between and among nations, cultures, or countries,” Knight stresses that it should also be understood to include “diversity of cultures that exist within the countries, communities, and institutions” (Knight, 2004, p. 11). *Integration* has been included in the definition to signify “the process of infusing or embedding intercultural dimension into policies and programs to ensure that the international dimensions remain central, not marginal, and is sustainable” (p. 12). *Purpose, function and delivery* are used together to further broaden the scope of internationalization to include “the sector level, institutional level, and the variety of providers in the broad field of postsecondary education” (p. 12).

Other scholars have noted that the confusion in defining internationalization emanates from its relationship with globalization and intercultural education. Whereas “globalization includes the broad, largely inevitable economic, technological, political, cultural, and scientific trends that directly affect higher education,” internationalization, on the other hand, includes “policies and programs adopted by governments and academic systems and subdivisions to cope with or exploit globalization” (Altbach 2005, p. 64; Knight, 1997, p. 6; Stromquist, 2007, p. 83).

Although internationalization means different things to different people, there tends to be a consensus on its components and approaches, which normally include activities such as internationalizing the curriculum, international student programs, visiting scholar programs, study/work abroad programs, faculty and staff development programs, institutional and community linkages, international faculty recruitment, and international projects as the most common components of internationalization (Stromquist, 2007, Cross & Rouhani, 2004; Knight, 2004; IAU, 2003; de Wit, 2002; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; de Wit & Knight, 1997; Harari, 1992; See also Tables 2.1 & 2.2 in this document). Since this case study focuses on institutional level efforts toward participation in international activity, as carried out within the context of a post-colonial African University, de Wit and Knight’s 1997 definition of internationalization as “the process of integrating an international and intercultural dimension in the teaching, research and service functions of the institution” will guide this investigation (p. 8). The term internationalization will be used interchangeably with international activity and will denote activities, programs, policies, and procedures created by the University of Nairobi in order to participate in an increasingly interconnected world.

2.1.2 Approaches to Internationalization

Knight (2004) identified approaches institutions of higher learning can use in the internationalization process. These approaches include activities such as study abroad programs, curriculum and academic programs, institutional linkages, development projects, and branch campuses (activity approach). Another approach in Knight's framework focuses on desired outcomes institutions hope to get out of their internationalization activities (also known as competency approach). For example, an institution may want to see results in student competencies, increased profile, more international agreements, and partners or projects (Knight, 2004, p. 20; See Table 2.1). Institutional rationales driving internationalization must also be spelled out, for example, academic standards, income generation, cultural diversity, and student and staff development. The process of integrating the set goals and desired outcomes into the teaching, learning, and service functions of the institution through local initiative (at home) or in other countries (cross-border) must be examined (Knight, 2004, p. 20; See Table 2.1).

Knight also identified four institutional level program and organizational strategies towards achieving effective internationalization including academic programs, research and scholarly collaboration, and external relations (Knight, 2004, p. 14-15; See Tables 2.2 & 2.3). Even though there are regional variations in institutional level approaches and strategies of engagement in international activity, most institutions in the developing world register various adaptations of Knight's (2004) strategies and approaches framework. For example, in most public institutions in Kenya, international activity has mostly taken the form of faculty and student exchange, collaborative research

projects, and joint degree programs with institutions in the developed world, particularly in North America, Australia, and Europe (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; IAU 2003; 2009).

Table 2.1. Approaches at the Institutional Level

Approach	Description
Activity	Internationalization is described in terms of activities such as study abroad, curriculum, and academic programs, institutional linkages and networks, development projects, and branch campuses
Outcomes	Internationalization is presented in the form of desired outcomes such as student competencies, increased profile, more international agreements, and partners or projects.
Rationales	Internationalization is described with respect to primary motivation or rationales driving it. This can include academic standards, income generation, cultural diversity, and student and staff development.
Process	Internationalization is considered to be a process where an international dimension is integrated into teaching, learning, and service functions of the institution.
At Home	Internationalization is interpreted to be the creation of a culture or climate on campus that promotes and supports international/intercultural understanding and focuses on campus based activities.
Abroad (cross-border)	Internationalization is seen as the cross-border delivery of education to other countries through a variety of delivery modes (face to face, distance learning, e-learning) and through different administrative arrangements (franchises, twinning, branch campuses, etc.)

Source: Knight 2004

Table 2.2 Institutional Level Program Strategies

Academic Programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student exchange programs • Foreign language study • Internationalized curricula • Area or thematic studies • Work/study abroad • International students • Teaching/learning process • Joint and double degree programs • Visiting lecturers and scholars • Link between academic programs and other strategies.
Research and Scholarly Collaborations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Area and theme centers • Joint research projects • International conferences and seminars • Published articles and papers • International research agreements • Research exchange programs
External relations: Domestic and cross-border	<p>Domestic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-based partnerships and projects with non-governmental groups. • Community –service and intercultural project work <p>Cross-Border:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International development assistance projects • Cross-border delivery of educational programs (commercial and non-commercial) • International linkages, partnerships, and networks • Contract-based training and research programs and services. • Alumni abroad programs
Extra-curricular activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student clubs and associations • International and intercultural campus events • Liaison with community-based cultural and ethnic groups • Peer support groups and programs

Source: Knight 2004

Table 2.3. Institutional Level Organization Strategies

Governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressed commitment by senior leaders • Active involvement of faculty and staff • Articulated rationales and goals for internationalization • Recognition of an international dimension in institutional mission statements, planning, and policy documents
Operations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrated into institution-wide and department/college level planning, budgeting and quality review systems • Appropriate organizational structures • Systems (formal and informal) for communication, liaison, and coordination • Balance between centralized and decentralized promotion and management of internationalization • Adequate financial support and resource allocation systems
Services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support from institution-wide service units, i.e. student housing, fundraising, alumni, information technology • Involvement of academic support unit, i.e. library, teaching and learning, curriculum development, faculty and staff training • Student support services for incoming and outgoing students, i.e. orientation programs, counseling, cross-cultural training, visa advice
Human Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recruitment and selection procedures that recognize international expertise • Reward and promotion policies to reinforce faculty contributions • Faculty and staff professional development activities • Support for international assignments and sabbaticals

Source: Knight 2004

2.1.3 Rationales for Internationalization

Knight and de Wit (1995) identified four rationales at both national and institutional levels that drive internationalization in most institutions of higher education including academic, political, economic, and socio-cultural rationales. There is a general consensus among world nations that “an increasing emphasis on the knowledge economy, demographic shifts, mobility of labor force, and increased trade in services are all factors

that are driving nations to place more importance in developing and recruiting human capital or brain power through international initiatives” (Knight, 2004, p. 22). Political alliance is another rationale driving internationalization of higher education as nations begin to reexamine their relationships within the community of nations (Knight & Teferra, 2008; Subotsky, Lumumba, Cocody, & Ng’ethe, 2004; Zeleza & Olukoshi, 2004; Olson, Green, & Hill, 2006; Green & Olson, 2003; American Council on Education, 1995, Holzner & Greenwood, 1995; Green & Hayward, 1997). Strategic alliance across international borders also means increased economic presence offshore as nations compete for “new franchise arrangements, foreign or satellite campuses, online course delivery, and increased recruitment of fee-paying students” (Knight, 2004, p. 24). There are also significant gains in the socio-cultural realm when a country imports or welcomes new educational ideas and ways of doing things from foreign countries. Knight (2004) observed that “an educated and knowledgeable citizenry and workforce able to do research and generate new knowledge are key components of a country’s nation building agenda” (p. 24).

Institutions of higher education have become sites where the broad national rationales are played out. The cultural, economic, educational, and political rationales seem to be the driving force in the internationalization process at institutional level. Student and staff exchange programs are now a common phenomenon in colleges and universities around the world. Green & Hayward (1997) have observed that “...knowledge of the rest of the world is now a fundamental imperative for success...it holds the promise of discovery, the seeds of competitiveness, and a challenge for leadership” (1997, p. 17). Preparing students to operate in an increasingly interdependent

world requires an institutional commitment to explore these values in its mission and organizational structure (American Council on Education, 1995, p. 3; Knight, 2004, p. 26; Harari, 1992, p. 75). Such ideals are echoed in the developing world. For example, the University of Nairobi mission statement regarding international activity reads: “In light of the opportunities and challenges associated with new university environments in the twenty-first century, the University of Nairobi recognizes that an education with an international stamp is necessary to equip students with the knowledge and skills for their survival and growth in a competitive labour market” (University of Nairobi, 2010).

2.1.4 Framework for Internationalization

In light of the growing institutional focus in the internationalization process, the American Council on Education (ACE, 2003) in *Internationalizing the Campus: A User’s Guide* provided a framework targeting the international dimension in institutions of higher education. The framework includes four questions institutions should ask themselves at the organizational level for effective internationalization to take place: Why internationalize? Who should be involved? How shall we proceed? What do we need to do? Four broad goals for internationalization are also provided including academic goals targeting liberal education, teaching, and research; economic goals geared toward producing career ready students, generating income for the institution, and enhancing local economic development; social goals including global cooperation and understanding and supporting higher learning institutions in other countries; and political goals of producing experts required to support U.S. foreign policy and diplomacy at home and abroad (Green & Olson, 2003, p. 15)

2.1.5 Regional Differences

Although these rationales identified in Section 2.1.3 are arguably the driving force behind internationalization initiatives in most higher learning institutions world over, critics have noted a heavy focus on the experiences of developed nations over the less developed ones (Knight & de Wit, 1997; de Wit, 2002; Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004; Altbach, 2004). For example, the experiences of a developing country like Kenya with international activity may not necessarily be the same as those in the developed world. The global forces that led to the very creation of Kenyan institutions of higher education may impact the extent and manner of engagement with international activity in the post-colonial era. When viewed against the backdrop of the continent's experience with colonialism, neocolonialism, cultural imperialism, and socio-economic mechanisms of oppression and exploitation, understanding internationalization of Kenyan institutions of higher education, as in other developing countries, calls for a more contextualized investigation (The Association of African Universities, 2004; Willinsky, 1998; Altbach, 2003, 2005; de Wit, 2002, Knight and de Wit, 1997; Stromquist, 2007; Iliffe, 2007; Arnove, Altbach, & Kelly, 1992; Mazrui, 1984; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Carnoy, 1974). For example, a 2003 survey conducted by the International Association of Universities (IAU) in 95 institutions of higher education asking participants to rank the top rationales driving institutional and national level internationalization initiatives revealed major differences in the rationales driving international activity between the developing and the developed world.

While most institutions in the developed world cited “international profile and income generation” as top rationales for internationalization, “strengthening research

capacity” was ranked highest by the 16 African countries represented in the survey, indicating that unlike higher learning institutions in the developed countries, most of the developing world view participation in international activity through the lens of capacity building rather than a branding or money generating avenue (IAU, 2003; Knight, 2008, Mohammedbhai, 2008). Table 2.4 shows rationales at both institutional and national levels in the participating African countries.

The 2003 IAU survey concluded that the disparities in the survey “reflect the limited capacity of institutions in developing countries to build research infrastructure (human, physical, and technical) and their perception that internationalization will help strengthen research capacity (Knight, 2008, p. 541)—an observation that is consistent with the growing dependence on publishing houses in the developed world by researchers in the developing world (Mazrui, 1984; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Jowi, Kiamba, & some, 2008).

Table 2.4 Rationales at Institutional and National Levels in Africa

Rationale at Institutional Level		Rationale at the National Level	
Research capacity	33%	Building Human Resource capacity	22%
Internationalize students/faculty	18%	Strategic Alliances	20%
International profile	16%	Competitiveness	19%
Academic quality	15%	International development cooperation and solidarity	18%
Curriculum innovation	10%	Contribute to regional priorities and integration	13%
Diversity of faculty and students	7%	Further cultural awareness and understanding	6%
Income generation	1%	Strengthen education export industry	2%

Source: Teferra & Knight 2008

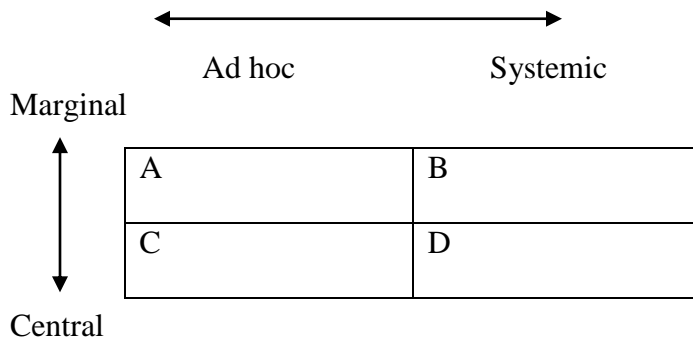
2.2 Models for Internationalization

As the internationalization of institutions of higher education has expanded, so have theoretical perspectives and models geared toward understanding institutional approaches toward incorporating an international dimension in their operations. In this section four internationalization models commonly cited in international education literature are reviewed followed by a critique of their limitations in an African context. Neave (1992) developed two paradigmatic models for internationalization using global based case studies for UNESCO. The first model is leadership driven and “has as its

essential feature a lack of formal connection below the level of the central administration” in contrast with the base unit model which “sees such central administrative units mainly as service oriented to activities coming from below” (cited in Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 22). Implicit in this model is the idea of centralized and decentralized approaches to internationalization most higher learning institutions incorporate in their internationalization efforts.

Davies’ (1992) model presents a remarkable shift from Neave’s models in that it is more prescriptive in nature regarding what institutions can do to strategize internationalization efforts. He noted that “it would seem to be logical that a university espousing internationalism should have clear statements of where it stands in this respect, since mission should inform planning processes and agendas, resource allocation criteria, serve as a rallying standard internally, and indicate to external constituencies a basic and stable set of beliefs and values” (p. 178). In a matrix of four quadrants, Davies (1992) described institutional level strategies for internationalization. The first quadrant presents internationalization as “Ad Hoc—Marginal,” in which “the amount of international business is relatively small” with little systemic commitment. The second quadrant “systemic marginal” casts the institutional internationalization efforts as limited but well organized guided by clear institutional goals and priorities. The third quadrant “ad hoc—central” strategy registers a high level activity institutionally with no clear concepts normally ad hoc in orientation. The final quadrant “central—systemic” is characterized by clear institutional commitment to internationalization whereby “the international mission is explicit and followed through with specific policies and supporting procedures” (p. 188; see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Davies (1992) Institutionalization of Approaches to Internationalization



Van Dijk & Meijer (1994) extended Davies’ model based on an analysis of internationalization of Dutch higher education. They introduced three dimensions to internationalization consisting of policy, which they argued denoted the importance institutions attaches to internationalization noting that it can either be “marginal or priority.” The second dimension is the type of support available for internationalization initiatives, which can be “one-sided or interactive.” The third dimension is implementation, which can be “ad hoc or systemic.” This three dimensional outfit for internationalization was visualized in an eight celled cube designed to indicate where institutions are with regards to internationalization. Whereas institutions in cell 1 register less engagement in the internationalization process, those in cell 8 have a clear international policy that drives internationalization, institutional support, and implementation strategy (cited in Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 24; Table 2.5). As opposed to Davies’ model which focuses on structural elements in the internationalization process, the Van Dijk and Meijer model focuses on how internationalization is managed systemically and at base unit levels.

Table 2.5 Van Dijk and Meijer's (1994) Cube

Cell	Policy	Support	Implementation
1	Marginal	One-Sided	Ad hoc
2	Marginal	One-Sided	Systemic
3	Marginal	Interactive	Ad hoc
4	Marginal	Interactive	Systemic
5	Priority	One-Sided	Ad hoc
6	Priority	One-Sided	Systemic
7	Priority	Interactive	Ad hoc
8	Priority	Interactive	Systemic

Source: de Wit 1995

In a study of the internationalization of the United Kingdom (UK) business schools, Rudzki (1993) developed a model with student mobility, staff development, curriculum innovation, and organizational change as the key elements. He concluded that institutions go through two distinct modes in the internationalization process: the reactive and proactive modes. During the reactive mode, an institution goes through various stages in approaching the internationalization initiative (Table 2.6). The first stage is characterized by lack of clear purpose and time frame in the internationalization process. Activities may include making the initial cross-border contact by faculty with colleagues in other countries. Stage one sees formalization of such contacts in form of exchange articulations and memoranda with limited resources allocated for internationalization. More growth and central management involvement becomes evident in stage three, which leads to organizational conflict between faculty and central management emanating into lack of goodwill and a reduction in activity and focus in stage four setting the stage for stage five characterized by maturity or decline. At this point, institutions may seek a more proactive approach to internationalization (Rudzki, 1993, p. 437; see Table. 2.6).

Table 2.6. Rudzki (1993) Reactive Model of Internationalization

Stage 1	CONTACT	Academic staff engage in making contact with colleagues in other countries, curriculum development, limited mobility, links lack clear formulation of purpose and duration.
Stage 2	FORMULATION	Some links are formalized with institutional agreements being made. Resources may not be available
Stage 3	CENTRAL CONTROL	Growth in activity and response by management who seek to gain control of activities.
Stage 4	CONFLICT	Organizational conflict between staff and management leading to withdrawing of good will by staff. Possible decline in activity and disenchantment.
Stage 5	MATURITY OR DECLINE	Possible movement to a more coherent, that is, proactive approach.

Source: Rudzi 1993

Stage one in the proactive process involves strategic analysis of objectives and rationales for internationalization. This stage is also characterized by staff training and consultation, cost benefit analysis, internal audits, and quality assurance procedures in the internationalization process. Stage two is characterized by institutional choice made visible in the strategic plan through consultation and networking. Resource allocation and performance measures are clearly stated followed by stage three or the

implementation stage. Stage four is the review stage whereby institutionally created mechanism for assessment based on laid down policies and procedures are enforced followed by a redefinition stage during which the objectives, policies, and plans are re-evaluated with the aim of self-improvement. At this stage an institution may need to go back to stage one in the internationalization process (see Table. 2.7). Rudzki concluded in his study of UK business schools that internationalization was being driven by financial motives in the form of UK and EU funding opportunities and that whereas some business schools had “positioned themselves on the global stage and are committed to internationalization,” one school had taken “a strategic decision not to engage in international activity” (cited in Knight and de Wit, 1995, p. 25).

Another model for internationalization is Knight’s (1993) Internationalization Cycle. In this model, Knight proposed a six step framework institutions of higher education can use to enhance the international dimension at the institutional level. The framework is based on the premise that internationalization at any level is not a “linear or static process” but a continuous cycle (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p. 25; see Figure 2.2). Phase one begins with an institutional awareness of the need for internationalization by engaging campus communities in discussions regarding the “need, purpose, strategies, controversial issues, resource implications, and benefits of internationalization” (p. 26). This period is normally followed by an institutional commitment by senior administration, board of governors, students, faculty and staff. The planning stage involves formulating institutional policies and priorities that reflect the need and value of internationalization. Knight recognizes that effective internationalization cannot take root if the institution does not carefully carry out the operationalization stage, which

includes specific activities and programs that are made available on and off campus for faculty, staff, and students followed by a systemic review stage by all academic units and departments to monitor the effectiveness to the life of the institution.

Table 2.7. Rudzki (1993) Proactive Model of Internationalization

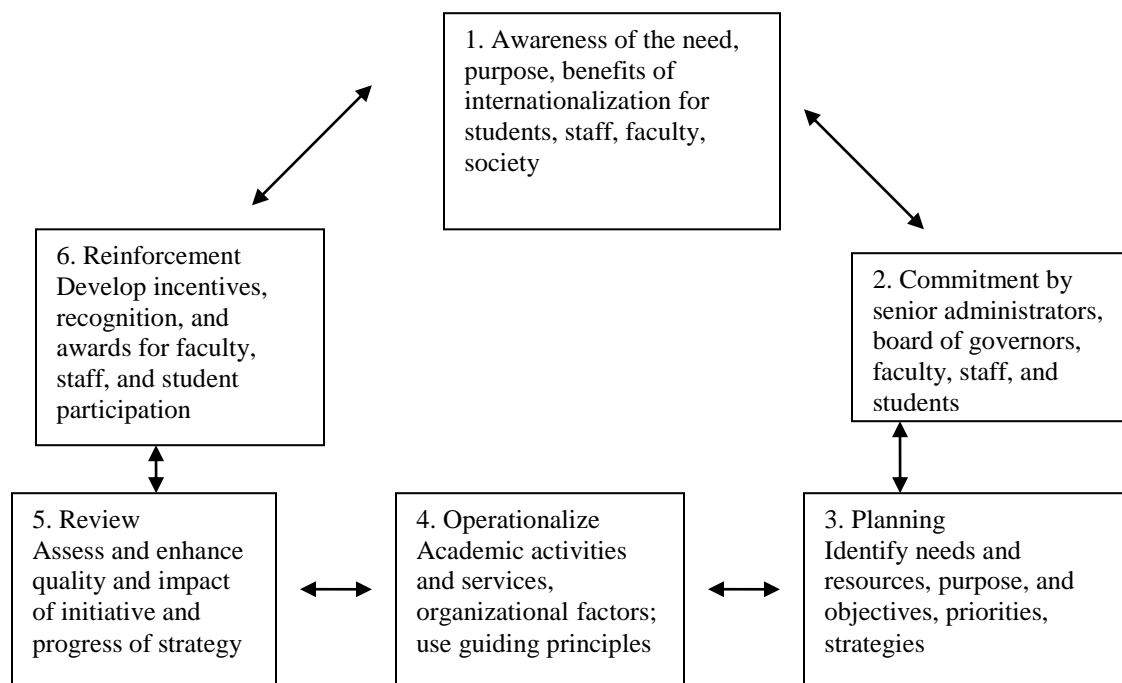
Stage 1	ANALYSIS	Awareness of what internationalization is and what it entails. Strategic analysis of short-mid- and long term organizational objectives— Answering the question: Should we internationalize? Why bother? Staff training and discussions— understanding of options and what kinds of internationalization activities are available-international audit, SWOT analysis, Cost-Benefit Analysis.
Stage 2	CHOICE	Strategic plan and policy drawn up in conjunction with staff and explicit use made of mutual interest of staff and organization. Performance measures defined. Resources allocated. Networking with internal and external organizations.
Stage 3	IMPLEMENTATION	Measure Performance.
Stage 4	REVIEW	Assessment of performance against policy and plan.
Stage 5	REDIFINITION OF OBJECTIVES/PLAN/ POLICY	Process of continued improvement and the issues of quality this entails. Return to Stage 1 in cycle of growth and development.

Source: Rudzki 1993

The last phase in Knight’s framework is the reinforcement stage characterized by institutionally developed incentives, recognition and reward system. Reinforcement,

Knicht argues, leads to “renewed awareness and commitment” by incorporating campus community views in the internationalization process. By spelling out the need for internationalization into the institution’s mission statement, planning and review systems, policies, and procedures, hiring and promotion systems, a culture is likely to be created that ensures that the international dimension in the operations of a campus community is institutionalized (p. 25).

Figure 2.2 Knight (1993) Internationalization Cycle



Source: de Wit 1995

2.3 Limitations with Models

Although the models described in the preceding section provide institutions of higher education with useful organizational tools and practices to enhance the international dimension in institutional level engagement with international activity, their

major limitation is that they are Eurocentric in nature, mainly focusing on the experiences of the developed world with internationalization. The forces that drive participation in international activity in peripheral Third World institutions of higher education may not necessarily be the same as those in their more developed and technologically advanced counterparts. For example, questions of centralization and decentralization become problematic especially when considering the locus of power within and outside the institutional infrastructure, calling for a modified and contextualized approach in understanding institutional, national, and regional challenges in participating in international activity (Knight & Teferra, 2008; Altbach, 2003, 2005; Stromquist, 2007). As already mentioned in this chapter, several actors and stakeholders play a significant role in influencing participation in international initiatives in the African university environment. We know that policy formulations at an institutional level normally involve a series of negotiations with relevant national, regional, international agencies and stakeholders, further complicating institutional priorities and goals toward participation in international activity.

2.4 Dependency and Related Theories

In the world of international higher education, dependency theory has been used extensively to explain the power imbalance that exists between developed countries (DCs) and the less developed Countries (LDCs) in the former European colonies in Africa, Asia, and Latin America (Rodney, 1982; Sawyerr, 2004; Altbach; 2002; 2004; Teferra, 2004). It is generally argued that globalization forces brought forth by economic, technological, political, cultural, and scientific trends that directly affect the

planning for and delivery of higher educational services world over have subjected all institutions of higher education to the same forces—creating powerful centers and weak peripheries in international engagement. Drawing from Wallerstein’s (1974) groundbreaking work, *The Modern World-System: Capital Agriculture and the Origins of European World-Economy in the Sixteenth Century*, Arnove (1980) proposed a world-systems analysis of comparative education which has informed higher educational thought with regards to the relationship between the developed countries and the less developed countries.

Dependency theory in Arnove’s analysis posits that there exists “a descending chain of exploitation from the hegemony of the metropolitan countries over peripheral countries to the hegemony of power in a Third World country over its peripheral areas” (p. 49). In the realm of international education, for example, globalization forces have subjected all institutions of higher education world over to the same forces in the internationalization process. What this phenomenon has resulted into is that a new international order has emerged thereby “creating different roles for different societies in the world stratification systems” (p. 49)—centers and peripheries. Wallerstein (2004) in his follow up book, *World-Systems Analysis: An Introduction*, describes the center-periphery relationship thus:

Strong states relate to weak states by pressuring them to keep their frontier open to those flows of production that are useful and profitable to firms located in the strong states, while resisting any demands for reciprocity in this regard. In the debates on world trade, the United States and the European Union are constantly demanding that states in the rest of the world open their frontier to flow of manufactures and services from them. They however quite strongly resist opening fully their own frontiers to flows of agricultural products and textiles that compete with their own products from states in peripheral zones. Strong states relate to weak states by pressuring them to install and keep in power persons whom the strong states find acceptable, and to join the strong states in placing

pressures on other weak states to get them to conform to the policy needs of the strong states. Strong states relate to weak states by pressuring them to accept cultural practices—linguistic policy; educational policy, including where university students should study; media distribution—that will reinforce the long-term linkage between them. Strong states relate to weak states by pressuring them to follow their lead in international arenas (treaties, international organizations). (p. 55)

The notion of centers and peripheries in the field of international education has been the topic of much investigation by international education critics who argue that contrary to the much touted benefits of internationalization including cultural diversity, homeland security, educational and research opportunities, and increased knowledge base (Green, Olson & Hill, 2006; Green & Olson, 2003; Knight, 2003; American Council on Education, 1995; Holzner & Greenwood, 1995), the powerful centers have continued to dominate and control historically marginalized third world countries (See for example Stromquist, 2007; Altbach, 2004, 2005; Tikly, 2001; Willinsky, 1998; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Mazrui, 1984; Carnoy, 1974). When viewed within the context of world systems, participation in international activity “often represent for peripheral countries the opportunity for access to value resources (technology, capital, and skills) as well as the likelihood of economic subjugation by stronger nations” (Knight & Teferra, 2008; Altbach, 2004, 2005; Sammoff & Carroll, 2003; Arnove, Altbach, & Kelly, 1992; Arnove, 1980; Carnoy, 1974). These forces have been felt most acutely in the context of my investigation, particularly in the area of higher education. The colonial educational policies created to facilitate colonial administration have continued in post-colonial era Kenya characterized by the language of instruction, trade agreements, the curriculum, and a general attitude that the ways of the colonial powers are superior (Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Eshiwani, 1993). As Altbach (1971) succinctly put it “on the ruins of

traditional colonial empire...has emerged a new, subtler, but perhaps equally influential kind of colonialism . . .” whereby the metropolitan centers “retain substantial influence in what are now referred to as the ‘developing areas’” (cited in Ashcroft et al., 1999, p. 452). The case of Kenya’s first national university’s experiences with colonization in shaping the higher educational landscape in post-colonial Kenya is at the center of this investigation. Specifically, this study focuses on what it means to internationalize from a marginalized, peripheral position in the years following political independence in post-colonial Kenya. The research addresses the approaches and strategies the University of Nairobi has adopted in engaging in international activity; the changes that have taken place over time with regards to the international dimension since independence by the Republic of Kenya; and the rationales driving participation in international activity.

2.5 Agency Versus Structure

Dependency theory critics have often cited the power of human agency in effecting change in organizational settings. Agency as used in this investigation denotes “an actor’s ability to have some effect on the social world—altering the rules, relational ties, or distribution of resources” (Scott, 1995, p. 77). The debate on agency versus structure is not new in the social sciences. On the one hand theorists contend that “individuals and their experiences are products of external environments that condition them. There is little room for human agency” (Lawrence, Suddaby, & Leca, 2009, p. 33). On the other hand, “the voluntarist perspective attributes to actors a much more creative role. They have free will and are autonomous, pro-active and self-directed” (p. 33). While dependency theory offers invaluable insight into the relationship between the

colonizer and the former colonies in Africa and their colonial universities, critics have challenged its adequacy in studying development in the third world countries.

A commonly cited deficiency with this theory is that it tends to overlook the new forms of engagement that the colonized /colonizer relationship has produced in these institutions as they seek to redefine their positions in the years following political independence (See for example Cordoso & Falletto, 1979; Hubble, 2008; Kapoor, 2002; Erb & Kallab, 1975). An overarching assumption underlying dependency theory is the fact that there exists a dominant center and a dependent periphery and that these peripheral regions lack agency in their engagement with the developed world. Although a wide body of literature shows African universities in a state of crisis (Sherman, 1990, Tikly, 2001; Sawyerr, 2004, Altbach 2004; 2005), less is known about institutional level experiences with internationalization and how individuals within these institutions navigate their peripheral position, sometimes challenging the very structures that constrain them. Moreover, research on internationalization of higher education has been dominated by the experiences of the developed world, with little focus on marginalized Third World countries (Knight & de Wit, 1997; de Wit, 2002; Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004; Altbach, 2004). This study examined internationalization in relationship to the political, economic, technological, and social-cultural forces that have impacted the participation of peripheral Third World countries in international activity. Of central significance to this investigation is the fact that the institutions of higher education in the former European colonies in Africa and other Third World countries, given their historical beginnings, have not only carried on the legacy of imperialism in the years following political independence, but have also made significant strides in

confronting the very constraints that their colonial beginning have brought to bear in the day-to-day running of these institutions.

2.6 Resource Dependence and African Institutions of Higher Education

Resource dependency theory was popularized in the 1970s as theorists looked at institutional level responses to external pressure emanating from their environments. Pfeffer & Salancik (2003) in their book (originally published in 1978) *The External Control of Organizations: A resource Dependence Perspective* concluded that “what happens in organizations is not only a function of the organization, its structure, its leadership, its procedures, or its goals. What happens is also a consequence of the environment and the particular contingencies and constraints deriving from the environment” (p. 3). The basic assumption underlying resource dependence theoretical lenses in analyzing institutional behavior lies in the belief that no institution can survive on its own and is therefore dependent on external resources. What this means is that organizations that control the resources tend to have much power over the ones that lack the same leading to a dependent relationship with the dominant organizations (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003; Emerson, 2007). The effect of this relationship creates an element of constraint normally considered to be “undesirable restricting to creativity and adaptation” institutions use for survival in a given environment (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003, p. 15). Indeed, resource dependence theorists stress the importance of context in understanding institutional level choices and actions (DiMaggio, 1998; Scott, 2008). The following section provides the context for participation in international activity at the case study institution.

2.7 The Kenyan Public University Context

An analysis of the approaches and strategies for internationalization in a post-colonial African university environment like the University of Nairobi must address the historical context that led to the creation of the modern African University. The historical³ beginnings of Kenyan Public Universities, and indeed their counterparts elsewhere in African, has always added a national outlook to the way things are done at institutional level. The period following the attainment of political independence in most African countries ushered in the era of national universities. As Lulat (2003) observed, these universities “grew out of the mixture of nationalistic ambitions (the national university joined such other symbols of sovereignty as the flag, the national anthem, the international airport, the national bank, a national currency, etc.) and genuinely perceived discontent with the university colleges that the colonial powers had established” (p. 18). Consequently, a tight coupling of institutional and national level approaches to engaging in international activity existed during these formative years in the internationalization realm, including institutional level governance. As a matter of fact, from 1964-2003, the president of the country also served as the Chancellor (equivalent to the chief executive officer) presiding over ceremonial duties like commencements, legal appointments to key positions of authority, not to mention appropriation of state funds for the day-to-day running of the university.

For example, the University of Nairobi (UoN), the first public university in the Republic of Kenya, was fully funded by the Kenya government through massive foreign

³ This study is not a historical analysis of the University of Nairobi. It mainly focuses on UoN experiences with internationalization as Kenya’s first national public university. The historical periods included in this document only offer a brief sketch in the development of higher education in the Republic of Kenya. The goal is to illustrate how key developments in Kenya’s colonial history have shaped policy and practice at institutional level with regards to the international dimension at the University of Nairobi.

aid that found its way into Kenya, mostly from England, to take care of the students, faculty, staff and general day-to-day running of the institution (Eshiwani, 1993; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Ngome 2003; Mwiraria, et al., 2007; Subotzky et al., 2004; Obambo, 2009). Indeed, the broad national goals for education (at all levels) echoed the aspirations of the Kenyan people with regards to creating a national identity, building an international profile, and creating and disseminating knowledge through research and intellectual engagement. The Kenya education commission report, popularly known as the Ominde report of 1964 reinforced the national consciousness in the modern Kenyan university as the genesis of national development and social transformation, as Ashby (1974) observed, “. . . under the patronage of modern governments, they are cultivated as intensive crops, heavily manured and expected to give to a high yield to the nourishment of the state” (p. 7). Structurally, therefore, it is not uncommon to find higher learning institutions serving as sites where broad national goals and priorities for internationalization are carried out, as other scholars in the western and non-western world have observed (GoK, 1964; 2007; 2008; Ngome 2003; Altbach, 2005; Knight & de Wit, 1995).

2.7.1 Making the Transition: UoN as a Post-Colonial National University

Kenyan institutions of higher education have, in one way or another, maintained a significant contact with the outside world. Thomas Jesse Jones, chair of the second Phelps-Stokes Commission charged with the study of educational policies in East, Central, and South Africa wrote in his 1925 report that “the unique element in Native development and education in Kenya is due to the presence of 10 000 Europeans and 36

000 Indians and Arabs, a much larger number than any other tropical colony in Africa...there has been extensive interchange between Europe, Asia, and America to the great advantage of all. Africa has profited, but historically the proportion of exploitation and slavery has been too large . . ." (Jones, 1925, p. 101). The University of Nairobi, the site selected for this study, is strategically located in the heart of Kenya's capital city, Nairobi, a fast growing metropolis in the East African region and a catchment area for local and foreign partners in teaching, research, and service functions of the university. UoN traces its origin to several developments in higher education within the country and the East African community (Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania).

The idea of an institution for higher learning in Kenya goes back to 1947 when the colonial government drew up a plan for the establishment of a technical and commercial institute in Kenya's capital, Nairobi. This plan had grown into an East African concept by 1949 aimed at providing higher technical education for the region. In September 1951, a Royal Charter was issued to the Royal Technical College of East Africa and the foundation stone of the college was laid in April 1952. The College became the second⁴ University College in East Africa ten years later under the name "Royal College Nairobi." The Royal College Nairobi was renamed "University College Nairobi" at independence leading to the introduction of the bachelor's degrees in various disciplines awarded by the University of London. The University College Nairobi provided educational opportunities in this capacity until 1966 when it began preparing students from all over Kenya and other neighboring African countries exclusively for degrees of the University of East Africa (Teferra & Knight, 2008; Sifuna, 1998; Ochieng,

⁴ It should be noted here that of the three East African Universities, Makerere University was the oldest university college in East Africa established in 1922 as a technical college but later elevated to the level of a university college in 1963 (Ashby, 1964; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996).

1995; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Eshiwani, 1993). The dissolution of the then University of East Africa led to the birth of three stand alone universities: Makerere University in Uganda, University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania, and the University of Nairobi in Kenya (Eshiwani, 1993; Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2002; 2004).

Like her other African counterparts, the creation of UoN was in response to national and regional needs of the Republic of Kenya, the East African Region, and the rest of Africa. High demand for higher education following the attainment of political independence and a desire to delink from the colonial grip of the University of London fueled the historical beginning of UoN as a leader in higher education services in an emerging African nation. Forty five years later UoN has registered significant growth and is home to approximately 36,991 students enrolled in over 100 undergraduate and graduate degree programs, 1,411 members of academic staff, and 4,874 non-academic staff (University of Nairobi, 2011; see table 2.8).

Table 2.8 University of Nairobi Population

Population Type	Male	Female	Total
Students	22,734	14,257	36,991
Academic Staff	1,086	325	1,411
Non-Academic Staff	3,221	1,653	4,874

Source: University of Nairobi 2011

However, the transitional years in the Republic of Kenya brought with it major transformations in the Kenyan higher educational landscape. Kenyan Public Universities (KPU) have experienced remarkable growth and challenges in the years following

political independence. For example, the 1980s and the 1990s saw the emergence of significant changes at the University of Nairobi, and indeed the rest of sub-Saharan Africa. Increased demand for post-secondary education led to admission of more students than the university could handle (Eshiwani, 1993; GoK 1996), Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996). Meanwhile, the general infrastructure at Kenyan public universities became increasingly deplorable leading to disgruntled professoriate jumping from one institution to another and students protesting declining quality of education and services, not to mention the rising cost of higher education. To make matters worse, the introduction of structural adjustment programs (SAPs)⁵ led to the diversion of higher education support funds by the Kenya government to other sectors such as health, transport, agriculture, among others (University of Nairobi, 2011; World Bank, 1988, 1994; Khaemba & Some, 2002; Ngome, 2004; Samoff & Carroll, 2003; Sawyerr, 2004; Stromquist, 2007; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Eshiwani 1993). This phenomenon left Kenyan public universities seeking alternative means of survival, in terms of research capacity building, personnel development, and improvement of general infrastructure.

In the internationalization realm, participation in international activity during this time period increased in Kenya, characterized by increased North-South research collaborations and partnerships, increased university-industry linkages, increased presence of multilateral organizations, and mushrooming of private institutions of higher education based on American and British models, among other remarkable changes in the

⁵ Government assistance significantly reduced in the 1980s through the recommendations of the World Bank which forced the Kenya government to direct more allocations to basic education as a poverty reduction strategy in sub-Saharan Africa. Details can be found in World Bank (1988) policy document titled *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion*.

higher educational landscape (Samoff & Carroll, 2003; World Bank, 1988; Jones, 1992; World Bank 1994; Schoole, 2008; Jowi, 2009; Gichaga, 2011).

The growth in links and partnership at the University of Nairobi is illustrated in Table 2.9. According to data obtained from the University of Nairobi's Centre for International Programs and Links (CIPL), there were 321 such partnerships from 1979 to 2010. The date of signing was not provided for 34 of the partnerships. Data for the remaining 287 partnerships are provided in Table 2.9. The number of partnerships signed per year for the 20-year period starting from 1985 to 2004 ranged from 1 to 13, the average being 5 partnerships signed per year. There was a dramatic increase in the number of partnerships signed in the next three years (26 in 2005, 38 in 2006, and 45 in 2007). This was followed by a precipitous drop, with only one partnership signed in 2008 and 11 signed in 2009 and then a dramatic rise to 59 partnerships signed in 2010. It may be postulated that the upward trend observed in the number of partnerships signed since 2005 was interrupted in 2008 and 2009 by the post-election violence that rocked Kenya following a hotly contested presidential election in December 2007 whose results were disputed. This drop in partnerships may demonstrate the influence of national politics in institutional level decisions to engage in international activity. It may also suggest general concern for personal safety and the part of foreign students, scholars, and other stakeholders in the internationalization process (Gichaga, 2011; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Eshiwani, 1993).

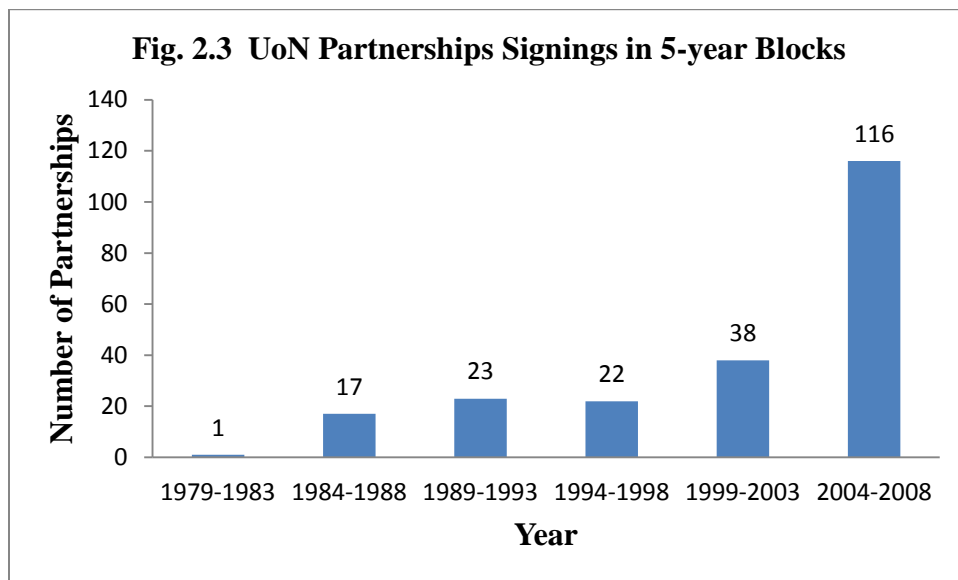
Table 2.9 Number of UoN Partnerships Signed Per Year from 1979 to 2010

Year	Partnerships	Year	Partnerships	Year	Partnerships
1979	1	1990	8	2001	9
1980	0	1991	4	2002	13
1981	0	1992	3	2003	6
1982	0	1993	3	2004	6
1983	0	1994	1	2005	26
1984	0	1995	10	2006	38
1985	2	1996	5	2007	45
1986	3	1997	4	2008	1
1987	2	1998	2	2009	11
1988	10	1999	4	2010	59
1989	5	2000	6		

To obtain a diagrammatical presentation of information on the signing of the partnerships, the data was grouped in five-year blocks from 1979 to 2008. The results are presented in Table 2.10 and Figure 2.3. Essentially, there was a gradual increase in the number of partnerships signed from the 1979-1983 period to the 1999-2003 and then a dramatic increase from the latter period to the 2004-2008 period.

Table 2.10 UoN Partnerships Signing in Five-Year Blocks

Years	Partnerships
1979-1983	1
1984-1988	17
1989-1993	23
1994-1998	22
1999-2003	38
2004-2008	116
TOTAL	217



2.7.2 Stakeholders in the Internationalization Process

The transitional years at UoN were also characterized by the emergence of multiple stakeholders in the internationalization process. Data suggest that participation

in international activity at the University of Nairobi takes place in the context of numerous **internal** and **external** stakeholders. Internally, the Government of Kenya (GoK) exercises a lot of influence in the internationalization process due to the fact that the University of Nairobi, like other public universities in Kenya, has historically fallen under the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST), the Kenya government entity charged with the responsibility of policy formulation, implementation, and evaluation of the Kenya education sector. With regards to higher education, this ministry operates under the guidance of the Kenya Commission for Higher Education (CHE) established in 1985 by an act of parliament with the main goal of planning, budgeting and financing of universities, accreditation and supervision, the coordination of postsecondary education and training, the equation and recognition of academic qualifications from other countries, and documentation of information on higher education in Kenya (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Oketch, 2003).

Other ministries directly involved in the internationalization process include the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which offers the legal framework and represents the Kenya government in diplomatic relations with foreign governments, oversees travel guidelines, and maintains records and travel regulations for those participating in international travel and projects. The ministry of Culture and Social Services also provides leadership in cultural exchange initiatives between Kenya and other countries, alongside the ministry of Home Affairs which ensures that participation in international activity does not jeopardize the security and sovereignty of the people of the Republic of Kenya. Institutional level stakeholders include the central administration, colleges and schools, departments, and other organization units within the administrative structure of the

university. All these stakeholders work closely with UoN's Centre for Programmes and Links (CIPL) located on UoN's main campus. The center acts as the mediator between the University of Nairobi and the relevant government departments and offices to ensure that proper procedure, protocol, and deadlines are met (University of Nairobi, 2011; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008).

Beyond the borders of Kenya, numerous stakeholders in the form of regional alliances influence participation in international activity at UoN. Specifically, foreign governments, lending agencies, and private foundations have a direct influence in the activities, approaches, and strategies for participation at both national and institutional levels. For example, at the regional level, the Association of African Universities (AAU) in collaboration with the Center for International Higher Education housed within the Boston College Lynch School of Education supports networking, teaching, and research funding initiatives within and outside Africa. Within the East African region (Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania), the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA)—has played a leading role in facilitating joint research projects and mobility of students and staff among member universities. The Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) is yet another organization that has played a pivotal role in the international dimension. Established in 1973 as an independent Pan-African research organization focusing on social sciences in Africa, this organization has been instrumental in promoting scholarship and training opportunities within the continent of Africa. Participants credit these bodies as professional development avenues for both faculty and staff. Other regional organizations and multilateral agreements between African nations have emerged opening up the member countries for educational and trade

activities. Examples of organizations created to facilitate participation in international activity within Africa include, but are not limited to, the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA), the Organization of African Unity (OAU) which was transformed to African Union (AU) in 2002, Inter-governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), and the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD)—all created to strike a regional alliance (GoK, 2011; Weeks, 2008; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996).

The presence of multilateral cooperation networks at UoN is worth noting. Historically, the Kenya government has always supported multilateralism through the United Nations (UN) and its subsidiary bodies, including the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the United Nation's Development Project (UNDP), UNESCO's Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) headquartered in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and the Partnership for Higher Education in Africa. These organizations, among others, play significant roles in financing international activity at Kenyan institutions of higher education. Other lending organizations shaping policy at national and institutional levels include the World Bank through the International Development Agency (IDA) and International Monetary Fund (IMF), World Trade Organization (WTO), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), European Economic Union (EEU), United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Japanese International Cooperation Agency (JICA), and Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) alongside Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst (DAAD, the German Academic Exchange Program), the Ford Foundation, the Rockefeller

Foundation, the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, among other funding agencies. In addition, Kenya is a member of the Commonwealth—a voluntary association of 54 former British colonies with economic and technical assistance as the primary focus of the cooperation⁶ (Ministry of Education 1996; Altbach & Teferra 2003; World Bank, 2010; Samoff & Carroll, 2004; Sawyerr, 2004; Olukoshi & Zeleza 2004; Schoole, 2008; Shabani, 2008; GoK, 2011). All these stakeholders, whether internal or external influence institutional level choices in engaging in international activity as Pfeffer & Salancik (2003) noted in their book *The External Control of Organizations* “because organizations are not self-contained or self-sufficient, the environment must be relied upon to provide support...For continuing to provide what the organization needs, the external group or organization may demand certain actions from the organization in return.” As the case of the University demonstrates, “it is the fact of the organization dependence on the environment that makes external constraints and control of organizational behavior both possible and impossible” (2003, p. 43).

2.7.3 Financing Higher Education in Kenya

Financing higher education has been a challenge in African institutions of higher education. In the case of Kenya, global forces in the form of foreign governments, multilateral development agencies, and foreign scholarly societies have occupied a center stage in the planning for and developing educational opportunities for Kenyans to supplement local income generating projects established by the Kenya government. The World Bank through the International Development Agency (IDA) and International

⁶ ACU is the oldest and one of the largest international inter-university networks in the world (See http://www.acu.ac.uk/about_us/who_we_are for more information about history, background, and membership).

Monetary Fund (IMF) have become key players in Kenya's higher education since independence (Zezeza 2003; 2005; World Bank, 2009; Teferra & Knight, 2008). Three notable policy documents produced by the World Bank have shaped Kenya's higher educational landscape as we know it today. *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion* (World Bank, 1988) was the first major World Bank policy statement that set the stage for major reforms in Kenya's higher educational sector. This document singled out curriculum irrelevance, government control of higher education, and high costs of managing African institutions as the genesis of crumbling higher educational institutions in Africa and offered suggestions for improvement as terms for future financial support. As a response to this World Bank (1988) policy document, financing of postsecondary education in postcolonial Kenya incorporated World Bank imposed *structural adjustment programs* (SAPs) which paved the way for cost sharing policies of the 1990s in all Kenyan Public Universities.

The concept of cost-sharing means that responsibility of financing higher education is shared between the Kenya government, individual institutions, parents, and students. According to the Ministry of Education 1996 report, the role of the government is to provide the general infrastructure for delivering educational services, like the curriculum, teacher salaries, bursaries, and loans for secondary and university education. The community and the parents, on the other hand, provide the teaching and learning materials, textbooks, physical infrastructure and other indirect costs (Maxon & Ndege, 1995; Ministry of Education, 2009; EFA Report, 2000; Eshiwani, 1990, 1993; Oketch, 2003, 2009; Nafukho, 2004). Kenya was the first country in sub-Saharan Africa to receive structural adjustment funding due to strict implementation of the World Bank

instituted lending conditions. Within the broad regional categories, World Bank lending allocations have been quite significant since the 1960s with West Africa at 40 percent, East Africa at 30 percent, and Central and Southern Africa at 30 percent (Sammoff & Carroll, 2003).

Other World Bank policy documents that have impacted higher education in African institutions of higher education include *Higher Education: The Lessons of Experience* (World Bank, 1994) which turned out to be a document of reflection regarding the neglect of higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Four major directions for implementing reform in African institutions of higher education were recommended, including the push to privatize higher education to expand access, introduction of student levies to offset rising costs, linking government funding to performance, redefining the role of government in higher education administration, and the introduction of quality and equity measures in the provision of higher education services. In response to these recommendations, the 1990s witnessed a growing number of privately funded institutions in Kenya and parallel degree programs in public universities to accommodate privately funded students as income generating projects. These new arrangements in providing higher educational services in Kenya have produced their own challenges including mass exodus of teaching staff from public to private institutions and continuing deterioration of services in public universities, among other challenges (Teferra & Knight, 2008; Jowi, Kiamba & Some, 2008, Ngome, 2003; Zeleza & Olukoshi, 2005; Gichaga, 2011).

The dawn of the twenty-first century saw the World Bank's grip on African higher education tightening with a 1998/1999 World Development Report which led to the production of yet another policy statement on future directions for higher education in

the global age titled *Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education*. This document heralded the emergence of “new providers for tertiary education, including electronic education institutions, unconstrained by international borders, a technological revolution that has transformed organizational structures, increasing privatization of higher education, and a global market for human capital” (Sammoff & Carroll, 2003, p. 14). Again, Kenyan institutions of higher education had no choice but to join the information technology bandwagon with limited preparations (structurally and financially) to accommodate the new challenges. Even though this document rekindled World Bank’s interest in the higher education sector, it created new structural constraints on institutions whose major sources of funding, research, and technological support systems emanates from the developed world. In 2000 a task force on higher education and society convened by the World Bank and UNESCO brought together “experts” from 13 countries to deliberate the future of higher education in the developing world culminating in the production of a joint report *Higher Education in Developing Countries: Perils and Promise*. The participants concluded that improving the existing higher educational infrastructure is the key to accessing the benefits that accrue from the global knowledge based economy—stressing on science and technology as the key components to this future (World Bank & UNESCO, 2000).

2.8 Summary

In this section I have provided literature review and a theoretical context for my research investigation. Research on internationalization of higher education has been dominated by the experiences of the developed world, with little focus on marginalized

Third World countries (Knight & de Wit, 1997; de Wit, 2002; Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004; Altbach, 2004). This study examines internationalization in relationship to the political, economic, technological, and social-cultural forces that have impacted the participation of peripheral Third World countries in international activity. Of central significance to this investigation is the fact that even though most African IHEs now exhibit a certain degree of agency in institutional level management, the institutions of higher education in the former European colonies in Africa and other Third World countries, given their historical beginnings, have carried on the legacy of imperialism in the years following political independence. Most of the strategies and rationales adopted by Third World institutions are deeply rooted in the historical dominance of the developing countries by the developed world (Teferra & Altbach, 2008; Altbach & Knight, 2006; Altbach, 2004, 1995).

This study investigates the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation as Kenyan institutions of higher education seek to find their place in the global community of higher education providers in the post-colonial era using the case of the University of Nairobi. The term “post-colonial,” as used in this investigation, represents institutional level response to the impact of European colonization of Africa and the effect this colonial contact has produced in the former European colonies of Africa and their national public universities in the years following the attainment of political independence (Ashcroft et al., 1999; Nwauwa, 1997; Ashby, 1974). The argument is that the achievement of political independence in the former colonies did not end the imperial grip on the continent of Africa. The term is therefore used with an awareness of the controversies surrounding it, particularly with regards to the tendency to

restrict it to the period following the attainment of political independence. Contrary to the assumption that political independence would bring to African countries and by extension their national public universities a period of freedom from political, economic, and cultural exploitation, and external control, the case of the University of Nairobi shows that political independence has not solved Africa's problems; instead, it has ushered in a new kind of dependence on the former colonizers, characterized by resource dependence and external influences in institutional level decision making processes.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This case study focuses on institutional level responses to the changing higher educational environment as carried out within the context of a post-colonial Kenyan public university (KPU) environment, the University of Nairobi. The research investigated the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation as these institutions seek to find their place in the global community of higher education providers in the years following political independence. The research addressed (1) the approaches and strategies adopted by UoN to engage in international activity; (2) the changes that have taken place over time in international activity engagement at UoN since the attainment of political independence by the Republic of Kenya; and (3) the rationales driving participation in international activity. This investigation included library research, document analysis, multiple campus visits, and 20 formal interviews with faculty and administrators of the University of Nairobi, Kenya.

3.2 The Case Study as a Research Method

The case study as a research method has gained prominence in a number of professions including education, sociology, health, experimental psychology, among other fields (Neale, Thapa, & Boyce, 2006; Yin, 2003; Merriam, 1998). In the field of international education, many researchers have employed the case study approach to understand internationalization phenomenon in the context of institutions of higher education. Ellingboe (1998) conducted a case study of the University of Minnesota

Twin Cities aimed at understanding the dimensions of divisional internationalization within the University of Minnesota Twin Cities Campus, compare attitudes toward internationalizing the curriculum within and across five colleges, and allow interviewees to generate their own recommendations for leading campus wide internationalization (p. 200). Through in-depth interviews with faculty and administrators, Ellingboe found evidence of internationalization at the university in the form of international and visiting scholar presence, international linkages with foreign universities, international research collaboration and membership in international organizations and societies, international education website, international education coordinator, international education events, programs, and activities, among others. However, a need for more collaboration between faculty and administrators in bringing internationalization into the forefront of college and university visions and strategic plans was recommended. The study also revealed that the University of Minnesota lacked comprehensive curricular and systemic policy for internationalization as well as a coordinated effort to communicate the importance of internationalization to the campus community (p. 227).

Outside the United States, Bell (2004) conducted a case study at the University of Wollongong, Australia, focusing on faculty attitude toward internationalizing the curriculum. The study revealed that a great “divide” existed in how faculty perceive internationalization of the curriculum. On one side of the divide, faculty believed that it would have a negative impact and would be inappropriate. The focus was on students learning curriculum content and basic disciplinary skills. On the other side of the “divide,” academics believed that internationalization of content was possible and integral to the curriculum in an increasingly interconnected world. More recently,

Rumbley (2007) examined the phenomenon of internationalization using the case of four Spanish Universities for her investigation. The case study showed high level of awareness, commitment, and operationalization as measured against Knight's (1994) six dimensions of internationalization; however, low performance in the areas of planning, review, and reinforcement was noted. Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter (2004) investigated the state of internationalization at the University of Zululand, an extremely peripheral and historically marginalized South African university. The results showed that the level of internationalization is high at the University of Zululand, despite its geographic location. However, both faculty and administrators seemed uncertain about what internationalization means in their immediate work and what needed to be done to advance internationalization (p. 317).

While these studies have certainly provided an insight into the state of internationalization in the developed world, understanding the experiences of the developing world remains a complex undertaking given the legacy of colonialism that these countries face in the post-colonial era (Stromquist, 2007; Altbach, 2003, 2005; Willinsky, 1998; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Rodney, 1982; Carnoy, 1974). This complexity arises from several factors. First, Third world institutions enter the internationalization process from a peripheral position compared to the powerful centers (North America, Australia, and Europe). Secondly, the general infrastructure for internationalization, including policy, resources, control, among other logistics in the Western world may not present the same kind of challenges a peripheral African institution of higher education may encounter in the internationalization process. Even within the continent of Africa, regional differences exist regarding participation in

international activity. A case in point is the Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter (2004) study included in this review. Even though this study illuminated what it means for a peripheral African university to engage in international activity, the focus was on an African country with a very different historical experience compared to the rest of sub-Saharan Africa. It should be noted that until 1994, South Africa suffered racial segregation policies with huge implications on the delivery of higher education for South Africans for almost fifty years. The national party that came into power in 1948 under the apartheid regime created ten autonomous states within South Africa which promoted ethnicity in government and educational system in general as a way of promoting racial inequality. Compared to White only schools, these regional schools and universities were grossly under-funded and understaffed (Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004, p. 321).

Secondly, compared to other African countries like Kenya, South Africa is relatively more developed and has become the destination of choice for work and study within Africa because of its economic standing with other nations of the world. The election of Nelson Mandela in 1994 formally ended the apartheid regime and the economic and educational sanctions imposed on South Africa, ushering an era of racial desegregation in government, schooling, and international focus. This case study extends the literature on internationalization of African IHEs by focusing on institutional level responses to the changing higher educational environment as carried out within the context of the first Kenyan Public University, the University of Nairobi. The research investigated the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation as Kenyan institutions of higher education seek to find their place in the global community of higher education providers in the years following political independence.

3.3 Research Procedure and Data-Collection Strategies

3.3.1 Site Selection and Entry

Purposeful sampling is not uncommon in qualitative research. Patton (2002) observed that it “leads to selecting information rich cases . . . those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research . . . (p. 46). The University of Nairobi was purposefully selected as the site for this case study because it is the first public university in independent Kenya whose historical development is linked to that of the Republic of Kenya. An overview of the Kenyan higher educational landscape and the creation of the University of Nairobi as a colonial university was provided in Chapter Two. Permission to carry out this case study was obtained through the Center for International Programmes and Links (CIPL) at the University of Nairobi. In phase one of the study, I embarked on an in-depth study of the research site in order to have a better understanding of the general infrastructure of the University of Nairobi as an institution. Specifically, an analysis of institutional documents, including links and collaborations, strategic plans, organizational structure, history, and web pages became necessary at this stage in the study. Another important activity in this phase was establishing e-mail and phone contact with individuals in positions of authority at the UoN. Contacts were made with Director of CIPL, Deans of Academic Units, and the offices of the Vice Chancellor and Deputy Vice Chancellor, soliciting potential participants for the study. Since informants are also gate-keepers in their own organizations, word of mouth helped the researcher identify key participants for this case study.

3.3.2 Participant Selection

In phase two of the study, potential participants were identified following the lead of key informants on the ground through snowball sampling strategy. According to Hatch (2002) “snowball or chain samples are created when one informant identifies the next as someone who would be good to interview” (p. 98). Once potential participants were identified, I selected 20 individuals for an in-depth telephone and face-to-face interview. Selection criteria were based on years of service at UoN, administrative role /positions at UoN, and involvement with international activity. These categories became important because they enabled the researcher to generate rich data in reconstructing the institutional level initiatives at the University of Nairobi for participation in international activity. For example, the number of years of service to the institution is significant because it enabled the researcher answer the question of change over time in institutional level activities, rationales, trends, and shifts in the international dimension at UoN. In order to understand the key turning points in Kenya’s higher educational landscape, for instance, informants who had worked at UoN for long periods of time clarified the historical aspects of the British colonial educational policies of the 1940s to the 1960s, the World Bank instituted neo-colonial policies of the 1980s and 1990s, and the current challenges facing the University of Nairobi.

Another selection criterion was based on participants’ positions of responsibility. To this end, individuals in key administrative and faculty positions were identified through the help of UoN’s Centre for International Programs and Links. The rationale for interviewing them was because I considered them uniquely positioned to illuminate on institutional level constraints facing an emerging institution of higher education in the

global age. Moreover, these are also the individuals who shape policy and make decisions regarding international activity at institutional level. Involvement with international activity (be it through teaching, research collaborations, exchange programs, consultations, local and international organizations) is yet another selection criterion used in this study. Through the perspectives of faculty and administrators involved in international activity, the researcher was able to identify institutional level activities, procedures, programs, rationales, structural limitations, and constraints.

3.3.3 Data Collection Strategy

The use of interviews as a data collection strategy is not uncommon in studying educational institutions. Hatch (2002) pointed out that “qualitative researchers use interviews to uncover the meaning structures that participants use to organize their experiences and make sense of their worlds.” These meaning structures are often hidden from direct observation and taken for granted by research participants. . . .” (p. 91). The interview strategy was particularly useful in generating rich data on the phenomenon of internationalization in a post-colonial African university environment. Formal interviews were administered to a total of 20 faculty and administrators at UoN in the spring of 2010 via Skype and face-to-face in the summer of 2010 when the researcher visited UoN (see Appendix B for Interview Protocol). Invitation to participate in the interview was done via e-mail to selected participants. E-mails of participants were obtained from the University of Nairobi website. Since phase one of this study was conducted at a distance, the services of a research assistant were utilized in scheduling appointments with selected participants and helping them navigate Skype.

Skype generated interviews have become common data generation avenues for researchers across the globe, connecting communities and groups across international borders. Skype generated interviews were administered with full awareness of the benefits and drawbacks. Some of the benefits of Skype interviews include free voice calls between Skype users, easy multi-person conferencing, clearer sound quality, access to landlines and cellular connections worldwide, and easy file sharing between users (Agnes, 2009). However, as the data collection phase progressed, the researcher became keenly aware that the Skype revolution is not been free from drawbacks. I experienced poor connections to both dial-up and broadband research participants, not to mention technological glitches during recording, lack of eye contact with the interviewee, missed opportunities from body language signals, and nervousness on the part of my older interviewees.

3.3.4 Participant Confidentiality

Participation in this study was strictly voluntary. Consent forms (see appendix A) were distributed to participants through the help of a research assistant who detailed participants' rights and privileges. While the researcher was aware of the ethics surrounding participant confidentiality in qualitative research (Glesne 2006; Kuhn, 2005; Patton, 2002; Merriam, 1998), it was not possible to hide the identity of the institution under investigation. However, faculty and administrators participating in this investigation have been assigned numbers in order to protect their identity.

3.3.5 Other Data Collection Strategies

The use of multiple strategies to cross-check data is an essential research strategy (Glesne, 2006; Patton, 2004; Merriam, 1998). In addition to in-depth interviews, data were also gathered through document analysis. An examination of UoN links and partnership documents became a critical source of information for this investigation. I was fortunate enough, through the help of the Centre for International Programmes and Links at UoN, to obtain a record of links and partnerships UoN has officially engaged in between 1979-2010. This document enabled me to identify participation by continent, institutional type, activity type, unit level participation, duration, among other identifying variables. Chapter 4.3 presents a detailed analysis of the document. Mission/policy statements and strategic plan documents with regards to the international dimension were essential in illuminating structural factors surrounding international activity at the University of Nairobi. I also documented the research experience through journal entries in order to capture the highlights of the investigation. Since this study was conducted at a distance, it became necessary to record any hunches, interpretations, and side notes after each interview. Hatch (2002) noted that “research journals provide a record of the affective experience of doing a study. They provide a place where researchers can openly reflect on what is happening during the research experience and how they feel about it” (pp. 87-88). In addition to journal entries, informal conversations⁷ via phone or e-mail also became useful data sources. Ideas gleaned from these sources led to further investigations and follow-up interviews in the summer of 2010 when the researcher traveled to the University of Nairobi. All the interviews administered to key faculty and administrators at UoN were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. The data

⁷ Data from informal conversation were recorded in form of journal entries.

generated were used as evidence to support the broad themes that emerged from this investigation.

3.4 Researcher Positionality/ Reflexivity

I entered this study acutely aware of researcher bias in studying familiar environments, as other qualitative researchers have noted (Merriam, 1998; Glesne, 1999). Through my professional engagements with Kenya faculty and administrators in my role as the coordinator of a faculty exchange program between a U.S. institution of higher education and a Kenyan university, I am aware of the challenges Kenyan public universities face in their participation in international activity. Additionally, I have had the experience, in my undergraduate education, of being a student at one of the only seven public universities in Kenya. Moreover, I was aware of the research setting and the forces, both internal and external, which have shaped the Kenyan higher educational landscape. I experienced first-hand the repercussions of the World Bank imposed Structural Adjustment Program policies, which led to the introduction of fee payments and other cost-sharing measures at all public universities in my native Kenya (see 2.7.3 Financing Higher Education in Kenya in this chapter).

Additionally, as an immigrant to the United States of America, I know why I chose to relocate here, like many other immigrants in the diaspora. I am aware of the monumental loss my country faces as a result of brain drain. I am also familiar with the literature on the benefits and risks of internationalization, particularly with regards to the imbalance in relationships between the developed and developing world. It is, therefore, extremely important to recognize these biases that I bring into this investigation, as Sipe

& Ghiso (2004) advise “unpacking our positioning makes clear the lenses we are drawing on as we grapple with our data and relate to participants at our site” (p. 474).

Consequently, I embarked on this research investigation knowing the importance of conversing with oral historians at the University of Nairobi, listening to their perspectives on institutional level initiatives to engage in international activity. The interview process allowed me to examine the internationalization phenomenon from the lenses of faculty and administrators directly involved in the decision making processes regarding the international dimension at UoN. Paying close attention to my informants’ perspectives enabled me reach solid conclusions as to the forces that drive policy, procedures, and rationales, as Kenyan Public Universities renegotiate their standing in the global higher education stage. It is in these participants’ stories that I was able to reconstruct the history of the University of Nairobi’s experiences with internationalization in the post-colonial era, as Thompson (2000) in *The Voices of the Past* succinctly put it “oral history gives history back to the people in their own words” (p. 308).

3.5 Data Analysis

Hatch (2002) in *Doing Qualitative Research in Education Settings* defines data analysis as “a systematic search for meaning . . . organizing and interrogating data in ways that allow the researcher to see patterns, identify themes, discover relationships, develop explanations, make interpretations, mount critiques, or generate theories” (p. 148). Given my theoretical context and main research question focusing on the forces influencing institutional level initiatives to engage in international activity at Kenyan Public Universities (KPU), Walcott (1994) three-pronged data transformation

framework guided my analysis of what it means to engage in international activity from the periphery. Wolcott outlines three approaches in data transformation including description, analysis, and interpretation (p. 36). The research setting for my study certainly lends itself to a certain degree of descriptive analysis as outlined in Wolcott's framework. In order to illuminate what goes on at the University of Nairobi with regards to institutional engagement with international activity, a description of the research setting, policies, procedures, and organizational structure helped my understanding of institutional level efforts to participate in international activity.

A second category in Wolcott's data presentation framework is the analysis stage during which the researcher makes meaningful conclusions grounded in data. The interview transcriptions, documents, informal conversations (electronic and oral), library research among other data sources used during this investigation helped me support the conclusions reached at the end of this study (Wolcott, 1994; Hatch, 2002).

Categorizations and codes were developed based on the research questions in order to facilitate data analysis. As Sipe & Ghiso (2004) have noted, "we don't discover conceptual categories in our data; we build them" (p. 474). Analysis, coding, and category development became an ongoing process, constantly linking field experiences to the research questions and theoretical foundations (Glesne, 2006; Hatch, 2002; Merriam, 1998; Boyatzis, 1998; Wolcott, 1994). The third, and equally important, category in Wolcott's data transformation framework is interpretation. Through an interpretive analysis of data collected, the researcher is able to go beyond "factual data and cautious analysis and begins to probe what is to be made of them" using hunches, probing, and reflections in order to make meaning of the data (Wolcott, 1994, p. 36).

3.6 Summary

This section has provided a detailed description of the research site entry, participant selection, research methods and procedures, data analysis procedures, and researcher positionality with regards to the research investigation—a case study focusing on institutional level responses to the changing higher educational environment as carried out within the context of a Kenyan Public University. By investigating the factors that influence policy, procedures, and participation in international activity in the context of a post-colonial Kenyan Public University, this study offers an unique insight in understanding institutional, national, and regional challenges facing institutions of higher education in the developing world with regards to the international dimension. It makes significant contributions to comparative international education literature, which has traditionally been dominated by the experiences of the developed world.

CHAPTER FOUR

MAPPING INTERNATIONALIZATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

4.1 Introduction

This study examined the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation in international activity as Kenyan institutions of higher education (KIHES) seek to find their place in the global higher education community in the years following political independence. In order to investigate these forces, the research addressed (1) the approaches and strategies adopted by UoN to engage in international activity; (2) the changes that have taken place over time in international activity engagement at UoN since the attainment of political independence by the Republic of Kenya; and (3) the rationales driving participation in international activity. This chapter focuses on question number one by presenting an institutional level typology highlighting the organizational and programmatic strategies and approaches employed by the University of Nairobi to engage in international activity in the post-colonial era. The chapter is divided into four sections. Section One provides an organizational structure at the University of Nairobi showing how authority and responsibilities are distributed campus-wide. Section Two provides an overview on international links and collaborations. Section three provides an analysis of institutional level approaches adopted by UoN to participate in international activity. The last section provides an in-depth analysis of strategies toward participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi since its inception as an institution of higher education in independent Kenya.

4.2 Organizational Structure and Support Units for Internationalization at UoN

In light of the opportunities and challenges associated with new university environments in the twenty-first century, the University of Nairobi recognizes the value of participation in international activity in helping fulfill the mission of “providing quality university education and training and to embody the aspirations of the Kenyan people and the global community . . .” The 2008-2013 strategic plan reads in part “. . . whereas the university has a number of existing academic linkages, more value-adding networks, partnerships and linkages need to be built at local, regional, and international levels for the University to reposition itself in the global arena as a viable and vibrant institution of higher learning” (University of Nairobi, 2011). For this reason, the university has put in place institutional policies and structures to support the international dimension. This section provides a brief overview of the University of Nairobi’s organizational structure with regards to the international dimension.

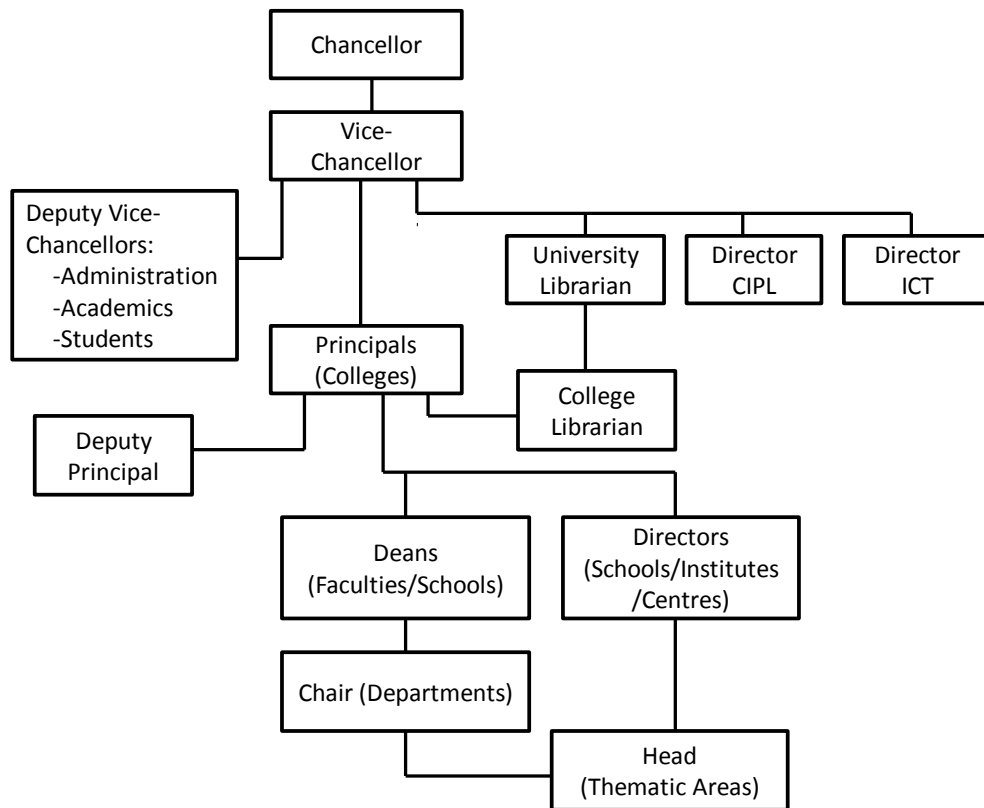
The University of Nairobi, like other large institutions of higher education in the continent of Africa, is a complex organization. It is not possible to delineate all its constituent organizational units in detail in a single organizational chart. Figure 4.1 provides an organizational structure of the University of Nairobi, focusing on administrative and academic structure of the institution, particularly those units that have a significant role to play in the internationalization process. This chart is particularly useful because it provides an insight into how power is distributed campus wide with regards to the international dimension. The University of Nairobi is headed by a Chancellor, whose responsibilities include conferring of degrees and granting of diplomas. The Chancellor also directs inspection into University operations and advises

the University Council whenever necessary. The University Council is the body responsible for the administration of the University. It is the supreme policy-making body, which, among other things, provides for the welfare of students and after consultation with the Senate, makes regulations governing the conduct and discipline of the students of the University (UoN, 2011).

The **central administration** houses the office of the Vice-Chancellor. The VC is the academic and administrative head of the University and is responsible to the University Council for maintaining and promoting the academic image, efficiency, and order at all levels of university governance. The Vice-Chancellor also serves as the Chair of the Senate, the supreme academic body of the University responsible for considering and recommending regulations regarding admissions, curriculum, examinations, discipline and welfare of students. In addition, the Vice-Chancellor chairs the University Management Board, the entity responsible for the co-ordination of University and College development plans, the efficient management of University resources, both human and material, and making proposals to the Council and the Senate on policies that have a university-wide application. The Vice-Chancellor is assisted by three deputies. The Deputy Vice-Chancellor for Administration and Finance is the head of the administration and finance divisions of the university, whose functions include management of personnel matters, finance and assets. The Deputy Vice-Chancellor for Academic Affairs is the head of the academic division, whose functions include preparation of syllabus and regulations, co-ordination of examinations, postgraduate studies, research, admissions, and academic staff training. The Deputy Vice-Chancellor for Student Affairs is the head of the student affairs of the university, which is

responsible for the provision of services to students including academic and social counseling, career, work study programs and sports, accommodation, catering, recreation, community service, health, security and other student affairs (Sifuna, 1998; UoN Handbook 2008; University of Nairobi, 2011; Personal Interview # 1A,⁸ 2010, Transcript).

Figure 4.1 The University of Nairobi Organizational Structure



⁸ To facilitate ease of categorization of responses, interview numbers for administrators end with the letter “A” while for faculty end with later “F.” Research participants’ names have been withheld in this study (#s are used instead).

The **academic Structure** at UoN is made up of colleges, faculties, and schools. Structurally, the academic programs of the university are organized under six colleges namely, College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences (CAVS), College of Architecture and Engineering (CAE), College of Biological and Physical Sciences (CBPS), College of Education and External Studies (CEES), College of Health Sciences (CHS), and College of Humanities and Social Sciences (CHSS). Each college has a Principal who serves as the academic and administrative head of the college and is responsible for maintaining and promoting efficient management of the college. Some colleges also have a deputy principal to assist the principal in the management of the college. Previously, colleges were organized into faculties, each faculty comprised of several academic departments. In a recent college-wide reorganization, some colleges retained the use of the name faculty, while others adopted the term school. Therefore, a college may currently be organized into faculties, schools, institutes, and/or centers (see Appendix C for details). Each faculty is headed by a dean. Each large school, that is, one comprised of departments, is also headed by a dean. A single unit school, that is one without departments, is headed by a director. Whereas a dean, whether of a faculty or school, is elected by his/her peers, a director of a school is appointed by the Vice-Chancellor. Each academic department within a faculty or school is headed by a chair who is appointed by the Vice-Chancellor of the University. There are academic thematic areas within single unit schools and within departments. Each thematic area is led by a head appointed by the principal of the college (UoN, 2011).

There are **other organizational academic units** at the University of Nairobi whose responsibilities extend beyond individual colleges and that play a significant role

in the internationalization process. These include the University Library, the University Information and Communications Technology Centre (ICT), and the Centre for International Programmes and Links (CIPL). The mission of the university library is to provide quality information services that empower the university community in carrying out its core activities of teaching, research, and service. The library is open to both local and international scholars and students affiliated with the university. The University Information and Communications Technology Centre is yet another important academic support unit with regards to enhancing the international dimension. The mission is to develop, deploy and support innovative, quality and sustainable ICT solutions and services that meet the changing learning, teaching, research, and management needs of the University locally and beyond the borders of Kenya.

The largest organizational unit directly responsible for promoting the international dimension at UoN is the **Centre for International Programmes and Links** created in 2002 and charged with the responsibility of promoting the international dimension of the university (UoN, 2011). The CIPL started on an interim basis in 1995 as the Office of International Programmes (OIP) responsible for “handling/harmonizing/coordinating University of Nairobi external linkages with other international organizations and institutions in Africa, Europe, North America, and Asia” (University of Nairobi, 2011). In November 2001, the University Council sanctioned the establishment of the Centre for International Programmes and Links (CIPL) followed by senate approval in November 2002. The CIPL administrative structure consists of a Director and a Board of Management. The board is composed of representatives from the Kenya Ministry of Education, each of the six colleges affiliated with the University of Nairobi, UoN Senate,

and University administration. The director, who is appointed by the Vice-Chancellor, serves as the Chairman of the Board of Management and manages the day-to-day activities of the center (UoN, 2011).

Since its creation in 2002, the CIPL office has become “the focal point for internationalization of the university charged with the responsibility to initiate, promote, facilitate, and coordinate quality international programs and links in collaboration with other universities and institutions with similar interest” around the world (Personal Interview # 1A, 2010, Transcript). The center also manages the negotiation and signing of memorandum of agreements between the university and other institutions locally and abroad. Some activities and services CIPL offers include international student recruitment and retention, developing and executing study abroad programs, transfer and exchange student programs, visiting scholar and research fellow programs, developing short, market-driven international courses, and coordinating international linkages. In addition, the CIPL also serves as a facilitator for internationalization in supporting, initiating, marketing, promoting and coordinating activities pertaining to international programmes and links by working with other departments and offices across the university (University of Nairobi, 2011).

4.3 Links and Collaborations at the University of Nairobi

As already noted, the University of Nairobi has a long history of engaging in international activity. UoN faculty have always engaged in international research, teaching and community outreach in countries beyond the borders of Kenya and the East African region (Ajayi, Goma & Johnson, 1996; Eshiwani, 1993; Sifuna, 1998; Some &

Khaemba; 2002; Personal Interview #3F, 2010, Transcript). UoN's colleges and departments welcome visitors from other parts of the world seeking various kinds of partnerships. Such partnerships normally take the form of signed agreements that serve as legally binding documents detailing the terms and conditions of partnership, including funding opportunities, duration, general objectives, and type of activities. Examples of common activities include student / faculty exchange, joint research projects, and equipment / technology transfer, among other activities. This section focuses on the types of links that exist at the University of Nairobi, how they are formed, and the various stakeholders in the formation and implementation process. International links and collaborations, as used in this study, refer to both formal and informal long and short term partnerships between the University of Nairobi and other institutions of higher education, agencies, and organizations within and outside the borders of Kenya for the purposes of providing a platform for exchange of ideas in research and teaching, exchange of materials and equipment, or development of technical assistance, among other partnership activities.

The University of Nairobi partnerships by continent are presented in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2. The data show that 66 percent of the partnerships are with European and North American countries suggesting that the University of Nairobi prefers to partner with more developed countries.⁹ This may be because such partnerships provide funds and access to more advanced facilities for research. Support for this inference comes

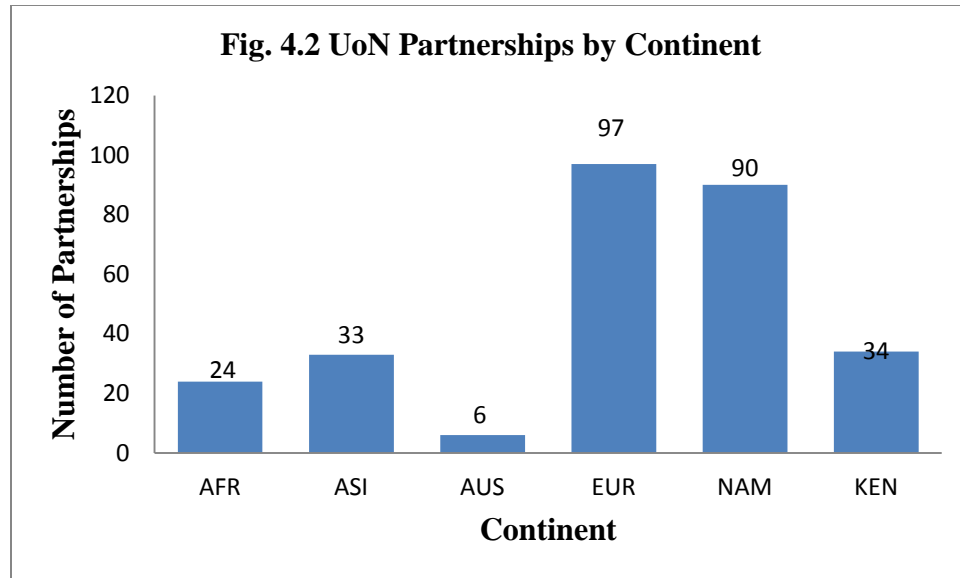
⁹ Of the 321 partnerships established between 1979 and 2010, the country/continent of the partner institution was not specified for 37 agreements. Data for the remaining 284 partnerships are provided in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2. The primary focus of this work is internationalization but it was deemed necessary to include agreements with local institutions so as to get a complete picture about partnerships at the University of Nairobi. However, in order not to lose the international focus of this study, local partnerships have been separated from those involving other institutions in the African continent in this analysis.

from the observation that a large number of activities involved in these partnerships have a research component (see program activities section of this chapter). The disproportionate number of partnerships with developed countries may also indicate that these countries are more able to provide direct support in form of aid whether for infrastructure development, faculty development, or student support. Another possible reason for these partnerships is that faculty, staff and students from the developed countries are more able to afford to travel to Kenya to access some of the unique educational and research opportunities available in Kenya such as research in tropical diseases like malaria, herbal medicine, among others (UoN, 2011).

Table 4.1 UoN Partnerships by Continent

Continent	Abbreviation	Partnerships	Percentage
Africa	AFR	24	8
Asia	ASI	33	12
Australia	AUS	6	2
Europe	EUR	97	34
North America	NAM	90	32
Local (Kenya)*	KEN	34	12
TOTAL		284	100

*KEN not a continent. See footnote #9 for inclusion.



*KEN not a continent. See footnote #9 for inclusion.

4.3.1 How Links are Formed at the University of Nairobi

Two categories of links exist at the University of Nairobi: formal and informal. **Formal links** can be formed in two ways: top-down and bottom-up. In the top-down approach the links are initiated by the central administration mainly targeting donor organizations and institutions of higher education within and outside Kenya. Links falling in this category are mainly for the purposes of capacity building and project funding for university level operations. These links normally follow the channels set forth by the university governance structure and must receive authorization from the vice-chancellor’s office before implementation. In the bottom-up approach to formal link formation, the key players in internationalization process can be found at the departmental, school, faculties, or other academic unit levels. These sites serve as avenues for sourcing research funding for the institution through collaborative research funding initiatives and student/staff exchange programs, among other international

activity efforts. Some link partners also prefer dealing directly with specific colleges or academic units with similar interests, which then “work their way upwards toward the Centre for International Programs and Links (CIPL) and the academic divisions to inform them of their activities” (Personal Interview #18A, 2010, Transcript).

The other category of links at UoN can be categorized as **informal links**. These links are normally spearheaded by individual actors from various academic units seeking research and professional development opportunities beyond the borders of Kenya. As a top ranking research university within the continent of Africa, UoN has always required its faculty to engage in active collaborations outside the university in their research, teaching, and service roles. This expectation has resulted in the expansion of the international dimension through faculty involvement. As a former VC at the institution pointed out, “we expect that members of staff in a given department will have some connections with a colleague at another university. That is normally the beginning. What happens is that they can then, for example, have exchange of staff or they can also have links in terms of research or even publications” (Personal Interview #3A, 2010, Transcript; Some & Khaemba; 2002).

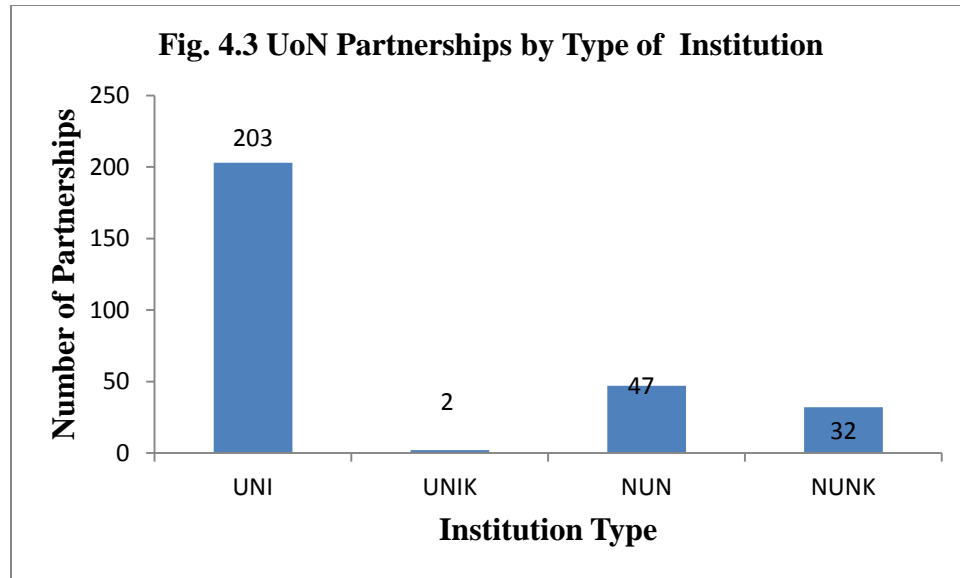
The main distinction between formal and informal links at UoN is that while formal links must receive appropriate authorization from the university administration through the Centre for International Programs and Links (CIPL), informal links emerge purely as informal, ad hoc collaborative research and scholarly activities by UoN faculty with individuals outside the university. Even though such initiatives are normally formalized at some point and are recognized as sources of funding and capacity building for the entire university, they typically begin as faculty driven initiatives. Some of these

links and collaborations may be short-term and may sometimes take ad hoc nature with no formal agreement. However, in cases where there is continued interest and institutional level commitment, some of these personal links may mature into full blown international partnership through the Centre for International Programmes and Links and the central administration (Qiang, 2003; Neave, 1992; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some 2008). Data show that the bulk of the links and partnerships signed between 1979 and 2010 at the University of Nairobi (72 percent) are with universities while 28 percent are with non-university entities including local and foreign organizations and industry. This trend is not unusual since most linkages originate from interactions between faculty sharing common research interests or from faculty/student exchange programs (UoN 2011; See Table 4.2, Figure 4.3¹⁰).

Table 4.2 UoN Partnerships by Type of Institution

Type	Abbreviation	Partnerships	Percentage
Universities (outside Kenya)	UNI	203	71
University (in Kenya)	UNIK	2	1
Non-University (outside Kenya)	NUN	47	17
Non-University (in Kenya)	NUNK	32	11
TOTAL		284	100

¹⁰ Because of the necessity of identifying local partnerships, the 37 agreements for which the country was not specified are not included in this analysis. Data for the remaining 284 partnerships established between 1979 and 2010 are provided in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.3.



4.3.2 Unit Level Participation and Responsibilities

The University of Nairobi expects various academic units, such as departments, faculties, or schools (refer to Appendix C for a detailed presentation of UoN academic structure) to play an active role in the administrative and programmatic components of the links. For example, it is at the unit level that the internal procedures regarding the implementation of signed agreements take place. Whether it is inviting scholars and students on campus or applying for a joint research grant, for example, the efforts of deans, directors, departmental chairs, and faculty members working together to achieve a common goal is of paramount importance (Personal Interview #1A, 2010, Transcript). As already noted, the academic programs of the University of Nairobi are organized under six colleges namely, College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences (CAVS), College of Architecture and Engineering (CAE), College of Biological and Physical Sciences (CBPS), College of Education and External Studies (CEES), College of Health Sciences (CHS), and College of Humanities and Social Sciences (CHSS). Each college

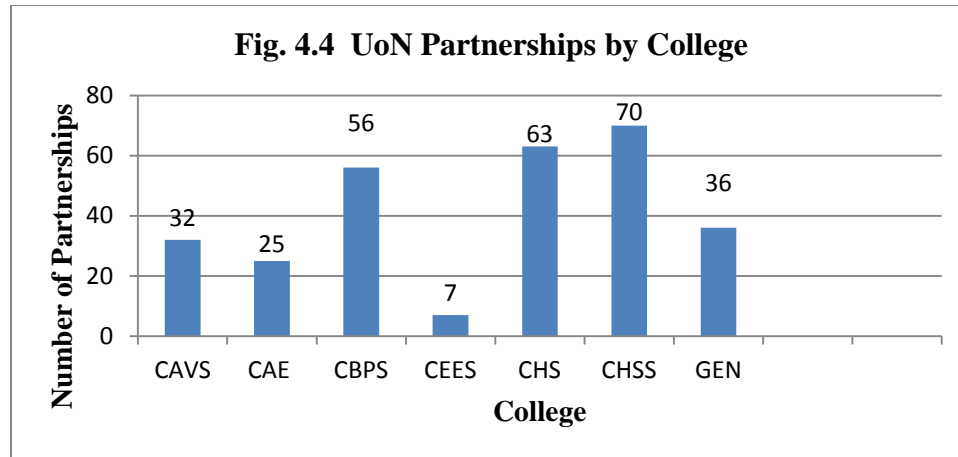
is comprised of faculties, schools, institutes, centers, and/or departments. Because of the large number of these units, it is more practical to explore the originating unit dimension of partnerships by college in order to understand unit level participation in international activity. According to the current UoN links and document provided by the Centre for Programs and Links, of the 321¹¹ partnerships established between 1979 and 2010, the College of Humanities and Social Sciences (CHSS) has the most partnerships at 70 (24%). This is not surprising because the college houses such units as the Institute for Diplomacy and International Relations and Institute for Development Studies which are known to be exchange faculty/student magnets on campus. The College of Health Sciences (CHS) follows CHSS closely at 63 partnership representing 22% of the total links and collaborations. Again, this trend is not surprising since CHS houses the Centre for HIV prevention research, the Institute for Tropical and Infectious diseases, among other units that offer unique opportunities for research collaborations beyond Kenyan borders. The College of Biological and Physical Sciences is also a heavy research area and constitutes 19 percent of the partnerships (a total of 56). It was somewhat surprising that the College of Education and External Studies (CEES) has only 7 partnerships constituting only 2 percent of the partnerships. With the world-wide demand for teachers and the technological advances that UoN now enjoys, one would have expected more collaborations for this college, especially since it houses the Centre for Open and Distance Learning (CODL) and the School for Continuing and Distance Education (SCDE) (University of Nairobi; 2011; See Table. 4.3 and Figure 4.4 for details).

¹¹Of the 321 partnerships established between 1979 and 2010, the originating unit, and hence the originating college, was not specified for 32 agreements. Data for the remaining 289 partnerships are provided in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.4. Some agreements were set in broad terms that allow participation by any college. Such partnerships have been put under the “general” category.

Table 4.3 UoN Partnerships by College

College	Abbreviation	Partnerships	Percentage
College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences	CAVS	32	11
College of Architecture and Engineering	CAE	25	9
College of Biological and Physical Sciences	CBPS	56	19
College of Education and External Studies	CEES	7	2
College of Health Sciences	CHS	63	22
College of Humanities and Social Sciences	CHSS	70	24
General*	GEN*	36	13
TOTAL		289	100

*Not a college. See footnote #11 for explanation.



*Not a college. See footnote #11 for explanation.

4.4 Approaches and Strategies Towards Internationalization

Institutions of higher education (IHEs) world over adopt different approaches and strategies towards internationalizing their campuses depending on their histories, national priorities and motivations for participation. Whereas a general consensus exists that approaches to internationalization should be an ongoing, collaborative, interdisciplinary, and multidimensional undertaking with various stakeholders (Harari, 1992; ACE 1995; Ellingboe (1998; Siaya & Hayward, 2003; Qiang, 2003; Knight, 2004), there tends to be competing views on how institutions of higher learning should proceed with the internationalization agenda on campus. On the one hand, some scholars have mainly focused on internal, institutional level approaches towards internationalizing the campus (Arum & van de Water 1992; Ellingboe; 1998; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998). Others have recognized regional differences and historical forces at play in the work towards internationalization (Knight & de Wit, 1995; 1997; Altbach, 2004; Knight, 2004; Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004; Jowi, Kiamba & Some, 2008) calling for a more contextualized approach towards understanding institutional level choices and decisions

to participate in international activity. An understanding of the modern African university as a post-colonial university is necessary in order to fully appreciate the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation in international activity as the University of Nairobi seeks to find her place in the global community of higher education providers. This section provides an in-depth look at the approaches and strategies for internationalization at UoN.

As already established in the preceding sections, institutional level approaches and strategies towards internationalization in Kenyan public institutions of higher education have normally reflected national goals for internationalization. However, the dual role of loyalty to the idea of nationhood, thereby responding to the needs of an emerging post-colonial state, on the one hand, and the idea of furthering knowledge on a competitive global stage, on the other hand, further complicates the approaches and strategies adopted towards implementing international activity. Whereas the grand national goals for internationalization may guide these universities in the incorporation of the international dimension in their teaching, research, and service functions, the realities of day-to-day today running of these institutions leave little room for national imperatives for internationalization at institutional level. When it comes to issues surrounding financing, planning and implementing international activity initiatives at institutional level, most of these institutions are left to their own devices—giving them immense power to chart their own course with regards to engaging in international activity. Kenyan IHEs, like other institutions and organizations world over, find themselves at the crossroads of institutional level choices and national imperatives (Scott 2008; Lawrence, Suddaby, & Leca, 2009).

4.4.1 National Imperatives, Institutional Level Choices

Whereas the presence of institutional level leadership in successful implementation of international activity is of paramount importance (Olson & Green, 2008; Welch, Yang, Wolhuter, 2004; Ellingboe, 1998; Knight 2004; Knight & de Wit, 1995.), to assume that participation in international activity is organizationally driven through institutional level policies and procedural apparatus created to move faculty (staff and students) in a particular direction may blur the complex structures that constitute the world of higher education. For example, researchers have noted that organizational priorities may at times conflict with faculty priorities in institutional level decisions to participate in international activity. Trondall (2010) noted that in as much as “most universities increasingly formulate strategies for internationalization, the research behaviors of faculty members seem weakly associated with such strategies” (p.1)—a shift that can be attributed to the changing environments institutions of higher education operate in (Stromquist, 2007). Moreover, organizations may not necessarily create a supportive environment to encourage participation in international activity (Siaya & Hayward, 2003). While it is arguably true that most institutions of higher learning explicitly communicate college-wide priorities and strategic commitment in implementing the internationalization initiative, others remain vague and non-committal in supporting international activity (Siaya & Hayward, 2003; Olson & Green, 2006; Kiamba, & Some, 2008). Qiang (2003) observed that approaches and strategies adopted by institutions of higher education vary depending on the context. Whereas some institutions “tend to develop more precise explicit procedures [for internationalization] in an ordered systemic manner,” others adopt “sporadic, irregular, often knee-jerk way,

with lots of loose ends in terms of procedure and structure” (p. 259). In the developing world, competing priorities and institutional level constraints make it extremely difficult to have a clear internationalization action plan (Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2004; Woodhall 2003; 2004; Welch, Yang, Wolhuter, 2004; Sawyerr, 2004; Jowi, Kiamba & Some; 2008; IAU, 2009).

4.4.2 Internationalization Approaches at the University of Nairobi

As already noted, institutions of higher education adopt different approaches and strategies to engage in international activity (Harari, 1992; ACE 1995; Ellingboe (1998); Siaya & Hayward, 2003; Qiang, 2003; Knight, 2004). For the purposes of this study, the term approach toward internationalization in a post-colonial African university environment refers to the “the values, priorities, and actions that are exhibited during the work toward implementing internationalization” (Knight, 2004, p. 18). Both institutional and national level approaches towards participation in international activities are examined. The term “strategy” denotes “both program and organizational initiatives at the institutional level” that the University of Nairobi has put in place to promote participation in international activity (Knight, 2004; p. 13). To further clarify these categories, program strategies represents “those academic activities and services of a university / college which integrate an international dimension into the main functions of a higher education institution” (Knight & de Wit, 1995, p.17) including, but not limited to research related activities, education related activities, technical and educational cooperation, extra-curricular and institutional services (Harari 1992; de Wit & Knight, 1995; Knight, 2004). Organizational strategies are “those initiatives which help to ensure

that an international dimension is institutionalized through developing the appropriate policies and administrative systems” to support internationalization at UoN (Knight, 2004, p. 17). For example, expressed commitment and support by central administration, adequate funding and support, policy framework, incentives and rewards for faculty and staff, existence of communication channels, planning, budgeting and review processes at institutional level are all indicators of institutional level commitment to internationalization (Siaya & Hayward, 2003; Olson & Green, 2006; Ellingboe, 1998).

4.4.2 1 National or Sector Level Approaches

The national or sector level approaches to internationalization provide a context in which institutional level participation in international activity is carried out at the University of Nairobi, albeit with institutional level variations due to the changing and often complex environments in which the modern African university finds herself. (Samoff & Carroll, 2003; Sawyerr, 2004; Ngome, 2003; Stromquist, 2007; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Eshiwani 1993). The Kenyan government through the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MOEST) and the Kenyan Ministry of Foreign affairs, sets the tone in terms of policy and legal framework for internationalization of Kenyan institutions of higher education. The national policies for internationalization fall under three broad categories: Strategic approaches, capacity building and revenue generation approaches, and international profile approaches. Strategically, the government of Kenya (GoK) has looked for ways of maintaining local and regional alliances within the East African region and the continent of Africa. Additionally, following the tough economic times that resulted from the implementation of the

structural adjustment programs, the Kenya government has sought avenues for programs that target external sources of funding for financing the education and other sectors of the Kenyan economy. National approaches targeting bilateral and multilateral corporations with the aim of expanding the gross domestic product has long been a national priority (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; World Bank 2010; MOEST, 2010, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2010). The third national approach revolves around issues pertaining to image building and name recognition. The government of Kenya takes pride in selling the Kenya brand abroad as the destination of choice, be it in tourism, educational linkages and partnerships, or trade, among other forms international collaborations (Knight, 2004, Khaemba & Some, 2004; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008).

4.4.2.2 Institutional Level Approaches

Various approaches and programmatic strategies towards participation in international activity exist at the University of Nairobi. Some approaches deal specifically with institutional level activities, such as faculty and student exchange, research collaborations, study abroad programs, joint-doctoral degree programs, and market-driven course offering targeting both local and international students. Other approaches are outcome driven with regards to the kind of graduates produced at UoN. Data show a general recognition of the importance of producing graduates who can compete in an increasingly changing global work environment. As such, UoN encourages students to take advantage of foreign languages offered on campus with various institutes including the German, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and French. Rationale driven approaches at UoN target the motivating factors behind participation

[the focus of the next chapter]. A shared belief among UoN faculty and administrators is that the institution stands to gain from engaging with partners beyond the border of Kenya in the areas of research, teaching and service. To this end UoN has adopted both **local** and **cross-border** internationalization approaches (discussed under program activities below) (Personal Interview #1A, 2010, Transcript). Even though broad national goals have provided Kenyan Public Universities with a framework for internationalization, national imperatives may not necessarily translate into institutional level imperatives.

4.5 Strategies for Internationalization at the University of Nairobi

An examination of institutional level strategies guiding choices and action for internationalization is presented in this section. As already discussed in the preceding sections, the University of Nairobi is an emerging modern African IHE with competing priorities and limited organizational infrastructure to support participation in international activity. As such, internationalization may sometimes take a back seat in the face of other pressing needs. As a matter of fact, lack of institutional level commitment is not a problem that only IHEs in the developing world face. According to the International Association of Universities (IAU) 2009 survey, competing priorities is one of the major threats IHEs face with regards to internationalization. The survey also revealed that some institutions do not have internationalization embedded in their mission statements. For example, UoN does not explicitly mention internationalization in her mission statement. However, internationalization is mentioned in the 2008-2013 strategic plan document as a priority with a goal of increasing regional and international cooperation. Despite

internationalization being a priority in the strategic plan, no guidelines exist at the institutional level to measure progress or desired outcomes expected from participation in international activity. Moreover, participants cited lack of funding and prioritization on the part of the institution. This phenomenon is not unique to this particular institution, as other IHEs in other parts of the world cite similar challenges (Mohamedbhai 2009; Qiang 2003; Olson & Green, 2006; IAU 2009; Personal Interview #4F, 2010, Transcript). Institutional level program strategies at UoN have been grouped into two broad categories in this analysis: At-Home and Cross-Border strategies.

4.5.1 At-Home Internationalization Strategies

The University of Nairobi offers its faculty and students opportunities to participate in international activities without necessarily leaving home, sometimes referred to as “**at-home**” internationalization activity efforts (Knight, 2004; see table 4.4). For example, the University of Nairobi through the CIPL has “organized international student days, bringing together students from the East, Central and Southern African Region, with others from the far East, Europe, and the Americas” (Varsity Focus, March 2010, p. 46). According to a senior administrator in the office of Student Affairs, such forums “provide our students with the necessary networking that they need to function in a global economy” (Personal Interview #16A, 2010, Transcript). A faculty member in the social sciences observed the proliferations of foreign institutes at the university whose main goal is to promote the teaching of foreign languages: “we now have programs from other countries on our campus. The Confucius Institute, where they teach Confucianism ...in the department of linguistics and literature, we have a German

institute, the Chinese Institute and the Korean Institute” (Personal Interview #2, 2010, Transcript). The presence of these institutes on campus has made student/staff mobility between UoN and other foreign institution easier. Table 4.4 offers a summary of home-based international activity initiatives at the University of Nairobi.

Table 4.4 At-Home International Activity Efforts at UoN

Curriculum and Programs	Development of market driven programs targeting local and foreign students.
Teaching / Learning Process	Teaching foreign languages in liaison with campus based Chinese, Korean, German, and Japanese institutes.
Extracurricular Activities	Campus based events (e.g. international day, hosting international students and scholars, etc).
Liaison with Local Cultural / Ethnic Groups	Community engagements through educational travel to cultural destinations (e.g. Bomas of Kenya, Maasai villages, Kenya museum and parks, Kenya hot springs, among others).
Research and Scholarly Activity	Research collaborations with locally / internationally based researchers and organizations.

Adapted from Knight 2006b

4.5 1 Cross-Border Internationalization Strategies

The university of Nairobi, like her other African counter parts, has demonstrated a steady interest in **cross-border** international education strategies (see Table 4.5). Cross-border education as used here refers to “internationalization abroad” and includes various programmatic strategies like linkages, partnerships, inter-university networks and collaborations, international research projects and development assistance, distance learning, among others (Knight, 2004, p. 17).

Table 4.5 Cross-Border International Activity Efforts at UoN

Academic Programs	Student exchange, foreign language teaching, work / study abroad, visiting scholars, joint degree programs, etc.
Research and Scholarly Collaborations	Joint research/teaching projects, International conferences /seminars, joint publications, etc.
Training and Capacity Building	Joint supervision of doctoral students, internships, and scholarships opportunities
Information Technology Exchange / Distance Learning	Equipment exchange / upgrade /training

Adapted from Knight 2004

Data from the University of Nairobi links and partnerships document reveal that research is by far the most common type of international activity in the partnerships established at the University of Nairobi between 1979 and 2010. To further illustrate

cross-border international activity efforts at UoN, activities were placed in the eight categories listed in Table 4.6 and depicted in Figure 4.5 so as to understand participation by the type of activity engaged in. While some activities had single objectives and could thus be placed in a category for that one type of activity (e.g. capacity building, research, or staff/student exchange), others had multiple objectives and were, therefore, placed in categories that reflect this multiple function. Capacity building as used in this analysis refers to those activities designed to increase the ability of the University of Nairobi to improve its infrastructure or provide a particular service. Research denotes the exchange of both academic and technical ideas between faculty in IHEs within Africa and other parts of the world. The staff/student exchange category involves the exchange of either staff, students, or both between IHEs. Student scholarships/training are agreements whose primary aim is to provide scholarships to students or to offer training to students in a specified area.

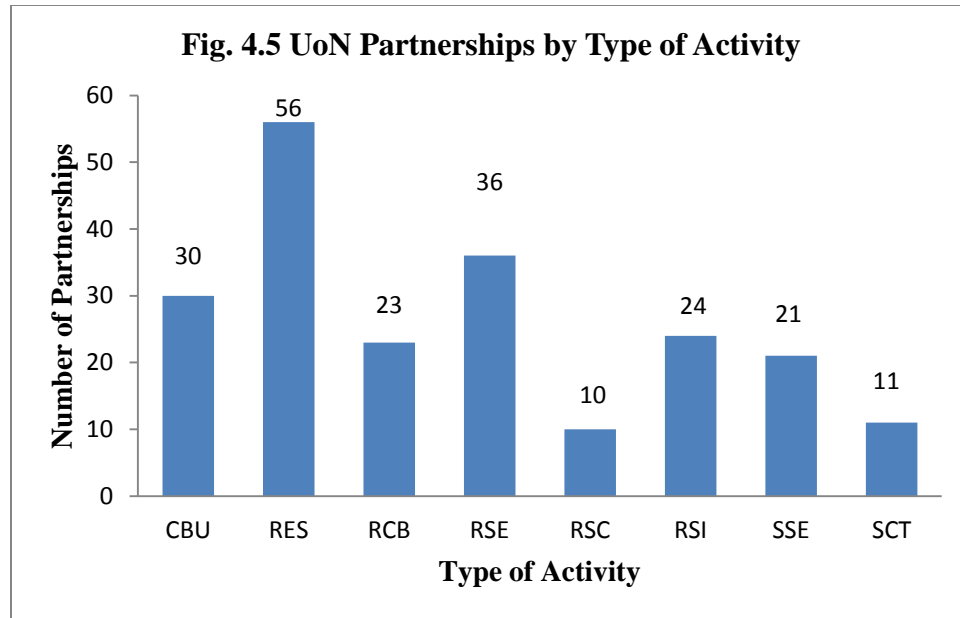
The data show that purely research activities comprise 27 percent of the 211¹² partnerships for which the general objectives were specified. However, research is a component of an additional 44% of agreements. Thus, 71% of the agreements have some research objective, making research by far the most common type of activity in the partnerships—a fact supported by all the twenty research participants in this investigation. Staff/student exchange is second, being wholly or partially a component of

¹² Of the 321 partnerships established between 1979 and 2010, the general objective (type of activity) was not specified for 110 agreements (34%). While this percentage is rather large, the data for the remaining 211 partnerships (66%) is still sufficient in providing insight into relative number of the different types of activities involved in the University of Nairobi partnerships.

43% of the agreements. Capacity building is wholly or partially a component of 29% of the agreements and is a distant third (UoN, 2010).

Table 4.6 UoN Partnerships by Type of Activity

Type of Activity	Abbreviation	Partnerships	Percentage
Capacity building	CBU	30	14
Research	RES	56	27
Research and capacity building	RCB	23	11
Research and staff/student exchange	RSE	36	17
Research, staff/student exchange and capacity building	RSC	10	5
Research, staff/ student exchange and information exchange	RSI	24	11
Staff/student exchange	SSE	21	10
Student scholarships/training	SCT	11	5
TOTAL		211	100



4.6 Summary

In this chapter, I have presented a campus portrait of institutional level choices and actions surrounding engagement in international activity at the University of Nairobi. It is evident from this portrait that participation in international activity is valued and understood to be a collaborative effort including various stakeholders from within the institution, the nation, and the international community. The portrait presented here is critical in our understanding of the forces influencing participation in international activity, as the University of Nairobi seeks to find her place in the global community of higher educational providers in the years following political independence. It is clear that since her humble beginnings as a Kenyan national public university in 1970, UoN has experienced significant changes as an emerging higher education provider in the East and Central African region. These changes include increased competition from private institutions of higher education, dwindling resources to cope with physical and personnel expansion, infrastructural challenges in the wake of World Bank imposed structural

adjustment programs, and general growing pains of an emerging post-colonial African institution of higher education (Bogonko 1992; Eshiwani 1993; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Samoff & Carroll, 2003; Ngome 2003; Sawyerr, 2004; Stromquist 2007). Given these structural challenges and limitations, we find that while national imperatives and external forces may have some influence on what goes on at the University of Nairobi as a national public university, institutional level choices driving engaging in international activity is a complex phenomenon that has put UoN in a unique position to renegotiate her peripheral position. Although data suggest an institution entering the internationalization realm with enormous challenges resulting from her colonial beginnings, institutional level response to internationalization points at institutional [infra]structural¹³ limitations and opportunities that UoN has been able to exploit in charting her own course as a flagship university in the East and Central Africa regions.

¹³ Institutional infrastructure denotes regulatory agencies that the University of Nairobi is subjected to including, but not limited to the Kenyan government, lending agencies like World Bank, IMF, link partners, among others.

CHAPTER FIVE
TURNING POINTS WITH REGARDS TO THE INTERNATIONAL DIMENSION
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

5.1 Introduction

As already noted in the preceding chapters, the University of Nairobi is entering the international dimension amidst tough institutional level choices, given her colonial genesis as a university college linked to the University of London and later as a stand-alone national public university in the Republic of Kenya. Even though UoN now finds herself in a unique position to renegotiate her peripheral position as an emergent institution of higher education in the continent of Africa, this study reveals that the road to cultivating an independent interdependent relationship with the developed world has not been an easy one. This chapter presents a brief historical sketch of the key changes that have taken place at the University of Nairobi since her inception as a post-colonial African national public university. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section focuses on the genesis of international engagement at the University of Nairobi characterized by overseas training of the professoriate and the beginning of national and international interest in Kenyan higher education leading to the creation of UoN as the first national public institution of higher education in independent Kenya. The second section focuses on (1) the move by the Kenya government to sever colonial ties by delinking UoN from the University of London and (2) the contradictory impulses generated by the local push to internationalize the African university in the face of heavy reliance on foreign assistance for institutional level development. The third section examines the uneasy transitions in the face of increased international presence

characterized by the mushrooming of bilateral/multilateral partnerships and World Bank's imposed Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) policies, which left the majority of African IHEs seeking new ways of survival in the face of harsh economic and political down turn in most African nations. The fourth section focuses on trends and shifts in international engagement at the University of Nairobi as an emergent African institution of higher education in the post-colonial era.

5.2 Colonial Origins of International Engagement at the University of Nairobi

As already established in Chapters Four, the University of Nairobi has had a long history with international engagement. From UoN's beginnings as colonial national university to its transition into an outstanding stand-alone university within Kenya and the East African region, institutional level engagement in international activity has always been outward looking as depicted in the **colonial academic programs** adopted at UoN. This study reveals that the colonial ties ensured that an international dimension to programs at the University of Nairobi from its inception (UoN 2011; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Ashby, 1964). Indeed, at independence, UoN was using the curriculum and awarding degrees of the University of London. Even with the establishment of university colleges in the East African region which could offer their own degree programs, there were institutional level constraints and restrictions as to which professional degree programs could be offered at each of the three University Colleges in East Africa. Medicine, law and Engineering were offered at Makerere (Uganda), Dar es Salaam (Tanzania) and Nairobi (Kenya), respectively. This arrangement amounted to each university college having an international student presence, even if in the absence of

formal student exchange programs. The faculty and staff were mainly foreign with European values and academic orientations, which influenced the management and general governance of the University of Nairobi. As for general maintenance and institutional level operations, funds were externally sourced with various external church and philanthropic organizations, foreign governments, and well wishers chipping in (Ashby, 1964; Eshiwani, 1993; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996).

5.3 Kenyanization Efforts Post Independence

The founding of the University of Nairobi marked a significant historical epoch in Kenya's higher educational landscape. This period saw heightened optimism, especially with regards to the role of a national university in the newly independent states of Africa (Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson; Samoff & Carroll 2003; Sawyerr, 2004; Ngome, 2003). Like her other African counterparts at independence, the Kenyan community viewed education as the pathway to prosperity and nationhood. This period witnessed the beginning of major transitions at the University of Nairobi. It is during this time that UoN achieved a University College status under the recommendations of the Vice Chancellor of the University of London, Sir John Lockwood —becoming the second University College in East Africa in 1961. This new status provided UoN the mandate to offer degrees (targeting the East African region) awarded by the University of London. The dissolution of the East African Community led to the creation of the University of Nairobi in 1970 as a stand-alone public institution of higher education and a leading destination for students and staff from the rest of Africa and other world regions. This newly found status carved UoN an enviable spot in the Kenyan higher educational landscape. The hope of a nation

rested with the establishment of the University of Nairobi as Kenya's first institution of higher education. The memories of a ruthless colonial regime were still fresh in the memories of a young nation. UoN became a national symbol of freedom from colonial rule (Eshiwani, 1993; Mamdani, 2011), as a senior faculty and a former Vice Chancellor at UoN reflects, "when we became the University of Nairobi, an act of parliament gave us the freedom to choose what it is that we wanted to do" (Personal Interview #3A, 2010, Transcript).

On the internationalization realm, traditional forms of collaboration existed characterized by increased training of students and faculty in foreign institutions. While the United Kingdom became the natural choice for Kenya's involvement with Europe, the United States of America also began making headways into Africa.. The air lifts to the U.S. in 1959 popularized by Tom Mboya, a Kenyan politician and trade unionist, with the support of the U.S government saw the arrival of 81 Kenyan students on American soil. Moreover, the increased support of Kenyan students in Europe by the former colonizers in order to prepare an elite that would take leadership at independence sowed the seeds of colonial contact with the developed world (Sammoff & Carroll, 2002; Ajayi et al., 1996; Ogot & Ochieng, 1995; Bogonko, 1992; Achebe, 1989). With this promise of a new beginning began institutional level efforts to Africanize the African university. UoN joined her other African counterparts in reevaluating the leadership and curriculum to reflect the needs of an emerging post-colonial national university. In the words of a former Vice Chancellor now a faculty member at UoN, "the university was kind of responding to the political tune at the time" (Personal Interview #3F, 2010, Transcript).

5.3.1 Expansion of Academic Programs and Curriculum

The first notable change after the establishment of University of Nairobi as a full-fledged university with its own charter in 1970 was the expansion of faculties or schools, departments, courses, and new programs. Programmatic changes were, naturally, accompanied by curriculum changes, the major one being the transition from the University of London curriculum to an independent University of Nairobi curriculum (Eshiwani, 1993; Ochieng & Ogot, 1995). For example, in earlier days emphasis was on American and European history and literature. This was followed by a period of emphasis of African history and literature. Curricula in these fields now show more of a balance between the local and the West, in part because many of the lecturers were trained in the West and have, therefore, been impacted by western cultures and traditions. The ongoing curriculum and programmatic changes have also been reflected in some name changes. For example, the University of Nairobi's Department of English Literature was renamed The Department of Literature since the former was perceived as colonial idea, which implied the teaching of literature of England only. The latter name, on the other hand, was more inclusive denoting that any literature that has been translated into English could be taught at UoN, as a long term history professor now in administration at UoN notes, "the Literature Department was not just about Shakespeare and the rest of them, it also introduced, for example, African Literature, Caribbean Literature, Russian Literature, Chinese Literature, etcetera." Another example of curriculum transformation is the political science program that has also undergone name changes from "political science", to "government", and then "political science and international relations" to reflect a dynamic program that responds to changing times in the development of Kenya as a post-

colonial sovereign state (UoN, 2011). The post independence years also saw an increase in the number and diversity of programs offered by the University of Nairobi and the concomitant curriculum changes brought about more flexibility and opportunities for collaborations with the global community in terms of capacity building (staff training and infrastructure), student and faculty exchange programs, and research collaboration. Refer to Chapter Four for a detailed analysis of UoN links and collaborations.

5.3.2 Changes in Teaching and Administrative Staff

Another significant change at institutional level identified by both administrators and faculty was in the demographics of teaching and administrative staff of the UoN. “There is more of a local, Kenyan, ownership of the university, as it were, than there was then,” notes a senior faculty member in the College of Biological and Physical Sciences (Personal Interview #17F, 2010, Transcript). Historically, most of these positions at UoN were occupied by expatriates unlike today when most of the positions are occupied by Kenyans (UoN, 2011; Eshiwani, 1993). Shortly after independence, the Kenya government made a deliberate effort at the “Kenyanization” of many of its institutions, including the university. Part of this effort included facilitating the education of Kenyans in Europe and North America as a staff capacity building endeavor for the University of Nairobi (Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Ochieng & Ogot, 1995, Jowi). Thus, in addition to having more Kenyan instructors, another change is that there are relatively more lecturers with PhDs now than at independence.

The University of Nairobi uses external examiners to moderate examinations, that is, to ensure that they meet international standards and are graded fairly. Previously most

external examiners were from Europe, as one senior administrator reflects on his college days, “I remember when I was doing my first degree here, the external examiners during those days were from England. As time went on, that umbilical connectivity was dissolved, or broken. External examiners have now become fairly regional” (Personal Interview #14A, 2010, Transcript). Thus, while this process still entails international engagement, it has a more regional African outlook. This is presumably because there are more qualified individuals within the East African region than in the past, coupled with the close proximity of the East African countries. Some observers have also attributed this change to the change in the academic calendar at the University of Nairobi, occasioned by frequent university closures (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Eshiwani, 1993).

The changes in staffing and general administrative structure at the University of Nairobi in the 1960s and 1970s may have had adverse effect on international activities. Two administrators pointed out that the ties between the West and the University of Nairobi were stronger when expatriates were in large numbers in pre-colonial Kenya: “the type of relationship that existed between these institutions and those other institutions from the UK was a lot stronger then. One would assume that that arose because, if you looked at the major administrators and the major lecturers at the local universities, they were mostly white, for example” (Personal interview #13A, 2010, Transcript). With the Kenyanization efforts at the founding of the University of Nairobi as a national university, other observers note “the international sources dried up . . . our agenda of interest is not their agenda of interest anymore” (Personal Interview #19A, 2010, Transcript).

The leadership of UoN was further politicized after independence by a new arrangement which saw the president of the country automatically become the Chancellor of the University. The president then appointed the Vice Chancellor, who is responsible for the day-to-day running of the university. There was, therefore, a lot of political influence in the running of the university, including the kind of international activities that the university could engage in, thereby negatively impacting international activities (Eshiwani, 1993; Ngome 2003; Jowi, Kiamba & Some, 2008). Recently, however, the president of the country ceased being the Chancellor of the university. Higher level administrators at the university, including the Vice Chancellor, are now competitively hired and not appointed by the seating president. The university has also become more open and less bureaucratic. For example, travel procedures formerly requiring obtaining permission from the office of the president have since been replaced by internal travel procedures. As a former Vice Chancellor of UoN reflects: “in my time, one would have to look over his shoulders in deciding whether you take a particular action in the international arena . . . Even though the university is still operating as a state property, the leadership has a different mandate and a different performance contract” (Personal Interview #3A, 2010, Transcript).

5.3.3 Introduction of Cost Sharing Policies

The Kenyan higher educational landscape has undergone significant changes since the founding of UoN as the only national university in independent Kenya in 1970. These changes have influenced institutional level choices and actions with regards to the international dimension. As the demand for university education increased and academic

programs at UoN quadrupled after independence, resources to manage university operations dwindled. It is at this time that World Bank (1988) policy document titled *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion* was released—sending shockwaves across the Kenyan higher educational sector and indeed the rest of Africa (Ochieng & Ogot, 1995; GoK; 1996; 2000; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008). As already discussed in Chapter Two, UoN embarked on major changes as a response to the World Bank (1988) imposed *structural adjustment programs* (SAPs). These changes had a bearing on institutional level choices to engage in international activity.

For example, in order to cope with the reduced funding, one of the most significant offshoots of the SAPs program was the introduction of cost sharing policies in all Kenyan Public Universities and other public sectors. Participants in this study were prompted to share their perception of the World Bank prescribed structural adjustment program. Whereas most administrators who responded to this prompt did not directly address the international activity aspect of the question, they pointed out the major effect of SAPs was that the government had little money to spend in the Kenyan Public Universities (KPU)s).

The consequence of the World Bank imposed conditions forced UoN to consider new avenues for generating revenue for institutional level operations, resulting in the establishment of what has been variously called parallel degree programs or Module II programs in Kenyan IHEs. The students in these programs pay for the full cost of their education as opposed to students in regular programs, whose education is partly subsidized by the government (UoN, 2011). One administrator stated that because of

SAPs, several international supporters and sponsors disengaged from UoN. In contrast, another one pointed out that, overall, the level of participation in international activities had increased because the module II programs have attracted international students to a greater extent despite the disengagement of the donor agencies:

The 1990s, the main problem was that we had expanded universities so much that we were now being criticized by almost everybody, the press particularly. We lost out when the World Bank cut out our international supporters who were helping us. They abandoned us, and the ministry could not afford to finance everything. The 1990s were very difficult years. We were constrained in terms of resources. The politics was also very bad. That was the time when Kenya went multi-party. (Personal Interview #3A, 2010, Transcript)

Cost sharing policies is what has led to the development of the Module II programs. So, the internationalization participation can be looked at on two levels. To what extent has the rest of Nairobi opened up to the access to education, not only to Kenyans, but also to the region? Then, to what extent have the international programs been more estranged. I would say that you can see that the level of participation has increased. We have more foreign students that are international taking academic programs within the university. (Personal Interview #18A, 2010, Transcript)

Faculty participants, on the other hand, were generally in agreement that the SAPs did not directly affect participation in international activity, arguing that the cost-sharing aspect

of the program affected how students were funded but not the relationships between the university and donor agencies, or collaborations between faculty of the UoN and their colleagues elsewhere:

No, that has not affected our collaboration because collaboration comes at a higher level. Our collaboration is not influenced by the type of students that we have — their social background and other things. It comes at a level of the faculty. (Personal Interview #5F, 2010, Transcript)

When it came to cost sharing it had to be the customers— in this case the students— who had to be subjected to that cost sharing policies. They started paying fees and that kind of thing. In my view, it has not trickled down to research. The government does not support much of research at the University of Nairobi. (Personal Interview #11F, 2010, Transcript)

However, there were some dissenting voices among the UoN faculty regarding the impact of SAPs. One faculty member argued that the World Bank imposed policies affected operations at the University of Nairobi by straining the relationship between the administration and students: “In fact, it was one of the causes of the frequent student unrest that eventually impacted participation in international activities at the University. Some students started leaving Kenya for universities abroad” (Personal Interview #4F, 2010, Transcript). Another faculty member argued that the introduction of SAPs was the genesis of underfunding for Kenyan public universities: “. . . the way I see it impacting the university is that you now lack money to do the basic things that you need to do . . .

As a result of that, the university came up with this idea of parallel degree programs to funding for university operations” (Personal Interview #9F, 2010, Transcript).

Unfortunately, further insight in this issue cannot be gained from data on partnerships presented in Chapter 4. As shown in Table 4.2, only a handful of partnerships were formally signed annually between 1985 and 2000 and there was no discernible trend in the numbers. However, it has to be remembered that formal partnerships are just one form of international engagement.

5.3.4 Introduction of Privatization Policies in Kenyan IHEs

Following the infamous structural adjustment programs implemented in the 1980s, the University of Nairobi, like her other African counterparts, had to brace for even tougher times as increased demand for higher education, limited access, overburdened professoriate, and crumbling institutional infrastructures left African institutions with limited choices with regards to participation in international activity (Oketch, 2003, 2009; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008). The 1990s saw major transformations in Kenyan higher educational landscape. An administrator in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences described the predicament KPUs find themselves thus:

I would say that our main problem is really financially. For example, in the 1960s and 1970s it was very easy for us to attend international conferences. As African Studies Association began in Great Britain and the US, conferences began in Africa – not just about history but also in the various fields. Now, because of the financial crises we got ourselves into from the 1980s, it is no longer possible for

our academic members of staff to meaningfully participate in international conferences. I can tell you, for example, when you wrote an abstract you gave it to the administration and you got money to go to a conference. You are supposed to go and come back and give a copy of that conference paper as proof that you actually did some work. The other aspect, which has also limited our ability to meaningfully participate in international linkages is that in the 1960s and 1970s, we had a staff development, whereby members of staff who had masters degrees would, in fact, be sponsored to go overseas to get their Ph.D. The university would pay a percentage of their salary to keep their relatives here in Kenya and they would go overseas. That is no longer possible. (Personal Interview #16A, 2010, Transcript)

In the face of these institutional level constraints, notable documents deemed to be the cure for the ailing African IHEs rolled out. *Higher Education: The Lessons of Experience* (World Bank, 1994) acknowledged the neglect of higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa and recommended major directions for implementing reform in African institutions of higher education. One of the recommendations was the push to privatize higher education in order to expand access to higher educational opportunities (Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; GoK, 2000; 2006; Jowi, Kiamba, and Some, 2008). Even though some UoN faculty did not see the impact of SAPs on international activity engagement, others maintain that increased participation in international activity post SAPs was a consequence of reduced funding for research capacity at Kenya Public Universities. As a result, most faculty were left on their own when it comes to professional development initiatives and research activity. This view is further supported

by data provided by the Centre for International Programs and Links (CIPL) which show that 71 percent of the agreements have research component and 43 percent of the agreements involve, wholly or partially, staff /student exchange. In addition, there has also been a remarkable increase in informal links whereby faculty and students make their own international connections locally and abroad for their own personal reasons, including but not limited to supplementing income, professional development, among others.

5.3.5 Competition from Private Institutions

The 1990s witnessed a steady increase in new forms of international engagement in the Kenyan higher educational landscape (Oketch, 2003, 2009; Ochieng & Ogot, 1995). The growth in private IHEs in Kenya led to a shift from traditional forms of international engagement, particularly with regards to privatization policies and the information technology push in the late 1990s. For example, the increase in privately funded institutions of higher education has opened a new terrain in providing access to higher educational opportunities to UoN students (Oketch, 200,2009; Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004; Nafukho, 2004; Abagi et al., 2005; Wesonga et al., 2007; Misor, 2008; Wangege-Ouma, 2008,; Mamdani, 2007, 2011). More than ever before, UoN students can engage in international activity without necessarily leaving Kenya as was standard practice before independence (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996). By 2010 the number of private IHEs increased to 17 offering competitive degrees and programs alongside Kenyan Public Universities. Most of these institutions, some of which are owned and operated from abroad, are located in the capital city, Nairobi,

within walking distance from UoN—allowing them easy access to highly reputable UoN teaching staff. These emerging private universities are also a major attraction to UoN students most of who are attracted to the allure of private IHEs with international connections without necessarily leaving Kenya or the University of Nairobi for that matter:

What has happened is that we have internal cross-border universities, which have particularly come from Australia, Britain, U.S.A and other developed countries. Australia is leading in this country where they are establishing what they are calling branches of universities overseas . . . we now have what I call itinerant lecturers, hopping from university to university. That also means that our members of staff in the established universities are so busy moonlighting that they have no time for research and their students that they were specifically employed to teach (Personal Interviews #16A, 2010, Transcript).

Private institutions have also exposed the University of Nairobi to stiffer competition from other local higher educational providers. This exposure has produced changes at institutional level in terms of general governance of the university and quality of services offered: “What has happened is that we know we have competitors. It is a good thing. Now we are on our toes. Now, when I request for something and I see that my seniors are assisting and they understand . . . if I don’t move, the next university is going to take it” (Personal Interview #15F, 2010, Transcript)

5.3.6 Information Technology in the Academic Marketplace

Another major shift in the Kenyan higher educational terrain, alongside privatization policies of the 1990s, came in response to a 1998/1999 World Bank Development Report on the future directions for higher education in the global age titled *Constructing Knowledge Societies: New Challenges for Tertiary Education*. This report saw the emergence of “new providers for tertiary education, including electronic education institutions unconstrained by international borders, a technological revolution that has transformed organizational structures, increasing privatization of higher education, and a global market for human capital” (Sammoff & Carroll, 2003, p. 14). The report was followed by yet another World Bank document produced by a task force on higher education and society convened by the World Bank and UNESCO in 2000 which brought together “experts” from 13 countries to deliberate the future of higher education in the developing world culminating in the production of a joint report *Higher Education in Developing Countries: Perils and Promise*. The participants concluded that improving the existing higher educational infrastructure is the key to accessing the benefits that accrue from the global knowledge based economy—stressing on science and technology as the key components to this future (World Bank & UNESCO, 2000).

The technology push in the new millennium marked the genesis of major transformations at the University of Nairobi with regards to the international dimension. Participants in this study acknowledged that a new wave of international engagement brought by the information technology era has transformed how information is sourced and transmitted within Kenya and other institutions of higher education outside the borders of Kenya compared to the colonial times. For example, many UoN students and

faculty can now enroll in degrees and programs abroad without leaving Kenya. In addition, researchers can now borrow articles through interlibrary loan services from far and wide, not to mention research collaborations within Africa and the developed world. Technology push in the new millennium has also enabled UoN to reexamine her distance learning capabilities by networking with institutions in Africa and donor agencies to boost institutional level capacities (UoN 2010). However, it is evident that whereas technology has been widely received as the great equalizer in the global academic marketplace, there exists a great divide when it comes to how faculty and administrators perceive it at institutional level. While some worry about institutional level constraints in embracing technology without proper planning, others see it as a new horizon in navigating the academic market place:

You know, technology permits efficiency, cuts costs, creates innovation and such like things. The universities are now developing these technologies for increasing accessibility to university education. For example, the country is now thinking of establishing a major open and distant learning university. This technology is going to increase accessibility, and to some extent equate it in education.

Technology is also good competition. We now have many, many Kenyans who are studying in foreign universities and following their programs . . . basically technology is bringing the world into the university as one global village. It can only help to enhance internationalization. (Personal Interview #8A, 2010, Transcript)

You must also remember that we are still weak in IT. We just got the fiber optics being laid, and the costs are not going down. I hope that in time this will change. But, certainly, the years of writing letters and waiting three to six months to get a reply are gone . . . This is the trend. The students and faculty have also been able to access material and information that would usually be restricted to them, but now it is not. (Personal Interview #19F, 2010, Transcript)

Still others, especially the aging professoriate at UoN, live in constant fear of embracing technology in their professional work. For the UoN graying population, learning new ways of engaging students and colleagues has proven to be more of a challenge than an opportunity, as one faculty reflects on bringing the ICT revolution on campus, “it was not easy. We tried to mount seminars to put together top managers for ICT, but computers are good for young people . . . it is really difficult to teach old dogs new tricks” (Personal Interview#3F, 2010, Transcript). From these multiple perspectives, it is safe to infer that even though these new arrangements in providing higher educational services in Kenya have produced their own challenges including mass exodus of teaching staff from public to private institutions and continuing deterioration of services in public universities, and ever increasing financial constraints to keep the Kenyan Public Universities afloat, among other challenges, they have also opened a new level of international engagement at UoN.

5.3.7 New Alliances within Africa and the Developing World

A new wave of international engagement is taking shape in African IHEs with regards to the international dimension. This study reveals an increased number of

alliances with other African institutions of higher learning in the areas of research, teaching and professional development. This is significant in that previously, African IHEs did not have a platform for deliberating on issues pertaining to the challenges facing higher education in Africa. At the University of Nairobi, it is evident that whereas most of the linkages are with the developed world, an increasing number are with institutions in Africa. The Association of African Universities (AAU) in collaboration with the Center for International Higher Education housed within the Boston College Lynch School of Education supports networking, teaching, and research funding initiatives within and outside Africa. Details of these alliances are provided in Section 2.7.2 and include the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA), African Network for International Education (ANIE), the Council for the development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA), the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA), the African Union (AU), Inter-governmental Authority on Development (IGAD), and the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD)—all created by the Kenya government to strike a regional alliance with other African countries (ACBF, 2011; AAU, 2007; AU; 2006; GoK, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2011; Weeks, 2008; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996). These alliances targeting the developing world, participants observe, have enabled UoN to network with countries with similar colonial experiences “so you can identify and learn from them, as opposed to interacting with Europe, whereby you are basically a toddler walking next to an old man. The distances there are big” (Personal Interview #8A, 2010, Transcript).

5.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have highlighted the major turning points with regards to the international dimension at the University of Nairobi since its inception as a post-colonial African university. Notable changes that have impacted international activity at UoN are in the areas of degree programs offered, curriculum and administrative reforms, privatization initiatives, information technology changes, and increased regional alliances, among other changes. We find that even though University of Nairobi has created new ways of (re)negotiating her peripheral position in the global community of higher educational providers in the post-colonial era, this study reveals that institutional level participation in international activity at UoN has continued some of the traditional North-South asymmetries in international engagement that have put the university in a vulnerable position.

CHAPTER SIX

RATIONALES FOR PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL ACTIVITY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

6.1 Introduction

The modern African university at the start of the twenty-first century faces numerous challenges ranging from staggering budget deficits, decaying institutional infrastructure, massive brain drain, and increased competition from higher educational providers from within and outside the continent of Africa (Sherman, 1990, Ajayi et al., 1996; Sawyerr, 2002; Kishun, 2007; Teferra & Knight, 2008; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008). These challenges, scholars have argued, have put post-colonial African universities between a rock and a hard place when it comes to institutional level choices and rationales for engaging in international activity with the developed world. The University of Nairobi, the leading institution of higher education and the first national public university in post-colonial Kenya, has had to contend with immense external influences in institutional level decision making processes and policy formulations with regards to the international dimension. For example, as discussed in the previous chapter, in response to the World Bank imposed policy reforms the Kenyan government had to implement radical transformation and restructuring of the management and funding of the higher education sector (World Bank, 1988; GOK 1988; 1994; 1998; Banya & Elu, 2001; Woodhall, 2007). Indeed, the influence of the powerful centers over peripheral developing regions of the Third World and the gross inequities that this relationship has brought to bear underlie the polarized views on the benefits and risks of the internationalization of higher education in the developing world.

Studies conducted following Wallerstein's (1974) and Anorve's (1980) groundbreaking world-systems analyses of North-South relations reveal significant regional differences when it comes to the motivating (as well as risk) factors behind institutional level decisions to engage in international activity in the developing world (see for example, Mohamedbhai, 2009; Polak, 2010; Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004; Altbach, 1998, 2005, 2006; Knight & Teferra, 2008; Obambo & Mwema, 2009; Holm & Malete, 2010). Consequently, contrary to the much touted benefits of internationalization including cultural diversity, homeland security, educational and research opportunities, and increased knowledge base (Green, Olson & Hill, 2006; Green & Olson, 2003; Knight, 2003; American Council on Education, 1995; 2002; Green & Hayward, 1997; Holzner & Greenwood, 1995), the powerful centers have continued to dominate and control historically marginalized third world countries (See for example Stromquist, 2007; Altbach, 2004, 2005; Samoff & Carroll, 2003; Samoff & Carroll, 2004; Knight & Teferra, 2008; Obambo & Mwema, 2009; Holm & Malete, 2010; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996).

Internationalization of institutions of higher education in the former European colonies of Africa often expose these institutions to new forms of socio-economic, cultural, and political control by more powerful nations. For the purposes of this analysis, rationales for participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi denote the motivating factors driving participation in international engagement. These rationales will be analyzed against the backdrop of institutional level benefits and risks associated with participation in such activities (as viewed through the eyes of UoN faculty and administrators). This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section

provides the political, academic, economic, and socio-cultural rationales for engaging in international activity at the University of Nairobi. The second section provides a critical look at the risks this participation has produced as the University of Nairobi seeks to find her place in the global community of higher education providers in the years following political independence.

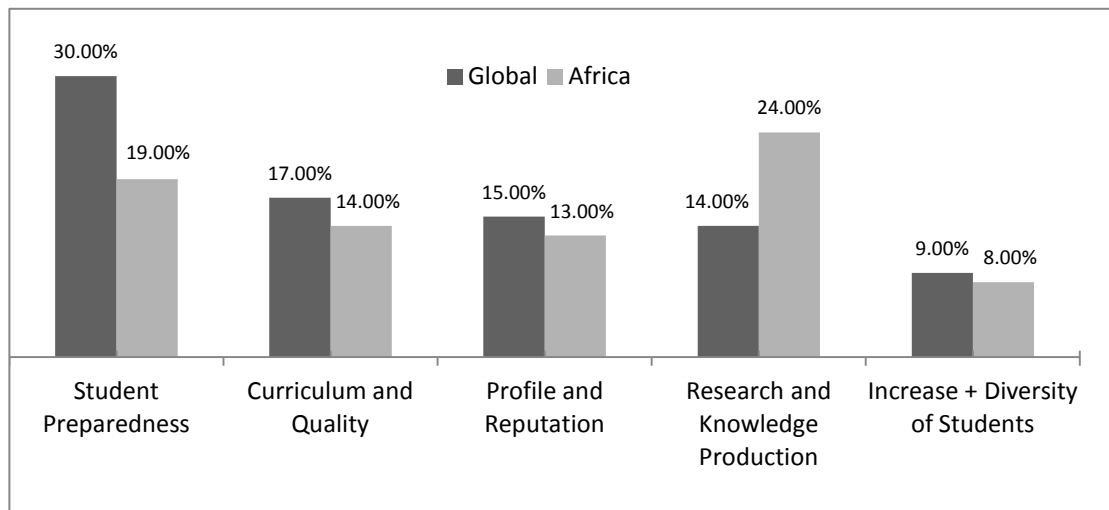
6.2 Rationales for Internationalization at the University of Nairobi

As already established in this investigation, institutions of higher education (IHEs) from around the world engage in international activity for different reasons based on their histories, cultural orientations, geopolitical interests, among other distinguishing features. The most commonly cited key motivators driving internationalization are generally grouped in four broad categories, including academic, political, economic, and socio-cultural rationales (See for example Altbach & Knight, 2006; Knight & De Wit, 1995). Although these rationales, both national and institutional, are arguably the driving forces behind internationalization initiatives in most IHEs, international education commentators have pointed out a heavy focus on the experiences of developed nations over the less developed Third World countries (Welch, Yang, & Wolhuter, 2004; Altbach, 2004). The experiences of Third World institutions of higher learning with internationalization, they argue, cannot be the same as their counterparts in the developed world. According to the 2009 third International University Association (IAU)¹⁴) global survey, the most important difference between Africa and the aggregate global level top

¹⁴ *The IAU 3rd Global Survey Report* is based on input from 745 Higher Education Institutions, in 115 different countries (see Figure 6.2), as well as from National University Associations, and is the most current and geographically comprehensive collection and analysis of primary data on internationalization of higher education ever undertaken. The report presents and compares global (aggregate) level results with regional findings.

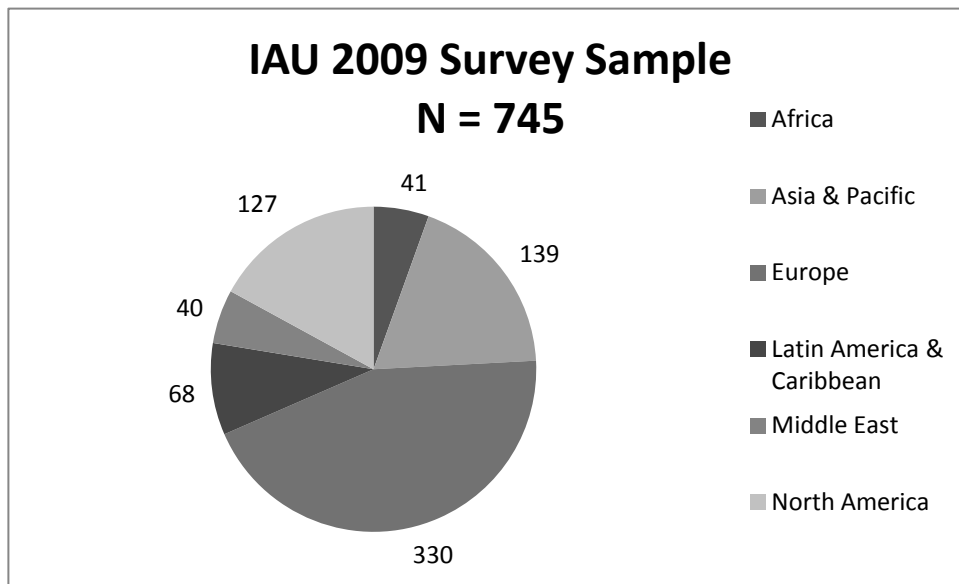
rationale for participation in international activity is that Africa ranked research as the top rationale for participation followed by student preparedness as second most important (See Figure 6.1). The global forces that led to the very creation of these institutions may have a bearing in the socio-economic and political undercurrents driving participation in international activity in the post-colonial era, as researchers have noted, “on the ruins of traditional colonial empire . . . has emerged a new, subtler, but perhaps equally influential kind of colonialism . . .” whereby the metropolitan centers retain a significant control over the former colonies (Ashcroft et al., 1999, p. 452). This section focuses on the institutional level rationales for participation in internationalization at the University of Nairobi.

Figure 6.1: IAU Top Ranked Rationales for Internationalization



Source: Redrawn From Polak 2009

Figure 6.2. IAU Regional Distribution of Institutions of Higher Education



Source: Polak & Hudson, 2010

6.2.1 The Political Dimension

The development of the University of Nairobi as the first public university in Kenya is closely linked to several political developments in Kenya, the East African region, the rest of Africa, and the outside world. Tight coupling during these formative years in the historical origins of UoN existed between UoN and the developed world and have not been completely severed in the post-independent years (Eshiwani, 1993; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Lulat, 2003). It is therefore not uncommon to find that the University of Nairobi, and other Kenyan public universities, became sites where broad national socio-political, economic, and social aspirations of the Kenyan people converged. The Ominde Commission report of 1964 drafted at independence set the stage for the role of the university in national development (GoK 1964, p. 24).

Consequently, one of the most commonly cited rationale for internationalization at UoN is the idea of promoting strategic alliances within the East African region¹⁵ and the rest of Africa. These alliances are guided by a shared understanding that “peace and stability are a pre-requisite to social and economic development. The government’s commitment to guarantee the security of its people, and the preservation of national integrity and sovereignty within secure borders underlies the desire to advance national interests by guaranteeing a secure political environment for development” (Knight, 2004, p. 25; GoK, 2011).

For the University of Nairobi, a peaceful co-existence with the neighboring East African countries has paid dividends. For example, the revamping of the East African Community (Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania) has granted the three countries a potential market front of about 83 million people. This alliance is seen by strategists as a political tool for maintaining peace among the neighboring countries, thereby contributing to growth and development within the East African region (GoK, 2010). In the higher educational arena, plans are underway to implement credit transfer policies for easy movement of students across the region. Joint research initiatives and funding outlets have also increased, as one faculty member notes:

International alliances probably all start from political alliances. The political alliances bring countries together. We have the East African Community. To make the East African Community we have the Inter-university Council of East

¹⁵ The idea of the East African Community had been a factor in the British colonial policy for controlling higher education opportunities in the East African region; however, this concept has evolved into an academic front for the East African region in the post-colonial era challenging the very constraints British colonial policies imposed on the region.

Africa. The Inter-University Council of East Africa¹⁶ is a big force because it is sourcing funding from international donors and then requesting the universities to bid for the same money; in other words, acting as a buffer between the donor agencies and the local institutions. (Personal Interview #8A, 2010, Transcript)

Participation in international activity is also viewed as an avenue for national security and development (GoK, 2011). Student and staff mobility across international borders has also increased remarkably since the 1970s and is seen as a strategic goal in improving research and capacity building initiatives and global competitiveness, not to mention increasing access to educational opportunities for the greater East African Community and the rest of the world (Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson 1996; Ngome, 2004; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some 2008; UoN, 2011, GoK, 2011). As other scholars have noted, “an educated, trained, and knowledgeable citizenry and a workforce able to do research and generate new knowledge are key components of a country’s nation-building agenda” (Knight, 2004, p. 25).

Beyond the East African region, the Kenyan government is part of the African Union, the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Co-operation, amongst others, with the main goal of increasing access to trade and services in sectors such as education, agriculture, and health, among others. Kenya is a member of the Commonwealth—a voluntary association of 54 former British colonies with economic and technical assistance as the primary focus of the cooperation.

¹⁶ The Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) is a regional inter-governmental organization established in 1980 by the three East African countries (Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda) with the aim of facilitating contact between the universities of East Africa, providing a forum for discussion on a wide range of academic and other matters relating to higher education, and helping maintain high and comparable academic standards (IUCEA, 2010).

These strategic alliances, both local and international, have been forged out of the realization that the development and prosperity of Kenya is intimately tied with her immediate neighbors and the global community (GoK, 2010).

6.2.2 The Academic Dimension

The University of Nairobi, like her counterparts in sub-Saharan Africa, has always been international in outlook. The historical beginnings of the institution, first as a university college of London, and later as a full-fledged, stand-alone university delinked from the University of London in 1970, has given UoN an international characteristic (Eshiwani, 1993; Ajayi et al., 1996; Ashby, 1964; 1967). In the academic realm, the University of Nairobi has maintained broader international ties with institutions of higher learning beyond the borders of Kenya in the realm of scholarship and knowledge production (UoN, 2011). These alliances have been forged out of the realization of the benefits accruing from participation, including but not limited to knowledge production, intercultural understanding, global cooperation, image building, and source of revenue (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008), as Yang (2002) succinctly put it:

Academic study needs an international approach to avoid parochialism in scholarship and research and to stimulate critical thinking and inquiry about the complexity of issues and interests that bear on the relations among nations, regions and interest groups. Often, introducing or emphasizing international and intercultural aspects leads to more interdisciplinary cooperation in research endeavours. It is the responsibility of a university to cultivate the ability to understand, appreciate and articulate the reality of interdependence among nations

and to prepare faculty, staff and students to function in an international and intercultural context. Under the impact of globalisation, universities have the opportunity and responsibility through teaching and research to increase awareness and understanding of the new and changing phenomenon that is affecting the political, economic and cultural / multicultural developments within and among nations. (p. 86)

6.2.2.1 Teaching, Research, and Service

As espoused in the preceding section, the academic rationale tends to guide faculty choices in participating in international activity at the University of Nairobi, as a senior faculty member in the College of Physical and Biological Sciences puts it, “I think any university would want to have international activities as much as possible. It is a source to evaluate programs, to fit or try to match other universities in the world, as it were . . . So, the University of Nairobi looks for endeavors to improve and encourage participation of its members to the international world— international fit” (Personal Interview #17, 2010, Transcript). Indeed, UoN has always infused international dimensions in her teaching, research and service functions as evidenced in program offerings, teaching and administrative staff, student body, and international links and partnerships in the years following political independence (Jowi, Kiamba & Some, 2008; Teferra & Knight, 2008; Ajayi, Goma & Johnson, 1996). At institutional level, the main motivating factors for engaging in international activity are associated with the benefits international partnerships holds for the University of Nairobi as one of the pioneering research institutions within the East African region and the continent of Africa. Of the

twenty interviews conducted, each participant stressed the value of research collaborations for easy access to state-of-the-art equipment necessary to carry out cutting-edge research. A faculty member in the sciences noted that “foreign laboratories are more equipped than our own. In terms of research, it really expedites researching and it exposes us to that environment where there are these differential” (Personal Interview # 13, 2010, Transcript).

As reported in Chapter 4, the links and collaborations currently held by the university of Nairobi show that 71% of the agreements have some research objective, making research by far the most common type of activity in the partnerships (see Chapter Four Figure 4.5 for details on partnerships by type of activity). Moreover, data reveals that 66 percent of the links and partnerships at UoN are with European and North American countries (see Chapter Four Figure 4.2; UoN Links & Partnerships, 2010). UoN’s story illuminates the structural challenges and limitations African IHEs face as we enter the second half of the twenty first century. It is, therefore, not uncommon to find IHEs in the developing world establishing partnerships with research collaboration as the driving force (Polak & Hudson, 2010; Mohammedbhai, 2009). UoN faculty and administrators concur that research collaborations are networking elements of scholarly engagement for both faculty and students. It is the path that most of these academics have followed from their professional trainings and academic leanings. It is also a shared understanding that such collaborations mean exposure to better equipment and facilities that UoN lacks:

Most of the lecturers here studied outside Kenya. So, they have an international outlook. They know that networking internationally is more positive than negative. So, really, they are professors of repute who really value the international outlook of the university. They encourage it. They encourage their

students to participate in it. They encourage the entire university to participate in it. (Personal Interview #6 F, 2010, Transcript)

The benefits are very diverse. If we look at the student level, student exchanges give our students an opportunity to sample what other cultures are like and comparing them with their own. It also gives the students an opportunity to use certain facilities that they do not have here—whenever they go through these exchanges. When they visit a foreign laboratory, the laboratories are more equipped than our own. So, in terms of research, it really expedites their researching and it exposes them to that environment where there are these differentials like state-of-the-art equipment . . . When you talk about academic members of staff, again, there will be definite benefits. Through sabbaticals, we are supposed to re-energize ourselves; we are supposed to see what the state-of-the-art technologies are out there. We are only able to get this through this kind of interaction where we go and witness what the latest technologies are available in other countries. More often than not, we don't have those cutting edge technologies here. It affords the academic members of staff that opportunity. (Personal Interview #13A, 2010, Transcript)

6.2.2.2 Professional Development Avenue for Faculty and Students

Beyond research, participation in international activity is looked at as an avenue for professional growth and development for both faculty and students. UoN faculty and administrators cite the importance of exposure to new ideas in the field of higher education as a motivating factor. Other professional development avenues include participation in seminars, conferences, workshops, and educational tours both locally and abroad. The increased push for accountability in the global information age has forced the University of Nairobi to look outwards in her efforts to ensure that the quality of graduates and courses offered are competitive and acceptable beyond the borders of Kenya. One of the longest serving professors at UoN sums up this prerogative, “. . . the training that the university gives is universal . . . so it is automatic that we try to standardize. Some universities are very poor; they don't measure up. But, a world-class university like the University of Nairobi measures up” (Personal Interview # 7F, 2010,

Transcript). The result is a competitive human resource base with “increased understanding and demonstrated skills to work and live in a culturally diverse or different environment” (Knight, 2004, p. 26). A senior professor at UoN sums up the UoN mandate to internationalize in these words: “Knowledge has no boundaries . . . we want to borrow the best practices from the other parts of the world. We want to avoid what I call academic insularity. Therefore, we will also put an end to what you would call academic in-breeding . . . it makes a lot of sense to expose our students and staff to what happens in other parts of the world” (Personal Interview #16A, 2010, Transcript).

6.2.2.3 International Profile and Reputation Building

The quest for international profile and name recognition is yet another rationale behind participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi. This awareness is acutely felt on the ground due to the rising number of both private and public institutions of higher learning both in Kenya and the continent of Africa with which the University of Nairobi has to compete. The UoN administration contends that their engagement in international activity is “about making comparisons. You want to find out how things are done elsewhere. The world, we are now told, is a global village. We cannot live in isolation from everyone else. So ours is also to try and benchmark what we do with what is being done internationally” (Personal Interview #13A, 2010, Transcript).

The University of Nairobi is keen on the new developments in the international rankings of universities and has striven to maintain her position in the region as the pioneering flagship university, as a former Vice Chancellor at the University of Nairobi puts it “. . . we want to be seen as the university of the future. We are the oldest

university in the country . . . we should be seen through the participation of our scholars, through research findings, either in conferences or journal publications and that kind of thing” (Personal Interview #3A, 2010, Transcript). Asked about why her institution stresses participation in international activity, a senior faculty member and administrator in one of the largest academic units on campus, stresses the need to sell the UoN brand: “. . . the University of Nairobi is the largest and oldest university in Kenya, and the most prestigious. You cannot just claim to be the oldest and most prestigious. We want to make our presence known on the world stage so that we can have an advantage to what is going on outside” (Personal Interview #4F, 2010, Transcript). Her colleagues are quick to flaunt the University of Nairobi’s position in the international rankings of universities:

The greater evidence is that even within the international ranking of universities, if you consider issues like webometrics, you will see that the University of Nairobi has been gradually improving. But, that is only within the African context of institutions. We want the programs to do a little better. The University of Nairobi is receiving recognition . . . our scientists are receiving recognition for their contributions. For example, those who have been invited to be fellows in the royal society of chemists are senior professors here. Along with that, we have people like Professor Odingo in geographic climate change who was actually a member of the team that accompanied Al Gore of the United States of America when he was awarded the Nobel Prize. That is really outstanding. A number of University of Nairobi professors become chairs of international forums because of their contributions to science. (Personal Interview #18A, 2010, Transcript)

I think Nairobi University is on the table . . . not only do we have the size, but even our programs and all the advantages of numbers and so on. There is a structure to ensure quality, as much as possible. Compared to the other universities, it is a quality education. I think Nairobi still stands very high at the table, negotiating and talking about herself—selling herself, and getting the recognition that she deserves. We hope that we can continue that way. (Ngilu, 2010, Interview #4 F, 2010, Transcript)

6.2.3 The Economic Dimension

As already noted in Chapters Four and Five, the economic crisis facing African Universities is widely documented. Ajayi, Goma, and Johnson (1996) in *African Experience with Higher Education* captures the challenges facing the modern African universities:

In the 1990s and beyond, institutions of higher education in Africa, especially the universities, must contend with several interrelated major problems, whose combined effect threatens to strangulate them . . . To say that higher education in Africa is in crisis does not mean simply that the funds available to run higher education institutions are grossly inadequate, thereby making them subsist on a “starvation diet.” More than that, African countries and societies are going through a period of economic uncertainty, political and social upheavals, plus other contortions, and higher education has become a victim of the prevailing state of affairs. The situation is likely to remain so, well into the twenty first century. (p. 146)

The University of Nairobi, like her counterparts in the developing world, faces numerous challenges in the day-to-day running of the institution. Following the implementation of the World Bank imposed structural adjustment policies that sent African IHEs into economic disarray in 1988, most public universities have had to look for alternative sources of funding for building institutional level capacities. A 1999 World Bank supported report examining the status of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa describes the predicament the modern African universities face using the example

of Uganda's Makerere University, one of the oldest universities in the East African region:

By 1990, Makerere exhibited in extreme form the resource constraints facing universities throughout Africa. No new physical structures had been built and no maintenance carried out in twenty years. Journal subscriptions had declined to zero, as had chemicals for science laboratories. Supplies of electricity and water were spasmodic, cooking and sewage facilities were stretched to their limit. Faculty members received the equivalent of \$30 per month and were forced by this so called "leaving" wage to depart the country or seek any available paid employment for most of their day. Student numbers remained low, the government subsidy small and research output minimal. A "pillage" or survival culture prevailed which put at risk to private theft any saleable and removable item, from computers and telephones to electric wires and door fixtures—and sometimes the doors themselves! In a situation of limited transport, few if any working telephones and the absence of needed equipment and stationery, it is remarkable that the university managed to remain open throughout this period. (cited in Courts, 1999, p. 3)

Participation in international activity when viewed against this backdrop of crumbling institutional infrastructure and budget deficits boils down to survival. It is, therefore, not surprising that one of the driving motivations for internationalization is the generation of income necessary for enhancing institutional level initiatives such as expanding research and equipment capacity, personnel training, joint projects, among

other funding avenues. For example, participation in professional conferences is one of the most common ways in which to engage in international activities. Such conferences provide UoN scholars and administrators opportunities to showcase their scholarship or experiences, learn from their peers, and establish contacts that can result into useful networking, including the establishment of linkages and research collaborations. Travel to international conferences was previously funded by the University of Nairobi but since the 1980s, however, such funding is no longer readily available (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some 2008; Oketch, 2003; 2009; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996). Lack of travel funds has also limited the ability of University of Nairobi faculty to visit and work with their collaborators at foreign institutions. A cross section of faculty and staff cite funding as the major stumbling block to enhancing internationalization initiatives:

Ideally, if this office was having enough funds, we should be able to support some, or all, faculty who may want to go someplace. Again, from my center point of view, we have less staff, so I don't have a lot of staff that can identify many programs and then advise faculty accordingly. Some staff members are not very aggressive. Sometimes some of them may want people from this center to tell them what's out there. Ideally, every faculty member should now be perusing the website and identifying areas where they think they could be able to build more programs, new initiatives, or new collaborations. (Personal Interview #1A, 2010, Transcript)

I would say that our main problem is really financial. For example, in the 1960s and 1970s it was very easy for us to attend international conferences . . . Now, because of the financial crises we got ourselves into from the 1980s, it is no longer possible for our academic members of staff to meaningfully participate in international conferences. I can tell you, for example, when you wrote an abstract you gave it to the administration and you got money to go to a conference without any problems. (Personal Interview #16A, 2010, Transcript)

The University of Nairobi is funded largely from the government and funds are never sufficient. So, when we have collaborations, we might want to bring our faculty to our international institution, but we might not be able to have the funds. More often than not the collaborator takes responsibility for funding those kinds of trips. This is not the right thing to do, in my opinion, but we have no alternatives. (Personal Interview #5F, 2010, Transcript)

In order to address the funding problems highlighted above, an emerging trend at UoN is the recruitment of fee paying foreign and local students as a source of revenue for the university. The University of Nairobi, has established a new program that has resulted in a marked increase in student population. Through the Module II program,¹⁷ or the parallel degree programs (PDPs) as it is commonly called, the university admits privately sponsored students who pay more than triple the amount paid by government sponsored students under the Joint Admission Board (JAB). Some of these students are natives of Kenya, but a growing number are from foreign countries. The students have the choice of taking their classes with their peers in the government sponsored programs or on weekends and evenings. The program, notes one of the senior administrators in the College of Health Sciences, has been useful in building institutional infrastructure for enhancing efficient delivery of high education services to the people of Kenya” (Personal Interview #14, 2010, Transcript). This phenomenon is not unique to the University of Nairobi, as Altbach and Knight (2006) point out, “developing countries seek to attract foreign students to their universities to improve the quality and cultural composition of the student body, gain prestige, and earn income” (p. 3). Due to the reputation UoN enjoys (locally and internationally) as the first public university in Kenya, the university enrolls plenty of fee paying students from other parts of Africa and the developed world. Several North-South partnerships and links have also been developed targeting the developed world with an economic goal of sourcing funding as an overriding motivating factor.

¹⁷ Through module II program, the University of Nairobi offers higher education opportunities to Kenyan and non-Kenyans students on private sponsorship. These fee-paying students have significantly boosted UoN revenues (UoN, 2011).

The presence of private institutions (both local and foreign) around the university has also changed institutional level and individual faculty dynamics with regards to international activity engagement. Whereas UoN has strategically created courses and programs targeting privately sponsored students within and outside the borders of Kenya, another institutional level culture is emerging in which the professoriate has also strategically placed themselves in a position to compete with their peers in a highly competitive academic market place. Consequently, another dimension to the economic rationale for participation in international activity is at the level of personal financial motivation rather than institutional level imperative to internationalize. The presence of these institutions within UoN proximity has turned out to be an alternative source of revenue for a grossly underpaid professoriate (Nafukho, 2004; Mamdani, 2007). UoN faculty and administrators cite lecturer “poaching,” moonlighting at branch campus, consultancy, and dollar-driven research projects as common activities UoN faculty and staff engage in “because they want to make a little more money to put food on the table” (Personal Interview #16, 2010, Transcript).

6.2.4 Socio-Cultural Dimension

Culture is an important component of the internationalization process and heavily referenced in internationalization literature. There is a general agreement that different cultures of the world have something they can offer to enrich the international dimension of their communities and institutions of higher education, as Botha (2010) observed, “without the local, there would be nothing to offer the other and a strong local culture would enhance the value of internationalization” (p. 208). Knight & Teferra (2008)

stress the need to recognize regional differences and local cultures in implementing the internationalization agenda. Even though the socio-cultural rationale for international activity has traditionally not carried the same weight as economic and political motivators, the University of Nairobi like most IHEs world over, still view participation in international activity as a means for fostering intercultural understanding and global cooperation (Knight, 2004; Altbach & Knight, 2006; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; ACE, 1995). Kenya as a nation boasts a rich cultural heritage. The higher education arena, through the Ministry of Higher Education (MOEST), takes the lead in showcasing Kenya's rich cultural heritage through joint research projects, partnerships, international exhibitions, teaching of both foreign and indigenous languages, and cultural ambassadorship with the main goal of fostering cultural understanding and cooperation with other world nations. The University of Nairobi through the Ministry of Culture and Social Services collaborates on projects that bring national recognition to the Republic of Kenya through tourism and educational tours to cultural hot spots and places of historical significance. The diverse nature of the student population at UoN makes the university one of the fastest growing cultural hot spots in Kenya, strategically located at the heart of Kenya's capital Nairobi—a fast growing metropolis connecting the wider East African region to the rest of Africa and the world. “There are unique things in our environment and in our systems that we can share with the world” notes a senior faculty member in the Biological and Physical Sciences (Personal Interview #18, 2010, Transcript).

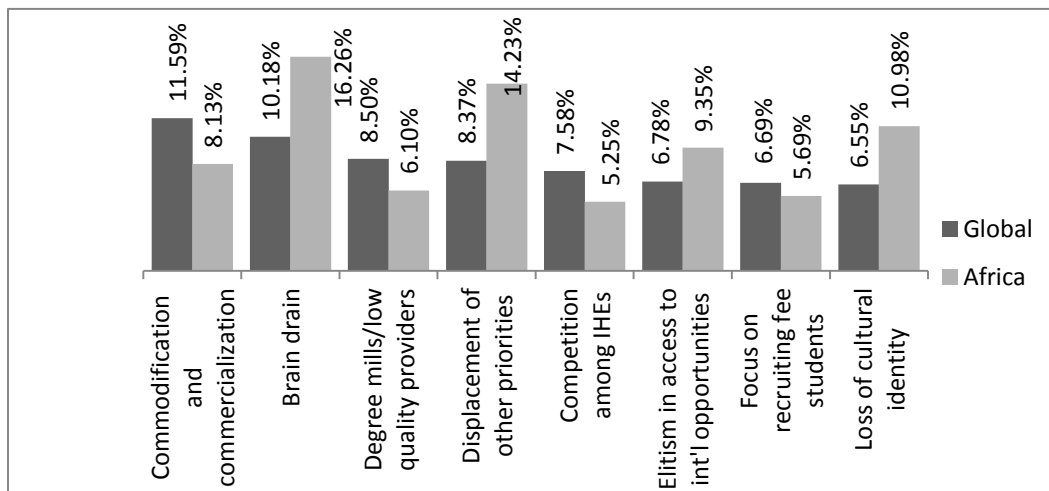
6.3 Risks Commonly Associated With Internationalization at UoN

The University of Nairobi has not been immune to these external forces in its engagement in international activity. The words of the longest serving faculty member at UoN on the state of international linkages with the developed world captures this sentiment: “We have probably been a bit naïve to assume that the scholars who come from overseas are merely interested in furthering knowledge, forgetting that they are using this opportunity to build their own careers. They will use this opportunity to do all sorts of what I call mischievous activities towards attaining their goal” (Personal Interview #16F, 2010, Transcript). Faculty and administrators views emerging from this investigation show an institution that continues to experience constant pressure emanating from a changing higher educational landscape brought forth by economic, technological, political, cultural, and scientific trends that directly affect the institutional level engagement in international activity. As a consequence, participation in international activity by Third World IHEs, given the historical beginnings of the modern African university, has always been viewed against the backdrop of perceived risks and benefits (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Knight & Taferra, 2008; Holm & Malete, 2010). According to the IAU 2006 world survey, 81 percent of the responding institutions in Africa, versus only 58 percent of the respondents in North America, acknowledged the existence of risks” in international activity engagement (Knight, 2008, p. 540) in international engagement. This trend was again reported three years later in the 2009 IAU world survey (see figure. 6.3; Polak, 2009).

Historical patterns of dependency and asymmetries in North-South partnerships has long been the topic of much discussion in internationalization literature (See for

example, Obambo & Mwema, 2009; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Holm & Malet, 2010; Samoff & Carroll, 2002; 2004; Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2004; Bunders & Mukherjee, 1995). The next section provides a critical analysis of some of the risks UoN faces in engaging in international activity. Risk as used in this study denotes those factors that have put the University of Nairobi at a disadvantaged position in engaging in international activity given her peripheral position to the developed world. In order to fully understand the risks UoN faces in her engagement in internationalization activity, I begin the section by providing a brief summary of the challenges facing UoN in her efforts to engage in international activity followed by an analysis of the potential risks these challenges pose to the advancement of the international dimension at UoN as the university seeks to renegotiate her peripheral position in the global community of higher education providers. The risks include brain drain, loss of control of research agenda, loss of intellectual property rights, and commodification of higher education in an unequal world, among others.

Figure 6.3 IAU Top Ranked Risks of Internationalization



Source: Redrawn From Polak 2009

6.3.1 Challenges to the Internationalization Process at UoN

The case of the University of Nairobi used in this investigation illuminates the challenges yet to be overcome by African IHEs in renegotiating their peripheral position in relation to the developed world and the opportunities these institutions have in creating a niche for themselves with regards to the international dimension in the post-colonial era. Research participants in this study were asked to identify some of the challenges the University of Nairobi is yet to overcome in her efforts to engage in international activity. This section presents a summary of some of the issues and challenges that emerged from my conversations with the University of Nairobi faculty and administrators.

Travel Funds: Participation in professional conferences is one of the most common ways in which UoN faculty engage in international activity. Such conferences provide scholars and administrators opportunities to showcase their scholarship or experiences, learn from their peers, and establish contacts that can result into useful networking, including the establishment of linkages and research collaborations. Travel to international conferences was previously funded by the University of Nairobi but since the 1980s, such funding is no longer readily available (Oketch 2009; World Bank, 1988). A faculty member in the social sciences decried the financial constraints at UoN, “I would say that our main problem is really financially . . . because of the financial crises we got ourselves into it is no longer possible for our academic members of staff to meaningfully participate in international conferences” (Personal Interview #16A, 2010, Transcript). Lack of travel funds has also limited the ability of University of Nairobi faculty to visit and work with their collaborators at foreign institutions, and whenever such research collaborations take off “more often than not the collaborator takes

responsibility for funding those kinds of trips, which, in my opinion, is not the right thing to do, but we have no alternative” (Personal Interview #5F, 2010, Transcript).

Human Capacity Building: Capacity building has been a huge challenge for UoN. In the 1960s and 1970s, there was international engagement through a concerted effort at faculty capacity building. Faculty with masters degrees were sponsored to go overseas for Ph.D. degrees. The famous Tom Mboya airlifts to the U.S. at independence is an example of such an initiative (Eshiwani, 1993; Ochieng & Ogot, 1995). Upon their return, many of the faculty presumably remained in touch, and continued to engage, with contacts they had made at foreign universities during their studies. Such a systematic faculty development program no longer exists at UoN, contributing to a shortage of qualified faculty for the increasing number of students accessing higher education (Subotszky, et al., 2004; Ngome, 2003; Wandiga, 1997; 2008). A senior faculty member at UoN describes the predicament: “If the university is left to itself to shoulder the responsibility of sending the students and staff out there, paying for everything becomes quite heavy. When they are subsidized by the donor organizations, like Rockefeller, Ford Foundation and so on, then it becomes easier for us” (Personal Interview #2F, 2010, Transcript).

Shortage of Faculty/Staff: The termination of systematic faculty development program that sent masters level faculty abroad for further studies has contributed to a shortage of qualified faculty at UoN. This shortage of adequately trained personnel has, in turn, adversely affected engagement in international activities at the University of Nairobi. First, it becomes difficult for the few Ph.D. faculty members who are available to leave their institutions for extended periods of time, for example, to participate in an

exchange program, because of the difficulty of finding someone to take over their responsibilities during their absence. Secondly, to make up for the relatively small number of faculty with the Ph.D. degree, the university has to employ a number of master's level faculty. Since, unlike the Ph.D., earning a master's degree involves limited research training and is not considered a research degree, masters-level faculty are generally not in a position to forge research collaborations with faculty at foreign institutions. Third, the shortage of faculty leads to heavy teaching load, which is discussed in greater detail below.

Heavy Teaching Load: “The university is very short on personnel. We have a lot of students, but the faculty is in very short supply” are the words of a senior faculty member and a top researcher in the College of Health Sciences at UoN (Personal Interview #5F, Transcript). Shortage of faculty and non competitive compensation have contributed to the heavy teaching loads at the University of Nairobi (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Mamdani, 2007). First, there has been a tremendous increase in student enrollment at Kenyan Public Universities in the last two decades or so that has not been matched by a corresponding increase in the number of faculty. To cater for this increase, the number of classes taught by each faculty has increased and/or the class sizes have increased considerably. Second, the government support for the university was negatively impacted by 1988 World Bank imposed structural adjustment programs, which forced UoN to consider new avenues for generating revenue, resulting in the establishment of what has been variously called parallel degree programs or Module II programs. The students in these programs pay for the full cost of their education as opposed to students in regular programs, whose education is partly subsidized by the

government. In addition to teaching in the regular programs, most faculty also teach in the Module II programs. Although they are compensated financially for the extra teaching responsibilities, the net result is that they have increased teaching loads.

The third way in which the teaching loads of faculty at the University of Nairobi has increased is a result of privatization policies of the 1990s, which led to the establishment of several new private colleges. Many of these colleges do not have sufficient full-time teaching staff and rely on faculty from the public universities to teach for them on part-time basis (Mamdani, 2007; Oketch, 2003, 2009). Data on links and partnership between UoN and other institutions from 1979 to 2010 was presented and discussed in Chapter Four. It was observed that a large number of activities involved in these partnerships have a research component. With heavy teaching loads, UoN faculty will engage less in scholarly pursuits, thereby reducing opportunities for them to engage in international activities.

Limited Research Support: As already pointed out above, a large number of activities involved in partnerships between university and other institutions have a research component. Therefore, factors that enhance research profile of the university should lead to increased international activity. Conversely, factors that diminish the research profile of the university are likely to affect international activity adversely. Lack of equipment was cited by several participants as one of the challenges the University of Nairobi is yet to overcome in her efforts to engage in international activity. The premise here is that state-of-the-art equipment would lead to cutting edge research, resulting in international conference presentations, journal publications, patents, and external funding. Both the availability of an array of state-of-the-art equipment and the increased

profile of the university at the international level would also make the university more attractive to foreign students, thereby expanding international activities beyond research pursuits:

If you want your institution to be world class, it is difficult to do that if you don't have basic equipment. If someone looks at your profile on some equipment that any chemistry department is supposed to have then it is hard to convince them that you are international and world class in outlook. That has been a major challenge (2010, Personal Interview #9F, 2010, Transcript)

In a department where some of the equipment that was manufactured in the 1960s is still operational, to imagine that you can compete in the world with this kind of equipment is an understatement. Whereas if I talk about an NMR, a nuclear magnetic resonance equipment—which is 200 mega watts, it is hard to talk to others about that kind of equipment. They would have to laugh. Today we are talking about 800 megawatts and above. Those are the kinds of challenges we have here (Personal Interview#13A, 2010, Transcript)

Bureaucracy: Bureaucracy has also been identified as a challenge to internationalization process to the extent that it makes it difficult to enhance faculty productivity and participation in international activity. Part of the reason may be because of external control of the university by the Kenya government. Other reasons may be internal to the general infrastructure and governance of UoN:

There are certain ways that the government does things, so you can't just become independent and do things your way. For example, procurement of things. If you have to buy to procure things, like equipment and so on, it will take a long time, not because the university wants to take a long time, but because the university has to follow government procurement procedures which are lengthy and time consuming. (Personal Interview #5F, 2010, Transcript)

The story is different in the developed countries. If you wanted to procure a research sample in the United States, for example, you get it the next day. Here you have to wait about a month. And it is for the same sample, you know? It is annoying sometimes . . . (Personal Interview #9F, 2010, Transcript)

Given these institutional level challenges and structural limitations facing the University of Nairobi, a number of risks involved in the internationalization process were identified and are summarized below. Risk in participation is viewed against the backdrop of institutional level benefits accruing from engaging international activity as already discussed in this chapter.

6.3.2 “We are Training for the North:” The Brain Drain Factor

According to the Institute for International Education *Open Doors*¹⁸ database, 5,383 Kenyan students and 259 scholars were studying and working in the United States in the 2009 / 2010 academic year (See Table 6.1). Studies have also indicated that some of these scholars and students do not return home at the completion of their academic

¹⁸ *Open Doors* is a comprehensive information resource on international students and scholars studying or teaching at higher education institutions in the United States, and U.S. students studying abroad for academic credit that can be transferred to their home colleges or universities.

engagements. While reasons range from lack of jobs to poor political and economic infrastructure, the massive brain drain has dealt a deathblow to IHEs in the developing world (Ndulu, 2004). Africa has particularly suffered in this area as captured in this lamentation by a senior faculty member at the University of Nairobi:

With internationalization, there is a danger of we trainers who are training Ph.D. students, we are training for the North. It happens. Somebody graduates and looks at home, he doesn't see any work. He goes to the U.S. for a conference, then he speaks and gives a very good paper. He leaves his name and address and so on. Next time you see him, he is resigning. Internationalization has caused brain drain. It has, actually, it is a pity. We are training and asking ourselves, what are we training for? We are so poor. If we are training for richer nations, it is a really ironic situation we are engaged in. We have got scholars, is not that we don't train Ph.D.s, we do, but they go out and leave because their country is poorer. You find that the university can't employ them because the university doesn't have money. Then, if they get employed, they look at their pay slip for four or five months. It's not impressive. The nearest opportunity they can get, they take it. The next e-mail you get they will be sending it from the university of something in the U.S. It says, "It was good working with you. Thanks for being my supervisor." It is the tragedy of the twenty-first century for Africa. It is ironic that we are training, we are poor, using our resources here, then we hand over to the rich. It's not fair. (Personal Interview #4F, 2010, Transcript)

Table 6.1 Number of Kenyan Students Studying in the US in 2009/2010 Academic Year

Year	#of Students from Kenya	% Change from the Previous Year	# of U.S. Study Abroad Students Going to Kenya
2009/10	5,383	-8.4%	1,198
2008/09	5,877	0.7%	881
2007/08	5,838	-8.0%	657
2006/07	6,349	-3.2%	686
2005/06	6,559	-2.5%	694
2004/05	6,728	-8.8%	661
2003/04	7,381	-6.1%	387
2002/03	7,862	10.8%	625
2001/02	7,097	13.9%	720
2000/01	6,229	9.6%	846
1999/00	5,684	-	695

Source: *Open Doors* 2010

Observers note that while some remain abroad after their studies, others choose to return to their home countries only to become desensitized within the first few months of their return. As Mahmood Mamdani, a leading political scientist in East Africa who obtained his Ph.D. in the U.S. and serves as the director of Makerere University's Institute for Social Research reflects upon his return to his native Uganda:

Those who came with me divided into two groups. There were those who never returned, and then those who did, but were soon frustrated by the fact that the conditions under which they were supposed to work were far removed from the conditions under which they were trained. In a matter of years, sometimes

months, they looked for jobs overseas, or moved out of academia into government or business or elsewhere. (Mamdani, 2011)

A recent Ph.D. returnee from a reputable US institution confirms this trend: “It has been very evident. I don’t know how I can classify this, but from my personal experience, the college I went to we were 25 Kenyans in the department of Chemistry at the time doing our Ph.D. But, so far, only three have come back” (Personal Interview #9F, 2010, Transcript). Altbach & Knight (2006) refer to this type of internationalization as “individual internationalization” which has been part of IHEs since time immemorial. Kenyan students, like their counterparts in the rest of the developing world, seeking to study and settle abroad after their undergraduate academic preparation have fueled gross imbalance in North-South academic partnerships. “Most of the world’s more than 2 million international students are self-funded, that is, they and their families pay for their own academic work. Students are therefore the largest source of funds for international education—not governments, academic institutions, or philanthropies” (p. 294). For IHEs in the metropolitan centers, revenue from international students is a multi-billion dollar industry¹⁹ (*Open Doors*, 2010).

6.3.3 Research and Violation of Intellectual Property Rights

Another risk of internationalization that UoN faculty cite is the loss of control of research agenda and intellectual property rights by local researchers. More often than not, the research agenda in most of these collaborations tend to focus on the donor needs

¹⁹ International students contribute nearly \$20 billion to the U.S. economy, through their expenditures on tuition and living expenses, according to the U.S. Department of Commerce. Higher education is among the United States' top service sector exports, as international students provide revenue to the U.S. economy and individual host states for living expenses, including room and board, books and supplies, transportation, health insurance, support for accompanying family members, and other miscellaneous items.

at the expense of local researcher's scholarly agenda, as a faculty member in the college of Physical and Biological Sciences explains:

Let's take the case of chemistry. You find that for you to publish your research in a peer reviewed international journal, there are some areas of research that are considered key or top notch. If you are not researching in that area, your paper will probably not be accepted in those journals. Yet, the research you are carrying out locally could be of importance and serving a noble purpose, but it would be considered mediocre when you try to publish it in an international journal. So, as we try to become international, there is something else you are losing. You don't do research that helps the local people. (Interview #9F, 2010, Transcript)

A former Vice Chancellor at the University of Nairobi reflects upon the predicament facing most African IHEs with regards to financing research: "because you don't have that financial power, and you are not in a position to determine the direction of research for the benefit of your own country, you are doing that to the benefit of the financier, which is usually the foreigner" (Personal Interview #3F, 2010, Transcript). Mamdani (2011) sums up the predicament of the modern day African researcher thus:

Today, the market-driven model is dominant in African universities. The consultancy culture it has nurtured has had negative consequences for postgraduate education and research. Consultants presume that research is all about finding answers to problems defined by a client. They think of research as finding answers, not as formulating a problem. The consultancy culture is institutionalized through short courses in research methodology, courses that

teach students a set of tools to gather and process quantitative information, from which to cull answers. Today, intellectual life in universities has been reduced to bare-bones classroom activity. Extra-curricular seminars and workshops have migrated to hotels. Workshop attendance goes with transport allowances and per diem. All this is part of a larger process, the NGO-ization of the university. Academic papers have turned into corporate-style power point presentations. Academics read less and less. A chorus of buzz words have taken the place of lively debates.

Another dimension in this imbalance in power in joint research collaborations with the developed world is the question of intellectual property violation, whereby local researchers are denied due process in general use, distribution, and crediting research findings:

Those are some of the fears we have, especially in terms of intellectual rights. It is possible that somebody can participate in research with somebody from outside Kenya. When a great discovery is made, the next time the person hears of it a book has been published, and the person may not even appear in the footnotes. This is not fair when the information they shared is valuable. That is indigenous information; it is real or original research findings. The person leading the international scholar has played a very crucial role in getting that information. The material is internationalized and it is not acknowledged. It is lost, as it were, to the person who participated equally in the research. The information can fall, back and forth, into the hands of an awkward intellectual conman. Those are some of the risks we face with our collaborators. (Personal Interview #4F, 2010, Transcript)

I think the most common and highlighted case of intellectual property rights violation at the University of Nairobi was the case the study of HIV with the Majengo Cohort Commercial Sex Workers in Nairobi. These women were study participants in the Oxford University and UoN study. The commercial sex workers appeared to make sustainable resistance to HIV after being exposed to the virus. The study was basically designed to understand the mechanisms by which those who were exposed can contribute molecular elements that may be useful in designing vaccines

and understanding the systems of the development of the disease. I think it was some time back . . . we called it the Kenya AIDS Vaccine Initiative Program. After our collaboration with the Oxford University team, the Oxford University patented the results of the outcome of the study without including their Nairobi University partners. These are the evident risks in our collaborations. (Interview # 18A, 2010, Transcript)

These examples offer a glimpse into new forms of control that the modern African university must confront in the post-colonial era, even as these institutions adopt new ways of engagement by “educating its researchers or its academicians to be careful about making linkages” (Personal Interview #14, 2010, Transcript). UoN is now stressing proper memoranda of understanding with regards to property rights that may accrue from discoveries and innovations (University of Nairobi, 2010). How far these precautionary measures will go is debatable. UoN has since created an intellectual property management office²⁰ to “eliminate the infringement, improper exploitation and abuse of the university's intellectual assets” (UoN, 2011).

6.3.4 Multilateral Presence in Institutional Level Decision Making

Compared to other world regions, funding by far remains the greatest obstacle to internationalization for African IHEs (Polak & Hudson, 2010; See Figure 5.4). The University of Nairobi, like other public universities in Kenyan, is funded largely from the Kenyan government (Eshiwani, 1993; GoK 2010). The 1990s witnessed an increased multilateral presence in Kenyan higher educational landscape. For example, the Kenya government experienced constant pressure from the donor agencies in the metropolitan centers in what was dubbed Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) for revitalization of African IHEs to reorganize her educational sector. Consequently, the Kenyan higher

²⁰ For details regarding the objectives of the IPM refer to <http://www.uonbi.ac.ke/ip/?q=node/19>

education sector has felt this push most directly in the way things are done at institutional level (Maxon & Ndege, 1995; World Bank 1988; GOK 1988; 1994; 1998), as one senior administrator at UoN reflects on the constant pressure to conform by lending agencies:

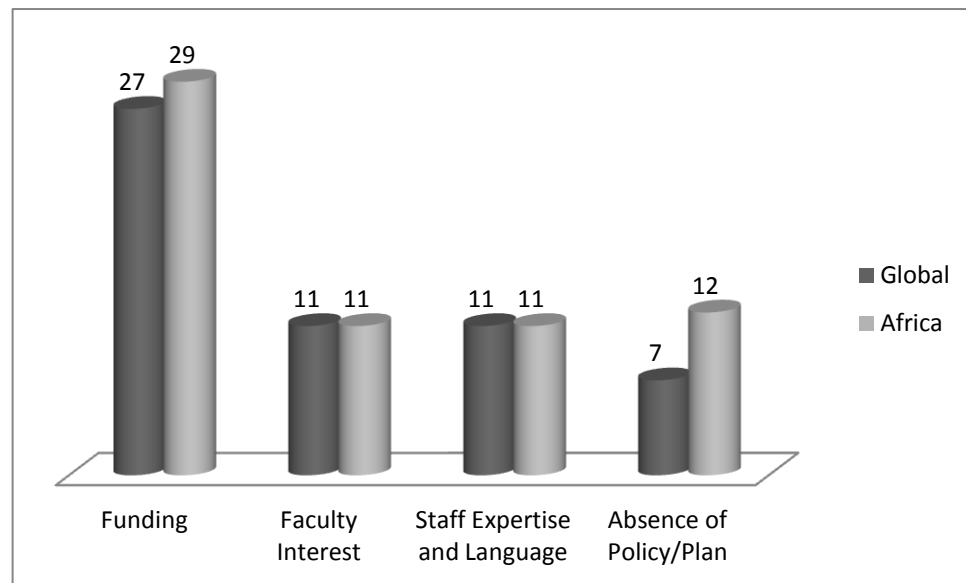
I would say that when you're becoming globalized, or internationalized, you have to sometimes change the way you do things. You do things differently from what you've been used to... the things that you're forced to do at the university is to change the way you do things and to aim to achieve international standards, which sometimes is not easy. It has costs to it. For us to be able to get the potential standard organization certification — what is known as ISO,²¹ which is a European standardizing body based in Geneva — we have had to change the way we do things around here. So, we now have things like service charters, which the university has to give out to the people that it serves. We have a policy document that we never used to have before. We have to have a policy on gender which originally we never used to have. All these things we are doing in order to be international. So you have to fit international requirements and expectations. (Personal Interview #5A, 2010, Transcript)

These externally initiated institutional level reforms, though well intentioned, have subjected African IHEs to continued forms of control by the powerful metropolitan centers in the years following political independence. Additionally, these measures are

²¹ISO (International Organization for Standardization) is a non-governmental organization based in Geneva, Switzerland, that forms a bridge between the public and private sectors with the aim of offering quality service delivery. It is the world's largest developer and publisher of International Standards (see website for more information <http://www.iso.org/iso/about.htm>). UoN became ISO certified in 2007.

normally taken with the assumption that European cures are the best for African IHEs in distress—a new form of colonialism clothed in policy and reform (Altbach, 2006; Samoff & Carroll 2007; Obambo & Mwema, 2009; Botha, 2010; Holm & Malet, 2010).

Figure 6.4 IAU Internal Obstacles to Internationalization



Source: Redrawn From Polak 2009

Whereas the University of Nairobi has sought other avenues for capacity building through income generation activities and government support, critics observe that African external forms of control has increased exponentially in African IHEs, as observed by one administrator:

The major external force is the money. The developed world comes with the inducement of money to do research. At times, the challenges are that those fellows, with the inducement of money, do not want to be explicit in all the protocols that pertain to the performance of the project. For example, occasionally, they don't want to really put a particular amount of money within

the university. They would like to control the greatest amount of money within their institutions. So, that presents a challenge in the sense that at times you do not know, exactly, the clarity of the budget lines or budget items. (Personal Interview #14A, 2010, Transcript)

A general outcry in most African IHEs is the lack of involvement of local researchers and institutions in the decision making process involving international donors, as a faculty member describes:

We had a conference meeting at the National Museums of Kenya. That project was funded by the European Union. The leaders of the project were expatriates. I chaired a sub-committee that was looking at the history of Kenya. We were looking at the things we should cover and what we should display . . . I could see, right from the word go, that the decisions were made elsewhere. Again, the people in the forefront of the project are not Kenyans, but people from elsewhere. All they did was to call us for a one day workshop to decide, or assist them with deciding, what should be in the exhibition or not. So, here you are, National Museum of Kenya, and it is the expatriates who are driving the process. That, likely of course, is because they are the ones who are providing the financial resources. So, in other words, what I am driving at is that the external influences have not all been that positive. (Personal Interview #16A, 2010, Transcript)

And in cases where there is some degree of involvement but the outcome does not please the donor agencies, there is always the risk that the donor would identify some other

easier target for joint projects with minimal benefits, as captured in the reflections of a former UoN administrator:

Sometimes it is extremely painful. For example, there was a time when we wouldn't accept some program. But eventually, we would find that the external collaborators go to a sister university, which is maybe not quite there yet, and they go and push their program on them, and it is accepted. By refusing to take it ourselves, we end up really seeing as if we have lost something. Of course, in the end, the other university benefits. That was an experience we had in my day.

(Personal Interview #3F, 2010, Transcript)

6.3.5 Commodification of Education in a Globalized Economy

African IHEs have not been immune to the global trends in accessing higher educational opportunities. Some approaches commonly adopted by most IHEs to address the limited access include, but not limited to, branch campuses, franchised foreign academic programs or degrees, independent institutions based on foreign academic models, and privatization of higher education. Altbach and Knight (2006) observed that “demand is increasing rapidly even in countries still enrolling under 20 percent of the age group, such as India, China, and much of Africa. Many international higher education services—focused on profits—provide access to students in countries lacking the domestic capacity to meet the demand” (Altbach & Knight, 2006, p. 3). In the Kenyan higher educational landscape, the World Bank Privatization Policies of the 1990s led to radical reforms in the higher education sector in order to increase system capacity to meet

increased demand for post-secondary education (Oketch 2003; 2009; Teferra and Altbach 2003; Nafukho, 2004); Nyaigoti-Chacha, 2004, Abagi et al., 2005).

The growth of private institutions²² in post-independent Kenya (and the rest of Africa) has astounded higher education observers. Initially left for those who failed to meet the cut-off point for admission to the prestigious government funded public institutions, Kenyans have realized that these private institutions can save them time to graduation and offer competitive degree programs, not to mention international credit transferability to IHEs outside Kenya (Ngome 2003; Ministry of Education, 1996). As the number of privately sponsored institutions and degree programs offered continue to increase, questions have been raised about the quality of the degree programs offered at these institutions. The curriculum, for one, is largely geared towards the arts and commercial courses. Most of these institutions lack the resource capacity to adequately address the needs of courses in computer information technology and other sciences. They also lack adequately trained manpower to deliver the courses that they provide—leading to diluted money-driven short degree programs (Oketch 2003, 2009; Nafukho, 2004; Wesonga et al., 2007; Misori, 2008; Wangege-Ouma, 2008, Abagi et al., 2005; Mamdani, 2007, 2011).

As the leading higher educational provider in post independent Kenya, the University of Nairobi has felt the pressure of the quest for increased access to higher education. The introduction of a new system of education (commonly known as the 8-4-4²³ system of education) in 1985 has affected UoN in many ways. Although the country

²² The private universities fall under the Kenya Commission of Higher Education and have their own administrative structure separate from the public universities. However, the ministry of education is represented at the council's level and has a say in the general management of these institutions.

²³ Makkay (1981) report commissioned by the Kenya Government under the New Educational System Act introduced a new technically oriented system of education in Kenya to replace the old elitist system inherited from the British at

has invested heavily in this new system of education, it has also featured prominently in the national political and academic discourse. Whereas critics question its relevance, efficiency, and cost to both the parents and the government, supporters tout its efficiency in aligning Kenya's educational system with that of North American colleges and universities. Specifically, the new four-year degree program (versus 3-year degree in the old 7-6-3 system) is readily acceptable at American Universities where students are eligible to begin their university education after only 12 years of pre-university schooling (Kenya Report, 2000; Eshiwani, 1993; Ministry of Education, 1996; Oketch 2003, 2009; 2009; Oywa, 2011).

The Kenya government has also faced problems related to the quality of education offered under the 8-4-4 system of education. Overcrowding at the public institutions of higher learning in Kenya has compromised the quality of training offered. The two "double intakes" (that is, the simultaneous admission of candidates completing their high school education in two successive academic years in 1987/88 and 1990/91) have worsened the situation in Kenyan seven public universities. Additionally, the prolonged closure of the university following a 1982 coup attempt coupled with the shift in the country's education cycle from 7-6-3 to 8-4-4 cycle has partly contributed to the management crises at Kenyan public universities (Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004). It is at this time period that private institutions increased in number, rising to 17 by 2009 / 2010 academic year to absorb a growing number of dissatisfied students (and faculty), as one

independence. The 8-4-4 system of education which consists of 8 years of primary, 4 years of secondary, and 4 years of university education for a basic degree replaced the old 7-6-3 system of education (7 years of primary, 6 years of secondary, and 3 years of university education (See also Kenya Report, 2000; Ministry of Education, 1996; Eshiwani, 1993).

senior faculty reflects on the genesis of these alternative means to accessing higher education in Kenya :

The private institutions, when they were created, it was solely to bridge that gap. The most unfortunate thing is that being a developing country, and the level of poverty that we have in this country, not many parents could actually afford the fees that were being charged by these private institutions. So, again, they were left to the few who actually could afford it. Remember, part of the structural adjustment programs never allowed for government expenditure in tertiary education. So, even the amount of money that would have been set aside for that purpose was, basically, to be used for something else. The emphasis was not on tertiary education. Whenever academic members of staff, at the tertiary level, cried for better funds, the structural adjustment programs imposers never considered this as important. It didn't matter. That meant the government couldn't do a thing. There was no money; and if there was any money then that money was meant for something else other than improving the welfare of the academic members of staff and students. To me, those were negatives. (Personal Interview #14F, 2010, Transcript)

The Kenyan experiences with World Bank imposed privatization policies reflect numerous other cases in Third World countries that have opened their doors to international higher education providers. Researchers have questioned the likelihood of leveling the international IHE playing field, especially with the implementation of the

General Agreement on Traders and Services (GATS) initiatives²⁴. Schoole (2004) observed that “it is doubtful whether it would be beneficial for the continent to open its education markets to outside providers without first having overcome some of the deficiencies of the past that led to Africa’s underdevelopment” (p. 310). Branch campuses housed within city limits in most Kenyan towns with links to IHEs in the North have increased significantly—offering stiff competition for Kenyan public higher education providers like The University of Nairobi. One faculty member reflects the mood on campus, “We have moved into what one calls a corporate attitude, a competitive attitude so we can compete effectively. We look at the university not as an igloo of academicians in isolation from the outside world” (Personal Interview #14F, 2010, Transcript).

While it is arguably true that the rise of private postsecondary institutions and parallel degree programs has offered thousands of Kenyans numerous opportunities to higher education, the question of access to these private institutions continues to raise increasing concern among Kenyans. Critics argue that these institutions have not really helped alleviate equitable distribution of spaces to deserving students. On the contrary, some of these institutions have turned into money making degree mills targeting the rich and well placed in society (Oketch, 2003, 2009; Ngome; 2003; Nyaigotti-Chacha, 2004; Nafukho, 2004; Wesonga et al., 2007). In a six country case study of private higher education in Africa, Thaver (2003) found out that private education is out of reach for most students across Africa. In Kenya for example, whereas Kenyatta University, one of the seven public universities currently in Kenya costs about \$415 annually in tuition, the

²⁴ The purpose of the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) is to progressively and systematically promote freer trade in services by removing many of the existing barriers to trade. Education is one of 12 service sectors covered by GATS (Knight, 2002).

Catholic University of Kenya, a private institution, charges \$1,268 a year. This study concluded that “high cost of education in Kenya may limit access to an elite class” constituting just about 10% of the Kenyan population (p. 56). Apart from leading to degree mills across the country and less government control in higher education, privatization policies have been viewed hugely as a negative global force in Kenyan higher educational terrain.

6.4 Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the motivating factors driving participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi and the attendant risks this participation has created in a post-colonial African University environment. The key motivators include teaching, research, service and professional development avenue, international profile and image building, economic gains to the institution and the individuals, and a social-cultural avenue for showcasing the rich Kenyan culture to the world. Some of the risks include brain drain, violation of intellectual property rights, multilateral presence in decision making process, and commodification of higher education. It is safe to infer from the foregoing that the Kenyan higher educational landscape, and indeed the rest of sub-Saharan Africa, has been influenced largely by events outside the borders of Kenya. The historical beginnings of the University of Nairobi as a colonial African University and the growing pains of the post-independent years have certainly shaped policy and institutional level actions and choices as the University of Nairobi seeks to redefine her place in the global community of higher education providers in the post-colonial era. The

tension between the global influences and the local imperatives is at the center of this redefinition.

CHAPTER SEVEN
CONCLUSION: REFLECTIONS ON INTERDEPENDENCE IN
AN UNEQUAL WORLD

7.1 Introduction

This case study investigated the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation in international activity by Kenyan institutions of higher education (KIHES) as they seek to find their place in the global community of higher education providers in the years following political independence. The case of the University of Nairobi (UON) was used to illuminate institutional level experiences with international engagement in a post-colonial African university context. This investigation included library research, document analysis, multiple campus visits, and 20 formal interviews with the faculty and administrators of the University of Nairobi via Skype in phase one of the investigation and face-to-face in phase two of the study conducted at the University of Nairobi in the summer of 2010.

Chapters One and Two introduce the research problem and provide an overview of the theoretical foundations informing my investigation. It has been noted that studies on internationalization of institutions of higher education have commonly focused on the experiences of the developed world with little attention to the former European colonies in Africa and the rest of the developing world. Research shows these institutions enter the field of international education on an unequal footing given their historical beginnings as colonial universities (Arnove, 1980; Altbach, 2004; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008). Consequently, engaging in international activity from the periphery requires tough

institutional level choices in the face of monumental challenges brought forth by an increasingly interconnected world.

An overview of dependency theory has also been provided, focusing on its basic assumptions and limitations. In sum, dependency theory has been used extensively to study underdevelopment in peripheral areas of the world (Wallerstein, 1974, Carnoy, 1974; Rodney, 1982; Arnove 1984). It is generally argued that globalization forces brought forth by economic, technological, political, cultural, and scientific trends that directly affect the planning for and delivery of higher educational services world over have subjected all institutions of higher education to the same forces—creating powerful centers and weak peripheries in international engagement (Stromquist, 2007; Teferra & Altbach, 2004, 2005, Obambo & Mwema, 2009). As a result, the internationalization literature points to a sharply divided debate on the benefits of including an international dimension in the core functions of institutions of higher education world over.

Proponents of international initiatives normally stress their benefits to participating institutions, including economic gains, cultural diversity, homeland security, educational and research opportunities, and increased knowledge base (Green, Olson & Hill, 2006; Green & Olson, 2003; Knight, 2003; American Council on Education, 1995; Holzner & Greenwood, 1995). Critics, on the other hand, see them as a harmful tool of domination and control by the developing world over historically marginalized Third World countries (Stromquist, 2007; Teferra & Altbach, 2004, 2005; de Wit, 2002, Tikly, 2001; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Mazrui, 1984; Carnoy, 1974). A major limitation commonly associated with dependency theory includes its tendency to overlook the attendant consequences the colonizer/colonized relationship has produced in Third World IHEs as

they seek to redefine their positions in the global community of higher educational providers in the years following the attainment of political independence. An overarching assumption underlying dependency theory, critics observe, is the fact that there exists a dominant center and a dependent periphery and that these peripheral regions in the less developed countries lack the power to chart their own course in their participation in international activity (Cardoso & Faletto 1979; Hubble, 2008).

Chapter Three of this study provides a detailed description of study design, research site, participant selection, research methods and procedures, and research limitations. Chapter Four presents a campus portrait of institutional level choices and actions surrounding engagement in international activity at the University of Nairobi. Data show that participation in international activity is valued and understood to be a collaborative effort including various stakeholders from within the institution, the nation, and the international community. This study shows that the University of Nairobi has experienced significant challenges as an emerging higher education provider in the East and Central African region. These challenges include increased competition from private institutions of higher education, dwindling resources to cope with physical and personnel expansion, infrastructural challenges in the wake of World Bank imposed structural adjustment programs (SAPs), and general growing pains of an emerging post-colonial African institution of higher education (Bogonko 1992; Eshiwani 1993; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996; Samoff & Carroll, 2003; Ngome 2003; Sawyerr, 2004; Stromquist 2007). Chapter Five highlights the major turning points with regards to the international dimension at the University of Nairobi since its inception as a post-colonial African university. Some notable changes that have impacted international activity at UoN are in

the areas of degree programs offered, curriculum and administrative reforms, cost sharing policies, privatization initiatives, information technology changes, and increased regional alliances. Data suggest that the Kenyan higher educational landscape, and indeed the rest of sub-Saharan Africa, has been influenced largely by events outside their borders. The historical beginnings of the University of Nairobi as a colonial African University and the growing pains of the post-independent years have had significant influence in policy formulations at institutional and national levels. It is also notable that despite the fact that UoN enters the internationalization realm amidst numerous challenges, data show an institution that is beginning to confront some of the structural limitations resulting from her colonial genesis by creating new ways of (re)negotiating her peripheral position in the global community of higher educational providers

Using the major turning points in Kenya's higher educational landscape as a backdrop, Chapter Six focuses on the motivating factors driving participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi and the attendant risks this participation has created in a post-colonial African University environment. The central argument is that the influence of the powerful centers over peripheral developing regions of the Third World and the gross inequities that this relationship has brought to bear in the developing post-colonial African University environment has influenced institutional level choices in engaging in international activity at the University of Nairobi. The Kenyan higher educational landscape, and indeed the rest of sub-Saharan Africa, has been influenced largely by events outside their environment (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some 2008; Obambo & Mwema, 2009; Altbach, 2002; 2004; Samoff & Carroll, 2004; Brock-Utne, 2003; Atieno-Odhiambo, 1995; Ochieng & Ogot, 1995). The key motivators include teaching,

research, service and professional development avenue, international profile and image building, economic gains to the institution and the individuals, and a social-cultural avenue for showcasing the rich Kenyan culture to the world. Some of the risks include brain drain, violation of intellectual property rights, multilateral presence in decision making process, and commodification of higher education.

7.2 Study Implications

From a researcher perspective, the case of the University of Nairobi's experiences with internationalization provides a cautionary tale to those institutions of higher education in the developing world who now want to re-engage the developed world in the years following the achievement of political independence. This case study reveals that University of Nairobi is entering the international dimension with huge structural and resource limitations following the economic downturn of the 1980s and 1990s that has subjected most institutions of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa to a starvation diet. Consequently, participation in international activity has continued some of the traditional North-South asymmetries in international engagement as evidenced by the increasing multilateral presence and external support for university operations and human capacity building. However, this study also challenges the traditional notion that such relationships cannot move beyond dependence into interdependence. The University of Nairobi now finds herself in a unique position to renegotiate her peripheral position by seeking alliances that target reciprocity rather than chronic dependence on the developed world for survival. This repositioning will require tough institutional level choices in establishing a support and reward structure for internationalization initiatives.

At policy level, it is important for higher education actors within the Republic of Kenya and other stakeholders at institutional level to be aware of the complex environment within which the University of Nairobi is entering the internationalization realm as she exploits the benefits and confronts the potential risks in engaging in international activity. Regional policy and support structure for internationalization, including course credit transfer and capacity building initiatives may also help in promoting international networks within the continent of Africa. Such initiatives will certainly provide African IHEs with more say in the areas of teaching, research, and professional development. Some examples of such initiatives include the revival of the East African Community to enhance political, economic (and academic) integration for the three East African countries (Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania), and the University of Nairobi's membership to some of the key regional organizations like the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA), the Council for the Development of Social Sciences (CODESRIA), African Network for International Education (ANIE), the New Partnerships for African Development (NEPAD), and the Association of African Universities (AAU). Additionally, institutional prioritization and support structure for faculty is likely to increase interest and participation in international activity, including professional development and research support funds, reduced teaching load, and a shared reward structure for participation in international activity.

7.3 Further Research

This study opens new grounds for studying African institutions of higher education and their experiences with internationalization in the post-colonial era. This

section provides suggestions for further research. As already noted in Chapter One, this case study only involved one public institution of higher education in the Republic of Kenya. Further research needs to be done on the experiences of other Kenyan institutions of higher learning, especially private universities and other non-degree granting institutions in the Republic of Kenya. Secondly, even though faculty and administrator perspective offered invaluable insight on the motives behind participation in international activity in this study, the experiences of students and other stakeholders in the internationalization process may produce different results beyond the scope of this investigation.

Another area of further research revolves around the change factor and how it has transformed the Kenyan higher educational landscape with regards to the international dimension in the areas of teaching, research and professional development. Chapter five discusses the major turning points in Kenya's higher educational landscape citing regional alliances as one of the positive indicators in countering chronic reliance on external support. An interesting question would be an investigation into how African institutions have responded to such initiatives in the wake of growing criticisms that most African IHEs have adopted a "go-it-alone" stance that has impeded the creation of a powerful front to counter the immense influence emanating from the developed world. Another equally viable area of further inquiry is financing of international activity in African institutions of higher education. In Chapter Six, I discuss the rationales for participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi. Participants mentioned a range of motivating factors, including research, professional development, and financial benefits to individual participants. Questions revolving around how funding for research

and professional development initiatives is carried out at the University of Nairobi can provide insight into faculty attitudes towards participation in internationalization efforts at institutional level. In sum, this case study shows that the road to independent interdependence for most institutions of higher education in the marginalized, peripheral Third World countries is still very much under construction. The following section provides my final thoughts from a researcher perspective with regards to the major contributions of this study to the field of comparative international education.

7.4 Dependent Interdependence in the Post-Colonial Era: A Cautionary Tale

Internationalization of IHEs has increasingly become a priority in institutions of higher education in both the developed and developing world (American Council on Education, 1995,2003; Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Jowi, 2011). In order to fully participate in the internationalization agenda, institutions continually strive to (re)position themselves to exploit the opportunities and confront the challenges brought forth by increased interconnectedness of world nations on a global stage. Resource dependency theorists have rightly observed that that this trend is not optional, as no institution can claim to be completely self-reliant and independent of other organizations in the face of numerous socio-economic, political, cultural and technological forces that impact institutions of higher education on a global stage (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003; Emerson, 2007). However, international connectedness that now characterizes institutions of higher education world over raises the question of the challenges of collaboration in an unequal world (Altbach, 2002; 2004). The results from this study suggest that for African institutions of higher education, barely half a century old into self-governance, engaging

in international activity with the more developed world nations has perpetuated the colonial legacy that has relegated these institutions to the position of the Other in the new international order. Indeed, the results from this study offer several policy and theoretical implications on what it means to participate in international activity from a marginal, peripheral position. Contrary to the conventional assumption that political independence would bring to most African countries, and by extension their national public universities, a period of freedom from political, economic and cultural subjugation and exploitation by the more powerful world nations, we conclude that the so-called independence has ushered in a new kind of dependence on the powerful centers.

The policies that were erected during the establishment of the colonial African university that saw the blatant imposition of a British curriculum and general English orientations on most African universities still, for the most part, guide intellectual thought and traditions in the modern African university environment (Ashby, 1964; Ajayi, Goma, & Johnson, 1996). The measures that the colonial administration adopted at the creation of the modern African University were meant to facilitate colonial administration, but they did not end with the attainment of political independence. Instead the colonial subjugation of sub-Saharan Africa has continued in policies and decisions made outside the continent that have direct consequences on institutional level governance and decision making processes. Even though it is arguably true that these institutions now exhibit a certain degree of agency in the post-independent years, the Western colonial traditions on whose foundation they sprung continue to influence how things are done at institutional level, as the case of the University of Nairobi has demonstrated.

My concluding thoughts in this study take me back to the main research question that guided this investigation: What forces influence participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi in the post-colonial era? I began this study well aware of the commonly used metaphors in international education literature most of which hinge on the idea of a flat world, where international borders are increasingly becoming fluid and international connectedness the way of the future for institutions of higher education that want to remain relevant in the global community of higher educational providers. The works of Rodney (1982) *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*, Carnoy (1974) *Education as Cultural Imperialism*, and Ashby (1964) *African Universities and Western Tradition* informed my thinking as I began piecing together the story of a post-colonial African university's experiences with internationalization.

What struck me as I pored through data was the glaring fact that history has not been fair to all, not even at the international table of brotherhood. I read the works of international higher education gurus like Altbach, Arnove, Mazrui, Sammoff, Stromquist, alongside, Olson, Green, Siaya, & Hayward of American Council of Education and became keenly aware that international cooperation and understanding, commonly cited as one of the benefits of an internationalized campus, may mean different things to different people. For the marginalized Third World IHEs, barely fifty years in the making, cooperation with a more developed, economically stable partner is clearly a cooperation of unequals. Take the example of research which is rated as one of the top international activity efforts at most IHEs in sub-Saharan Africa. This study reveals that for the University of Nairobi faculty to engage in any meaningful research activity and get published in a refereed journal, they must seek partnerships with individuals and

institutions with access to funding and publishing houses based in the developed countries. For this reason, research at this case study university has been reduced to dollar-driven initiatives with little focus on relevance to the local Kenyan environment. Secondly, the brain drain factor is yet another issue that stood out in this investigation. It became clear that most of my research participants have, in one way or the other, obtained their academic degrees in institutions outside the borders of Kenya and have maintained significant contact with the outside world in their academic careers upon returning home. Even though these participants chose to return home, taking up teaching positions at the prestigious UoN, many of their compatriots remained abroad. Indeed, the refrain was the same across campus as I collected data for this study: “we are training for the West.”

This study shows that it is not uncommon for University of Nairobi students, like their counterparts in other African countries, to leave their home institution upon graduation for post-graduate opportunities abroad. Indeed, most of my informants link the shortage in personnel at UoN to foreign trained students refusing to return home, choosing instead more attractive jobs abroad (Jowi, Kiamba, & Some, 2008; Cheserek, 2011; Jowi, 2011). Whereas their presence in the diaspora is normally extolled by receiving foreign institutions of higher education as a positive indicator of an internationalized campus, the loss to local public universities in Kenya as a nation, and Africa as a continent, is monumental. In cases where the battle is brought to the Kenyan shores in the form of branch campuses and off-shore degree programs that have found a new home in Kenya, the picture gets even uglier. The rapid increase in the number of off- shore degree programs, branch campuses, and joint degree programs in post-

independent Kenya has dealt a deathblow to the local public universities now faced with cut-throat competition over teaching personnel and degree programs. This competition has resulted from the fact that these institutions offer better terms of service to underpaid University of Nairobi professors and time-to-degree completion to desperate Kenyan students. Another example of competition comes in the form of cyber warfare between Kenyan institutions of higher education (KIHEs) and IHEs in the developed world. We find that students (and even faculty) of the University of Nairobi can now enroll and complete degree programs completely online without leaving Kenya. Whereas research participants extol these new opportunities as benefits to the individual institutions and to the Kenyan public in general, the greatest concern is the impact this competition has had on the Kenyan higher educational landscape.

Overall, the experiences of the University of Nairobi with internationalization calls into question the idea of agency and interdependence between institutions of higher education in the marginalized, peripheral Third World countries and those in the more developed countries. Even though the narratives from the University of Nairobi faculty and administrators suggest an institution that has used the structural constraints brought forth by the dominant external forces to renegotiate her position in the international community of higher education providers in the years following political independence, the findings of this study show that that Kenyan institutions of higher education, like their other African counterparts, have not yet broken away from the colonial mold that created them. There are indeed monumental limitations to the agency that UoN now enjoys as an emergent post-colonial African university. Granted, historically the University of Nairobi has always occupied the center stage in the development of higher education in Kenya

and the neighboring African countries. As a matter of fact, significant strides towards autonomy since her humble beginnings as a colonial university have been realized. For example, compared to the early years of its creation as a university college linked to the University of London, and later as a stand-alone university, UoN has sought to engage other partners beyond Europe, including those in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. A walk through UoN campus brought this awareness home. The student composition and the magnificent presence of Chinese and Korean centers on campus is a clear indication that UoN is reaching out to other partners beyond the traditional partnerships with European countries.

To further fortify her position, UoN has established membership and network opportunities with other developing countries with similar historical experiences. These alliances, participants observe, are good for the university “because you are internationalizing with people that have gone through experiences that you have gone through . . . as opposed to interacting only with Europe, whereby you are basically a toddler walking next to an old man. The distances there are big” (Personal Interview #8A, 2010, Transcript). However, as much as engaging others beyond the traditional Europe/Africa partnerships have offered an attractive alternative to African IHEs, observers note that these new partners, especially from Asia are becoming Africa’s new imperialist power. A case in point is China’s presence in sub-Saharan Africa. By 2004 over \$5 billion in loans to African countries came from China, 30% of China’s oil is from Africa, not to mention over 700 Chinese companies operating in 49 out of the 54 African countries (Cheng, 2007). At the University of Nairobi, an imposing Confucius Institute focusing on Chinese culture and civilization is cited as one of the visible signs of an

internationalized UoN. Data show that 12% of the total links and partnerships at UoN are with Asia and research funding and scholarships form the key components of these partnerships. The story is not any different at national levels. Major roads, hospitals, airports, institutions of higher learning in Kenya are contracted to Chinese companies.

Another level of limitations to UoN's agency in international engagement can be viewed against the backdrop of rationales for participation in international activity. This study reveals that the key motivators driving participation in international activity in a peripheral African environment is a consequence of contextual factors, some of which are external to the University and others purely internal and individual in nature. For example, whereas the academic rationales for participation, including research outlet, professional development avenue, and networking are commonly cited as key motivators for international engagement at UoN, data reveal equally powerful economic motivators driving international engagement. Faculty members have learned their role in the academic marketplace by utilizing their academic capital to supplement their low incomes. Avenues such as dollar-driven research agenda and consultancy, moonlighting in branches of foreign universities surrounding UoN, consulting with foreign companies and NGOs based in Kenya and abroad, sourcing competitive grants through the many foundations that have found their way into the country have become popular at the University of Nairobi.

This study reveals that faculty members are not the only culprits in the commercialization of KIHES. The University of Nairobi administration has also recognized the competitive nature of the higher educational marketplace and has channeled her efforts towards engaging in income generating avenues for capacity

building initiatives. Such efforts include the introduction of module II programs that absorb privately sponsored students, who in the old order, would seek higher learning opportunities in foreign institutions, admitting foreign fee paying students, introduction of highly competitive short courses taken in the evenings and weekends, flexible schedules targeting non-traditional students, sourcing support grants from multi-lateral corporations. This study reveals that such initiatives, commonly cited as benefits to the institution, have put the University of Nairobi in a vulnerable position as a collaborator in the internationalization process, forcing her to introduce stricter rules and procedures for collaboration. For example, in the area of joint research collaborations, the University of Nairobi is now requiring their research partners to enter into proper memoranda of understanding regarding intellectual property rights in order to protect discoveries and innovations resulting from joint research initiatives between UoN and collaborators outside the university. The University of Nairobi faculty and administrators stress the fact that the university has matured into a smarter, more aware collaborator.

Another area of new development is the recognition that there is a lot in the Kenyan environment that can allow UoN researchers to collaborate with others outside Kenya while at the same time addressing local needs. For example, the Center for Tropical and Infectious Disease at UoN has become a leader in carrying top notch research in areas such as Malaria and HIV that have more significance to the people of Kenya and the continent of Africa as a whole. However, funding and general operations still remains under the control of external donors.

In the area of information technology, this study reveals that a new platform for engaging in international activity has emerged at UoN that has put more power in the

hands of faculty in terms of decisions to engage in international activity compared to the early years. Indeed, my observations in the field confirms a new wave of stakeholders in the internationalization process at UoN armed with laptops, cell phones, Skype, Facebook and other social network sites. These avenues have changed the internationalization game plan at UoN. In this new order of operation, the “beentos” and “wannabes” converge in cyberspace reconnecting with old classmates, dissertation advisors, funding agencies, academic sponsors, research partners and other international collaborators without necessarily seeking permission or blessings from the institution for participation. However, as much as these new initiatives may be viewed as positive developments in connecting the University of Nairobi faculty and students to the wider global community, this study shows that the University of Nairobi Information Technology revolution is still in its tottering infancy compared to the developed world. Participants note network and bandwidth obstacles, cost of access, and quality assurance as major challenges making it virtually impossible to implement IT component in courses offered at Kenya’s oldest public institution of higher education.

Overall, the University of Nairobi as an institution of higher education has many contextual challenges yet to be overcome in her efforts to participate in international activity. Some of these challenges emanate from the institution’s historical colonial birth; others are environmental, while others are strictly a consequence of institutional culture and mindset. Some of the challenges that emerged from my conversations with UoN faculty and administrators include, lack of travel funds, lack of resources for human capacity building, shortage of faculty and staff, heavy teaching load, bureaucracy, loss of faculty control of research agenda, and intellectual property rights violations. Despite

these challenges and structural limitations, participants in this investigation remain hopeful that the University of Nairobi, like her other counterparts in sub-Saharan Africa, can still create a niche for herself by taking advantage of the very colonial legacy that has imposed institutional level constraints upon them in the post-colonial era. There is a shared understanding at institutional level that engaging in international activity, with all its challenges and possibilities, places African institutions of higher education in a unique position to contribute effectively to the production and transmission of global knowledge. However, this realization comes in the wake of monumental challenges and many miles to cover in comparison to institutions of higher education in the developed world. As one senior faculty member succinctly put it: “I think that the University of Nairobi cannot be an Oxford or a Harvard or a Berkeley no matter how hard we try. UoN, in my view, has to develop a niche which is based on its culture and the culture of its people” (Personal Interview #19F, 2010, Transcript). Developing this niche amidst chronic dependence on foreign assistance, we can conclude, is the greatest threat to cultivating an independent interdependent relationship between African institutions of higher education and the developed world.

Appendix A: Consent Form

Internationalization of an African University in the Post-Colonial Era: A Case Study of the University of Nairobi

I agree to participate in the research study “Internationalization of an African University in the Post-Colonial Era: A Case Study of the University of Nairobi” being conducted by Iddah Aoko Otieno, a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Policy Studies and Evaluation at the University of Kentucky under the supervision of her faculty advisor, Dr. Beth Goldstein. This case study will focus on institutional level responses to the changing higher educational environment as carried out within the context of a Kenyan public university. The research will investigate the forces that influence policy, procedures, and participation as these institutions seek to find their place in the global community of higher education providers in the years following political independence.

I understand that my participation in the research project will require a telephone interview via Skype lasting approximately 1 hour. I also understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may choose to withdraw from the study at any time or not answer any question that I may be asked during the interview without risk of forfeiting any benefits to which I might be entitled. I also agree to participate in a follow-up face-to-face interview when the researcher visits the University of Nairobi in the summer of 2010. I agree to have my interview digitally recorded. I will not be remunerated for my participation in this study.

I understand that whereas the researcher will not conceal the name of my institution of affiliation, I will be given a pseudonym in any publication or presentation that may derive from this study. I understand that by agreeing to participate in this study, I will not be subjecting myself to any greater risk than those encountered in everyday life. I also understand that my Skype recorded interviews will be protected under Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) provided by Skype. As with any other voice recording technology, I am aware of the limits to confidentiality in Skype generated interviews.

Should I have additional questions about the study or my participation in it, I may contact Iddah Otieno at 859-246-6341; Iddah.Otieno@kctcs.edu, Dr. Beth Goldstein at 859 257 2705; bethg@coe.uky.edu, or Prof. S. O Mitema, Director of the Centre for International Programmes & Links, The University of Nairobi, Kenya; international@uonbi.ac.ke; 01125420214917 ext. 28547. Should I have any questions about my research rights as a research volunteer, I may contact the staff in the Office of Research Integrity at the University of Kentucky at 859-257-9428.

Signature of person agreeing to take part in the study

Date

Printed name of the person agreeing to take part in the study

Signature of Research Assistant

Date

Printed name of Research Assistant

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL—UoN Faculty & Administrators

1. Opening: Thank you for agreeing to participate in my research project. Tell me about your responsibilities at the University of Nairobi?
2. What international activity efforts exist at the University of Nairobi?
3. Who is involved in international activity at the University of Nairobi?
4. What infrastructure exists at Nairobi University to support international activity?
5. Why does the University of Nairobi encourage participation in international activity?
6. What have been the benefits of the University of Nairobi's participation in international activity? In what ways have these benefits been evident?
7. What have been the risks of the University of Nairobi's participation in international activity? In what ways have these risks been evident?
8. What challenges is the University of Nairobi yet to overcome in her efforts to participate in international activity?
9. What external forces have impacted participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi?
10. How have these forces manifested themselves at institutional level?
11. How has the University of Nairobi responded to these external forces?
12. How has the University of Nairobi's participation in international activity changed since its inception?
13. What policy changes have taken place at the University of Nairobi with regards to participation in international activity since independence?
14. Has there been a shift in rationales driving participation in international activity at the University of Nairobi since independence? In what ways has this shift been evident?
15. Closing: Is there anything I have left out in this interview that you wish to add at this time?

Appendix C: UoN Academic Structure: Colleges / Faculties / Schools

College	Faculty/Schools/Institutes/Centres	Departments/Thematic Areas
College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences (CAVS) – [Principal]	Faculty of Agriculture [Dean]	-Department of Land Resource Management and Agricultural Technology -Department of Plant Science and Crop Protection -Department of Food Technology and Nutrition -Department of Agricultural Economics
	Faculty of Veterinary Medicine [Dean]	-Department of Veterinary Farm -Department of Veterinary Anatomy and Physiology -Department of Veterinary Pathology, Microbiology & Parasitology -Department of Animal Production -Department of Clinical Studies -Department of Public Health Pharmacology and Toxicology
	The Wangari Maathai Institute for Peace and Environmental Studies [Director]	
College of Architecture and Engineering (CAE) - [Principal]	School of the Arts and Design [Director]	
	School of the Built Environment [Dean]	-Department of Architecture and Building Science -Department of Real Estate and Construction Management -Department of Urban and Regional Planning
	School of Engineering [Dean]	-Department of Civil Engineering -Department of Mechanical Engineering

		-Department of Electrical & Electronic Engineering -Department of Agricultural Engineering -Department of Surveying
	Institute of Nuclear Science & Technology [Director]	
College of Biological and Physical Sciences (CBPS) [Principal]	Centre for Biotechnology & Bioinformatics (CEBIB) [Director]	
	School of Physical Sciences [Dean]	-Department of Chemistry -Department of Geography and Environmental Studies -Department of Geology -Department of Meteorology -Department of Physics.
	School of Biological Sciences [Director]	
	School of Mathematics [Director]	
	School of Computing and Informatics [Director]	
College of Education and External Studies (CEES) [Principal]	School of Education [Dean]	-Department of Educational Administration and Planning -Department of Educational Communication and Technology -Department of Educational Foundations -Department of Physical Education and Sport
	School of Continuing and Distance Education (SCDE) [Dean]	-Department of extra Mural Studies -Distance Studies -Department of Educational Studies
	Centre for Open and Distance Learning (codl) [Director]	
	Kenya Science Campus [Deputy Principal]	

College of Health Sciences (CHS) [Principal]	School of Nursing Sciences [Director]	-Thematic Areas: Medical/ Surgical Nursing; Obstetrics /Midwifery and Gynaecological Nursing; Community Health Nursing; Nursing Education and Administration
	Centre for Hiv Prevention and Research (uon-chivpr) [Director]	
	Institute of Tropical & Infectious Diseases (UNITID) [Director]	
	School of Medicine [Dean]	-Department of Human Anatomy -Department of Medical Physiology -Department of Biochemistry -Department of Community Health -Department of Clinical Medicine and Therapeutics -Department of Paediatrics -Department of Surgery -Department of Obstetrics And Gynaecology -Department of Human Pathology -Department of Psychiatry -Department of Diagnostic Imaging and Radiation Medicine -Department of Orthopaedic Surgery -Department of Ophthalmology Dept -Department of Medical Microbiology
	School of Pharmacy [Dean]	-Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry -Department of Pharmaceutics and Pharmacy Practice -Department of Pharmacology and Pharmacognosy
	School of Dental Sciences [Dean]	-Department of Periodontology/Community

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> and Preventive Dentistry -Department of Conservative and Prosthetic Dentistry -Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, Oral Pathology and Oral Medicine -Department of Paediatric Dentistry /Orthodontics
College of Humanities and Social Sciences (CHSS) [Principal]	School of Economics [Director]	
	Faculty of Arts [Dean]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Department of Linguistics and Languages -Department of Literature -Sub-Department of French -Department of Philosophy & Religious Studies -Department of History & Archeology -Department of Political Science & Public Administration -Department of Geography & Environmental Studies -Department of Sociology -Department of Psychology- Department of Language and Study Skills
	School of Business [Dean]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Department of Business Administration -Department of Finance and Accounting -Department of Management Science
	School of Law [Dean]	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Department of Private Law -Department of Commercial Law -Department of Public Law
	Institute for Development Studies (IDS) [Director]	
	Institute of Diplomacy and International Studies (IDIS)	

	[Director]	
	Population Studies and Research Institute (PSRI) [Director]	
	Institute of Anthropology, Gender & African Studies (IAS) [Director]	
	School of Journalism [Director]	

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M.A., English, Eastern Kentucky University, Richmond, KY, August 2001

B.ED, English, Maseno University, Maseno, Kenya, December 1994

TEACHING POSITIONS HELD:

Associate Professor

Bluegrass Community and Technical College

Fall 2007-Present

Assistant Professor

Bluegrass Community and Technical College

Fall 2004-2006

Instructor

Lexington Community College

2001-2004

Teaching Assistant

Eastern Kentucky University

1999-2001

Instructor

Eastern Kentucky University

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Computer Lab Assistant

Eastern Kentucky University

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Lab Tutor

Eastern Kentucky University, 1996-1999

High School Teacher

Kisumu Boys' High School, Kenya

1994-1996

COURSES TAUGHT:

ENG 264 Major Black Writers

ENG 264 presents a cross-cultural and historical approach to written and oral works by Black authors of Africa, the Caribbean, and the United States. The authors include writers such as Chinua Achebe (Africa), Earl Lovelace (Caribbean), and Toni Morrison (U.S.A.)

HUM 150 Introduction to African Literature

This course presents a cross-cultural and historical approach to the oral and written works by major Black writers of Africa. Authors include Africa's literary giants such as Nigeria's Chinua Achebe (*Things Fall Apart*), Senegal's Mariama Bâ (*So Long a Letter*), Kenya's Ngugi Wa Thiong'o (*The River Between*), Uganda's Okot p' Bitek (*Song of Lawino*), among others. Course focuses on the role of African literature in developing a national identity in the former colonies of Africa and presents African perspectives on European images of Africa through class lectures, readings, and discussions.

ENG 102 Writing II

ENG 102 emphasizes expository and argumentative writing, including researched documented papers; focusing on research sources and methods, with emphasis on analytical reading and development of fluent, precise, and versatile prose style. A writing course focusing on continued instruction and practice in reading critically, thinking logically, responding to texts, developing research skills, writing substantial essays through systematic revision, addressing specific audiences, expressing ideas in standard and correct English

ENC 091 Foundations of College Writing II

ENC 091 is designed for students with some writing experience. This course includes instruction in the writing process, organizing an essay, editorial skills, critical reading, and a review of mechanics and grammar. This course also includes an introduction to research and documentation.

LEADERSHIP POSITIONS HELD:

INSTITUTIONAL SERVICE (BCTC)

Member, Humanities Division Office Manager Search Committee, April, 2012

Member, Multiculturalism and Inclusion Committee, 2011-2012

Chair, Faculty Awards Committee, 2011-Present

Academic Advisor, Education Majors, 2006-Present

Director, Kenya Exchange Program, 2003-Present

Chair, International Advisory Committee, Kenya Exchange Program, 2003-Present

Advisor, International Students, 2002-Present

OTHER SERVICES

Editorial Board Member, *Journal of Retracing Africa (JORA)*, 2012-Present

Chair, International Programs Best Practices Committee, Kentucky Community & Technical College, 2010-Present

Executive Board Member and Chair, Education Committee, Kentucky Refugee Ministries (KRM), Lexington Chapter, 2010-Present

Executive Board Member, Kentucky Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KYTESOL), 2002-Present

Executive Board Member and Chair, International Affairs, Madison County 31st Homemaker's Club—affiliated with the University of Kentucky Cooperative Extension Services, 2002-Present

SCHOLARSTIC AND PROFESSIONAL AWARDS:

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Faculty Award, Bluegrass Community & Technical College, Fall 2010
- National Institute for Staff and Organizational Development (NISOD) Teaching
Excellence Award (awarded at the University of Texas at Austin), May, 2007
- Teaching Assistantship, Eastern Kentucky, Department of English
Awarded full tuition remission, Department of English, 1999-2001

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIP:

1998: African Literature Association (ALA)

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2000: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

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2001: Kentucky Association of Blacks in Higher Education (KABHE)

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- Iddah Otieno. The Challenge of Integration: Tinto and International Students' College Experiences. *Kentucky Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference*, Louisville, Kentucky, October 18, 2010.
- Iddah Otieno. Teaching Through the Eyes of Border Crossers: The Experiences of Four Kenyan Scholars at an American Community College. Maseno University, Kenya, July 14, 2010.
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- Iddah Otieno. Teaching American Students: Separating Myth from Reality. Maseno University, Kenya, July 15, 2007.
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- Iddah Otieno. Preparing ESL Students to Succeed in College. *Kentucky Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference*, Georgetown, Kentucky, September 22, 2006.
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- Iddah Otieno. Teaching African Literature in a Western Setting. Maseno University, Maseno, Kenya, July 14, 2005.
- Iddah Otieno. The Need for Culturally Responsive Teaching in Mainstream American Classrooms. *Kentucky Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference*, Louisville, October 16, 2004.
- Iddah Otieno. Teaching Tolerance Through Literature Courses: Some Useful Strategies. *Kentucky Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference*, Lexington, Kentucky, October 19, 2003.
- Iddah Otieno. Teaching the African Novel. *Kentucky Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference*, Lexington, Kentucky, October 19, 2002.
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