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Experience and study outcomes of Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK

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EXPERIENCE AND STUDY OUTCOMES OF KENYAN STUDENTS PURSUING HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UK

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Salome Wanjiku Gichura certify that this thesis has been written by me and that it is a record of my own work. This work has not been submitted in any previous application to any other University for the award of a degree.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

DEDICATION

To my late father Solomon Gichura for all that you were and are and my loving mother Victoria Gichura.

ABSTRACT

The growth in numbers of Kenyans seeking study opportunities in international settings has increased in the last ten years. Despite this growth, there is a clear and growing epistemological gap on student's expectations and their experience, practice by host institutions and countries and how this impacts on students experience and study outcomes. To gain knowledge in this grey area, a case study design using a cross-sectional and a mixed data collection method was adopted. Data was collected in three stages beginning with a survey where questionnaires (N=300) were administered to Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK. In stage two, interviews were conducted with Kenyan students, Kenyan education policy makers and staff from UK universities. Stage three involved analysis of policy documents. Findings showed that many of the students had a positive study and living experience while for others it was negative characterised by study extension, leaving without an award, dropped out or did not socially adapt owing to practical challenges associated with living abroad. Government systems to support students during the pre-departure phase were lacking and those that provided information to potential students had an economic interest in their recruitment. Evidently, studying abroad for some was based on uniformed decision making. On arrival in the UK, some of the students did not use the university's and Kenya Government support services as they were not aware that they were available. The main implication of this study is the need for a comprehensive policy and a code of conduct to guide the activities of various stakeholders involved in international education in Kenya, provision of support systems that meet the needs of international students' and sensitisation of students to their use and availability. Key recommendations that aim to enhance the quality of experience of Kenyan students are made. This is to ensure the realisation of the potential benefits of an international education to the Kenya Government, UK institutions and the students. The recommendations relate to induction in Kenya and the UK, sensitisation, monitoring and information dissemination prior and during the study period. A department to coordinate and manage international education in Kenya is proposed with more stakeholder involvement.

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ABBREVIATIONS

EAC	East African Community
UCAS	Universities and Colleges Admission Service
KHC	Kenya High Commission
USA	United States of America
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
HE	Higher Education
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
TFHES	Task Force for Higher Education Services
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOHEST	Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology
KESSP	Kenya Education Sector Support Programme
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ISB	International Student Barometer
Col of Further Ed	College of Further Education

CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

The number of international students world-wide has continued to grow exponentially, with more than 2.5 million students studying outside their home countries (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley 2009, Marklein 2007). This number is expected to rise to 7.2 million by 2025 with 2.6 million of these students seeking places in major English speaking destination countries such as the United Kingdom (UK) and United States of America (Bohm *et al.* 2002, Marklein 2007). The flow of international students has been a reflection of national and institutional strategies but also the decisions of individual student's worldwide (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley 2009). Globally, the USA is still the most popular destination for international students, followed by the UK and then Australia (Mai 2005). In 2007 the UK had 330,080 international students (Ramsden 2007) pursuing a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate degrees in universities and other institutions of further education. Globally, international student mobility largely reflects a South-North phenomenon (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley 2009).

According to a British Council report (British Council 2004) several factors underpin this growth in patterns of global student mobility. These include: geographical, regional, historical connections between countries, language, the perceived quality of a country's education, its accessibility, affordability and the employability of its graduates. As these factors are on a global scale, there is need to understand from national perspectives what drives this demand for an international education, which this study seeks to do. Another major factor is the changing demographics which has resulted in an increasing population of young people completing secondary education in the rapidly growing economies of Asia and Africa. This has led to an unprecedented demand for higher education not only in home countries but internationally (OECD 2004). For example, on a global scale enrolments in secondary schools grew from forty million in 1995 to over four hundred million by 2000 (OECD 2004). During the same period tertiary enrolment grew fourteen times from 6.5 million to over 88 million (Ibid. 2004). The net result was that by the beginning of the 21st century four out of ten people living in the (OECD)

countries were likely to enrol at a university (Ibid. 2004). As a result, the number of international students throughout the OECD countries grew by 9 per cent compared to 5 percent growth among domestic students between 1995 and 1999 (Ibid. 2004). Globally, the percentage of the age cohort enrolled in tertiary education has grown from 19% in 2000 to 26% in 2007 with the most dramatic gains in upper middle and upper income countries (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley 2009).

In response to the global demand for higher education, the major destination countries have aligned their strategic development in higher education by enrolling large numbers of full fee-paying international students with a view to tapping into the economic competitiveness and gaining from this segment of student population (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley 2009). There is no doubt that, the increasing trends in international education services are being viewed by many governments within the OECD as a critical driver of education policy (Mazzarol and Soutar 2007). Another driver to internalisation of higher education is globalisation and the perceived benefits of cultural interactions and economic benefits (Bohm *et al.* 2004, Byram and Feng 2006). Evolving trends have also shown that students from developing countries often desire to enrol in world-class universities found internationally. This perception is as a result of the ranking of academic institutions and degree programs (Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley 2009). International rankings favour universities that use English as the main language of instruction and research, have a large array of disciplines and programmes and substantial research funds from government or other sources (Ibid. 2009). However it can be argued that although these rankings have methodological problems they are widely used and influential and show no signs of disappearing and therefore continue influencing the choices of study institutions that people make.

With the growing numbers of international students worldwide the quality of their experience and student satisfaction has become of major concern especially in receiving institutions and countries but not more so in countries where the students originate especially those from the developed world. Altbach, Reisberg, and Rumbley (2009) rightfully observe that access is more than getting through the door. True progress depends on levels of completion for all population groups (Ibid. 2009). These concerns

were also expressed by Rothman, Lipset and Nevitte (2003) who argued that although the expansion of the international student population may be positive, enrolling students from different countries cannot in itself enrich their experience or improve relationships between culturally diverse students.

It is also acknowledged, which the researcher concurs with on account of her own experience as an international student, that international students are no more a homogeneous group than any other group of people yet the terms are often used as if they were descriptors of homogeneity (Rothman, Lipset, and Nevitte 2003). This was supported by Sovic (2008) who observed that there is a widespread tendency to perceive international students as a homogeneous group. Kuo (2007), Lowe and Tian (2007) have argued that the definition of international students is flawed because the current UK definition of international students includes only those who pay the full fees, thus ignoring European Union students and the definition also fails to treat international students as individuals. Similarly, Rothman, Lipset and Nevitte (2003) underscores the need to understand the experience of international students based on their nationalities arguing that in many cases experience is shaped by national contexts, background and past experience things which cannot be ignored while exploring students' experience.

Despite the increasing numbers of students in higher education worldwide (OECD 2004), the demand is more acute in Sub-Saharan Africa, where a large pool of qualified secondary school graduates cannot enrol in higher education (Juma 2003). The gross enrolment ratio at the university level in Sub-Saharan Africa is the lowest in the world (5%) with the number of students enrolled in universities (618,000) representing only 4.7% of the total 13 million students enrolled in general secondary education (Juma 2003). The low access is the same for Kenya, where only 3% of the adult population eligible for university admission actually access higher education (Republic of Kenya 2006a).

To meet this demand for higher education, Kenyan students, just like other international students have moved to other countries in pursuit of their academic dreams. The major destination countries for Kenyan students have been the USA and the UK and these

countries still remain the most popular destinations for Kenyan and most African students (Dzvimbo 2003). However, anecdotal evidence shows that newer destinations like India, Australia and the Far East (mainly Malaysia) have emerged as alternatives to the USA and the UK. A major defining issue and which has not been adequately investigated are the factors that influence student choices of study destination and the quality of their study experience.

Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) points out that literature on the experience of international students from Africa studying in the UK is limited. In a systematic review of literature, on international students' experience Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) analysed the bibliography of 21 unpublished studies conducted in the UK on the experience of international students and found out that many of the studies focussed on the experiences of East Asian international students, with seven devoted to (mainland) Chinese students, three to Japanese students, one to Malaysian students and one to Taiwanese students. Five studies looked at the experience of students from Arabic speaking countries and three papers reported the experience of students from European countries undertaking undergraduate or postgraduate programmes in UK universities. They found out that there were no studies conducted in the UK with a specific focus on students from Africa, Latin America, North America and non EU countries. Although little is written on the experience of African students in the UK, their population continues to grow exponentially (HESA 2008). Africa is third after the European Union and Asia with the highest number of students in the UK (Ramsden 2006). African students constitute 9.2% of the total population of international students in the UK (Ibid. 2006).

The growing importance of international education from both a social-economic and personal development perspective (Bordia 2007 and Bordia, Wales and Pittam 2006) therefore requires a systematic study to build greater understanding of the experiences of different international students. Furthermore, owing to the growing movement of students across borders and the economic importance of this student segment to universities, national and local economies both of the student home countries and the study destination countries, understanding the students' experience becomes imperative.

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This study therefore aims to provide empirical evidence to build on the knowledge base on experience of international students' from the perspective of an African country, which previous studies has observed as lacking. To achieve this, the study will build research evidence using a step wise approach, by exploring the experience of Kenyan students studying in the UK and the impact of their experience on their study progress and outcomes. The next section provides the rationale why the researcher chooses to use Kenyan students as the study subjects.

1.1 Rationale for a Study on the Experience of Kenyan Students in the UK

Literature discussed in Section 1.6 (Republic of Kenya 2005a, 2005b, 2006a, 2007b, UNESCO 2006b) show that Kenya has a low participation rate in higher education to propel the country to its projected levels of development, compared to the participation rates in developed countries (Tillak 2003). With the low participation rate in higher education in Kenya, the many Kenyan students abroad therefore potentially become an important segment to Kenya's overall development. There is therefore the need to explore whether these students have positive study experiences as future contributors to Kenya's development.

The need for high level skills in Kenya has become even more crucial owing to the on-going process of implementing Vision 2030, which is the new blueprint that aims at making Kenya a newly industrialised middle income country by 2030 (Republic of Kenya 2007b). A highly educated human capital has been identified as a key pillar in the industrialisation process (Republic of Kenya 2007b). Literature reviewed in Chapter 2 Section 2.5 demonstrates that higher education is an important factor in accelerating economic development. The literature Bloom, Canning, and Chan (2006), Dahlman and Utz (2006), Tillak (2003), TFHES (2000), UNESCO (2006b) has shown that countries with high participation rates in higher education have registered high economic growth, while others have joined the league of developed nations that Kenya aspires to join by 2030.

Kenyan students were further considered because Kenya is reported as having the third highest number of students from Africa (2975) studying in the UK (Ramsden 2006).

Nigeria has the highest numbers of students (8145), followed by Ghana (3035) while South Africa, one of the largest economies in Africa has 1666 students (Ramsden 2006). The reason for the high number of Kenyan students in the UK needs to be understood for various reasons. Despite the high student numbers, Kenya does not have the largest population in the continent. It actually accounts for only 40 million (2008) compared to Nigeria with 149 million (2008), South Africa 49 million (2008), Egypt 76 million (CIA World Fact Book 2008). Interestingly, despite the current enrolments, the student numbers of Kenyan students enrolling in UK universities is projected to rise from 2800 in 2005 to 4300 in 2015 (Bohm *et al.* 2004). Therefore, based on the population-student ratio of each of the three countries (Nigeria, Ghana and Kenya) Kenya can be said to have the highest numbers of students from Africa enrolled in UK universities and would therefore provide useful insights into the experience of international students from Africa studying in the UK.

Nor is Kenya the richest country in terms of natural resources or financial wealth. According to the CIA World Fact Book (2008) the three African countries with the highest number of students in the UK, that use English as the official language and were also former British colonies that is Nigeria and Ghana, the former has a higher GDP per capita (2008) compared to that of Kenya of $1600. Nigeria has a GDP of $2,300 and Ghana $1,500 which is almost equal to that of Kenya although Ghana's population is less than that of Kenya at 23 million. Other large economies in Africa such as South Africa with a GDP per capita of $10,000 and Egypt of $5,800 have fewer student numbers than Kenya in the UK with 1530 and 805 each (Ramsden 2006). This study will therefore seek to establish what drives the quest for a UK education amongst Kenyans.

A further rationale for using Kenyan students as the study subjects is that they are the majority from the Eastern Africa Community which is an economic trading block for Eastern Africa countries (Appendix 15). HESA (2006) show that Kenya had 2711 students compared to the other two countries in this block, Uganda (857) and Tanzania (1014) with Burundi and Rwanda having fewer students. More importantly, in 2008/9 the population of Kenyan students in the UK constituted 15% of the total population of

African students in the UK (HESA 2008). The researcher is conscious that although the results of this study cannot be generalised to all African students in the UK, this number would allow for insights or delineation of areas for further research.

Trends in study destinations of Kenyan students abroad clearly indicate that the UK has been and continues to be one of the top destinations for Kenyan students after the USA (UNESCO 2006b, Republic of Kenya 2003a). However, little or no information is available on what drives this demand for a UK education and what factors underpin both the choice and experience of Kenyan students who choose to study in the UK. Although the UK continues to be a preferred study destination for Kenyan students, there exists a knowledge gap as to what happens to the many Kenyan students studying in the UK, as no study has been conducted from a Kenyan and a UK context on the study and living experience of Kenyan students and how their experience affects their study progress.

ISB (2008) reported on demographic profiles of Kenyan students and what informed their choice of study institutions. However, the survey did not analyse important factors related to the experience of Kenyan students in relation to financing, academic, socio-cultural adaptation and integration. ISB (2008) did not also explore how the reported experience impacted on respondents study progress and outcomes. Therefore, this current study which is the first of its kind to explore the experience of Kenyan students abroad seeks to provide knowledge where gaps in knowledge exist.

A further rationale for this study is that many studies on experience of international students in UK higher education institutions have mainly focused on international students in the UK as a homogeneous group (Bohm *et al.* 2004, Haselgrove 1994, Kinnel 1990, UKCOSA 2004). However, the assumed homogeneity of international students is a weak proposition, since it fails to capture the unique national, cultural and economic background scenarios which are likely to impact on the student's choice of destination, institution, subject, mode of study and study experience. At the same time, lack of studies on the experience of international students conducted in the UK targeting African students was highlighted by Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003).

The logistics and practicability of undertaking this research was also considered. The origin of this study had its basis in the researcher's present assignment as the Education Attaché for Kenya in the UK and her past experience as a policy developer in the Ministry of Education, Kenya which is discussed in detail in the Epilogue, Chapter 8 Section 8.6. This research undertaking was considered important in understanding and informing the policy context on international education in Kenya and to also improve the pre-departure experience of Kenyan students. The position of the researcher also provided the opportunity to access the study subjects and sites and also enabled a better understanding of the environment in which Kenyan students have to study.

Finally the researcher because of her professional work was interested in understanding what was happening to the many Kenyan students in the UK. This had proved difficult owing to the Data Protection Regulations and lack of empirical evidence on the experience of Kenyan students in the UK. The mandate of the education office in the UK is to provide support to Kenyan students in the UK and lack of information about the Kenyan students in the UK was hampering the efforts of the office in carrying out its mandate. This study will therefore facilitate benchmarking for better student support and provide the opportunity for management intervention and support by the Kenyan Government and other stakeholders. It is expected that the recommendations and findings of this study will enhance the experience of Kenyans studying in and opting to study in the UK.

1.2 Characteristics of Kenyan Students in the UK

Currently, the Kenyan government does not have a data capture system to determine the number of students who are successful in getting a visa to enter the UK. Therefore the exact number of students from a Kenyan perspective who leave Kenya to study in the UK is not known, nor the institutions that they are enrolled in, the courses that they pursue, their study progress/outcomes, the challenges that they face as international students or the quality of their experience. The student population discussed in this study is therefore derived from UK and UNESCO publications (HESA 2006, Ramsden 2006 and 2007 and UNESCO 2006b). In the absence of such crucial information it

becomes difficult for the Kenyan Government to design support strategies for such students or to include them in the country's development process. It is also difficult for the Kenya government to monitor or benchmark the students' experience. This situation is further aggravated by the data protection regulations in the UK, which does not allow information about an individual to be divulged to a third party without the authority of the person concerned.

As well as the lack of a data capture system in Kenya and the inability to access students' information once in the UK, the situation is further aggravated when students arrive in the UK. This is because although students are expected to register with Kenyan missions abroad only a small number of students do so. For example, in the major study destinations the number of Kenyan students who had registered in 2007 was as follows: USA 2500; UK 530; India 2000; Russia 580 (Ministry of Education Statistics 2007). According to statistical publications this represents only a small proportion of Kenyan students in these countries. This is evident in the case of the UK where various statistical publications (HESA 2006, Ramsden 2006 and 2007, UNESCO 2006b) reveal that Kenya has about three thousand students enrolled in UK higher education institutions. Therefore only eighteen percent of the reported students in the UK are registered with the Kenya High Commission in the UK.

HESA (2008) has shown that the population of Kenyan students in the UK has not been constant. The highest number enrolled, 3025, was in 2003/04 followed by 2002/03 when 2890 students were enrolled. However, HESA data show that student numbers declined from 2920 in 2004/05 to 2680 in 2007/08 (Appendix 13). In spite of the decline, the number of Kenyan students in the UK is still the highest compared to the other Eastern African countries Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi (Appendix 15). HESA data further shows that, although the number of Kenyan students in the UK has declined, the overall total student numbers from Africa in the UK increased from 28000 in 2002/3 to 37000 in 2007/008 (Appendix 21).

However, the reported decline of Kenyan students might not be accurate owing to the limitations of the HESA data. The HESA data could have left out some Kenyan students

as it does not capture data from two universities in the UK and from colleges of further education, where this study found out that there were 22% of Kenyan students enrolled. At the same time, HESA data captures only students who are enrolled at the time of carrying out the survey and does not capture those who have dropped out or deferred their studies for any reason. Despite the limitations of the HESA data, this study found the data useful in providing useful insights of the numbers of Kenyan students in the UK. This study therefore underscores the need for accurate data and information, on Kenyan students in the UK and is an area that this study seeks to investigate as well as recommend a strategy to facilitate this.

This study did not seek to establish the actual levels of decline of Kenyan students in the UK or the cause of the decline, as it was not within its scope. However relating the decline to the findings of this study on the experience of Kenyan students, which established that not all students in the UK had a positive study experience, the unfulfilled expectations and promises which affected the study progress and attainment of study outcomes for some, competition between UK institutions and other universities recruiting in Kenya, new emerging and affordable markets for Kenyans, are all likely to have contributed to the decline. However, as discussed in Section 1.1 important reasons exist for a study of this nature.

Evidence of other preferred destinations for Kenyan students was highlighted during the ISB survey (2008). During the survey, Kenyan students were asked which countries they would consider as study options other than the UK. The four top destinations reported that Kenyan students would consider other than the UK was: USA (52%), Australia (35%), Canada (34%) and South Africa (26%).

This study therefore provides knowledge in this grey area by providing information on characteristics of Kenyan students in the UK. The study also proposes a system through which a data/information system in Kenya can be put in place to continuously capture information on students enrolling in universities abroad.

1.3 Defining Experience in Relation to Kenyan Students

An experience is defined as an event that leaves an impression on one, for example a learning experience (Oxford English Dictionary 2002:287). Experience is as a result of practical contact with and observation of facts or events, knowledge or skills gained over time (Ibid. 2002:287).Experience is also gained through interaction within a particular environment and impressions formed within a period of time or a stage in life (Ibid. 2002).This study therefore examines the Kenyan students' pre-departure experience, their UK study and living experiences to determine how their experience have been shaped by the different contexts, situations or events that they have been into contact with during their pre-departure and study period in the UK.

Experience can be either positive or negative depending on observed outcomes or attainment of stated goals (Ibid. 2002). Furnhan (1997) has argued that for some international students, their experience has been so positive that it leaves a powerful impression on young people that may last all their lives (Ibid. 1997). It can also be so enriching that some prefer never to return to their home country; but for others the experience is negative, clouded by loneliness and rejection of the foreign country (Ibid. 1997). Haselgrove (1994) further explains that a student's experience is what the whole learning process is supposed to be. Haselgrove (1994) suggest that since students are an important resource to UK universities and colleges, it is a waste of their talent if they are admitted to courses to which they are not suited, if they do not complete their studies or if they enrol in courses that are outdated and irrelevant.

Therefore, if Kenyan students have successful study outcomes then their study experience could be said to be positive. Similarly, realisation of pre-departure expectations was also considered as a contributory factor to a positive study and living experience. This study considers a student's behaviour or action during the study period as a measure of the quality of their experience. This study agrees with Haselgrove's observation that international education is one of the most expensive investments for those involved. This is true of Kenyan students who are from a developing country with an economic growth rate of 2.2% (Republic of Kenya 2007a) and are expected to pay tuition fees and accommodation costs of a minimum of twenty thousand pounds per

year as international students for any level that they enrol (UK Universities' Brochures). The quality of their experience is therefore important to warrant the heavy investment. If Kenyan students do not complete their study programme within the stipulated time the opportunity cost involved is high. They will have wasted not only the opportunity to acquire skills required for their own personal development and the country's overall development, but also the tuition fees paid towards their education, earnings related to loss of skills or being in school for too long which results to additional costs in attaining their qualification.

This study examines key factors that are likely to influence the experience of Kenyan students in the UK. The factors were identified by the students themselves and highlight events, processes and other factors that affect their study and living experience. The study further explored whether their experience had negatively or positively affected their study progress and outcomes in line with the interpretation of what constitutes a positive study experience adopted for this study. Past studies on international students' learning experiences in the UK were reviewed (Chapter Three) to identify factors that have been found through previous research to be important to the learning experience of international students' in the UK. This helped to validate factors identified by the Kenyan students themselves as important to their experience while in the UK.

Using the students' satisfaction approach expounded by Harvey (1997:4) factors important to the study and living experience of Kenyan students were identified during the initial pre-study focus group discussions which were conducted amongst Kenyan students in the UK. These factors were used to determine the different thematic areas considered in this study, which are discussed in detail in Chapter Three Section 3.10. The focus on the total student learning experience, using the student satisfaction approach model, which links satisfaction and the relative importance of these indicators, was expected to elicit key areas that negatively or positively influence Kenyan students' learning experience, for management intervention, better practice during recruitment of Kenyan students to ensure and to sustain a quality experience of Kenyan students.

1.4 Key Factors Impacting on the Experience of International Students in UK

In a review of unpublished research on the experience of international students in the UK Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) report that research on international students' experience is limited, usually small scale and often unpublished. Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) further argue that to understand the experience of international students there is a need to take the students' perspective, which is a voice frequently missing or heavily mediated. Many of the previous surveys on international students' experience have focused on factors that have influenced their choice of study destination but have not attempted to investigate how different national contexts influence international students' study and living experience (Allen and Higgins 1994, Hall *et al*. 1998 and ISB 2008). As a result, this may inherently lead to some of these studies being heavily influenced by the researcher's pre-conceived notions outside the operational frameworks (Hall *et al.* 1998). This is true of Kenyan students in the UK, where no research evidence exists of their in-country experience and how it impacts on their study progress and outcome.

Lending support to the argument of Pelletier, Leonard, and Morley ((2003) on the need to capture the students' perspective, Haselgrove (1994), Harvey (1997) and Kinnel (1990) conducted institutional-based research focussing on international students enrolled in different institutions in the UK. They used the student satisfaction-led approach model which focuses on the total learning experience as defined by the student. This model examines the students' satisfaction within a wide range of aspects of provision and then identifies which of those areas are important to the students (Harvey 1997). The statistical data collected is transformed into management information tools designed to identify clear areas for action, and provides general guidelines which are not institution-specific (Ibid. 1997). This is what this study sought to achieve and the recommendations presented are action-oriented to facilitate implementation.

This study also adopts the student satisfaction model which was used to investigate international students' experience in England, Wales, Australia and Sweden (Harvey 1997). Using the students satisfaction-led approach model Haselgrove (1994) and

Kinnel (1990) identified the following parameters as important to the learning experience of international students in the UK: the recruitment phase, pre-arrival administration, arrival procedures, academic provision, financial provision, language provision, non-academic welfare provision and social provision. Similarly, in addition to these areas Furnham and Tresize (1983) noted that racial discrimination, language problems, accommodation difficulties, separation reactions, dietary restrictions, financial stress and academic problems are associated with higher educational study in a foreign country.

McNamara and Harris (1997) also reported factors not identified by the other researchers such as expectations, social support networks, culture shock and homesickness, which are associated with the experience of international students. Haselgrove (1994), appreciating the importance of these factors in the life of a foreign student, argues that these factors are central to the lives of individuals, wherever and however they study. Similarly, Ayano (2006) observes that many international students come abroad with the sole purpose of studying and achieving their academic goals. They are also neither a selected elite nor representatives of their home countries, but are fee paying customers who expect positive study outcomes (Ibid. 2006). However, they do not think about the non-academic aspects of life abroad which could affect their experience.

Byram and Feng (2006) also point out that studying abroad is a challenging experience for many international students, who have to cope with a new way of life and study in an unfamiliar context. This provides a further rationale for this study to explore the experience of Kenyan students in the UK to determine how well they are coping with the challenges associated with international students in the UK. Bohm *et al. (*2004) point out that the process and motive of recruiting international students by UK higher education institutions have raised concern as to whether the marketing of UK universities abroad matches the reality of studying in the UK, and the promise made to students during recruitment and before they depart for studies abroad. They further observe that UK domestic policies for international education focus more on the need to recruit more and more international students owing to the benefits that they bring.

Bohm *et al*. (2004) suggest that for international students to benefit from the quality education that is promised to them during recruitment, their study experience while in the UK should reflect the expectations generated during the in-country promotions and through the promotional materials supplied to students during recruitment. This is further reinforced by Rousseau (1995) who underscores the need for universities to adhere to 'psychological contracts' they make with the students that they recruit through the promises that they make to them. This study therefore uses these areas identified in previous studies as important to the experience of international students in the UK to identify areas important to the experience of Kenyan students in the UK. However, as earlier mentioned, these factors were validated through a pre-survey focus group discussion with Kenyan students to determine those which they considered as really important to their study and living experience while in the UK. These were the areas that were considered for inclusion in this study.

1.5 The Study Context: Key Drivers that Influence Kenyans Decision to Seek Study Opportunities Abroad

Every country is unique and the reasons why their nationals will pursue education abroad are diverse (Davey 2005). Although students will travel abroad to gain higher education qualifications (Mazzarol and Soutar 2007) and as part of adventure amongst young people (Byram and Feng 2006), there has been fundamental issues within Kenya's higher education system which have contributed to 'education flight' to developed countries which need to be understood to put this study in its context. This section therefore introduces the reader to some of the push factors that have contributed to Kenyan students seeking study opportunities abroad. The purpose of including this section is to demonstrate that in addition to students seeking global qualifications, travelling abroad for study and adventure, the in-country context is a key factor in migration of students which needs to be understood. Information in this section further supports the argument in this study that international students should not be considered as a homogeneous group.

1.5.1 Policy Context on International Education in Kenya

This study is situated within the policy context on international education in Kenya. The policy framework on education and training in post independent Kenya has been influenced and shaped by commissions, committees and task force reports which articulate the policy direction of the sector. These reports were examined to establish the policy framework under which international education is managed in Kenya. This study examines the policy documents on education and training in Kenya produced from 1997-2007 and were considered adequate in understanding the policy context of international education in Kenya.

The choice of this period was influenced by the fact that although studying abroad for Kenyans started before independence with the famous 1959 'airlift' of eighty-one Kenyan students to study in the United States, dubbed as the 'Tom Mboya airlifts', in reference to Tom Mboya who co-ordinated the airlifts and sourced funds to support the airlifts, anecdotal evidence reveals that the momentum for study abroad amongst Kenyans has only increased in the last ten years with more students opting to study abroad. However, the organised movement of Kenyan students to study abroad is no longer in practice and studying abroad is more of an individually driven initiative.

Various policy documents in Kenya recognise that higher education skills are important to spur economic growth, alleviate poverty and steer technological advancement (Republic of Kenya 1988, 1998, 1999, 2005a, 2005b, 2006a, 2007b). However, Kenya currently faces a skills shortage in the highly specialised areas that require skills in science and technology (Republic of Kenya 2005b and 2006a). The demand for human capital with skills required to accelerate Kenya's industrialisation provides a further rationale as to why the experience of Kenyan students in the UK, who comprise a significant number of those who qualify for higher education in Kenya, needs to be understood. However, it is observed that current policy documents (Republic of Kenya 2005b and 2006a) which guides the implementation of education and training in Kenya does not provide policy guidelines on international education in Kenya, although there are many Kenyan students abroad.

Regrettably, it is the same with all the other national policy documents that have shaped and continue to shape the development of the education landscape in post-independence Kenya. In the absence of a policy on international education in Kenya, anecdotal evidence shows that studying abroad for Kenyans constitutes fragmented initiatives by individual students, parents, recruiting agencies in Kenya and UK universities. The policy documents reviewed (Republic of Kenya 1998, 1999, 2005a, 2005b, 2006a) show that there is no government policy or code of conduct to guide the recruitment of Kenyan students by overseas universities.

However, current policies on education in Kenya recognise the need for Kenyan universities to create linkages with universities outside Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2005b) as a way of responding to challenges facing Kenya's higher education sector. The linkages are expected to contribute to making Kenya's higher education demand-driven, of high quality, gender-sensitive, technologically informed, research supported, democratically managed and globally marketable (Republic of Kenya 2005b). Unfortunately, the government is silent as to how this will be achieved. The Government also recognises the imbalance between the number of students studying science and art based courses in Kenyan universities (Republic of Kenya 2005a). To address this existing imbalance, the policy of the Kenya Government is to increase the proportion of students studying science-related courses to fifty percent with at least one third of these being women, by the year 2010 and to also improve the quality of public universities (Republic of Kenya 2005b). Currently (2009) this has not been achieved and still remains as an intent.

The sessional paper points out that improving the quality of public higher education institutions in Kenya and increasing opportunities for the study of sciences will counter the number of students seeking study opportunities abroad (Republic of Kenya 2005b and 2006b) because the current belief in Kenya is that students travel abroad to pursue science based courses. Equally important, policies that govern university education in Kenya also act as push factors. For example, public universities in Kenya operate rigid admission criteria that exclude the possibilities of credit transfers between universities (Republic of Kenya 2006a). This study investigated whether the existing inflexibility of

the Kenyan university system is a contributing factor to Kenyan students seeking study opportunities abroad. In addition, currently in Kenya, students have to wait for a period of two years after qualifying for university admission before they can be admitted to public universities which have also acted as a push factor especially to the high and middle income families who can afford to pay for private education of their children instead of having them wait for two years to join public universities.

Similarly, the structural adjustment policies introduced in the 1980s by the World Bank in developing countries and specifically in Kenya in 1985 led to the introduction of the cost sharing policy at national universities (Republic of Kenya 1985). The implication of this was that students enrolling at the universities had to meet part of their education costs which prior to this was free (Republic of Kenya 1985). The shift from free university education to cost sharing as a way of financing university education had adverse implications on the quality of university education in Kenya. Sifuna (1998) discussing the impact of the cost sharing policy on the quality of university education observed that university libraries could afford to buy fewer books, subscribe to fewer journals and had been left behind in the computer revolution by the rest of the academic world. Audiovisual materials were almost unknown in most libraries in developing countries (Ibid. 1998).

It is expected that recommendations arising out of this study will lead to policy formulation and will influence ongoing practice on international education in Kenya. It is also expected that the study will create awareness of the need for similar studies in other international destinations where there are significant numbers of Kenyan students, so as to inform the formulation of an inclusive policy on international education for Kenya.

1.5.2 Demand for Higher Education in Kenya

The inability of the Kenyan national university system to accommodate qualified candidates seeking admission and the demand for higher education among Kenyans has resulted to many Kenyan students seeking study opportunities abroad (Republic of Kenya 2006a). The economic growth that Kenya witnessed from negative growth in

2002 (Republic of Kenya 2003b) to 6% in 2005 (Republic of Kenya 2006b) led to an increased demand for graduates in high growth areas that require skills in science and technology (Republic of Kenya 2005a). However, opportunities for the study of sciences are limited in Kenyan universities. The number of students in Kenyan universities has witnessed a steady growth which stood at 112,000 in 2006 (Republic of Kenya 2006a). About ninety per-cent of the students are enrolled in the nine public universities and ten percent in thirteen private universities and two national polytechnics (Ibid. 2006a).

In addition to those enrolled in Kenyan universities, in the year 2002, there were twenty seven thousand Kenyan students enrolled in tertiary institutions in foreign countries (Republic of Kenya 2003a). The top five countries where the majority of Kenyan students studying abroad are enrolled include: the United States of America 7,381; the United Kingdom, 3083; Australia, 1,115; India, 521 and Canada, 341 (UNESCO 2006b). Many Kenyan students study in other foreign universities in South Africa, Malaysia, Uganda and Tanzania. As earlier mentioned in section 1.2 of this chapter, not all Kenyan students abroad have registered with the Kenyan government as there is no data capture system for students travelling abroad. Therefore the number of Kenyan students abroad could be higher than the figures reported in various publications. Kenya is also among the top 20 countries with the highest number of students in Australian Universities (IDP 2006).

The demand for university education in Kenya is expanding very rapidly and is projected to continue rising. Using the present university enrolment (2007), the projected number of students who will be seeking admission in Kenyan universities between 2004 and 2015 when the first cohort of free primary education students qualify for university admission is projected to rise to 164,280 representing about 60% growth in twelve years with a 5.0% annual growth rate (Republic of Kenya 2006a). In addition, the gross enrolment rate of university students in Kenya is projected to grow from 3% in 2006 to 10% by 2015 (Ibid. 2006a) owing to the increasing number of students completing secondary education. This growth is over and above the excess numbers of

students who are currently not being admitted or are waiting for admission to public universities in Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2006a).

The pressure being exerted on Kenya's national university system which currently has no capacity to admit all qualified candidates especially those pursuing science based courses is expected to continue raising with the introduction of free primary education which has led to an increase of students transiting from primary to secondary from 47% in 2003 to 64% in 2008 (Ministry of Education 2009). This means that the number of secondary school graduates, which is also tuition-free, with day secondary schools offering free education from 2007, is expected to rise, thus exerting more pressure on higher education institutions in Kenya as more students enrol, are retained and complete different levels of education.

Despite the increase in the number of students graduating from secondary schools, the Kenyan Government's strategic objective on expanding access to higher education is to increase the capacity of the nine public universities by 5,000 students each year by 2015 (Republic of Kenya 2005a). Regrettably, even with the projected increase, local universities will not create adequate capacity to accommodate all students qualifying for university admission in Kenya in any one year and to also absorb the backlog of those who have been waiting for an opportunity to gain admission. The implication of this huge demand for higher education is that the capacity of Kenyan universities needs to grow two-fold to cater for this demand (Republic of Kenya 2005a). This is difficult to achieve for Kenya, with the current levels of economic growth at 2.2% (Republic of Kenya 2008), as this will require huge financial resources to be implemented. Consequently, there will be many qualified students who will not be admitted to public universities and will therefore seek study opportunities outside the country. It could therefore be concluded that international education will continue to be a key strategy in meeting the demand for higher education in Kenya and there is demand for it as evidenced by the large numbers of students enrolling in higher education institutions outside Kenya and therefore understanding the experience of those who choose to study abroad becomes imperative.

1.5.3 Accessing Higher Education in Kenya

Limited access to university education in Kenya has also acted as a push factor. Although there is a huge demand for higher education in Kenya, access and equity remains a major challenge for the Kenya Government (Republic of Kenya 2005a). As discussed in the earlier section, the existing and projected demand for higher education in Kenya means that many qualified candidates do not gain access to higher education institutions in Kenya and have therefore sought study opportunities abroad. University enrolment in Kenya stands at 3 percent of adults of university going age, which is low compared to newly industrialised and developed countries, which have enrolments of between 10 and 69 percent (UNESCO 2006b). The enrolment is also lower than the average gross enrolment ratio (GER) for African countries, which stood at 5 percent in the year 2005 (Republic of Kenya 2006a).

Some of the factors that have contributed to limited access to Kenya's national university system include: disparities in geographical development; low social and economic achievements of individual households to support the education of their children; high levels of poverty which stands at 56 percent; disparities in achievement levels at high school; and constraints in government funding which have limited the number of government supported students to about 10,000 annually, in spite of the growth in the candidature of the number qualifying for university admission. This has adversely affected the capacities of universities to admit qualified students in any one year (Republic of Kenya 2005a and 2006a).

The limited admission capacity to public universities has resulted to "inflation" of qualification grades with candidates who gain grade B- missing admission to government sponsored programmes and in some competitive areas such as medicine, admitting candidates with mean grade "A" only. This is also supported by Weidman (1995) who argues that access to higher education in Kenya is extremely competitive and students must earn a grade point average during the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) significantly over and beyond the eligibility requirement for admission to public universities. Therefore, there is need for Kenya to pursue more

diversified and innovative ways of addressing this demand for higher education, with international education and all the attractions associated with it, being a key strategy.

The limited access to higher education in Kenya has serious implications for Kenya's overall development. It will be difficult for Kenya to reach the threshold of technological advancement for economic growth and to become an industrialised country by 2030. It has been argued (World Bank 1995) that a country requires a fifty percent participation rate in higher education to reach the threshold of economic advancement. The low enrolments therefore underscore the need for Kenya to ensure that Kenyan students enrolled in universities abroad have a positive experience that is likely to contribute to successful study outcomes as potential contributors to Kenya's development.

1.5.4 Quality of University Education in Kenya

Another important push factor that has accelerated study abroad for Kenyans is the issue of relevance and quality of university education, in the face of rapid expansion and the growing number of students with skills not needed in the labour market. To accommodate the high demand for university education, Kenyan universities have witnessed massive expansion in terms of student numbers which has left some Kenyans questioning the quality of education offered (Republic of Kenya 1998, 2005a, 2006a). With the larger flows of students from secondary schools, demand for higher education has increased and overstretched the available facilities (Republic of Kenya 2006a). The rapid expansion has resulted in a number of challenges. These included inadequate funding from the exchequer, increased enrolment without commensurate improvement in available facilities, gender inequality and a low research capacity (Republic of Kenya 2006a). These challenges have contributed to the general belief that quality is on a downward trend in most of Kenya's public universities.

While the accelerated quantitative expansion of universities has been beneficial, the greater emphasis placed on it as a response to social demand, as opposed to meeting specific manpower demands of the economy, was open to question (Sifuna 1998). The first major decision that led to increased enrolments in universities in Kenya was in

1987/88, when political pronouncements without adequate preparation by the universities led to increased student numbers. The universities were ordered to have a double intake to cater for the eight thousand students who could not be admitted in the 1983/84 academic year owing to the prolonged closure of universities that had lasted for over one year (Sifuna 1990). The prolonged closure coupled with other shorter duration closures contributed to a backlog of qualified students due for admission (Ibid. 1990).

To clear the backlog, universities were directed to embark on a double intake of students starting with the 1987/88 academic year. The double intakes of 1987/88 meant that within one year student numbers rose from 3,550 in 1986/7 to 8,774 in 1987/88 a 147 percent change. This increase adversely affected the capacity of the universities as they were not matched with inputs to enhance quality. The double intake was seen to have affected the quality of courses at the public universities as they were not prepared to handle additional student numbers. The expansion was not supported by adequate financial provision to expand the existing facilities, provide teaching, learning resources and lecturers (Jowi 2003). Universities were stretched to the limit (Ibid. 2003).

The second double intake of students occurred in 1990/91. This was prompted by the shift in the country's education system in 1984 where again intakes increased from 7,349 in 1989/90 to 20,837 in 1990/91 an increase of 184 percent (Republic of Kenya 1999). The restructuring of the education system involved a shift from (7-4-2-3); seven years primary education, four years of secondary education, two years of A Levels and a minimum of three years of university education. The new system (8-4-4) consisted of eight years of primary education; four years of secondary education and a minimum of four years to attain an undergraduate degree. A-Levels were also abolished. University education was affected by the change as the number of years for a degree programme was increased from three to four years. By abolishing the A-Level segment of the education system, a situation was created where over one hundred and seventy thousand applicants for university entry were available as opposed to no more than 20,000 potential applicants in the abolished A-Level system. The 1990/91 admission process had to accommodate both O-level and A-Level applicants for entry into university,

bringing into the university system a huge number of students that had not been planned for (Republic of Kenya 1998).

Commenting on the ramifications of rapid quantitative growth, a study on the employment prospects of university students in Kenya by Delloitte and Touche (1994) noted that 'the decision to admit almost 21,000 new students in 1990/91 to the public universities resulted in pushing the universities beyond their capacity, with large classes of over five hundred students and the tutorial system becoming a thing of the past'. As a result of the two periods of double intakes in 1982/8 and 1990/91, controversy and problems with the introduction of the 8-4-4 system of education, frequent and unscheduled closures of universities, the net result was a decline in quality (Republic of Kenya 1998). This situation, where the student-lecturer ratio is high, still persists (Republic of Kenya 2006a).

It is important to emphasise here that with the increased intake of student numbers, the teaching and learning facilities remained the same, which led to overcrowding in the lecture and examination halls (Republic of Kenya 1998). This overstretched the capacity of lecturers and management staff (Ibid. 1998). It also impacted negatively on the quality of teaching and learning (Ibid. 1998) and this also led to many Kenyan students seeking study opportunities abroad, as they started questioning the quality of education being offered in the Kenyan public universities. King (1996) in describing the impact that the double intakes of 1990s had on the quality of Nairobi University, the oldest university in Kenya observed that, 'The University of Nairobi for example, shifted from being an elite, research oriented institution to one that had to fall to the rise in student numbers along with savage reductions in the sourcing of library and other research collections'.

In Kenyan universities, academics, unlike primary and secondary school teachers, remain unique in the sense that they are the only practitioners who do not receive specific training in the profession of teaching (Republic of Kenya 2005a). University lecturers are hired, fired or promoted based on their research (Ibid. 2005a). Jowi (2003) rightfully observes that research is one of the core pillars of a university system. A

publication of research findings in reputable journals is one of the ways in which these findings are widely disseminated (Ibid. 2003). However, Sifuna (1990) argues that research and publishing by faculty within the Kenyan universities sharply dropped due to the heavy teaching responsibilities brought about by the rising student numbers. This impacted further on the quality of university programmes.

The fact that public universities in Kenya have traditionally relied on Government funding to carry out their activities has also affected their operations in terms of expanding access, innovations, maintaining quality and carrying out research (Republic of Kenya 1998). The situation was further compounded by the structural adjustment programmes prescribed by donor agencies in the 1980s (Republic of Kenya 1985) which introduced the cost sharing policy as a way of supporting university budgets. This also affected the ability of universities in supporting their programmes, as the anticipated fee was not realised in all cases, because many of those who enrolled found it difficult to pay the fees charged (Sifuna 1990).

The universities were therefore forced to rethink their strategy and possibly look for other sources of finance including establishing income-generating activities to ensure that their mandate of providing quality and relevant programmes was not compromised (Otieno 2004). Universities responded to this challenge by admitting fee-paying students in what is popularly known in Kenya as 'module two programmes', which brought in a surge of students without an expansion of facilities to support learning and teaching (Ibid. 2004), further compromising quality. This study explored whether quality was a push factor to those who sought study opportunities in the UK.

1.5.5 Graduates Employability in Kenya

The employability of graduates and the relevance of university education to market needs has been a major concern in Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2003a and 1988). To respond to this challenge and equip graduates with skills needed for employment in the formal sector or for self-employment, the Kenyan Government was prompted to restructure the education system in 1984 to provide for a practically oriented education with each level being terminal in itself (Republic of Kenya 1981). There was also a

proposal aimed at restructuring the courses offered at the university to make them address the skills shortage in Kenya. The new system at university level aimed at producing technical and specialised manpower in engineering, agriculture, technology, bio-medical sciences, communication, space sciences, building and construction technology, electronics and energy related science, earth sciences as these were the key areas in science and technology that Kenya was experiencing a skills shortage (Republic of Kenya 1981).

However, despite these changes, universities continued to graduate students in art based areas that already had an oversupply in the market place, and without skills in the uptake areas already identified in the Presidential Report of 1981 (Republic of Kenya 1998). The report further points out that in spite of university missions, most universities, both public and private have had no option but to tilt the balance between science based and arts based programmes in favour of the latter, which are seemingly cheaper to finance and easier to teach and manage (Ibid. 1981). The net effect of non-implementation of policies which aimed to make education relevant to the needs of the economy in Kenya resulted in a mismatch between formal education and requirements of the work place, a factor associated with the growing under employment or unemployment of university graduates in Kenya (Makau 1995).

The philosophy of the 8-4-4 system of education was therefore not implemented as primarily only the structure of education changed but the curriculum remained almost the same and the virtues of the 8-4-4 system of education remained as intents and visions (Republic of Kenya 1998). Students continued to graduate from universities with skills that were not relevant to market needs. This view was supported by Kaane (2006) who observed that a large number of graduates continued leaving colleges in Kenya and most ended up being employed in the informal sector when the job market had a shortfall of skilled personnel.

It was evidently becoming clear that, with a growing economy, there was an increased need for specialised skills to meet the emerging demands of the market place. Supporting the need for relevant skills amongst graduates of Kenyan universities Kaane

(2006) observes that industries, multinational and international companies in Kenya employ state of the art technologies and automation processes that require graduates with commensurate skills to manage their operations. Similarly, the use of information technology for management, business, sales and engineering is a major requirement in the current times (Republic of Kenya 2003b).

It is evidently clear that with this huge demand for skills in science and technology, the universities continued to graduate students with skills not needed in the market place. This is well summarised by Kaane (2006), who decries the widening gap between technologies found in industry and those offered during training (Kaane 2006). The issue of relevance of courses offered at Kenyan universities was further highlighted by Otieno (2004). Otieno argues that although public universities in Kenya attempted to expand access, the question of quality and relevance of courses to market needs still remained a major challenge to them. It is evidently clear that for national universities to offer relevant programmes that are attractive to students, they would have to respond to the dawn of global knowledge societies and information-driven economies (Republic of Kenya 2006a). However, this is bound to place new demands on the universities to search for more innovative approaches in academic course provisions, revenue generation, educational quality, institutional governance and human resource management to address long standing difficulties caused by rapid enrolments, frequent labour strife and brain drain (Ibid. 2006a).

Therefore international education will be a key strategy for Kenyans to attain the skills set required within a growing Kenyan market and in Kenya's efforts to industrialise by 2030. International education in Kenya will therefore have to be repackaged and delivered within a well defined policy framework and an institutionalised student support system, if Kenya is to reap the full benefits of those with high level skills studying abroad.

1.6   Personal Drivers that led to this Research Undertaking

The researcher's interest in this study has its origin in her current work and past experience. The researcher's past experience as a policy developer in the Ministry of

Education in Kenya and her current experience as an administrator in charge of international education for Kenya in the UK, which includes overseeing the welfare of Kenyan students in the UK, provides the motivation and rationale behind this research undertaking. How her past and present work motivated and influenced this research undertaking is presented in detail in The Epilogue, Chapter 8 Section 8.6. The researcher was also motivated by the desire to contribute knowledge to the ongoing debate on experience of international students and internationalisation of higher education in Kenya from the perspective of a developing country. It was expected that this research undertaking would provide an opportunity to gather empirical evidence and create awareness on the experience of Kenyan students in the UK, which has been achieved as the findings of this study have shown.

It was further expected that information gathered would contribute to the ongoing reform agenda within Kenya's higher education system by providing research-based evidence to inform policy formulation and the review of the current Education Act enacted in 1968. The review of the act is expected to accommodate changes that have taken place in the education sector since 1968, for education to respond to the challenges of the 21st Century. The review of the act will provide an opportunity through which recommendations and findings of this study can be taken on board. It is expected that consumers of this research and interested stakeholders will find this study useful in informing policy and strategies and establishing a code of conduct on student recruitment in Kenya, all of which currently do not exist as well as informing ongoing practice on international student recruitment in Kenya.

1.7   Purpose of the Study

The increasing demand for international education worldwide and in Kenya in particular has been discussed in Sections 1.0 and 1.1 of this Chapter. As discussed in Section 1.5, push factors that exist in Kenya and pull factors in favour of international education (discussed in Chapter Two) have contributed to Kenyan students seeking study opportunities abroad. As a result, there have been an increasing number of Kenyan students who continue to seek higher education opportunities abroad, with the UK having the second highest number of Kenyan students after the USA. Kenyan students

constitute 15% of African students in the UK and comprise the highest number of students from Africa based on a population student ratio (HESA 2008). However despite the large numbers of Kenyan students in the UK their experience remains a grey area as there is no research based evidence on their experience from both a UK and a Kenyan perspective and how their experience impacts on their study progress and outcomes. During the process of this research undertaking there was no evidence of a study on the experience of Kenyan students in the UK which explored their Kenyan and UK experience. This present study therefore attempts to provide knowledge in this area by investigating the experience of Kenyan students in the UK and how their experience affects their study progress and outcomes.

When the intent and the objectives of this study was shared with the Ministry of Education in Kenya, responsible for higher education when this study began, the ministry offered to support this research undertaking for two reasons. First, the research findings would raise the level of awareness and understanding amongst stakeholders about the context that Kenyan students have to study in the UK. The study would also identify challenges that the students may be experiencing and establish the existing practice on student recruitment in Kenya. This information is crucial to inform future policy decisions on international education along with ongoing practice on student recruitment in Kenya. This is possible because, one of the strengths of this study is that it considered the in-country student recruitment and preparation phase, which is shared by all Kenyan students preparing to study abroad. Secondly, highly skilled human capital is central to Kenya's efforts to industrialise as spelt out in Vision 2030 (Republic of Kenya 2007b). Therefore, the need for the Kenyan government to understand whether those abroad are successful in their studies, as the skills they would acquire are crucial to the attainment of Vision 2030, would be assisted by this research undertaking.

This study aims at opening to a wider debate in Kenya the students experience and institutionalising within the Kenyan government the need for continuous research on the experience of Kenyan students abroad. The findings are also expected to be of interest to various stakeholders in Kenya such as policy-makers, parents, potential students, UK

higher education institutions and other interested stakeholders both in the UK and in Kenya. These findings will be disseminated through relevant forums and publications.

1.8 Research Objectives

The main purpose of this study was to explore the experience of Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK and identify how their experience affects their study outcomes. The specific objectives were to:

1. identify and describe the Kenyan student population in UK higher education institutions;
2. identify and evaluate the study and living experience of Kenyan students in the UK;
3. establish how the students' study experience affects their study outcomes;
4. formulate policy recommendations to enhance the experience of Kenyan students studying in UK higher education institutions.

1.9 Research Questions

To achieve the stated objectives, the study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the key factors that influence Kenyan students' study experience?
2. What is the relative impact of each of the factors on students' experience?
3. Are there any unanticipated factors?
4. How do these factors impact on students' study outcomes?

1.10 Research Justification

The present study aims to raise the level of awareness amongst stakeholders in Kenya and the UK of the experience of Kenyan students based on research evidence. Currently, the experience of Kenyan students in the UK and its impact on their study outcomes is based on anecdotal evidence. It is expected that knowledge gathered through this research undertaking will be useful to policy makers in Kenya to assist in planning for the utilisation of high level skills for development and in providing any desirable support to Kenyan students as they prepare to study in the UK and during their study period. Further, the evidence based knowledge gathered is intended to influence

future policies on international education for Kenya, influence practice at the institutional and country level and provide benchmarking for those administering international education, not only in Kenya but in the UK.

In addition, having considered the emerging economic rationale for international education by UK universities, to understand the experience of Kenyan students in the UK is desirable for the universities to provide support systems which meet students' needs and facilitate them to be effective as students and as residents abroad. The researcher's experience during the day-to-day interaction with Kenyan students who visit the Kenya High Commission in London, and during visits to students at universities where they are studying indicates a dire need for research based evidence to establish what is actually happening in their midst. This study also provides insights into the pre-departure experience of Kenyan students and provides knowledge on support services available to them as they prepare to study and live in the UK. The recommendations and findings of this study are therefore useful for management intervention and support as areas for action has been delineated.

It is expected that the position of the researcher as a member of the management staff of the Ministry of Education in Kenya and deployed as an administrator in charge of international education for Kenya in the UK provides a realistic opportunity to affect policy and practice through the application, dissemination of research findings and follow-up on areas identified for action.

1.11 Scope and Limitation of the Study

This study explores the study and living experience of Kenyan students enrolled in UK higher education institutions and how the students' experience affects their study outcomes. To achieve this, the study confined itself to factors identified as important to the experience of international students in the UK in previous studies (Haselgrove 1994, ISB 2008, Kinnel 1990, McNamara and Harris 1997, Pelletier, Leonard and Morley 2003). The areas identified in previous studies were further validated through focus group discussions held with Kenyan students before the questionnaire was constructed, using the student's satisfaction approach as defined by Harvey (1997) to determine

factors really important to the experience of Kenyan students. The factors that were finally considered for investigation in this study based on their relative importance to Kenyan students, available time and financial resources, included:

- Pre-departure experience
- Financial provision (tuition fees and living expenses)
- Academic experience
- Socio-cultural experience
- Accommodation
- Work and Study experience
- Study outcomes

For quantitative data collection, three hundred questionnaires representing a sample size of ten per cent were administered to Kenyan students in the UK. Interviews were also conducted with twenty four students, staff from international student offices and policy makers in higher education in Kenya. The detailed sampling procedures and rationale used to determine the study subjects are discussed in detail in Chapter Four. Participants were chosen to represent the geographical and institutional diversity of UK higher education institutions and study disciplines.

The study targeted individual students, but did not ask institutions for information about their Kenyan students. This was because for universities to release information about individual students, owing to Data Protection Regulations in the UK, they have to first consult the student for authority to do so. At the same time, those releasing the information have to abide by individual university regulations in participating in such a research. It would also have been time consuming and expensive contacting the over two hundred universities and colleges of further education in the UK to find out those that would be willing to participate in the study. However, the geographical spread and classification of UK higher education institutions was considered during the administration of the questionnaires and in sampling interview participants, so as to capture different scenarios of Kenyan students' experience.

The researcher's position at the time of carrying out the study was an advantage during the data collection process in that she was in a better position to identify and access data sources and study sites. However, this had its limitation in that the respondents might not have been as honest and truthful in their responses because of the researcher's position, which could have affected the students' freedom of expression. To guard against any conflict of interest and undue influence in her role as a researcher, ethical considerations were applied in as far as explaining to the participants the goals, objectives and benefits of the study so that they could make informed choices about whether or not to participate in the study. The informed consent obtained, which all respondents had to sign before being handed the questionnaire was to ensure that the participants understood the nature of the study, role of the researcher in relation to the study, that they were under no risk or harm and the options open to them as participants. The participants were continuously reassured of their rights to withdraw at any stage of the data collection process if for any reason they did not feel comfortable participating.

The respondents were also reassured of the confidentiality of the data collection process which ensured that participants were not identified by name and therefore any information they gave could not be traced back to them. Individuals would not be identified and that the study findings would be based on the analysed data. This was to gain their confidence owing to the researchers' position. The researcher was conscious throughout this research process of the limitations of this study and of her position during the data collection process. Therefore, appropriate measures were taken to ensure the validity and reliability of the research. These included ethical considerations that guided this research, triangulation of data sources and methods of data analysis applied for both the qualitative and quantitative data.

This study was also limited owing to time and resource constraints. Therefore important areas such as how a UK qualification impacted on employment after graduation, respondent's mobility after graduation, comparing the experience of Kenyan students and that of other international students from another developing country studying in the UK were not pursued. However, these areas could be considered for future research, as the PhD has a time span within which it should be completed, limited number of words

and for this study the researcher was to self-fund the field work and therefore the scope of the study would have to be achievable.

1.12   Research Assumptions

There were several assumptions that were considered while carrying out this study. It was expected that as studying abroad for Kenyans was not a new phenomenon there were systems in Kenya to support students in their decision-making process right from the time a student makes the decision to study in the UK, through the preparatory process and during the period of their study abroad. It was further assumed that a policy on international education in Kenya is important for two reasons. One, if there is a policy on international education in Kenya, it would consider strategies to co-ordinate, manage and monitor study abroad programmes for Kenyan students abroad and those aspiring to study abroad. Two, in the absence of a policy on international education to provide direction to stakeholders, studying abroad for Kenyans will remain fragmented, left to the control of market forces and is likely to negatively affect the study outcomes of those involved, if there are no checks and balances to ensure proper student support. This was based on the researcher's assumption that a positive study and living experience is a prerequisite to successful study outcomes.

To gain useful insights about the experience of Kenyan students in the UK, with students best placed to articulate their experience in relation to the areas identified in this study, it was expected that respondents would provide truthful and honest responses about their study and living experience. As there were no incentives to those participating, it was further assumed that respondents would be willing to participate and that their responses would represent a true account of their experience as international students in the UK.

1.13 Significance of the Study

This study provides the Kenya Government and other stakeholders both in Kenya and the UK with important feedback on the experience of Kenyan students enrolled in UK

higher education institutions, for better management, practice and informed decision-making. Specifically the study:

- o illuminates the current study experience of Kenyan students enrolled in UK higher education institutions;
- o provides useful and current information on which informed decisions about studying in the UK can be made by students, parents, government, recruiting agencies, organisations and stakeholders in Kenya and the UK;
- o proposes recommendations that will apply to other Kenyan students studying abroad, where appropriate, especially during the in-country preparatory phase;
- o is expected to inform the formulation of policies and strategies for better practice on international education for Kenyans;
- o will be available for use by other researchers who may wish to replicate the study in other countries where Kenyan students are enrolled and for researchers from other African countries to explore the experience of their nationals studying in the UK;
- o provides information that can be used to develop training or induction programmes for Kenyans aspiring to study in the UK;
- o contributes to the general accumulation of knowledge in this area of academic pursuit;
- o will be disseminated through public forums such as seminars and conferences to provide information to students aspiring to study in the UK, for them to make informed decisions on study areas and destination; and,
- o will be published in both electronic and print media for wider publicity.

Finally, while contributing to the general field of knowledge on international education was a motivating factor, the researcher did not lose sight of the fact that findings were aimed at gaining insight into the real-life experiences of Kenyan students in the UK and understanding how students experience affects their study progress and outcomes. The recommendations of this study therefore are practical in nature and spell out the action that needs to be taken and by whom. This approach was taken, having in mind policy makers who might not have time to read the eighty thousand words study, but can read the summarised action points. The results of this study also serve as baseline data

because they establish policy expectations on studying abroad for Kenyans. They also provide knowledge on current practice, what is actually happening to Kenyan students as they prepare, live and study in the UK.

1.14 Conclusion

This chapter has demonstrated that demand for higher education delivered internationally and in home countries has been on the increase in both the developed and developing countries. Developed countries have been able to meet this demand, but many African countries such as Kenya have found it difficult to meet the demand for higher education. This has been as a result of the increasing numbers of students graduating from secondary schools, limited opportunities at institutions of higher learning and policies that govern higher education in Kenya. In addition, graduates have continued to question the quality of education and relevance of skills attained from local institutions as they witness many graduates who cannot be absorbed in the job market despite the fact that there exists a shortage of manpower in the science and technology sector. These push factors and the pull factors in developed countries have increased the demand for international education from developing countries such as Kenya and it is projected to continue rising. As more and more Kenyans continue to study abroad, there is an increasingly emerging need to understand their living and study experience and how it affects their study outcomes. In the next chapter, key drivers to internationalisation of higher education are discussed. The chapter focuses on economic, political and social factors that contribute to the aggressive recruitment of students by UK higher education institutions not only from developing countries but also from developed countries. The internationalisation of higher education is also discussed as a way of demonstrating that "study abroad" is here to stay not only for academic pursuits, but also for adventure, and economic gain for host institutions, receiving countries and individual students. Also to be discussed are the benefits of higher education to individuals and the push-pull factors that make students opt for study destinations abroad.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW ON IMPORTANCE OF AND INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter the complex forces that have led to internationalisation of higher education are discussed. The discussions focus on political, economic and social factors that act as drivers to the search for international and internationalisation of higher education. The chapter also discusses the importance of higher education to countries and individuals and why countries and individuals invest in higher education despite the high cost associated with it. The benefits therefore that accrue to the individual and the country as a result of higher education qualifications are examined**.** The wider drivers which are referred to as push and pull factors in favor of international education and which have led many young people to enroll in universities outside their home countries are also discussed. The growing numbers of international students, the inclusion of new countries as destinations and the economic agenda of those involved have increased the need to understand what informs the choice of study destination, expectations and the experience of international students. This study attempts to take the on-going debate on experience of international students outside the receiving countries (those that recruit the students) to source countries (those that supply the students) so as to understand internationalisation from the perspective of the developing and developed countries so as to continuously inform practice.

2.1 Internationalisation of Higher Education

Literature reviewed in Chapter one Section 1.0 demonstrates that there is demand for international education world wide as more and more young people pursue higher education abroad. Higher education has become a global industry and education institutions of all kinds are involved in international education for financial and non financial reasons (Mazzarol and Soutar 2007). For higher education institutions to benefit from this growing industry in education imports education managers must think and act strategically in order to secure a competitive advantage (Ibid. 2007). It is

observed that global trends within the field of higher education have brought in new competitors (Ivy 2001) involved in an intense struggle to attract new students (Nicholls *et al.* 1995, Soutar and Turner 2002). Despite, the growing demand for higher education delivered internationally there lacks a common understanding amongst different players as to what internationalisation of universities really means and what it requires to develop an effective internationalisation strategic focus of universities (Smith and Parata 1996).

This is supported by the findings of this study based on the views of staff from the international student offices in UK universities (Chapter Five Section 5.5.2) on what they perceive as internationalisation of their institutions which includes: overseas students who are referred to as international students; an international student office; the international recruitment strategy; overseas campuses and accredited colleges of UK universities. Others may have programmes that are geared towards their internationalisation efforts such as exchange programmes of staff and students (Patrick 1997) as part of their internationalisation efforts.

However, this is challenged by Mazzarol and Soutar (2007) who points out that conceptualisation of international education in many cases is limited in that it has not focused on internationalisation of the curriculum which should be part of the wider concept of internationalisation. This could be achieved by having a curriculum with an international orientation in content aimed at preparing students for performing in an international and multicultural context and designed for domestic as well as foreign students (Ibid. 2007). On the other hand, OECD (1999) recommends a broader conceptualisation of internationalisation and observes that internationalisation should not be limited to some aspects of the universities but should be seen as the integration of an international/intercultural dimension into all activities of a university, including the teaching, research and service functions of a university.

Knight (2003) seems to agree with OECD (1999) on the wider emphasis of international education, to include the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.

Internationalisation, therefore, involves committing an institution to integrating an international dimension into every aspect of its enterprise (Knight 2003). Elkin and Devjee (2003:11) further suggest an even more inclusive conceptualisation of internationalisation that aims to create values, beliefs and intellectual insights in which both domestic and international students and faculty participates and benefits equally (Ibid. 2003). In addition, institutions should develop global perspectives, international, cultural and ethical sensitivity along with useful knowledge, skills and attitudes for a globalized market place (Ibid. 2003).

Despite these broad conceptualisations Bohm *et al.* (2004) and Turner and Robson (2008) argue that to the contrary internationalisation of higher education still tends to be characterised and defined by the numbers of international students universities recruit. They further argue that there is a vast gulf between the marketing strategies and opportunities for mutual understanding offered by the fresh and enriching perspectives of international students as well as the lived experiences of academics and the student community. This was further reinforced by Byram and Feng (2006) who argue that opportunities offered by a diverse educational context are often not self-evident and self-fulfilling in terms of intercultural competence which this study also found out. Therefore, literature discussed in this study and the process adopted to collect data attempts to provide an understanding of internationalisation in practice by listening to the perceptions of Kenyan students and staff from international student offices about internationalisation.

From the foregoing literature it is clear that there is no one common understanding as to what internationalisation entails but it is conceptualised differently depending on who is doing what. The nature of internationalisation also varies from one institution to the other depending on the internationalisation strategy adopted by different institutions. However, what comes out clearly is that the interest, values and aspirations of international students must be taken on board when institutions are internationalising their institutions if they are to have a competitive advantage in sourcing for international students. The other observation is that lack of a common understanding about internationalisation may have hampered the efforts of institutions in meeting the needs

of international students and in enriching their experience. International success of an institution is primarily measured by the numbers of overseas fee paying students enrolled at the university.

2.2 Factors that Contribute to Internationalisation of Higher Education

Studying abroad is attributed to factors that push students to seek study opportunities outside their own countries of residence and are referred to as 'push' factors. Similarly, there are pull factors in favour of international education in developed countries which are referred to as 'pull in' factors. According to Baldwin and James (2000), Gomes and Murphy (2003) and Mazzarol (2001) patterns and motivations of student migration to western countries are influenced by a combination of push-pull factors. The push-pull factors also contribute to internationalisation of higher education (Ibid. 2000, 2003, 2001). It is important to note that the push-pull factors differ from country to country and from developing to a developed country.

However, most of what is currently known on motivation for overseas study is based on research outside Africa (Pelletier, Leonard and Morley 2003). For example, overseas students differ with European Union (EU) students in their motivations for studying abroad (Davey 2005) in that, Taiwanese students choose to study abroad because they consider the international acceptability and recognition of UK Higher Education as of tremendous benefit for their long term investment (Davey 2005). However their motivation is different from that of European Union (EU) students who chose to study in the UK mainly because it provides them with an opportunity to learn the English language and UK cultural traditions Davey (2005). It is therefore rightfully argued (Maringe and Carter 2007) that these motivational divergences have important implications for strategic international student marketing, recruitment and retention.

Okoth (2003) notes that the pull-in factors in developed countries include better working conditions, higher income levels, superior infrastructure, better research support, greater professional recognition and in most cases better academic freedom. Okoth (2003) further argue that the push-out factors in African countries is attributed to declining economies, which have led to a decline in the quality of universities in those

countries. Similarly, Bennel and Pearce (1998) and Sifuna (1990) argue that the value of national higher education qualifications in developing countries became seriously devalued as a result of protracted and chronic under funding of public higher education institutions. The decline in the quality of university qualifications further enhanced the attractiveness of foreign qualifications (Ibid. 1990).

In addition to the pull-in factors highlighted by Okoth (2003), individual factors have also been identified as key drivers to international education. Uzachrisson (2001) pointed out that the attraction associated with foreign universities has to do with student interests and opportunities that are made available to them when they go to study abroad which make the destinations popular. Equally important, is the broadening of overseas curricula from the traditional areas of study focus (Ibid. 2001). In addition, the availability of internships and other programmed enhancements has attracted a broader range of undergraduate interests (Ibid. 2001). Uzachrisson further points out that international students are becoming increasingly aware of the need for a global education and experience, which they consider as a positive addition to a resume (Ibid. 2001).

The political drive to international student recruitment by UK universities was as a result of the Prime Minister's Initiative which was launched in 1999 and the second phase of the initiative in 2006. The aim was to secure UK's position as a leader in international education (D*f*ES 2006) and to encourage UK institutions to recruit more international students as an economic strategy to meet shortfalls in UK public universities budget and to internationalise UK universities (Bohm *et al.* 2004). The initiative also recognises that international education is at the centre of UK's knowledge economy and the nation's long-term wealth and prosperity (Ibid. 2004). The political and economic agenda for recruitment of more international students marked the beginning of organised recruitment of international students. This has largely been done through aggressive marketing of UK education services to new clientele in both domestic and overseas markets (UKCOSA 2004). To support the Prime Ministers Initiative the British Council has been at the forefront of efforts to promote UK universities and markets (British Council 2003). As a result, by 1997 education

counselling services had been established in over forty countries with the specific aim of marketing educational services provided by UK Universities (Ibid. 2003).

More importantly, the development of international education has been greatly facilitated by the very significant reduction in communication barriers between countries since the late 1980s with the onset of cheaper and regular communication by phone, fax and increasingly by email and internet (Okuni 2000). Language has also been cited as a critical factor in determining the destinations of students seeking study opportunities abroad (Okoth 2003). The argument expounded by (Okoth 2003) which the researcher concurs with, is that, due to the increasingly hegemonic role of English as a global language, universities in English speaking countries clearly have a competitive advantage in exploiting the rapidly growing trade in educational services.

Byram and Feng (2006) summarises the pull-in factors and points out that studying abroad is becoming a fast growing phenomenon, urged on by ease of travel, political changes, economic need and cultural interaction. Byram and Feng (2006) argue that there is an economic rationale for study abroad, particularly where students from Asian and African countries study in Europe and North America. They further suggest that the benefits of studying abroad do not only accrue to the countries and their institutions but also to the students as there is the hope of economic benefit in the future for them, with the status of a qualification from abroad rather than their own country. For the recruiting universities, there is the certainty of economic profit from fees (Bohm *et al.* 2004).

The situation in many African countries where demand for higher education outstrips supply has further acted as a push factor. In addition, more highly paid employment opportunities fuel the demand by requiring higher education qualifications. This is noted by Sadlak (1998) who argue that jobs in the 21st century in advanced economies will require sixteen years of schooling and training. In addition, developing countries will need a higher education that emphasises training in science and technology (Ibid. 1998). However, the challenge for those seeking higher education in developing countries is that access to science and technology related areas in higher education is still limited.

At the same time, in Africa, demand for higher education is growing and enrolments at primary and secondary school levels are still increasing (Juma 2003). As a result, young people in Sub-Saharan Africa have seventeen times lower participation opportunities in higher education compared to those in advanced countries or other developing countries (Ibid. 2003). The low access to higher education in Africa and other developing countries has therefore acted as a push factor. Despite the low participation rates, demand for higher education is increasing in all forms of societies and at all levels of development (Republic of Kenya 2006a). This demand is in response to the growing need for trained people to cater for an economy that is knowledge based and information oriented (Ibid. 2006a). As a response to the limited access to higher education in developing countries and the growing numbers of those qualifying from secondary schools, international education is increasingly being viewed as an alternate pathway to access higher education.

It can therefore be concluded that the push-pull factors, have created demand for international education and this creates a need to understand the experience of international students, who take up the opportunity. This study investigated the push-pull factors that have contributed to Kenyan students seeking study opportunities in the UK and the findings are discussed in Chapter Five Sections 5.2 and 5.3.

2.3 Higher Education as a Growing Market

In addition to the push-pull factors which have accelerated internationalisation of higher education, higher education in itself has become a growing trade in both developing and developed countries and is increasingly being viewed by recruiting institutions as a product that bridges shortfalls in their budgets as well as a foreign exchange earner to host countries (Bohm *et al.* 2004). Trade in higher education services is being perceived as a strategy to promote internationalisation and intercultural integration of universities (Daniel 2001). It is increasingly evident that with increased globalisation an international market in higher education is developing (Daniel 2001) where education is being treated as an export/import commodity not only by UK institutions but worldwide as students move from country to country and countries realise the immense value of trading in higher education (Ibid. 2001).

However the business approach adopted by universities face various challenges. For example, Australian universities have been accused of becoming increasingly profit driven (Marginson 2002) acquiring a mill approach to education (Winter, Taylor and Sarros 2000). This has made it difficult to distinguish between business and education and is arguably damaging to democratic and collegial processes in universities argues Bashier *et al.* (2001) and Mok (2003). It has further been argued that the business approach has not been well received by all university staff. Some have rejected the commercial environment that leaves them feeling like mere commodities and without a sense of ownership in hastily constructed programmes to meet market needs (Margison 2002, McWilliam 2000, Zepke and Leach 2002).

An interesting observation is that, the business approach has also changed the language used at universities from that of knowledge centres to more business like languages used in the market place (McWilliam 2000). For example, students are referred to as 'customers' and deans as 'middle line managers' and courses as 'products' (Lentell 2003, Winter, Taylor and Sarros 2000, McWilliam 2000). As a result, lecturers are disappointed at the loss of what McWilliam describes as an iconic ideal perhaps that was apparently loosely associated with the publicly funded liberal university where the pursuit of knowledge was a virtue for its own sake devoid of institutional opportunistic motivations (Gillespie 2002, McWilliam 2000). This study did not pursue the perceptions of university staff towards the newly adopted business approach models adopted by universities. This should be an area which should be considered going forward.

The business approach adopted by UK universities has led to aggressive recruitment of international students (Bohm *et al.* 2004). As a result recruitment of international students has grown significantly during the last decade as UK higher education institutions as well as the UK government have increasingly recognised the enormous potential of overseas markets for a range of education and training services (Bohm *et al.* 2004). The challenge that faces the sustainability of trade in education services is that students must be seen to reap the full benefits of studying in the UK owing to the high cost associated with the attainment of a UK qualification for an international student.

This is as a result of the fees that they pay as international students, the time spent studying and ultimate benefit of a higher education qualification to future careers.

The value of higher education as an export/import commodity cannot be underestimated. Literature reviewed has demonstrated that, compared to other activities in the service sector of economic growth, both achieved and projected higher education export/import is extremely impressive (IDP 2006). It is argued that few sectors of the world economy could match the value of higher education exports to the UK which is estimated at £10 billion per annum and has been growing significantly and consistently (Bohm *et al.* 2004). It is estimated that UK higher education may experience a tripling of the current level of demand to over 850,000 places by 2020 as a result of international students entering the UK (Ibid. 2004). It has also been argued that (Ramsden 2006) international higher education also provides the UK with a dynamic and highly skilled import industry. However, the sustainability of this growing market is subject to debate as new and cheaper higher education markets competing with the UK for students emerge. Higher education export/import is therefore seen as an integral part of the internationalisation process being pursued by institutions of higher learning.

Ayano (2006) in her study of experience of Japanese students in the UK found out that reliable and relevant information is crucial to students who are aspiring to study abroad to help them make realistic expectations and cope with uncertainties associated with living and studying abroad. Therefore with the targeted recruitment of international students as an economic venture there is need to go beyond the recruitment and ensure that students are prepared before departure to study and live abroad and that marketing strategies adopted by institutions mirrors the reality of studying in the UK.

2.4 Higher Education and Globalisation

Castells (1998) points out that higher education is an important form of investment in human capital development as it contributes significantly to globalisation. It is argued that (Sadlak 1998) globalisation encourages equitable use of what is provided and consumed and it enhances the non-restricted flow of money, information, services and goods. It has become more important today to generate knowledge and use it to access

and control all types of markets and to develop new technology (Ibid. 1998). This is as a result of forces of globalisation which have globalised the labour market and substantially improved intercontinental mobility for certain economic and socio classes (Ibid. 1998).

For a country to participate in the competitive global economy it must produce large numbers of scientifically and technologically literate, innovative, receptive, highly adaptable and problem solving minded people inclined to long life learning (Republic of Kenya 2006a). Globalisation is therefore seen to offer positive opportunities for those with higher levels of useful knowledge and skills, but to threaten the livelihoods of those who have lowest skills and knowledge, those with traditional areas of skills that are devalued by technological changes (McGrath 2001).

For countries and individuals to participate in global markets, the acquisition of global qualifications has been emphasised. Acknowledging the value of global qualifications, Okoth (2003) claims that, they enhance employment opportunities at national and international levels. The demand for internationally recognised qualifications, is further supported by Gill (1989) who argues that, capital accumulation has become more knowledge based and knowledge sensitive and therefore those countries, firms and individuals that have access to the most sophisticated knowledge and information are able to compete both in their countries and internationally. Global qualifications have therefore become increasingly important, particularly in areas of knowledge and skills that are needed by trans-national corporations and business community at large (Bohm *et al.* 2004).

2.5 The Economic and Social Benefits of Higher Education

This section discusses benefits that accrue to individuals and countries as a result of higher education qualifications. The inclusion of this section is to demonstrate why individuals and countries continue to invest so much to acquire higher education qualifications in spite of the high cost associated with it. The benefits associated with higher education qualifications as literature in this section demonstrates has further fuelled demand for it.

2.5.1 Benefits of Higher Education to the Individual

Studies by Brunello and Medio (2001), Botelho and Pinto (2004) and Wolter (2000) have demonstrated that since the early 1960s human capital theory has provided the framework for investigating the effect of education on earnings. The studies have confirmed positive associations between education and earnings as educated individuals earn more on average compared to the less educated or less qualified (Menon 2008). The positive effect of education on earnings is therefore believed to encourage young people and others to continue their education beyond basic education (Ibid. 2008) further increasing demand for higher education.

Menon (2008) further argue that investigating the earning expectations of secondary school graduates can be useful in the attempt to provide corroborating evidence for the human capital interpretation of the private demand for higher education. This information is useful to policy makers and planners in evaluating existing higher education policies to ensure that they address current scenarios. In addition, informed decision making on study areas and institutions is likely to enable those seeking higher education to make choices that are relevant to the demands of the labour market if they are to benefit from future earnings.

One of the reasons that human capital theory remains attractive is that it seems to 'work' at the individual level, in that educated people tend to have a higher income, which is seen as evidence of their greater productivity as individuals (OECD 2002). Within the human capital theory workers and their level of skills are important to economic growth (Ibid. 2002). However, Botelho and Pinto (2004) argue that higher education skills should be combined with other factors such as adequate levels of research, development and innovation, effective use of technology and sufficient capital investment if they are to contribute to economic development (Ibid. 2004). Apparently these functions will need to draw their capacities from higher education.

Mai (2005) defines the cost of attaining a degree to the individual as the foregone earnings while undertaking and completing the qualification, direct costs such as tuition fees and living expenses, loan repayments and additional taxation associated with the

degree. However, the earnings foregone also crucially depend on the subject of study and the time taken to complete a particular degree (Ibid. 2005). Kathleen (2002) questions whether the high cost of attaining a higher education qualification is worth the investment owing to the escalating cost of higher education which is causing many to question the value of continuing education beyond high school. Kathleen (2002) further questions whether the opportunity cost for choosing college over full time employment and the accumulation of thousands of dollars of debt through student loans as universities turn to cost sharing as a way of supplementing their budgets, is in the long run worth the investment. The risk is especially large for low-income families who have a difficult time making ends meet, without the additional burden of college fees (Ibid 2002). She concludes that there is considerable support for the notion that the rate of return on investment in higher education is high enough to warrant the financial burden associated with pursuing a degree, as the earnings differential between college and high school graduates varies overtime with college graduates on average earning more than high school graduates.

The differentials in earnings as a result of qualifications, was supported by Day and Newburger (2002) who point out that over an adult's working life, high school graduates earn an average of £1.2 million, associate degree holders about £1.6 million and bachelor's degree £2.1 million. Similarly, the Commerce Department, US Census bureau reports that those with a PhD earn an average of £3.4 million and professional degrees £4.4 million. Table 2:1 below further summarises various studies showing the rates of return at different levels of education in Kenya.

Table 2.1: Rate of Return to Education (Percentages)

Source: Kippra (2002)

Table 2.1 presents studies conducted in Kenya to determine the rate of return of the three levels of education primary, secondary and university. This information is important to this study as it demonstrates why more Kenyan students will be seeking higher education qualifications. Data presented shows that there is a significant earnings premium associated with additional qualification attainment. At the national level the rate of return for those with university education was higher at 32.5% compared to 17.2% at secondary level and 7.9% at primary level (Kippra 2002). It was the same at urban level where those with higher education qualifications had the highest returns at 48.5% compared to 21.3% for those with secondary education.

However, in the urban centers those with primary education had the lowest returns of 4.4% (Kippra 2002). Of interest are the rates of return for those in rural areas where there was 6.7 percentage point difference between those with higher education qualifications at 23% and secondary education at 16.3%. Those in the rural areas with primary education recorded the highest rate of return (8.3%) compared to those in urban centers (4.4%) or at the national level (7.9%). This could be explained by the fact that the majority of primary school leavers are bound to possess skills that enable them to work in their immediate environments while those with higher education qualifications are bound to find work in urban centers where their skills are required. These results are similar to those reported by Manda (1997) which show that in Kenya university education has the highest rate of return (53%) compared to 37.3% for secondary education and 12.6% at primary level.

The argument that higher education has a better rate of return compared to secondary and primary education is further supported by the US Department for Education (2000)

which maintains that the sizeable differences in lifetime earnings puts the cost of college study in realistic terms. With the high benefits that match education and earnings it is evident that regardless of the cost and challenges involved students will continue to pursue higher education qualifications wherever they can find it. As international education becomes more of a choice than an option owing to external and internal pressures and championed by individual students, institutions and governments there is need for empirical evidence to determine if students potentially benefit from this cross border movement by exploring their experience during and after their study period.

2.5.2 Non Monetary Benefits of Higher Education to the Individual

In addition to the increased income attributed to higher education qualifications Institute for Higher Education Policy (1998) suggest that there are other benefits to individuals associated with higher education qualifications. The Institute reviewed individual social benefits for college graduates and found out that they had higher levels of savings, increased personal and professional mobility, improved quality of life for their offspring, better consumer decision-making, more hobbies and leisure activities (Ibid. 1998). Similarly, Rowley and Hurtado (2002) found out that individuals with higher education qualifications was more open minded, cultured, rational, consistent and less authoritarian. In addition, college attendance decreased prejudice, enhanced knowledge of world affairs and social status while increasing economic and job security for those with a bachelor's degree (Ibid. 2002).

Cohn and Geske (1992) also observe that there exists a positive correlation between completion of higher education and good health not only for oneself, but also for ones children and that college graduates appear to have a more optimistic view of their past and future personal progress compared to those without higher education qualifications. There is also a tendency for more highly educated women to spend quality time with their children (Ibid. 1992). Educated women tend to use this time to better prepare their children for the future (Ibid. 1992).

Evidence from the various studies reported in this section demonstrates that investing in higher education qualifications has significant long-term benefits to individuals that far outweigh the costs of attaining a degree. Anecdotal evidence suggest that a positive study experience is important if students are to experience successful learning outcomes which are a prerequisite to higher earnings and all the other benefits associated with higher education qualifications.

2.5.3 Benefits of Higher Education to the State

Having analysed the rate of return of higher education to the individual and the associated benefits, this section further discusses how the sum total of these benefits translates into benefits to countries. The purpose of including this section is to provide a justification as to why regardless of the high cost of providing higher education in the face of other competing needs, countries still invest in higher education although developing countries have not met the demand for higher education owing to limited capacities. For example, only 3% of adults of university going age access higher education in Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2006a). The situation is the same in the rest of Africa where only 13% (Juma 2003) of the eligible age group access higher education. The current situation in Africa, Kenya included, is that countries spend the highest proportion of education budget to support basic education (Juma 2003) with a view to attaining education for all and achieving the millennium development goals.

It is difficult to quantify all the benefits that accrue from an educated population. As discussed in section 2.5.1 out of the three levels of education that is primary, secondary and university the latter has emerged as having better returns and benefits to the country and the individual. Research has shown that there are definite economic, socio and political benefits to the society that accrue out of acquisition of a higher education qualification. According to Sabates and Feinstein (2004) there are clear benefits in the form of improved health and reduced incidence of depression and obesity. With an educated population there is evidence of reduced crime rates (Feinstein 2002a) in addition to enhanced social cohesion (Feinstein 2002b). At the same time there is the intergenerational transmission of skills between parents and children (Blanden *et al.* 2002, Preston and Green 2003).

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The Kenya government makes a significant investment in the education of her young people (Republic of Kenya 2005a). This include: paying teachers' salaries, tuition fees, maintenance grants, bursary schemes and the cost of providing a generous interest rate subsidy on student loans (Ibid. 2005). Conversely, the exchequer recoups this investment through increased tax following enhanced graduate earnings (Ibid. 2005). As in the case of individual rate of return, the exchequer rate of return is used to trade off current costs, against future benefits associated with higher education provision and illustrates the extent to which investment by the state in higher education is economically worthwhile (Ibid. 2005).

Institute of Physics (2005) examined the economic benefits of education and research to the individual and the state of students pursuing chemical sciences. The study found out that for an average graduate, the current cost to the exchequer of providing a degree level qualification is approximately £21,000. However, the value of the additional taxation and national insurance as a result of the qualification is approximately £93,000. Trading off these costs and benefits, and taking into account when they occur, equates to an exchequer rate of return of 12.1 % which is well above the long run cost of student borrowing at the rate of 4.5% (Ibid.2005).

Similarly, ILO (1972) and Republic of Kenya (2004) re-emphasises the economic and socio benefits of education to the state. The studies argue that people are a type of economic asset, human capital and that increased investment in health, skills and knowledge provides future returns to the economy through increases in labour productivity. It also reduces the incidence of socio problems such as drug abuse, crime and welfare dependency all of which can weigh heavily on the economy (Ibid. 1972, 2004). To ameliorate these weaknesses in the social fabric, public funds that might otherwise go towards productive investment are spent instead on crime control, drug treatment and income support programmes (Feinstein 2002a and 2002b). At the same time, skills attained though higher education are important in building capacities to implement a country's policies. The delivery of health, education and other services will depend on qualified professional staff that is key to collecting and managing data,

debating and developing good policies based on evidence of what works and what does not (The Commission for Africa Report 2005).

Highly skilled workers are essential to implementing policies and monitoring how they are put into effect (Ibid. 2005). Similarly, higher education contributes to implementation of policies to support delivery of a quality basic education which produces "learners" who participate in higher education (Mamdani 2006). Higher education is central in the development of a country's education system as it is in higher education that research is located, where the curriculum is developed and where teachers are trained (Mamdani 2006). Higher education is also required to accelerate Africa's overall development (Ibid. 2006) as majority of children in Africa have received and continue to receive general education. However there is need for more of these children to receive high level skills so as to fully participate in development.

If a country's higher education system is not fully developed it affects the quality and delivery of general education which is the beginning of higher education (Mamdani 2006). Higher education is therefore the heart, the strategic heart of education as it is where choices are made. It is therefore equally important that a country like Kenya where only a small proportion of qualified candidates access higher education in any one given year, there is need to continually research and document student learning experience with a view to determining its impact on attainment of academic goals so as to determine if the country is moving towards acquiring high level skills required for economic development. Indeed, as argued by Schweke (2005) and which this study agrees with, there is a growing consensus that money spent wisely on education pays off not only for workers but also for communities and business which can be linked to a country's economic development.

2.6 Higher Education and Economic Development

It is postulated that higher education is important to any country that aspires to lay a strong foundation towards socio-economic development (Republic of Kenya 1999). The Commission for Africa Report (2005) reinforces the need for high-level skills to manage the process of economic growth both at national and international level. The

report recognises the central role of education in national development explaining that for education to play this role it must be accompanied by a massive proposed commitment to revitalise higher education. The report observes that it is the higher education sector that Africa will depend on to secure professional and leadership skills needed to transform societies. In the present concept of transformation of nations into knowledge economies and knowledge societies, higher education provides not just educated workers, to read and write the 3Rs, but knowledge workers to support the growth of the economy (TFHES 2000).

Higher education is an important catalyst to development as demonstrated by those countries which have achieved high levels of economic development that is relative to their levels of higher education attainment. For example, Tillak (2003) in comparing the enrolment ratios in higher education between the developed and developing countries has noted that the enrolment ratios in developed countries varied between 20% and as high as 90% and is restricted to a small fraction for developing countries. Tillak points out that no country could be found in the group of high-income countries with an enrolment ratio in higher education of less than 20% therefore concluding that, a 20% enrolment ratio in higher education is a critical threshold for a country to become economically advanced. Kenya has not achieved this threshold as only 3% of adults of university going age are enrolled in higher education (UNESCO 2006b). Similarly, studies conducted by the Organization of Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) provide evidence that country's that invest heavily in education and skills benefit economically and socially from that choice (Schleicher 2006).

Supporting, the role of higher education in economic development (Republic of Kenya 1999), the report observes that basic education equips an individual with the necessary knowledge and skills for one to positively interact with their immediate environment but higher education utilises that basic knowledge and skills to create in the individual the capacity to effectively contribute towards national and international development. World Bank (2005) report highlights the impact of higher education, training and lifelong learning on economic development and concludes that improving access and quality of higher education coupled with life-long learning could improve the prospects

of developing a knowledge economy. The report compares the performance of Ghana and South Korea in terms of GDP per capita growth from 1960 to 2000 which showed a marked difference of over 12% by 2001. The report concludes that the growth was as a result of higher investment levels in education by South Korea, particularly university education which created a significant highly skilled human capital and knowledge capacity (Ibid. 2005). Similarly Bloom, Canning and Chan (2006) present a case study of Mauritius and Tanzania to illustrate the close relationship between economic growth and investment in higher education. The details are in Table 2.2 below:

Table 2.2 Higher Education Enrolments and Economic Growth in Tanzania and Mauritius

Source: Bloom, Canning and Chan (2006) Higher Education and Economic Development in Africa

Table 2.2 shows that tertiary enrolments in Mauritius rose from 1% in 1985 to 15% in 2005 and had a per capita income of US $12,800 compared to that of Tanzania which had a much lower per capita income of US $700 over the same period which could be attributed to low tertiary enrolments which remained stagnant at 1% over the same period, 1985-2005, while as that of Mauritius registered an increase of 14%. It could therefore be concluded that the growth in higher education contributed to the significant growth of per capital income in Mauritius.

OECD (2002) further supports the role of higher education in economic growth. The report argues that the difference in levels of education contributes to a positive correlation with economic growth. The report provides evidence that developed countries that expanded their higher education more rapidly since 1960 have experienced faster growth than countries that did not. However, the report argues that higher education alone does not contribute to economic growth. To achieve this growth, there are more factors that are inter-related and richer countries are able to devote more resources to education just as they can to health, other welfare services and

provide better and more years of education for their populations whose sum total is economic growth for the nations.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted the changing patterns of higher education delivered internationally, which is increasingly being viewed as a commodity vigorously pursued by countries and individuals owing to economic benefits that are associated with it. Studying outside ones home country has been triggered by push-pull factors that exist in different countries and benefits that accrue to those with higher education qualifications. Literature further demonstrates that there are immense benefits in pursuing higher education to individuals and countries despite the costs involved. However, developing countries have not met the demand for higher education and the threshold level in participation is still low to contribute to their industrialisation. The aggressive recruitment of international students by institutions in developing countries has resulted to a worldwide movement of students. The next chapter presents existing literature that highlights factors important to the experience of international students in the UK.

CHAPTER THREE: REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS EXPERIENCE

3.0 Introduction

To better understand the experience of Kenyan students in the UK I choose to employ the squeezing effect theory by Luzio-Locket (1998). The theory has been instrumental in guiding my research work in relation to defining the experimental questions, deciding what elements to measure and what empirical evidence to look for in my data. The theory was found relevant to this study as it illuminates what happens to migrants settling in a foreign country and how this movement is likely to affect their adaptation as they squeeze in their self identities into pre-determined cultures. The purpose of this section therefore is to provide an explanatory analytical framework for the present study by reviewing literature on experience of international students in the UK.

3.1 The Squeezing Effect Theory

Robson (2002:61) defines a theory as an explanation of what is going on in the situation; phenomenon or what is being investigated. Luzio-Lockett (1998:210) explains that the educational experience students are involved in, cannot be related to a purely cognitive journey (Ibid. 1998) but should provide an opportunity for the expression and integration of the personal, emotional and experiential journey as well (Ibid. 1998). The underpinning of Luzio-Lockett's theory was that foreign students squeeze in their identity within pre-established rules, conventions of a host society and educational environment in order to achieve their academic goals (Ibid. 1998). Luzio-Lockett explored the experience of overseas students on study programmes in a higher education setting in the UK in an attempt to identify from the perspective of the students how and why the self might be affected during this 'transitional period'.

However, even as they squeeze in their self identities foreign students face the problem of adjustment as they experience a different education, teaching and evaluation system and the challenges involved in accommodating oneself within the frames of reference of the host culture be it academic or social (Luzio-Lockett 1998). As international

students' enter a new education setting in a host country, the first thing they encounter is language difficulty on various occasions, such as discussion in classrooms, tutorials with their tutors, writing assignments, informal conversations with friends and so on (Ibid. 1998). According to Luzio-Lockett, language difficulties negatively affect the individuals self image and concept of self. The emotional effects arising out of language difficulties, negative affective experiences regarding their personality or identity also influence the individual's self concept. As a consequence of the 'squeezing effect' on self students lose confidence and their self image tends to become more negative. Luzio-Lockett concludes that language restrictions, other affective and situational factors are detrimental to academic performance and to overall educational experience for international students. She proposes that setting student support groups could be an effective potential means of addressing students' needs for integration, a context within which to establish their sense of belonging and to find a facilitating climate of trust and understanding, to facilitate personal and professional growth (Ibid. 1998).

Lending support to Luzio-Lockett's argument of the need for support groups in the integration of international students, Whitaker (1987) and Aveline and Dryden (1988) argue that the commonality of being with people who share experience is vital in helping them feel less isolated. This also provides a strong incentive to group members to seek alternative solutions to common problems with the objective of the group being to support the personal and learning needs of each other. Furthermore, as underlined by Luzio-Lockett (1998:222) the student support group would supplement the existing infrastructure of provision through which student needs are addressed, allowing for alternative channels of communication and self-development which ultimately will lead to successful academic accomplishment. Luzio-Lockett's theory provides an understanding of the barriers that are likely to affect foreign students as they try to force their self identities into pre-determined confines of host cultures.

The next section reviews existing literature on experience of international students in the UK. The literature focuses on facets of international student's experience which this study (Chapter 4 Section 4.4.1) considers as important in supporting Kenyan students manage transition and realise their full potential as international students. The factors

discussed here below will be used to determine to what extent Luzio-Lockett's theory is applicable to the experience of Kenyan students in the UK, as well as determine how the students were prepared to adapt to already pre-determined or pre-established systems in the UK. Any disconnect constitutes the student experience.

3.2 Students' Expectations

This study sought to find out whether Kenyan students had set realistic expectations, whether the services offered at institutions of learning met student's expectations and whether institutions in the UK deliver on promises that they make to students during recruitment. Crossman and Bordia (2008) argue that international student's select educational institutions that they perceive will provide them with a desirable educational, social and personal experience. Students' expectations may be dependent on their personal and professional goals or information gathered before enrolment. This study has argued that fulfillment of their expectations would likely lead to satisfaction with the educational process (Chapter One Section 1.3). However Rousseau (1995) cautions that, expectations based on personal needs and goals differs with institutional promises generated from such sources as promotional materials, formal and informal communication and institutional websites.

Expectation, as a concept, has been studied in various areas of psychology and contributes to explaining people's behaviour and following consequences. Furnham and Bochner (1986:171) summarised the basic idea of expectancy value model as follows; a person's behaviour is directly related to the expectations that they hold and the subjective value of the consequences that occur following the action (Ibid. 1986). In migration studies, researchers have examined the relationship between immigrants' expectations towards host environments and their new life after the immigration and their adjustment. Much of the research suggests a correlation between higher expectation and lower adjustment levels and vice versa (Ibid. 1986). For example, if an individual has very high expectations to a new life in a host country to meet such expectations would be very stressful. On the contrary if one has lower expectations, the fulfilment of the expectations is relatively easier and psychological stress, which the individual feels, is possibly lower (Ibid. 1986).

Furnham and Bochner (1986) and Cochrane (1983) argue that expectation accounts for a lower rate of psychological distress and better adjustment since the fulfilment of expectations is one of the two main factors in adjustment, expectation fulfilment and assimilation to a society. However, this theory has been challenged as low expectation may be worse in terms of social mobility although it is better as has been suggested by those who have researched on adjustment (Ayano 2006) but difficult to achieve as those migrating have high expectations naturally. Similarly, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) devised the SERVQUAL model whose aim was to understand the consumer satisfaction within the service industry which is also based on the premise that fulfilled expectation leads to satisfaction. The model has been used by expectation researchers in management and general education.

Similar to research in consumer psychology, education researchers Oldfield and Baron (2000) and Yanhong and Kaya (1998) found out that fulfilment of student expectations leads to satisfaction with educational services. In agreement with Furnham and Bochner (1986) and Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988), Appleton-Knapp and Krentler (2006) point out that initial student expectation have been found to be strongly related to course satisfaction while Tan and Kek (2004) maintains that fulfilment of expectations regarding educational support services such as libraries and administration leads to a satisfying educational experience

Rousseau (1995) has argued that while there are certain expectations and perceptions of and about institutional promises, lack of fulfilment of promises has been found to have a negative effect on international students such as loss of trust and well being. At the same time, lack of fulfilment of expectations is seen as diminishing satisfaction with the experience (Ibid. 1995). Rousseau (1995) refers to promises made to international students as psychological contracts. He defines 'psychological contract' a term popular in consumer research as a perception of overt or assumed promises individuals expect the other party in a relationship to be obligated to keep (Rousseau 1995). In the case of international students he identifies these as any explicit promises made to them from informal and formal communication from the institution based on agents and

representatives, websites, brochures and advertisement which would create a psychological contract that would be perceived as institutional obligation (Ibid. 1995).

Unlike legal or written contracts which are discussed by parties involved, psychological contracts are not discussed and are therefore perceived differently by each of the parties. However Deery, Iverson and Walsh (2006) also suggest that the effect of breach of psychological contracts, such as lack of fulfilled promises can be similar to those of broken legal or written contracts. This study will seek to find out the study expectations of Kenyan students and whether they were realistic and how this impacted on their experience. This is based on the premise that unfulfilled expectations amounts to what Rousseau refers to, as broken contracts.

The expectancy value model supports the need for adequate information on the host country to people preceding their migration to set realistic and realisable goals thus reducing psychological difficulty associated with a geographical movement (Furnham and Bochner 1986). Providing information about host cultures could be done through fact oriented training that provides trainees with information about host culture through lectures, videotapes and reading materials (Cochrane 1983). This would equip potential students with information to help them in making realistic expectations.

However, Furnham and Bochner (1986) argue that there are problems associated with packaging such information. This is because it could be too general to apply to each individual's specific case or needs. Secondly, the information tends to over emphasise "the exotic" such as what to do in a tea ceremony and ignore everyday happenings. Thirdly, people may regard themselves as understanding the culture of a host environment fully and expect them to be very effective, although the information, which is given in such a programme, deals with shallow and basic issues. Fourthly, it is doubtful if individuals would change their behaviour according to the information they have received (Ibid. 1986).

However, they are in agreement on the need for prior information about host countries if migrants are to make realistic expectations about places that they have never been

before regardless of the limitations of such information (Furnham and Bochner 1986:242). Therefore, learning about the target culture and appropriate behaviour patterns is the best way to prevent such difficulties (Ibid. 1986). They propose that the strategy for sensitising those travelling abroad for the first time about host countries should focus upon problems in everyday life in a host culture and practical advice to the individuals (Furnham and Bochner 1986). Training should also be programmed depending on each individual's needs to avoid generalisations. They further suggest that techniques used in this approach should be well tried in behavioural psychology and social psychology (Ibid. 1986) and conclude that the main target of culture training is the management of interpersonal encounters (Ibid. 1986).

Unfulfilled promises and expectations affect institutions and students in different ways. For example, faced with unfulfilled promises international students may choose to leave the institution before degree completion (Bordia, Wales and Pittam 2006) which is neither beneficial to the institution or to the student. It also adversely affects the students in that they will either give up their plans for their chosen degree or enrol in another institution, spending more money and time than originally anticipated (Ibid. 2006). Students may also provide negative word of mouth recommendations about the institutions which may eventually lead to loss of reputation and therefore weaken the number of international students enrolling into the institution (Bordia, Wales and Pittam 2006). Therefore expectation fulfilment is important on learner fulfilment.

This section highlights the need for universities to fulfil students expectations in line with the promises made to them during recruitment if they are to maintain their potential markets. This could be achieved by adopting ethical recruitment practices as suggested by Crossman (2005). Crossman (2005) maintains that, and which this study concurs with, for universities to secure a socially and economically sustainable future that does not rely on 'clever marketing' to attract international students it would be better linked to 'raising the bar' of expectations in terms of quality, innovation and fostering meaningful learning experiences as well as fostering a genuine collaboration between education managers and academics. This is useful if universities are to have a competitive advantage during recruitment and student's expectations are to be met.

This section has demonstrated that the application of the expectancy value model is crucial to those migrating to new geographical areas. However there is need to support those migrating with practical information about the host countries to help them in making expectations that are neither too high to cause stress nor too low to be sustained. For the training to be meaningful it must not be too generalised but must target the individual needs of those migrating to support them in squeezing in their self identities into a host culture as argued by Luzio-Lockett.

3.3 Pre-Departure Information

The previous section demonstrates the need for in-county sensitisation to those travelling abroad to assist them in setting realistic goals and expectations. Different backgrounds and experience of international students compound the complexity of meeting the information needs of different groups of students coming to the UK (Lewins 1990). In light of this, the study therefore investigated the pre-departure experience of Kenyan students so as to understand the adequacy of information that they receive to assist them to adapt and to settle in a foreign country. The argument adopted in this study is that, adequate pre-departure information determines how well and quickly international students adapt and settle especially for Kenyan students' the majority of whom would be travelling abroad for the first time and living alone without the traditional support systems they are used to.

Socialisation, context and students' motivations to study abroad are key in designing relevant information targeting different students' backgrounds not only for marketing the institutions but that which is useful and relevant to the future study and living experience of the recipients. With adequate and relevant pre-departure information students from the onset would be capacitated to set realistic expectations, uncertainties are lessened and planning to study abroad would be realistic but not based on hype as is currently the case amongst Kenyan students.

Kinnel (1990:83) highlighting lack of adequate pre-arrival information to overseas students observes that services marketed to overseas students and the ability to provide them do not necessarily equate the reality on arrival. Kinnel further argues that,

information received by students on admission which this study concurs with aims at marketing the universities and showcasing the universities physical facilities with students portrayed as having the best time of their lives (Ibid. 1990). Kinnel's argument has been supported by Lewins who suggests that practical information that would help students as first time travellers to settle abroad would include British habits, especially eating habits and food. Further Kinnel writing about the inadequacy of pre-departure information students receive points out that the British system of personal responsibility for learning is not provided to students in the brochures and information packages that they receive (Ibid. 1990). Students therefore rely on informal communication links, which are not devoid of biases depending on the experience and the interest of the person giving the information (Ibid. 1990:20).

Lewins (1990:83) agrees with Kinnel and emphasises the need for adequate, appropriate, reliable and well timed pre-arrival information to overseas students before departure from their home countries as a way of alleviating anxieties when facing the unknown. Lewins (1990:83) explains that such information is key to understanding the British culture, UK higher education in general, the specific institution where the student is enrolled, the institution's expectations, its academic programmes and facilities. Lewins (1990) explaining the challenges that universities face even when they send out pre-arrival information notes that in some cases information is not received or is delayed because of communication problems in developing countries. As a result, students arrive without basic information which is important to them as they form their first impressions of the host country and in settling down for studies (Ibid. 1990).

Lewins (1990) reveals the inadequacy of university personnel in supporting international students as they do not fully understand their needs. He argues that although international students arrive inadequately prepared to study and live abroad the situation becomes even worse when students arrive as university officials assigned to assist them are disadvantaged in that they have scanty knowledge of the culture and needs of students they are dealing with to enable them address the students concerns appropriately (Ibid. 1990). The problem of inadequate pre-departure information according to Lewins is compounded by the fact that information packages to overseas

students are prepared without consultation of interested parties and therefore many times it is not relevant to the needs of some overseas students (Lewins 1990:84). The information packages do not reflect the different contexts, backgrounds and unique needs of students in relation to their level of entry, type of the study programme and past experience (Ibid. 1990). This therefore means that students arrive in the UK armed with high expectations but without a reality check. Against this background of uncertainty, overseas students are likely to suffer disorientation and culture shock associated with the actual processes of living abroad which is experienced in the first weeks of stay (Lewins 1990).

The students' arrival experience is also important. Lewins (1990:85) observes that appropriate advice and help on arrival are important because if first impressions are unfavourable the students whole learning experience intends to become 'problem' based. Lewins highlighting the challenges that universities face in providing information to new students and in settling them claims that even where induction and orientation sessions are held for overseas students not all students benefit as some arrive late after the induction and other welcoming events which take place at the beginning of the academic year have taken place (Ibid. 1990:87). However, despite the problems that universities encounter in providing information to potential students Lewins (1990) maintains that the arrival experience is very important to a student's continuous positive learning experience. Lewins recommends, which this study concurs with, that for a student to settle properly for learning it is imperative to get the first three weeks right. Overseas students need to feel settled in every aspect of their personal lives if they are to have a chance of developing fully as 'true students' (Ibid. 1990: 89).

This section demonstrates the need to provide relevant, timely and adequate information to students before arrival and on arrival. To assess the level of preparedness of Kenyan students to live and study in the UK this study explored sources of pre-departure information accessible to them, whether the information they received was useful in helping them to live in a new and foreign culture away from their families, friends and social support networks common in African communities. The study further investigates

whether pre-departure information reflected the reality on arrival and the effect this had on their study and living experience.

3.4 Social-Cultural Provision

International students uproot themselves from familiar social, educational and linguistic surroundings therefore making intangible commitments to their educational process and hence the institution. Bordia (2007) points out that, the individual may put their career on temporary hold, while some may fund their degrees on savings from weaker currencies. According to Furnham and Bochner (1986:184-85) when individuals leave their own country for another, they leave behind many people with whom they have a relationship. Those people are for example families, friends, colleagues at work, clergy, doctors and neighbours. Some of them are closer and more important to them than others. No matter what their relationship, they influence and support each other in different ways and in different degrees (Ibid. 1986).

Bordia (2007) rightfully argues that, as a consequence of the geographic movement, those migrating lose the support which they are used to from these people and some of them especially at the initial stages of their educational period lead a relatively lonely life. As argued by Luzio-Lockett (1998) and Crossman and Bordia (2008) international students are the ones to adapt to the target cultural norms even when the receiving institutions celebrate the multicultural values that they bring. They rightfully argue that (Ibid. 2008) individuals who are comfortable with their cultural identities in their home countries find themselves in a culturally vulnerable position when they arrive in the chosen country (Ibid. 2008). Furnham and Bochner (1986) describe the notion of social-support theory as directly related to increased psychological wellbeing. Therefore, various types of support provided by interpersonal relationships play a crucial role in determining a person's general adaptive functioning and sense of well being. The theory points out that, because of the decrease in the amount of social support, migrants tend to become more vulnerable against physical and psychological stress owing to culture shock which could be reduced by offering supportive relationships.

Therefore if migrants have enough supportive relationships with others such as co-nationals, migrants from other countries, nationals in a host environment, they possibly experience fewer difficulties in their adjustment (Furnham and Bochner 1986 and Luzio-Locket 1998). However, Furnham (1997) argues that mixing with co-nationals has challenges in that living within a co-national group hinders migrants from adjusting and assimilating to a host country and foments prejudice towards migrant groups. The claims of negative influence arising out of cohabiting within a co-national group has been challenged by Antonovsky (1974) who argue that being part of national groups can be positive in that having ties to others and to communities can help people resolve their tensions and that even knowing those resources are available is good to those going through stressful moments.

Social interactions for foreign students are therefore very important to a student migrating to study abroad. According to Byram and Feng (2006) this is because living abroad means experiencing another way of life, changing ones habits of thought, as well as those of eating, drinking and daily life in a foreign culture. Supporting the importance of social activities to overseas students Lewins points out that, it is important for students to take time off for relaxation as it contributes to the general well being of a student and it is a useful way of overcoming feelings of homesickness and loneliness (Lewins 1990:101). Anecdotal evidence suggests that socialisation is especially important to Kenyan students who come from a culture where there are cohesive social ties and social support from immediate relatives and the community in general.

Kinnel (1990:37) acknowledging the different social backgrounds of overseas students observes that many of them arrive not prepared for the kind of individualistic life they experience in the UK and arrive thinking that they will socialise with the British people and visit their homes but this does not happen. This was also the view of Byram and Feng (2006) who argued that there is poor integration of overseas students within UK communities. The poor integration of overseas students amongst the British communities was also highlighted by Kinnel (1990) who observed that foreign students in the UK often live in isolation on the margins of the societies in which they reside. There could be many reasons for the poor social integration of international students.

For example, Byram and Feng (2006) suggest that this could be out of choice and a resistance from foreign students as a result of social processes, which do not offer an entry even to the most willing student, committed to the idea of integration as the findings of this study has revealed.

At the same time, Lewins (1990:101) commenting on challenges that international students face in the process of integration and universities in their attempt to facilitate their integration observes that although universities informs the students of the extracurricular activities and facilities available, overseas students do not make use of them due to language barriers that make it difficult for them to socialise. Lewins (1990) further notes that without the ability to communicate freely and confidently, foreign students are tempted to seek socialisation from national groups a view which Luzzio-Lockett (1998) also holds. Therefore, provision of extra-curricular facilities do not necessarily mean that foreign students will make use of them and getting into national groupings meant that there was a less tendency to break into a British group (Lewins 1990:103).

Lewins (1990) argument supports the suggestion that even with the provision of facilities and opportunities to promote a positive living experience, which is important to learning, there are social barriers that need to be understood and addressed. According to Lewins (1990), Kinnel (1990) and Byram and Feng (2006) there are other practical concerns that have a significant impact on the social experience of overseas students which include; food, climate, social acceptance, religion and cultural interaction which were also identified in this study as having hampered the efforts of Kenyan students to socially adapt and integrate while in the UK. Recognising the potential benefits of studying abroad, Byram and Feng (2006) suggest that this does not only include knowledge acquisition in targeted subjects, host culture and the host language but also personal growth which individuals experience as they adjust in their new environment. Experiences of foreign students are therefore not only restricted to studies but also learning to live in host countries (Ibid. 2006) and therefore their social-cultural experience is imperative. As Lewins (1990:106) rightfully points out, the more the living needs of the students are met satisfactorily the more likely the students will

succeed in their studies. However, universities face challenges as they try to address the needs of international students and there is need to sensitise international students to the use of these facilities. Kinnel (1990:30) points out that although universities have support services, overseas students did not seem to understand their functions fully and the questions to ask and they were therefore not very useful to the students as support centres, which this study confirmed as not all Kenyan students used the support facilities provided by the universities. This study will also examine whether Kenyan students found support centres at the universities useful and whether they made use them.

3.5 Academic Provision

This study recognises that the majority of international students travel abroad with the hope of attaining a qualification. They have a pressing need above all else to return home with the inner satisfaction and the outward measure of successful academic achievement (Kinnel 1990:46). Kinnel (1990) argues that although other features of university and British life such as decent living, accommodation, welfare services, sporting, cultural facilities, experience of the British people and society are valuable they are not as important as academic achievement. According to Kinnel (1990), UK universities therefore should see it as a matter of professional pride to provide a satisfying academic experience to overseas students owing to the universities' branding of providing an education that pursues excellence through the development of knowledge and critical thinking. Lewins (1990) suggest that this should be the driving force of their marketing integrity to provide a high value learning experience for overseas students who have a compelling need to succeed academically owing to the resources that they invest on their education and future social standing as a result of their academic achievements.

This section therefore highlights factors identified in previous literature as impacting on the academic experience of overseas students. Kinnel (1990:30), reporting on the experience of lecturing staff at both Nottingham and Loughborough universities with overseas students, observed that overseas students require more time and commitment than home students. According to Kinnel (1990), this is because they require help with

the English language; lack of knowledge of the right kind of subject in relation to future careers or experimental background especially in science subjects; different experience of learning in their previous educational system which most likely emphasised rote learning rather than analytical skills; teacher led learning rather than self-directed learning; and expectations by overseas students that their teachers will be available for overseas related consultations. This study considered these factors as important in understanding the study experience of Kenyan students in the UK as the teaching-learning process in Kenya is teacher-centred and is characterised by rote-learning and the approach is therefore different from that which is used by UK universities and Kenyan students need to be adequately prepared to fit in. Therefore, according to Kinnel (1990), the academic environment in terms of use of library facilities, computer skills, laboratory or technical equipment and study methods are new challenges that face overseas students and they need to be fully inducted to cope.

Commenting on lack of computer skills amongst those completing secondary education in Kenya the Sessional Paper No 1 of 2005 (Republic of Kenya 2005b) notes that only 10 per cent of Kenyan secondary schools have computers. Therefore, a large number of Kenyan students coming to the UK after secondary education will not have acquired computer skills, which are pertinent to successful academic attainment in the UK as computer skills are central to learning. Therefore, there is need to re-orient international students to prepare them to adapt to the UK system of teaching and learning.

3.6 Students' Financial Provision

Financial provision is an important factor in a student learning experience as it touches on all other areas of their life's and determines how well students progress and whether they complete their studies. Lewins (1990) explaining the financial challenges that students' from overseas are likely to encounter observes that students arriving from some destinations are not aware of all the services that they are expected to pay for because such services do not exist in their home countries. For example, he says that students are not prepared for the high cost of housing, heating and warm clothing when they come to study in the UK. Similarly, Pilkington (1994) observes that students learning experiences in themselves are intimately related to their financial and material

circumstances. Pilkington notes that the question of equity in higher education does not stop at provision of access. The material ability to progress and successfully exit is also an issue of equality of opportunity (Ibid. 1994). Pilkington further points out that there are other unanticipated factors not very explicit, which are likely to affect the ability of overseas students in meeting their financial obligations. He rightfully points out that students' poverty is hidden from university authorities and from their families and often denied or underestimated by students themselves (Ibid. 1994).

Similarly, Lewins (1990) further observes that students' financial support is inherently complex. This is because students' income is from a range of sources and within that range a number of modalities which are created both within and outside the universities determines students' debt and hardship. According to Lewins (1990) even when students are fully informed and are prepared for the financial implications of studying abroad students' financial security can be threatened by political or economic fortunes of the individual or country supporting their studies. In addition, fluctuation of currencies, additional charges due to penalties as a result of late payments, the stress and worry caused by constant demands of fees and accommodation costs by universities and landlords, being locked out of the university systems due to non payment of fees and rising costs further threaten the financial ability of international students (Lewins 1990).

Kinnel (1990:8) also notes the concern of foreign students about the high cost of fees together with the high cost of living in the UK which has heightened students' expectations. There is no government programme in Kenya to support students studying abroad. The Higher Education Loans Board in Kenya is charged with the responsibility of providing bursaries and scholarships to needy students pursuing higher education in Kenyan public and private universities only (Republic of Kenya 1995). Students abroad are not considered under this programme and therefore their financial provision is an important factor in relation to their study and living experience.

The only source of income available to Kenyan students in the UK as international students are funds raised from the work and study programme and merit scholarships offered by universities. International students in the UK are entitled to work for twenty

hours during term time and full time during summer vacation (British Council 2007). International students pay international tuition fees in addition to meeting the cost of their living expenses which on average amounts to a total twenty thousand pounds per year (British Council 2007). With such high tuition fees the financial ability of Kenyan students was considered an important factor in their learning experience as it costs an average of sixty thousand pounds for three years of undergraduate study in the UK for international students (British Council 2007). Consequently, the vulnerability of students who do not receive support in meeting their financial obligations is increased.

This study therefore sought to find out the financial experience of Kenyan students in the UK, how they fund their education and how this impacts on their study progress, outcomes and living experience.

3.7 Parental Support and Student Employment

According to Pilkington (1994) students are a heterogeneous body in social origins and abilities. If parental support for the students is not enforced by the universities or is difficult to enforce this have serious implications for students (Ibid. 1994). When the present level of financial provision is not sufficient to meet expenditure then there is the increase in term time employment (Ibid. 1994). The sum result of this argues Pilkington (1994) is that students' economic hardship and employment during the study period is likely to affect their study outcomes. This is because some courses require students to spend more time on academic work and therefore have less opportunity for employment and greater costs to study. Those on laboratory and studio work based courses have little flexibility in time management to seek work (Ibid. 1994: 62).

At the same time, the inflexibility and lack of assurance of employment is also bound to affect students 'work and study programme' to support their education. There is no regulatory framework in Kenya to ensure that parents honor their commitments for financial support once the students are in the UK. Therefore, when parental support is not forthcoming this is bound to affect the students study and living experience and study outcomes as rightfully suggested by Pilkington. Pilkington (1994:63) further points out that the cases of non co-operation by parents present extreme risks of

hardship and failure amongst the students. The notion amongst parents that students can work and pay their way through education is no longer true. Pilkington (1994:64) explains that the emerging trend in working during term time and with expansion of student numbers, high unemployment and the shift to part-time rather than fulltime jobs in the services sector, the opportunities for finding work are neither evenly distributed nor particularly secure to ensure good income management (Ibid. 1994).

Pilkington (1994) further argue that students' employment is changing in nature and purpose as earnings are no longer a surplus over expenditure. He warns against the danger of generalising about students working through college (Ibid. 1994) as in many instances the earnings realised cannot meet the students needs and even the earnings are not assured. Pilkington highlighting challenges that students go through as a result of term time employment observes that: students work for twenty hours; work night shifts in industry; part time work is not secure; terms of employment are irregular; there is low earnings to cover costs and fluctuates according to employers needs as much as the decision not to risk academic work standards (Ibid. 1994).

Recent surveys (Pilkington 1994:64) show great differences in student experiences related to employment. When students cannot find employment and parental support is not forthcoming they start to accumulate debts, which results in unpaid bills (Ibid. 1994:64). The survey reveals that to cope students result in opening several bank accounts, do a runner from rented accommodation, live on unhealthy diets, experience increased failure rates and resits, make choices of perceived less demanding course options, course deadlines are missed, less extra-curricular activities are pursued, there is greater illness through poor diet and housing or they drop out altogether (Ibid. 1994). This study therefore explores the employment experience of Kenyan students and its impact on their study experience and outcomes.

3.8 Accommodation Provision

Accommodation for students is a large part of students' expenditure as institutions charge the full cost of accommodation, as they are self-financing. Studies have shown that students have had challenges with their accommodation which have ultimately

affected their experience and study outcomes (Pilkington 1994, Blacky 1994). For example, students have to sign contracts that significantly impact on their debt levels. Terms within the contract also vary; for example those without the right to give notice during the year cannot benefit from economies of the private rented market (Ibid. 1994). Blacky (1994:73) notes that universities have used provision of accommodation to new students as an incentive for recruitment due to the competition in recruitment in the market place. According to Blacky (1994), majority of universities provide accommodation to first year students only to avoid having a negative image caused by students having difficulties of finding a place to live when they first arrive in a foreign country.

Signing of contacts is bound to affect different students in different ways as a result of the different experiences they have been exposed to. For example, Kenyan students come from a different social-economic environment. For many of them it will be the first time after graduating from high school that they will be entering into legal contracts as students either come direct from boarding schools where they are accommodated or day schools where they live in with their parents or relatives as this is the accepted cultural norm. Therefore signing of contracts is a new phenomenon in their lives. The accommodation experience of Kenyan students and its impact on their living and study experience becomes an important factor to this study. As Lewins (1990:89) rightfully argues and which this study concurs with, good accommodation in a comfortable and relaxing environment is an important prerequisite for settling down to study especially for international students because their accommodation will be their home during their study period. He however argues that to meet the accommodation needs of all students is a challenge in itself. Organising accommodation to meet different demands by students is often difficult, which results to students experiencing problems which are counter-productive to motivation and could induce depression (Lewins 1990).

Challenges that students experienced with their accommodation were reported in a study conducted at Nottingham and Loughborough universities by Kinnel (1990). The study found out that accommodation problems that overseas students face were: appreciating the hall philosophy of communality and sharing; vacating their residences

during summer time; mature and students from affluent families acclimatising to hall life; arranging accommodation off campus which could only be done after the student had arrived forcing the student to live in expensive and temporary accommodation. Kinnel (1990:23) is in agreement with Lewins (1990) that settling into appropriate accommodation is crucial to overseas students if they are to settle for learning. The study further found out that students seeking off campus accommodation reported receiving little help from residential organisations and had to make their own arrangements through estate agents and also faced racial prejudice when seeking accommodation. Furthermore, it was also difficult for students living off campus as they were faced with a new way of life for the first time which was very expensive and not within their expectations.

This is caused by various factors associated to relocating to a new country which has a different culture of doing things. For example, as rightfully argued by Lewins (1990) the cost of student's rented accommodation, especially heating which is not optional, traveling distances to universities which adds extra costs to their living expenses and poor standards of housing were challenges that were not anticipated and which the students were not prepared for as they had not experienced them before. Crucially important is the effect accommodation outside the campus had on respondent's academic experience. Lewins (1990:91-92) observes that the distance between home and the university discouraged the students from making full use of the university facilities and denied them the opportunity to socially mix with other students on campus.

Kinnel (1990) further reveals that the situation is further aggravated by the treatment that overseas students received at the accommodation office which also contributed to the insecurity that they experienced. The study conducted at Nottingham University found out that this was because of poor understanding by staff dealing with students of the culture, beliefs and attitude of overseas students. At the same time the huge numbers of students flocking in during admission, with their unique needs that had to be handled especially at the beginning of the academic year results in lack of time and inclination to look at their problems in detail (Lewins 1990:93).

This section has shown challenges international students are likely to experience with accommodation and those that institutions face while trying to provide support. The study therefore explored the accommodation experience of Kenyan students to determine its appropriateness, whether it affected their experience and study outcomes.

3.9 Facets of Kenyan Student Experience Considered in this Study

Studies that are highlighted in this chapter have categorised the existing literature on experience of international students in the UK by the facet of the student experience researched (Byram and Feng 2006, Blacky 1994, Kinnel 1990, Lewins 1990, Pilkington 1994). These studies highlighted factors which this study considered important to the experience of international students in the UK. As Kenyan students are part of the international student community in the UK this study sought to understand how these factors might have affected their experience during their pre-departure and study period in the UK. The researcher was however conscious of Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) argument that any categorisation is necessarily subjective and guided by the researcher's interest. To ameliorate these concerns and the researcher's subjectivity the taxonomy by Pelletier Leonard and Morley (2003) which was derived from a review of twenty one unpublished researches was used as a framework to determine the categorisation of information received from Kenyan students on areas important to their study experience. In reviewing the unpublished research on experience of international students in UK higher education Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) summarised the following headings as a useful taxonomy in dealing with literature on experience of international students.

- Practical challenges e.g. accommodation, visas
- Emotional and affective issues; e.g. stress, homesickness
- Cultural adaptation and integration; e.g. developing adequate cross-cultural skills
- English language acquisition and competence
- Pedagogical difficulties; e.g. seminar skills, writing skills
- Curriculum and assessment; e.g. appropriate course design
- Performance and outcomes.

However, the researcher argues that although categorisation should not be subjective the scope of the study, the interest of the researcher, the funding and time within which to finalise the study to a certain extent determines the categories that can be covered by any researcher at any one time. These criteria were considered while determining the categories of Kenyan students' experience to be covered in this study. To build consensus with Kenyan students on areas that they considered really important to their experience as students in the UK, pre-study focus group discussions were held with them in the four regions of the UK that is England, Scotland, Wales and North Ireland. The student's satisfaction approach as explained by Harvey (1997) was used to determine areas that Kenyan students felt were really important to them. The approach is discussed in detail in the research methodology and design chapter four. The categories of Kenyan students' experience considered for this study therefore included:

- Pre-departure experience
- Financial Experience (Tuition fee provision and cost of living)
- Academic experience
- Social-cultural adjustment
- Accommodation
- Employment
- Study outcomes

It should be noted that categories of international students experience identified by Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) were not very different from those identified by Kenyan students as important to them. An interesting observation is that areas identified by Kenyan students as important to their study experience prior to embarking on the field work to a certain extent co-relates with the findings of this study discussed in chapters five, six and seven. For example, respondents reported that they did not face challenges associated with the use of the English language for academic use which is not unexpected as English is the language of instruction and official language in Kenya. Therefore, they did not consider the use of English for academic purposes as affecting their study experience while the practical and social use of the English language was a concern.

Consequently, some of the areas identified by Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003) in her taxonomy such as English language acquisition and competence, pedagogical difficulties, curriculum and assessment were not cited by Kenyan students during the pre-study focus group discussions as areas of concern to their experience in the UK. They were therefore not included in the taxonomy included in this study. However, findings in this study have shown that meeting financial obligations, social-cultural integration, accommodation, employment and practical issues to do with immigration and personal welfare negatively affected the experience of Kenyan students. This could have been the reason why students identified these areas during the pre-study focus group discussions as important to them as they were already facing challenges related to them.

Students also influenced the need to include the pre-departure experience because they argued that what happened at the in-country phase greatly influences their current experience in terms of whether they had made correct choices and whether they were adequately prepared to live and study abroad. They expressed dissatisfaction at the lack of Kenya government support and insisted that they had to speak about their in-country experience. The category on study outcomes was to cater for the researcher's interest to understand the study outcomes and factors that contribute to negative study outcomes of Kenyan students as this remains a grey area in Kenya.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter presents key facets of international students' experience that have been discussed in previous literature on international students experience and which have guided this work. The chapter has also presented the categorisation of Kenyan students' experiences that will be examined in this study to provide insights into Kenyan students' experience. These factors were used as a basis to develop the students' questionnaire and in reporting the findings. The next chapter discusses the research methodology and design used to collect data for this study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodological approach and design that was used to collect data for this study. A case study design was adopted and both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were used. The actual data collection was in three phases. In phase one a questionnaire was administered to Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK while in phase two interviews with Kenyan students, staff from international student offices and Kenyan policy makers were conducted. Phase three involved document analysis. Phase one and two focused on practice while phase three examined the policy context on international education in Kenya. The aim of this chapter is to help the reader understand how the researcher arrived at the findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study.

4.1 Case Study Design

This study explores the experience and study outcomes of Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK. The study adopted a case study design which Nesbit and Watt (1984:72) defines as a study of a specific instance that is designed to illustrate a more general principle. It is the study of an instance in action (Adelman, Kemmis, and Jenkins 1980) which provides a unique example of real people in real situations enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply presenting them in abstract theories or principles (Ibid. 1980:72-3). While acknowledging the existence of philosophical arguments for and against the choice and use of different research paradigms, the choice of research approaches in this study was mainly guided by practical considerations and the need to respond to the research objectives.

4.1.1 Strength and Weakness of Case Studies

One of the strengths of case studies is that they can establish cause and effect as they observe effects in real contexts (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004). Context is a powerful determinant of both cause and effect (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004).

Context is the underlying uniqueness of this study as it explores how the in-country experience in terms of availability of student support systems and UK institutional environment have influenced the experience of Kenyan students. In addition the study has further explored how the students experience impacted on their study outcomes thereby linking cause and effect. Adelman, Kemmis, and Jenkins (1980), Bryman (2004), Hitchcock and Hughes (1995:317), Nesbit and Watt (1984) highlight the strength of case studies and point out that case studies are a step to action and they begin in a world of action and contribute to it. Insights that a researcher gets through use of case studies may be directly interpreted and put to use for staff or individual development which can be achieved within institutional feedback, formative evaluation and in education policy making (Ibid. 1980, 2004, 1995, 1984). In this study case studies allowed in-depth understanding of the experience of international students in the UK using a group of students from one country, Kenya. The rationale for using Kenyan students as a case study is discussed in chapter one section 1.1 of this study.

Case studies also capture unique features that could easily get lost in wider surveys and which could be key to understanding a situation (Bryman 2004). They have geographical parameters allowing for their definition (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004) and may be defined by the characteristics of the group (Ibid. 2004). The views expounded by Cohen further motivated the researcher to use the case study approach as the interest was to gain an in-depth understanding of the experience of Kenyan students and to examine those factors that were important to their experience but not those that were likely to affect all international students in the UK. Therefore the case study approach assisted the researcher in defining the study boundaries and in focusing on issues relevant to the experience of Kenyan students within the Kenyan and the UK context.

The researcher was also conscious of the fact that although case studies have their merits they also have their limitations. According to Bryman (2004: 52) one of the standard criticisms of the case study design is that the findings derived from it cannot be generalised. However, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) argue that although case studies cannot be generalised they help to point to certain areas for action which was the

intention of this study to inform policy and practice on international education in Kenya. Using the case study approach would therefore provide a better understanding and deeper insight of the experience of Kenyan students which could not have been tenable in a wider survey involving all international students in the UK.

Evidence presented through case studies is therefore not limited because it is not the purpose of this research design to generalise to other cases or to larger populations beyond the case (Denzin and Lincoln 2003). The position held by case study researchers is different from that held by survey researchers who are concerned with the generalisation of their findings to larger populations (Bryman 2004) and frequently use random sampling to enhance the representativeness of the samples on which they conduct their investigations. Case study researchers argue strenuously that generalisations are not the purpose of their craft (Ibid. 2004:52).

There are other limitations that have been associated with the use of case studies. For example, Creswell (2005) argues that case studies are weak in that they are not open to cross checking and hence may be selective, biased, personal and subjective. They may also be prone to problems of observer bias despite attempts made to reflexivity (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2004). Nesbit and Watt (1984:91) caution case study researchers to avoid: 1) Journalism reporting-picking out more striking features of the case, thereby distorting the full account in order to emphasise the more sensational aspects; 2) Selective reporting-selecting only that evidence which will support a particular conclusion, thereby misrepresenting the whole case; 3) An anecdotal style-degenerating into an endless series of low level banal and tedious illustrations that take over from in depth, rigorous analysis; 4) Pomposity-striving to derive or generate profound theories from low level data or by wrapping up accounts in high sounding verbiage and 5) Blandness-unquestioningly accepting only the respondents' views, or only including those aspects of the case study on which people agree rather than areas on which they might disagree. The researcher was conscious of the weakness of case study design and it was addressed as discussed in the next section.

4.1.2 Addressing the Weaknesses of Case Study Design

Despite the weakness and caution on the use of case studies the researcher found the design appropriate because this study is contextualised within a group of Kenyan students' exploring their in-country experience and at the same time their UK experience. The researcher was also conscious that there are different nationalities of international students in the UK but was interested in understanding the experience of Kenyan students. In addition, previous studies on experience of international students in the UK have focused on international students as a homogeneous group without considering the uniqueness of the different nationalities which this study intended to, using the case of Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK. The case study approach provided the means to achieve this as it provided geographical parameters which were useful in defining the scope of the study within a diverse international student population.

The methodology adopted in carrying out this study helped to address the weaknesses of case studies. First, the researcher went through a rigorous and systematic process of purposefully identifying case study participants to ensure representative-ness in terms of geographical distribution, study institutions, gender and courses enrolled which is discussed in detail in sampling procedures presented in Chapter 4 Section 4.9 and 4.12.1. This provided diversity of ideas from a wide cross-section of Kenyan students in the UK. Secondly, triangulation of data collection methods guarded against blandness and journalistic reporting as views presented were corroborated.

Thirdly, to ensure that reporting was not biased, subjective, pompous, selective or journalistic systematic data analysis was adopted for both qualitative and quantitative data and only the results of the analysis were reported. The use of Atlas TI to analyse the qualitative data and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyse the quantitative data, helped the researcher to avoid subjectivity, bias, sensational or selective reporting to support certain conclusions. Using SPSS, numerical statistics were derived which were reported in percentages and frequencies. This formed the basis for discussions and reporting the findings. At the same time, literature reviewed in this study was further used to support or explain the findings.

Therefore the procedures followed in data collection, data analysis, presentation and discussion of the findings ensured that there was no researcher bias, subjectivity or sensational reporting. The researcher was therefore confident that the findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study were true reflections of the experience and study outcomes of Kenyan students in the UK based on research evidence.

4.2. Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Data Collection Methods

Case studies are sites for employment of quantitative and qualitative data collection approaches (Bryman 2004). The researcher therefore adopted a mixed method approach which is a procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study to understand a research problem (Brewer and Hunter 1989:28). The approach helped the researcher to capitalise on the strengths of the two approaches while minimising the weaknesses that would result from using one approach (Ibid. 2004). The quantitative approach provided an opportunity to reach out to a large sample of students in a diverse field which would not have been possible if the researcher used the qualitative approach only owing to time and cost which would have made this study untenable as there was no budget to support the field work. Using the mixed method approach was advantageous in that in addition to collecting quantitative data, the qualitative data which was collected provided an opportunity to explore the inner life's of the students as told by the students themselves. The qualitative data helped to confirm or fill in information gaps in those areas that the students felt were sensitive and personal to them as international students. Some of the respondents confessed that they would not have felt comfortable revealing some of the information which they shared during the interviews in a questionnaire. Therefore, the mixed method approach helped the researcher to address concerns as a result of using any one method. However Gay and Airasian (2003) caution that the use of both methods should be done in such a way that it makes sense to the reader. For this reason each method used in this study has been justified in the relevant section.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Russek and Weinberg (1993) confirm that both qualitative and quantitative research can effectively be combined in one research project

to give insights that neither type of analysis can provide alone. Speaking to the students during the interviews gave the researcher an opportunity to assess the intensity of their feelings about their study and living experience which the researcher could not have achieved by using the questionnaires only. Creswell (2005) points out that the combination of quantitative and qualitative data can either be simultaneous or sequential. The integration can be done during formulation of research questions, data collection, discussion and presentation levels (Creswell 2005). In this study, combination was done at all the four levels as suggested by Creswell. First, the combination was done at the instrument construction stage. Data was collected using different instruments that are associated with qualitative and quantitative data collection approaches. The questionnaires had both closed and open questions which were analysed differently as explained in the data analysis chapter. Semi-structured interviews and document analysis was used to collect qualitative data.

The next level was at the analysis stage. Although SPSS was used to analyse the questionnaire some responses from the open ended questions were analysed using Atlas Ti. This involved coding the responses using the themes of the study and then using the frequency of occurrence to determine the responses to be included during reporting. The third combination was at the report writing stage. In reporting the findings, the quantitative data derived from the questionnaire analysis, was supported by quotes from the qualitative data where appropriate. This adds 'the voice' of the participants to the statistical analysis. In absence of the 'voice', the researcher felt that it was almost impossible to have the 'feel of the data'. Data from the two approaches was therefore used to either clarify, explain, support or show divergence in the issues under study.

However Bryman (2004) cautions that the procedures for multi-method approach can be time consuming, requiring extensive data collection and analysis and such time requirements may require that you participate in a research team while using it. This caution was seriously considered, and the researcher engaged the services of two research assistants in administering the questionnaires and following them up to enhance the response rates. Describing systematically and in detail the data collection

process and analysis, helps the reader to understand how the researcher exploited the strength of each method and countered the weakness arising from using anyone method.

4.3 Quantitative Data Collection Method Adopted in this Study

This section discusses the methods adopted to collect the quantitative data.

4.3.1 The Survey Approach

Using a case study design, a survey was conducted amongst Kenyan students in the UK to collect the quantitative data. According to Fowler (1988) a survey describes trends in a population and can be used when more than one respondent is involved in a study (Ibid. 1988). A survey was therefore considered the most appropriate method in collecting data from a large sample because as Neuman (2000) points out and which the researcher agrees with, the use of surveys for large-scale assessments has become popular over the years. Using the survey approach is advantageous in that data can be collected in a short time and in a more economical way (Fowler 1988). This was important to this study as data was to be collected within a specific period. As the field work was self-funded, the most economical, efficient and achievable method in collecting data was adopted.

Babbie (2005) further suggests that, using a survey to collect data is advantageous in that there are several methods through which data can be collected which are economical and faster. For example, data can be collected electronically through computer assisted telephone interviewing, websites, internet, e-mail surveys or placing questionnaires on computer disks (Nesbary 2000). The possibility of conducting an electronic survey for this study was considered to enable the researcher to reach out to as many Kenyan students in the UK as possible, including those who had deferred, taken academic leave or dropped out but are still in the UK, within a short period of time. Time and cost was a key consideration in adopting the survey design as a PhD is time bound and therefore the data collection method adopted should be achievable and affordable.

The study also adopted the in-dependent measures design where participants performed in one and only one condition (Field and Hole 2006). Data was collected from different sets of students who participated at only one level, the pilot stage, questionnaire stage or the interview stage. None of the participants performed in more than one activity as respondents. This allowed for diversity of ideas and also corroborated information received from different respondents. Fowler (1988) points out that in survey research, data can be collected through questionnaires, interviews or observation. In conducting the survey for this study questionnaires were used. Surveys have also been used in past studies on experience of international students in Canada, New Zealand, Australia and UK and were therefore considered appropriate for this study. These were: The HEIST Survey (Allen and Higgins 1994) UK; The Canadian study (Walker 1999); The New Zealand survey (Ward and Masgoret 2004); The Australian study (Smith, Morey and Teece 2002) and the UKCOSA (2004) survey on experience of international students in UK universities and colleges.

4.3.2 Cross-Sectional and Longitudinal Survey Design

Survey research comprises a cross-sectional design where data is collected at a single point in time or longitudinal design where same data is collected on more than one point and then examined to detect patterns of associations (Bryman 2004). The cross-sectional survey design which is the most popular in educational research was adopted for this study. According to (Creswell 2005) a cross sectional study examines current attitudes, beliefs, opinions or practices, provides information in a short time, is useful in providing information for decision making and it is also appropriate for large scale assessment. A cross-sectional study also measures different groups at the same time (Ibid. 2005).

Collican (1990), writing on the advantages of using a cross-sectional survey design notes that, from an economical point of view, cross-sectional methods are more practical since they normally have more subjects, few subjects are lost during the study, are relatively inexpensive and less time consuming (Ibid. 1990). In addition, a cross-sectional survey can be repeated more quickly if need be (Ibid. 1990). Cross-sectional studies therefore have advantage in terms of time, energy and expenditure. The participants are also readily available compared to longitudinal survey design which due

to difficulties involved in getting the exact cohort of students for comparison, as a result of the "cohort effect" makes it difficult to identify groups which are similar enough to compare (Collican 1990).

However Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) point out that longitudinal design has advantage over cross-sectional design in observing "genuine changes" and the stability of some characteristics. However, the longitudinal survey design would not have been appropriate for this study since as noted by Babbie (2005) it is more concerned with trend, cohort and panel designs whose primary aim is to collect data, with the same population or sub groups under the same conditions. Since the focus of this study was on Kenyan students enrolled at all levels both undergraduate and post graduate using the longitudinal design would have negatively affected the studies sample as some of the respondents would have graduated and left the UK before completing the study especially post graduate students. Therefore, identifying the same samples would have been difficult owing to 'cohort effect'. Babbie (2005) also cautions that, the longitudinal survey design is more time consuming and the conditions surrounding the participants and the researchers may change over time, for example participants dropping out.

4.4 Research Method: Phase One

Data for this study was collected in three phases. Phase one which is discussed in this section, involved administering three hundred questionnaires to Kenyan students in the UK. The population and sampling procedures are discussed in detail in section 4.9 and 4.12.1 in this chapter.

4.4.1 Construction of the Questionnaire

Bryman (2004) recommends the use of a questionnaire that is tested and has been used by other researchers. Therefore in constructing the questionnaire, questions used in past studies on experience of international students in the UK in the UKCOSA (2004) survey were adapted. The questionnaire was modified to reflect the current study objectives using information from Kenyan students on facets of their experience that they considered important to them as international students. UKCOSA (2004) explored the experience of international students from different countries enrolled in UK higher

education institutions. The British Council (2003), Haselgrove (1994), Kinnel (1990), Lewins (1990), Luzio-Lockett (1998), Pilkington (1994) and Ramsden (2006) also identified areas important to international students in the UK, which also informed the construction and validation of the questionnaire. However, only areas relevant to

The questionnaire was administered to Kenyan students as this was a case study focusing on Kenyan students. To determine areas important to their experience to be included in the questionnaire 'the students' satisfaction model' (Harvey 1997) was applied. The model involves students themselves, identifying areas important to their study experience. Data collected through the 'students satisfaction model' is then transformed into management information tools designed to identify areas for action and provides general guidelines which are not institution specific (Ibid. 1997). Using this model, pre-study focus group discussions were held with groups of Kenyan students in various UK universities mentioned here below, spread across the UK, prior to designing the questionnaire with a view to determining general areas which they felt were important to their study and living experience and which could form the subject of a wider study.

The universities where focus group discussions with Kenyan students took place included: Coventry University, Birmingham University, Manchester University (These represented Universities in the Midlands); Napier University where Kenyan students from Edinburgh, Herriot Watt, Queen Mary and Napier University met; Strathclyde University where Kenyan students enrolled at Glasgow, Glasgow Caledonian and Strathclyde University met, (These represented Universities in Scotland); Cardiff University, Glamorgan, University of Wales in Cardiff (UWIC), Swansea met at UWIC (Representing Universities in Wales); students from London School of Economics; South Bank University; Middlesex University, University College London representing England, met at the Kenya High Commission, London. The choice of universities was based on availability of appointments by the universities and also the willingness of the universities to facilitate the meetings between the researcher and the students in terms of sending out invitations and providing meeting venues. The other consideration was that the participants represented different regions and universities in the UK.

During the discussions factors that Kenyan students identified as important to their study experience included: pre-departure information, arrival administration and support, academic, finance, accommodation and social-cultural experience. These areas were included in the questionnaire which was modified from a sample questionnaire adopted from the UKCOSA (2004) survey on experience of international students in the UK.

4.4.2 The Structure of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire (Appendix 4) had sixty two items divided into eight thematic areas that had been identified as important to Kenyan students' experience. The questionnaire was designed to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. Section 4.6 discusses the process adopted in validating the questionnaire. The questionnaire had a cover letter (Appendix 1) which introduced the researcher and assured the respondents of confidentiality. A participants information sheet was also attached (Appendix 3) explaining the purpose of the study, role of the participants and instructions on completing the questionnaire. As the respondents had not been contacted prior to questionnaire administration there was a consent form (Appendix 2) which they had to sign. Ethical considerations adopted during questionnaire administration are discussed in detail in section 4.15 of this chapter.

Section "A" of the questionnaire aimed at gathering demographic data of the students such as age, course enrolled, level of study, qualification prior to entering the UK and the year the student entered the UK and when they first enrolled. This was to address the first objective of this study, to identify and describe Kenyan students in the UK. Section "B" focused on exploring what influenced the students' choice of UK as a study destination and sought information on existing support to students both in the UK and in Kenya. The students' satisfaction of studying in the UK, social, employment, financial, academic and accommodation experience and how they affected their study outcomes was explored.

The focus of this study was on Kenyan students in the UK only and therefore collected data on their pre-departure experience in terms of support and information that they received whether the information was adequate and its impact on their experience in the UK. The challenges students face and recommendations on how to address the challenges was explored. This aimed at collecting data to address objective two and three of the study; to identify the experience of Kenyan students and how their experience affected their study outcomes. The questionnaires had both open and closed ended items. The open-ended questions allowed the respondents to express themselves freely without restrictions. The closed ended items were chosen because as noted by Best (1977) they are easy to fill, take little time, keep the respondent in the subject and are relatively objective. The "any other" category for the closed ended questions were included to cater for unanticipated responses.

Creswell (2005) argues that the use of questionnaires in a survey is a good way of reaching out to a geographically dispersed population with respondents providing non-biased answers. Questionnaires are also considered cheaper to administer and one of the ethos of undertaking research is that methods applied are achievable in terms of time and cost. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and Vaus (2004) the disadvantages of using questionnaires are that the response rates can be low especially if mailing is used as a method of delivery, there is no probing and therefore answers that are not clear cannot be clarified. If items are not clear, are difficult or sensitive respondents are likely not to answer them. This was experienced in this study where question (10) on why respondents did not complete their studies on time was not answered by eighty three respondents. Respondents can also read the questions in any order making them less independent of each other and researchers can never be sure that a questionnaire was answered by the respondent it was meant for.

4.5 The Process of Piloting the Questionnaire

Researchers (Bryman 2004, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004 and Williams 2003) agree that however careful one is in constructing instruments they cannot be perfect, hence the need to test before administering them. The main aim of pilot testing is to ensure validity, reliability and practicability of the instrument being used in the study

(Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004:260). This is achieved through the feedback received which is also used to modify the questionnaire. Key areas of focus during piloting according to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) include: content, language, time taken to complete the questionnaire, clarity and appropriateness of what is being asked to ensure it is not harmful to respondents. The piloting was conducted in two different phases.

There are different types of validity as pointed out by Punch (2000), Gay and Airasian (2003) and Creswell (2005). These are content related, criterion, predictive and construct related. However for purposes of this study, content validity was found to be more relevant and is therefore discussed. This is because the main aim of the study was to understand the situation as it exists. It was therefore important to get the content right in order to lay a foundation for other researchers who may want to do further research in this area or use variables used in this study. Content validity ensures that the items in the questionnaire are measuring the intended content area (Creswell 2005). In order for an instrument to measure this (Punch 2000), areas of content being tested should be covered. To establish the content validity, expert review was conducted as proposed by Burns (2000) and Mertens (2005). Reliability is described as the stability of the instrument drawing the same or near equal results when administered to the same sample or closely matched sample (Creswell 2005) or when scored by different people and the results are the same or near enough (Crowl 1996). If an instrument achieves this it is reliable and the results from such research would exhibit quality that can be documented, evaluated and believed and hence confidence in the decisions made based on the data (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004).

4.5.1 Pilot Testing the Questionnaire: Stage One

This first stage involved pre-testing the questionnaire to be used to collect data from the students. Researchers Bryman (2004), Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) and Gorard and Taylor (2004) have strongly put a case on the need to conduct a pilot study before the actual research, in order to ensure that all the research instruments as a whole measure what they intend to measure. The pilot was done in two levels as suggested by Burns (2000), Gorard and Taylor (2004) and Robson (2002) who recommend a two-

stage pre-testing process. There was an initial pre-testing process whereby the researcher identified three experts to determine the content validity of the instruments using expert knowledge to determine the appropriateness of the instruments in responding to research objectives and to establish any weaknesses in the questionnaire.

The experts included a Kenyan lecturer from Robert Gordon University and from Middlesex University as well as a Kenyan PhD student in the School of Education at Durham University. The two lecturers were included to bring in their knowledge of UK higher education system. The PhD student was a management staff from the Ministry of Education in Kenya and her knowledge of the Kenyan education system was considered important in the validation process. Their feedback was used to modify the questionnaire for piloting. After incorporating the suggested amendments from the experts, the questionnaire was further pre-tested using ten Kenyan students randomly selected from the students registered with the Kenya High Commission. This proved to be very useful to the study as the students were able to identify areas which they thought were sensitive to them as students which both the researcher and the external experts had not considered from that perspective.

As a result of the outcome of the pre-pilot with the ten students, the researcher felt that there was need for a more focused examination of the questionnaire using more students to ensure sensitive information detrimental or harmful to the students was not included and therefore convened a half day discussion session with six Kenyan students. The six students were picked at random by the researcher and were those willing to volunteer. The only consideration was that they were based in London as the researcher did not have funds to reimburse their travel costs. Although the session was expected to last half a day, it was very interesting to all those involved and it went on up to three o'clock. The group went though each item in the questionnaire discussing its implications for the students. They also considered the layout of the questionnaire, ways of improving it and the study in general. For example, the opportunity was used to confirm whether areas that Kenyan students considered important to them were adequately covered and the best times to administer the questionnaire so as to capture as many students as possible. Comments from the various respondents were used to

improve the questionnaire and the researcher found the feedback from these sessions very useful in improving the quality of the questionnaire.

4.5.2 Results from Stage One Pilot

Some of the areas suggested for improvement from the pre-test in stage one were: the length of the questionnaire which was attributed to formatting and repetition as some items could be collapsed and followed up without repeating them as different questions and the font size which also contributed to the length of the questionnaire. It was also recommended that instead of having one sentence questions the items could better be formatted as choices in one question under different thematic areas. The length of the questionnaire was reduced in size quite significantly when these amendments were incorporated. Repetitions were also eliminated.

There were similar comments pertaining to guiding questions for the semi-structured interviews. The numbers of questions were considered important if one was to hold the interest of the respondents and carry out meaningful interviews. As a result, some items were removed and included in an information sheet sent prior to the interviewees to help them in preparing for the interviews. Care was taken not to include any information that would easily be accessed from existing official documents. This was only alluded to, where more information or clarification was needed or to confirm any disjuncture between policy and practice. During the pilot ambiguities were also identified where different respondents showed different understanding of the same item. The items were reworded or split into different questions. Items that were considered as redundant were also identified and these were eliminated altogether.

4.5.3 Piloting of the Questionnaire: Stage Two

It has been suggested that the wording of questionnaires is of paramount importance and that pre-testing is crucial to its success (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004). Many researchers (Oppenheim 1992, Morrison 1993, Wilson and McLean 1994:47) have argued that a pilot has several functions principally to increase the reliability, validity and practicability. Oppenheim (1992) further suggests that everything about the questionnaire should be piloted. Nothing should be excluded, not even the typos, face or

quality of the paper. This is what the researcher sought to achieve in the second phase of the pilot test which took place with more students. The piloting during this second phase included thirty students who represented ten per cent of the students sampled for this study. To guide the students in the areas that they were required to focus, a list borrowed from Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) explaining the purpose of the pilot to the students was prepared and attached to the questionnaire that went out to the students. The participating Kenyan students were asked to read each of the questions to find out if there were any questions that they found difficult to interpret and answer; the length of time it took them to answer all the items; whether there were any issues that they considered sensitive to them as students; to remove any ambiguities; and to comment on whether areas that they considered important to them as students in the UK were covered (Ibid. 2004).

The questionnaire was piloted through Kenyan students who were used as contact persons in the universities where they were enrolled. However the researcher was always on hand to provide support by telephone or to speak to the students who had shown interest in taking part in the pilot. This helped the researcher to pilot the questionnaire amongst students registered in different parts of the UK as the researcher had not engaged research assistants at this stage. Students who participated in the pilot were not included in the actual study. A caution was included in the letter forwarding the actual research questionnaire to inform the respondents not to complete the questionnaire if they had done so during the different phases of the pilot. It would have been ideal for the researcher to visit the different universities and carry out the pilot. However this was not possible as it was too involving in terms of time and money.

Administering the thirty questionnaires during the pilot was an arduous task which took one month to complete. The questionnaires were hand delivered by the researcher to the contact persons for that much needed support. This gave the researcher the opportunity to explain the purpose of the research to the contact persons and to also inform them of the forth coming study. The questionnaires and interview guides were only given to students who were willing to take part in the pilot. The instructions to the contact persons were that they should not give questionnaires to students in one university,

same gender, same course or same level. The questionnaires were to be completed in the presence of the contact person who collected them and posted them back to the researcher. However the contact persons had to be compensated financially for their time, transport and communication expenses. This enhanced the response rate as all the thirty questionnaires were completed and sent back to the researcher. The results of the pilot were found useful in improving the questionnaire. The results are discussed in the next section.

4.5.4 Results of the Main Pilot

The overall response was very positive as the students reported that this was the very first time anyone ever showed concern to them as Kenyan students leave alone inviting them to discuss their personal experience. The students provided useful feedback which further improved the quality of the questionnaire. These were: the length of the questionnaire despite that during the previous pre-pilot the questionnaire had been shortened and also that the questionnaire had many sub-sets. As a result the length of the questionnaire was reduced from eighty five items with various sub-items to sixty two questions with some items combined as choice questions to reduce the time within which the questionnaire could be completed. This made the questionnaire more focused, systematic, sharp and manageable to analyse. Eight questions were omitted altogether because the students felt that they were sensitive and touched on areas that would jeopardise their status as international students in the UK. One of the key recommendations from the pilot was to re-format the questionnaire by grouping items into similar themes and the use of an appropriate font to make the questionnaire user friendly in agreement with Oppenheim (1992:48) that nothing in an instrument should be left to chance as they are all important in making the questionnaire user friendly.

The researcher found the piloting to be very important although it took a considerable length of time to accomplish since it was able to address the basic tenets of research which emphasise that research should not be harmful (Bryman 2004) to the respondents or the researcher in any way. The suggestions and comments received, when incorporated during the revision of the questionnaire and the interview guides contributed greatly to strengthening the study, in that, data collected was relevant to the

study objectives. In addition, during the piloting of the questionnaire the feedback received from the students was that basing data collection on institutions where they are enrolled was not appropriate as they would not feel free to give negative information about their study experience. The students also argued that their concerns while living and studying in the UK are beyond the institutions where they are enrolled and the study should therefore not be confined to their study institutions. The researcher adopted this recommendation and data was collected based on individual students but not institutions where they were enrolled.

The process adopted to validate the questionnaire was also used in validating the lead guiding questions for interviews with policy makers. The lead questions for the interviews were shared with senior Kenyan policy makers on official visits to the UK who gave useful feedback and helped to eliminate items that were bound to be repetitive and that could be easily accessed in existing policy documents. Comments from the policy makers, helped to shape the questions so that they were more or less seeking to validate or seek clarification on information the researcher had gathered from the policy documents. The questions that were retained were to interrogate their thinking on international education for Kenya moving forward from the current to the future.

Another important input arising from the pilot was that the researcher initially thought the literature review on experiences of international students discussed in chapter three which gave details of themes that were to be captured in the questionnaire was adequate. However the feedback received from the respondents, who had experienced the issues under discussion was very important in bringing in aspects not initially captured, which the researcher had thought were obvious and tended to ignore. At the same time, engaging in discussions with the respondents after questionnaire administration gave further insights of what the students considered important to their experience. The challenge that the researcher faced in this second phase was in piloting the interview guides for the staff dealing with international students. Although two staff members agreed to critically examine the proposed interview guides there was no useful feedback received and therefore the researcher relied mainly on feedback received from

the supervisors. It was not clear to the researcher why there was lukewarm response from the staff in international student offices.

Through the various stages of piloting the research instruments several lessons were learnt. The personal involvement of the researcher in the first stage of the pilot was a strength to this study in that the researcher was able to make observations that ordinarily would not have been captured in written feedback. For example when the questionnaire was handed out, the first thing some of the students exclaimed was, 'all this' and looked shell shocked. This was a signal as to the length of the questionnaire which would have taken too long to complete. At the same time when some of the students started completing the questionnaire they could be seen turning pages before completing the page they were working on which signaled boredom. When enquiries were made regarding these actions the students confirmed it was because they found the questionnaire too long.

The researcher was also excited by how well the students received the study as they confessed that, it gave them the opportunity to discuss their personal experiences to a captive audience (the researcher). The experience of the pilot also gave the researcher the useful hint that working alone during field work and especially when many subjects are involved could be tiring, difficult and expensive in terms of time and the study could take months to complete. This therefore gave the researcher the impetus to engage two research assistants, to assist during the actual data collection even in the absence of sponsorship for the field work.

4.6 Determining the Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

As earlier discussed, the questionnaire used in this study was adapted with modification from a questionnaire used in the UKCOSA (2004) study on experience of international students in the UK. At the same time the actual questionnaire (Appendix 4) and the lead questions for the semi structured interviews has been attached (Appendix 6, 8, 9) so that readers can see and verify the actual items used. Similarly, the actual content of the questionnaire has also been discussed in section 4.4, structure of the questionnaire. The response rate which was seventy three per cent has been reported thus giving the reader

an opportunity to determine the reliability of the results in reference to the response rate. Carrying out a pilot test and detailing the process which was followed also contributes to the reliability of the questionnaire.

4.7 Data Collection Phase Two: Student Interviews

The second phase of data collection comprised interviews with Kenyan students in the UK. The students who were identified to participate in this second phase had not participated in any other stage.

4.7.1 Student Interviews

Bogdan and Biklen (1992), Lincoln and Guba (1985), LeCompte, Preissle and Tesch (1993) and Patton (1990) point out that different interviews such as standardised, in depth, ethnographic, life story, focus group, semi structured, group, structured, exploratory, informal, conversational and standardised open ended interviews are widely used in educational research. The major difference within the different approaches lies in the degree of structure in the interview, which in itself, reflects the purposes of the interview, for example to generate numbers of respondents' feelings about a given issue or to indicate unique, alternative feelings about a particular matter (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004:270).

Lincoln and Guba (1985:269) suggest that structured interviews are useful when the researcher is aware of what s/he does not know and therefore is in a position to frame questions that will supply the knowledge required, whereas the unstructured interview is useful when the researcher is not aware of what s/he does not know and therefore relies on the respondents for information. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) it is "the fitness of purpose" that determines the approach one adopts in conducting the interviews.

In this study semi-structured interviews were conducted to gain further insight into the experience of Kenyan students, as the researcher through the quantitative data collected was aware of areas where additional information was required to fill in information gaps, corroborate or reinforce the quantitative data. The student interviews were

conducted after the questionnaire data was collected and analysed but was not a concurrent activity. Interviews with policy makers and staff from international student offices in UK universities were also conducted in that order. This aimed to build or fill information gaps from one level to the next.

4.7.2 Construction of Interview Schedules

An interview guide or schedule is a list of questions or general topics that the interviewer wants to explore during each interview. According to (Lofland and Lofland 1995) the schedule or guide is prepared to ensure that basically the same information is obtained from each person and it has no pre-determined responses therefore allowing the interviewer the freedom to probe and explore within these pre-determined inquiry areas. The construction of the semi-structured interviews was based on themes that emerged from the quantitative data. The quantitative data also helped to identify areas that required further follow up for clarity, additional information or to confirm information from the questionnaire analysis. The quantitative data also informed the construction of interview guides for use with the policy makers in Kenya and with staff from international student offices in UK universities in relation to current and future student support.

The advantage of interview guides is that they allow good use of limited interview time, they make the interviewing of multiple subjects more systematic and comprehensive and they help to keep interactions focused (Lofland and Lofland 1995). They can also be modified over time to focus attention on important areas or to exclude questions the researcher has found unproductive in relation to the study objectives (Ibid. 1995). The interview guides used in this study are attached in Appendix 6 for the students; Appendix 8 for policy makers from the Ministry of Education in Kenya and Appendix 9 for staff from international offices in UK universities. The lead questions were sent to the participants in advance so that they could familiarise themselves with the areas to be covered during the interviews and to guide them in setting aside adequate time for the interview. It was interesting that when one of the policy makers received the interview guide he declined from participating for the reason that he was directly in charge of policy but there was very little done in formulating policy for Kenyan students abroad.

When another one was asked about the existing policy on international education in Kenya, he told the researcher, 'you should be the one telling me if there is a policy' meaning that he was not aware if there was one.

4.7.3 Strength and Weakness of Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews are a more flexible version of structured interviews. However, strengths and weaknesses of semi structured interviews which are summarised from Arksey and Knight (1999), Brewerton and Millward (2001) and Opie (2004) are that, they are less controlled by interviewers than structured interviews and are more flexible because they allow for deviation from a predetermined text to change the wording of questions or the order in which they are asked but still maintains the overall shape and prevents aimless rambling and it is not completely predetermined. The flexibility allows the researcher to pursue areas and focus the interview to areas that will respond to the aim of the study.

Semi-structured interviews can flow naturally and responses can be followed up without the interviewer loosing focus as there are lead questions to ensure that the interviewer remains focused. It can also lead to new insights or new fields that require further follow up as new themes or areas relevant to the study objectives emerge. The structure allows the interviewer to follow-up on answers given by respondents and to explore meanings as areas of interest emerge. The information drawn from the semi-structured interview can be quantified. This makes it easy to analyse and compare with responses from other respondents.

However semi-structured interviews have been criticised as data gathered is difficult to analyse as it has a mixed framework. At the same time, researcher bias is likely to creep in during recording of the responses because the relationship between the questions asked and the conclusions drawn are no longer straight forward. The researcher was conscious of this limitation and conducted tape-recorded interviews where possible and this to a certain extent eliminated subjectivity in recording. The information gathered was in relation to pre-determined themes which also kept the interviews within the confines of the research.

4.7.4 Telephone and Face to Face Interviews

This study used a mixture of both face to face and telephone interviews. Telephone interviews according to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) are an important method of data collection and are common practice in survey research. The appropriateness of the approach adopted was determined while seeking appointments for the interviews. For students, both face to face and telephone interviews were conducted. Telephone interviews were conducted with Kenyan policy makers while face to face and telephone interviews were conducted with staff from international student offices.

However Harvey, Hendrick, and Tucker (1988), Oppenheim (1992) and Miller (1995) caution that, for telephone interviews to be successful they need careful arrangements for timing and duration where a preliminary call may be necessary before, to fix a time when a longer call is to be made which was done for this study. The interview requires prompts and probes including more than usual closed questions and less complex questions in case the respondent "dries" up on the telephone. Both the interviewer and the interviewee need to be prepared in advance of the interview if its potential is to be realised. This was done, as the interviewees were informed in advance of the impending interviews and they were given the lead questions so that nothing caught them by surprise. More importantly, sampling requires careful consideration, using for example random numbers, some form of stratified sample or purposeful sampling (Bryman 2004). For this study, purposeful and stratified sampling was used to identify the interview participants. The approach adopted in identifying interview participants is discussed in detail in section 4.9.

Borg and Gall (1996), Dicker and Gilbert (1988) and Oppenheim (1992) point out that the use of telephones is advantageous in that they enable the researcher to select respondents from a much more dispersed population than if they have to travel to meet the interviewees. Telephone interviews are also useful in gaining rapid response, gives a greater guarantee to the information collected, it allows for call back thus enhancing reliability and contact and it is easier to reach busy people as is the case with policy makers in Kenya and staff from international student offices.

Recording of interviews may also be problematic while handling equipment and paying attention to the respondent (Creswell 2005). This was encountered while conducting interviews with the students since interviews were conducted on university open grounds. At times it took the first few minutes of the interview to convince the students to be tape recorded. The fact that the respondent is being recorded may also interfere with the flow of conversation (Ibid. 2005) and the information that the respondent gives. In most cases interviews may provide information of what may be considered socially acceptable (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2004) but not responding to the study objectives.

Face to face interviews were also conducted because as Creswell (2005) and Bryman (2004) suggest they have the advantage of gathering non-verbal data. This form of data is important as it can be an indication of what the respondent feels about the issue being discussed. It can also be an expression of doubt or honesty in the information they are providing. Sometimes what the participant says is different from the body language and this creates a situation for the researcher to make enquiries aimed at explaining the discrepancy. More often than not this reveals important information for the study. At the same time face to face interviews (Bryman 2004, Creswell 2005 and Walliman 2001) provide the opportunity to re-assure and encourage the respondents to give full answers while non-verbal communication such as nods and smiles can prompt complete responses. I found this very relevant to this study because the presence of the researcher provided some assurance to the students who then became relaxed and were at ease while responding to the interview questions.

Other advantages, associated with face to face interviews according to Berends (2006), Burns (2000), Creswell (2005) and Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996) that were relevant to this study and are discussed in this section includes the ability to observe the total situation of the respondents. For example, when one interviewed the students either in the places where they lived or in the university compound one was able to appreciate the conditions that the students studied or lived in and could relate their answers to actual conditions. One also got a feel as to how students were interacting with others. Face to

face interviews also enable the researcher to establish rapport with the respondents a fact that may be motivating to them.

However, face to face interviews are disadvantageous in that the presence of the interviewer may affect the way questions are answered. This might lead to the respondent giving information they think the researcher needs to hear. The very person of the researcher according to Bryman (2004), Creswell (2005) and Walliman (2001) such as their position in the society, education, race, age or sex may influence the respondents resulting to bias, hence raising the question of validity and reliability. To guard against this, throughout the data collection process the researcher has revealed her position in relation to this study and given the participants the option to either participate or not.

4.8 Data Collection Phase Three: Document Analysis

Document analysis was used to gather information related to policy on international education in Kenya and in situating the study within its policy context. Policy documents that guide education in Kenya were analysed. This was done in order to generate data to determine the existing policy environment that international education takes place in Kenya and to help the researcher to address objective four of this study, formulate policy recommendations. This would only have been possible by examining the current policy status to avoid duplication, identify policy gaps or scale up existing policies and establish areas where there is discordance between policy and practice. Other than situating the study in its policy context, the inclusion of document analysis was important to this study in that, it provided additional information to that collected through interviews with the students and education policy makers in Kenya on the policy context of international education in Kenya. The documents have been reviewed as literature in various sections of this study to clarify, confirm or provide additional information on the context under which higher education is delivered in Kenya.

Content analysis is defined as an 'approach to the analysis of documents and texts' (Bryman 2004:181). Bryman explains that content analysis is not a research method for collecting data since it is an 'approach to analysis of documents and texts rather than a

means of generating data'. However, Bryman argues that it should be 'treated as a research method because of its distinctive approach to analysis (Ibid. 2004). In this study, document analysis is treated as an approach to analyse documents as well as a research method. According to Bryman (2004) and Creswell (2005:219) documents are a valuable source of information in qualitative research. They consist of public and private records which include: newspapers, minutes of meetings, personal journals, letters and official records in the public domain. Other internet sources such as email comments or website data illustrate both public and private documents and they represent a growing data source for qualitative researchers (Bryman 2004). Tuckman (1999) adds autobiographies and depositories to the list of documents that can be analysed while Robson (2002) includes written curricula, timetables, notices and course outlines.

Therefore key policy reports of commissions, taskforces and committees as well as official reports from the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology were analysed. The documents included but not limited to: The Master Plan on Education and Training (1998), The Total Quality and Integrated Education and Training Report (1999), Sector Review and Development Direction (2003a), The Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (2005a), The Sessional paper No 1 of 2005 (2005b) and the Public Universities Inspection Board Report (2006a). Other documents that provide national policies which impacts on education such as the Economic Review have also been reviewed. These documents provide the policy direction on education in Kenya in the last ten years. Information was also sought from newspapers to get perspectives and views of the general public in Kenya on international education.

Harber (1997:114) highlights the advantage of using documents and points out that they are convenient to use since they can be analysed at the researcher's own time, provide data that cannot be observed and 'portrays what the general 'feel' of people on the phenomenon is' (Ibid. 1997). In addition, they can be used to verify and triangulate data generated using other instruments (Ibid. 1997). Documents also provide a good source of text data for a qualitative study; they are in the language of the participants who have

given careful thought to them; and they are ready for analysis without the need for transcribing (Creswell 2005).

However document analysis can be disadvantageous in that accessing government reports and files may be difficult for an outsider and the accuracy of information in the documents may not be confirmed, while analysing hand written documents can be tedious as some hand writings are illegible (Harber 1997). Information may also not be in the public domain, may be located in the archives, the documents maybe in-complete, an-authentic or inaccurate (Bryman 2004). However, having worked within the policy and planning department of the ministry of education in Kenya the researcher had easy access to policy documents relevant to this study. The researcher having also participated in the development of major policy documents that guide education in Kenya had the advantage of selecting policy documents relevant to this study. Owing to her official position, the researcher could easily access various libraries that are depositories to education documents such as; The Universities, Kenya Institute of Education, Kenya Education Staff Institute, Ministry of Education Resource Centre and Kenya National Commission for UNESCO library.

 Stewart and Kamins (1993) however caution that, and which the researcher concurs with, that care must be taken in utilising documents so that they are not taken literally thus avoiding possible bias and mistakes. The documents therefore analysed were those which had gone through various stages of validation and were accepted as legal documents in guiding education in Kenya.

4.9 Samples and Sampling Procedures

This section presents the sampling procedures used to identify the study's participants.

4.9.1 The Population

One of the challenges that the researcher faced in carrying out this study was in determining and locating the Kenyan student population in the UK. This is because the Ministry of Education in Kenya and the Education Department at the Kenya High Commission in London does not have an up-to date data bank of Kenyan students

pursuing higher education in the UK. This is because the Kenya Government does not have a data capture system for students who are granted visas to study in the UK and it is not mandatory for students to register with the Kenya High Commission on arrival in the UK. Therefore the numbers of those who are successful in getting visas to study in the UK and who actually take up their positions at the universities is not known and neither are the institutions where students enroll on arrival in the UK. This information is only available in individual universities in relation to their students. However, as a regulation in the UK information on individuals cannot be shared with third parties owing to the Data Protection Act that does not allow the release of information to third parties without authority of the individual concerned.

Therefore the only information available is on the few students who register with the Kenya High Commission. These include: students who have visited the Kenya High Commission website that allows students to register online, those who for one reason or another have visited the Kenya High Commission and are advised that such services exist, others register when encouraged to do so during visits to students at the institutions where they are enrolled. Only 17% of the reported numbers of Kenyan students in the UK (2008) are registered with the Kenya High Commission.

The researcher therefore used statistics reported in various studies and reports in Kenya and the UK to determine the population of Kenyan students in the UK. These reports are:
   a) Vision 2020: Forecasting International Student Mobility: A UK Perspective, Bohm *et al.* (2004);
   b) Patterns of Higher Education Institutions in the UK: Sixth and Seventh Report, Ramsden (2006) and (2007);
   c) The Public Universities Inspection Board Report, Republic of Kenya (2006a);
   d) Higher Education Statistics Academy (HESA) 2006.

The numbers of Kenyan students pursuing higher education at undergraduate or postgraduate level reported in these studies varies from 2711 (HESA 2006) to 2975 (Ramsden 2006). This study therefore adopted the highest number of Kenyan students

reported which was 2975 as the population for this study. Although HESA data provides useful insights in determining the population of Kenyan students in the UK, the numbers it provided was not used while determining the population of this study. This was because HESA data is limited, in that, it only captures data on active students but not those who have taken time out or deferred their studies. In addition, HESA does not collect data from two universities in the UK and could therefore have missed Kenyan students enrolled in these universities or those who were not active students. The population also included management staff dealing with higher education in the Ministry of Education, Kenya and staff dealing with international students in UK universities.

4.9.2 The Sample Size of the Questionnaire Respondents

The questionnaire was the main data collection instrument in this study and comprised the highest number of respondents. While determining the sample size Creswell (2005) cautions that the sample size is influenced by several factors such as access, funding, overall size of the population and a number of other variables. The type of research is also a determinant of the minimum sample size a researcher should use (Ibid. 2005). Cresswell (2005) cites 30 scores for each variable in a co-relational and causal comparative research. Researchers can also ask as many people as possible to participate within the resources and time that both the researcher and participants can provide (Bryman 2004). Babbie (2005) and Gay and Airasian (2003) give a guide of 10-20% of the population for descriptive studies. Similarly, Cresswell (2005:582) suggests that a researcher can systematically identify the number of participants based on sample size tables available in published texts. However, Babbie (2005) and Gay and Airasian (2003) caution that in reality what should determine the sample size is the type of research being carried out and the overall size of the population.

In this study, the researcher used the sample size table published by Fowler (1988:42). The sampling error formula was used to determine the sample size for quantitative data collection. According to Fink and Kosekoff (1985) and Fowler (1988) a sampling error formula is often used in survey or co-relational research. A sampling error formula is a calculation for determining the size of a sample based on the chance or proportion that

the sample will be evenly divided on a question, sampling error and confidence interval (Creswell 2005:582). The formula is based on the proportion of the sample that will have the desired characteristic that you are trying to estimate (Ibid. 2005).

Table 4.1: Fowler's Sample Size Table

Source: Fowler (1988: 42) Survey Research Methods

Based on Fowlers Sample Size table (Table 4.1), for this study, the researcher was willing to tolerate a sampling error of 6%. This error may occur because samples for this study are individuals selected from the population and may not represent the true characteristics of the population (Creswell 2005:582). The sampling error may also occur because these are individuals having their own characteristics which cannot be generalised. For this study, this may occur because the population may comprise Kenyans who entered the UK not as students but have decided to take the opportunity of being in the UK to advance their studies. This group of Kenyans, who are working and at the same time studying are likely to complete the questionnaires but do not possess the true characteristics of the population as bona-fide students and their experience is therefore different. The error is also likely to occur owing to non response-rates (Creswell 2005).

The confidence interval borrowed from Fowlers Table (Fowler 1988:42) for this study was considered as 95%. The confidence interval indicates the upper and lower values that are likely to contain the actual population mean. Although respondents are expected to be Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK, the chance that respondents are not students and are not of Kenyan nationality is very rare if at all, or non-existent. The instructions as to who should complete the questionnaire were also very explicit and it was expected that those receiving the questionnaire would adhere to them. For this study, there is a 50/50 chance derived from Fowlers Table (Table 4.1) that all the respondents are Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK or those who have dropped out or taken academic leave. The study was only open to Kenyan students in the UK and they were the only ones invited to participate. It was therefore unlikely that non-Kenyans and even Kenyans in the UK who were not students would complete the questionnaire. The study used Kenyan students in different universities in the UK and snowball sampling to identify the study participants and this in itself was to ensure that those completing the questionnaire were Kenyan students.

Based on the sampling error formula derived from Fowler's 1988 sample size table, (Table 4.1) the sample size for quantitative data collection was calculated at 300 respondents. This was arrived at by taking a confidence interval of 5/95, a 50/50 chance and a sampling error formula of 6%. The sample size of 300 was acceptable as it constitutes 10% of the 2975 (Ramsden 2006) Kenyan student population in the UK. Babbie (2005), and Gay and Airasian (2003) have argued that 10%-20% is a good estimate of the characteristic of the population.

In determining the sample size the researcher took cognisance of Robson (2002:161) caution that 'in real world research, the question of sample size is answered for you by the situation' which is true of this study where time and finances were important considerations while determining the sample size. Whereas the researcher was desirous of working with a larger sample, this was practically not possible due to difficulties involved in reaching out to 'hidden population' in an environment where information was restricted which meant that the researcher and research assistants had to physically locate the study's subjects. This would have been time consuming to reach out to larger

hidden populations and would also have been too expensive to manage as the research was self funded. The researcher also took cognisance of the fact that a PhD must be achievable and has a time scale within which it must be completed.

4.10 Sampling Interview Participants

Different sampling procedures were adopted to select interview participants for the interviews conducted with the students, Kenyan policy makers and staff from international students' offices in UK universities. All the interviews were conducted during a period of two months in October and November. This period was considered appropriate for staff at the international student offices in UK universities as their experience of receiving incoming students was still fresh as new students report in September.

4.10.1 The Student Interviews

After the quantitative data was collected and analysed gaps in information available was evident. For example, many of the respondents did not respond to the question on employment and how it affected their study outcomes. Others were reluctant to give reasons as to why they were still in school when they were expected to have completed their studies. It was also evident that although some of the students' expectations had been met for others they were not and there was need to follow up to find out how this affected their experience. There was also the need to corroborate some of the patterns emerging from the quantitative data.

Patton (1990:172) maintains that purposeful sampling is the dominant strategy in qualitative research as it seeks information-rich cases which can be studied in-depth. However, he points out that there are disadvantages that exist with regard to this research approach. For example, despite the apparent flexibility in purposeful sampling researchers must be aware of three types of sampling error that is likely to occur in qualitative research. First, distortions caused by in-sufficient breadth in sampling; Second, distortions introduced by changes over time; Third, distortions caused by lack of depth in data collection at each site (Ibid. 1990).

To address these concerns, representativeness of the interviewees was ensured by sampling across all study levels that is first, second and third years' undergraduates and postgraduates (Masters and PhD) students. Collecting data from respondents enrolled at each level and each year of study was to ensure that changes likely to have occurred overtime from the time the student first enrolled in a UK institution up to the time they complete their studies are captured. The inclusion of the different categories of UK universities from different geographical regions in the UK also ensured representativeness of data collected. The scope of this study which captured the pre-departure experience of the students while in Kenya and their experience while in UK also contributed to the breadth of the study while the multi-method data collection method adopted also provided for those areas that might lack in depth. Therefore, purposeful sampling was found appropriate for use in identifying the interview participants.

Student interviewees were therefore purposively selected to include gender, type of study institution and year of study, course enrolled and age. Students selected to participate are those who had not completed the questionnaire. The participants were not drawn from any particular institution but were selected as individual Kenyan students in the UK from a range of UK higher education institutions and colleges of further education drawn from the four regions of the UK, England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The profile of the students who took part in the interviews is summarised and attached as Appendix 7.

To identify the students to participate the international student offices in UK universities were requested to pass information announcing the interviews to Kenyan students. Students were requested to indicate if they would like to take part in the interview. If they did, they were advised to get in touch with the researcher whose details were provided for further information regarding the interviews. In addition, contacts made at the questionnaire administration stage were also used to inform those students who had not completed the questionnaire to register for the interview. Stratified sampling was used to sample students from the different geographical regions in the UK that is England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. In addition participants were selected to

reflect the main classification of UK higher education institutions from each of these regions.

Purposeful sampling was applied in selecting the participants so that those who were selected were either in their first, second or third year of their studies or at postgraduate level as each stage brings a different experience (Ayano 2006). A list of those who had expressed interest in participating in the study was constructed which the researcher used to develop a sampling frame based on the different regions of the UK using names of those who had met the criteria for selection in reference to the consideration stated above. Simple random sampling was used to select those who were finally included in the study. Six students were identified to represent each year of study that is first year, second year, third year and six postgraduates with three each pursuing masters and PhD programmes. A total of twenty four students were included in the sample.

4.10.2 Interviews with Kenyan Policy Makers

The objective of these interviews was to seek a detailed understanding of the policy context under which recruitment of Kenyan students takes place in Kenya. Telephone interviews were conducted as it would have been expensive in terms of time and money to hold face to face interviews. Semi-structured interviews which are more flexible and are appropriate with this level of interviewees who have expert knowledge, have their own opinions which must be respected, have varied experiences and insights (Cohen, Manion, and Morison 2004 and Creswell 2005) were conducted. This approach was found appropriate as the researcher was able to follow up on policy issues, yet respecting the professional boundaries of the interviewees as Creswell rightfully argues.

Policy makers who participated in the study were purposely selected in relation to the functions that they were performing and their relevance to this study. Three heads of departments based at the Ministry of Education headquarters, in-charge of three different departments that deal with policy formulation, monitoring, evaluation and implementation were sampled. The head of the directorate in charge of all the professional programmes within the Ministry of Education, a Director in charge of policy and planning department and a representative from the directorate of higher

education. A representative from the commission for higher education that deals with quality assurance of public and private universities in Kenya was interviewed and a vice-chancellor of one of the public universities in Kenya. In total five participants who were directly involved in higher education policy either at formulation, implementation and evaluation stage was interviewed. The choice of the participants was informed by Gay and Airasian (2003) who cautions that a researcher should identify participants who can provide in-depth information on the topic being researched.

4.10.3 Interviews with Staff from International Students Offices in UK Universities

The purpose of conducting interviews with staff dealing with international students in UK universities was twofold: One, to find out the practice on student recruitment, establish how universities understood internationalisation and how it was being implemented by the universities. Two, gain a better understanding of support services offered by universities to international students. As some of this information could be accessed from the internet and university brochures the purpose of the interviews was to interrogate on the practice to establish if there was a disjuncture between practice and policy. It was also important to corroborate information received from the students about the facilities offered at the universities.

One of the challenges that the researcher experienced was to select a sample from the over one hundred and sixty nine universities in the UK. Pelletier, Leonard and Morley (2003:12) caution that and which the researcher agrees with, that those researching on international education in the UK find it difficult to secure the co-operation of academic staff during data collection. This was true of this researcher who had to rely on snowball or chain sampling to identify the participants. This approach was adopted after severally writing to universities to request staff from the international student offices to give interviews. None of the universities responded to this direct request. In total five staff members dealing with international students were interviewed. The researcher stopped at this number after realising that no new information was coming through after the first four interviews. The only criterion for their selection was that they were willing to be interviewed and were directly involved in international student recruitment. One of those who volunteered to participate is actively involved in student recruitment in

Africa and in Kenya and provided very useful insights. This sample was considered appropriate because the purpose was to confirm information received from the students and to establish the existing practice in international student recruitment and how well internationalisation was understood by those at the fore front of its implementation in UK universities.

4.11 Gaining Access to the Study Participants

In preparation for the field work the relevant ethical approvals were sought from Coventry University Ethics Committee to conduct research with human participants, to ensure that no harm or legal issues arose from the research that would adversely affect the respondents, the researcher or institutions involved. At the beginning of the study approval to conduct this research had been sought from the Kenya government as a legal requirement. Without a research permit it is illegal to conduct research in Kenya or amongst Kenyan nationals. The purpose of the research permit is to ensure that the research is ethical and is not harmful in any way.

The first point of entry to accessing the respondents by the researcher or the research assistants was to explain to them the aims of the research, objectives and procedures and to also seek their concurrence to participate in the research before the actual research itself. As the questionnaires were self administered, for postal questionnaires or those picked at the Kenyan High Commission instructions and a participant's information sheet was attached (Appendix 3). The students had to sign the participants' information sheet and the consent form (Appendix 2) before they were given the questionnaire to confirm that they understood and agreed with the conditions for taking part. A covering letter (Appendix 1) inviting the students to participate with the contact details of the researcher in case those considering to participate had any clarification to seek was provided.

Lofland and Lofland (1995:25) suggest that researchers are more likely to gain access to situations if they make use of contacts that can help remove barriers to entrance, if they avoid wasting respondents' time by doing advance research on information that is already part of the public record and if they treat respondents with courtesy. It was

expected that giving detailed information about the research was one way of overcoming these barriers to entrance. In addition, explaining to the respondents how the study outcomes would benefit them was also a way of demonstrating that participating in the study was not a waste of their time. The researcher expected that students would be willing to complete the questionnaires, post them back to or hand them in to the research assistants or the researcher. This was because, the findings and recommendations of this study were in no way going to harm the respondents but according to the purpose of the study which was clearly spelt out in the information sheet (Appendix 3) which the respondents signed before completing the questionnaire aim at enhancing or enriching their experience which would serve as an additional motivator for them to participate in the study.

Lofland and Lofland (1995) further suggest that because researchers are asking participants to grant access to their lives, minds and emotions it is also important to provide respondents with a straightforward description of the goals of the research which was provided in the participant's information sheet. To remove barriers to entrance in cases where questionnaires were hand delivered, the researcher made use of Kenyan students who were identified through other students to help in accessing students' at different universities. This was to gain support and trust for the study among the participants. The research assistants were fully briefed on the study's objectives, purpose and expectations. One of the research assistants was involved in the pilot phase as a volunteer in taking notes during the various meetings with the students. It was expected that he would use that experience during the actual data collection to enhance the response rates.

Policy makers and staff from UK universities were not required to sign consent forms but their concurrence to answer questions and make time for the interviews was considered as consent to participate. To prepare them for the interview, a brief of the study, objectives and guidelines for the semi-structured interviews was forwarded to them before the interviews were conducted.

4.12 The Actual Data Collection

A detailed description of the process followed to collect data for this study is presented in support of Miles and Huberman (1994:278) who argue that this is important as an 'audit trail' for anybody wishing to trace how the field work was carried out. It also informs the reader of how the findings were arrived at. Data was not collected concurrently but after each data collection phase was completed. Phasing the data collection was deliberate in that it would allow for identification of information to be corroborated, followed up, clarified, identifying information gaps or to reinforce information emerging from the different phases.

4.12.1 Administering the Questionnaires

Questionnaires were administered in phase one to Kenyan students enrolled in UK institutions offering higher education and to students as individuals and not through their institutions. This was to capture not only the experience of those who were active students but also those who had deferred their studies, taken academic leave or had dropped out. The questionnaires were administered for a period of six months from February 2007 to July 2007. This period was significant in that the researcher would capture students who had enrolled in the new academic year in September and therefore memories of their pre-departure study experience was still fresh and they were in that stage described by Adler in his stage theory approach on experiences of international students as the "honey moon stage" (Adler 1975). This period was further considered appropriate as the researcher would capture students before they break for the long summer holiday. They would also have sat for their examination and therefore in a position to talk about their academic experience. For the first year entrants, they were also expected to move out of the university halls of residence at the end of their first year. This was a new experience for them moving from university accommodation to private accommodation, dealing with estate agents and signing contracts.

To administer the questionnaires, two research assistants were engaged. Prior to embarking on the fieldwork the researcher and the research assistants held several meetings so as to agree on how the fieldwork would be conducted, to explain the study objectives and purpose. To cover the different regions in the UK the research assistants

worked separately. One covered universities in Northern Ireland and Scotland. The second assistant researcher was responsible for Universities in Wales and the Midlands. The researcher was responsible for administering the questionnaires in Universities located in and around London. This was as a result of time factor as the researcher could not travel long distances as she was also working and could not get leave for six months to participate in the field work. However, the researcher was able to get time off in between to visit some of the institutions. Although it was time consuming administering the questionnaires personally, by the research assistants and the researcher, provided that much needed human contact to questionnaire administration and this enhanced the response rates.

The personal participation of the researcher in the field work was useful in that the researcher could connect with the research assistants and understand what they meant when they shared their field experience during and at the end of the data collection period. The research assistants were useful in that, although electronic surveys provide an easy, quick form of data collection (Creswell 2005) their actual use may be limited because not all participants have access to computers or are comfortable using websites and the internet (Ibid. 2005). This was true of this research undertaking because although the questionnaire was announced and posted on the Kenya High Commission website only two students completed the questionnaire online.

When students were informed that they could access and complete the questionnaire online they declined indicating that they would rather complete the questionnaire as a hard copy and send it back. When this was followed up, it emerged that as the study was touching on their life and stay in the UK they felt more confident giving this information to a person they have interacted with rather than completing the questionnaire online as they were not very sure in whose hands the information might land. They also expressed the need for data accountability. In addition to engaging the services of the two research assistants to administer and follow up on the questionnaires, there were stringent follow up procedures by telephone, through student contacts and constant reminders of deadlines to enhance response rates.

Barbie (2005) points out that studies show mixed results on the impact of incentives. However incentives were not given to those who participated in this study. It was expected that the study's outcome and recommendations which would be shared with the respondents, would act as an incentive to encourage them to participate as they would impact on practice on students recruitment and support which would benefit the students. In total three hundred questionnaires were distributed. During questionnaire administration, there were various challenges that the researcher encountered. The most difficult was to locate the students. It was not possible to get contact addresses or emails of students for the purpose of administering the questionnaires and in identifying institutions where they were enrolled. In the absence of information on the exact location of Kenyan students in the UK, the difficulty of directly contacting the students was further compounded by UK legislation where the data protection act prevents universities from giving out information to third parties without the authority of the individual concerned.

Different methods of administering the questionnaire were adopted to address the challenges, to enhance the representativeness of the data collected and response rate. To achieve this, the questionnaire was administered as follows.

a) Through Kenyan students in various UK Universities;
b) Through contact addresses of those registered with the Kenya High Commission, UK;
c) Given out to students visiting the Kenya High Commission education office for various reasons;
d) Questionnaires were also left at the Kenya High Commission reception for students visiting the mission to pick and complete at their own time and post back;
e) Given out to students during meetings with them at their respective universities;
f) One university volunteered to email the questionnaire to Kenyan students enrolled in their university using the students' email addresses in their custody. However, the response rate using this method was very low as only three

students responded. The most effective method in administering the questionnaires was found to be through physical contacts.

To capture students who could not be reached through the various approaches listed above, the researcher employed snowball sampling where participants were asked to identify others to become members of the sample as long as they had the characteristics of the population. According to Creswell (2005), snowball sampling has the advantage of recruiting large numbers of respondents in a hidden population. This approach brought rich information from those students who would not have been reached through the various methods listed above especially those who had dropped out or taken academic break. However, as Creswell (2005) point out this approach has its limitation in that the researcher has no way of ascertaining the appropriateness of the individuals participating in the study. However, instructions were very clear that only Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK should complete the questionnaire. Contact persons who were working with the researcher were also consulted when there was need to confirm whether one was actually a Kenyan student.

4.12.2 Interview with the Students

Having gone through a rigorous and exciting period collecting and analysing questionnaire data, I must admit that I was looking forward to conducting interviews with the students to fill in the gaps that I had identified during questionnaire analysis, to corroborate information from the questionnaire analyses and to capture student's voices. There were also areas that I felt required additional information as most students had given scanty information in some of the sections. As I came to learn later the respondents felt that the information requested was sensitive to them. By this time most Kenyan students had heard about the study and it was not difficult this time round to get a group willing to participate. When they received the announcement of the interviews from the universities and from other Kenyan students they contacted the researcher to express their interest to be included in the study. As some confessed, they were happy to have an opportunity to talk about their life as students and for the researcher to listen.

The interviews were recorded on tape or hand written depending on the preference of the one being interviewed. It is suggested that a tape recorder is indispensable during interviews (Patton 1990:348) while Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue against the use of tape recorders except in unusual circumstances due to the intrusion caused by recording devices and possibility of technical failure. Lincoln and Guba however acknowledge that recording has the advantage of capturing data more faithfully than hurriedly written notes and it also gives the researcher the opportunity to focus on the interview.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted guided by lead questions attached at Appendix six. The analysed data from the questionnaires informed the interviews in that the researcher could identify those areas that required additional information or which needed further explanation. The interviews were conducted in venues appropriate to students and mainly determined by the availability of the interviewee and their willingness to participate. The interviews were conducted by the researcher and one research assistant. A list summarising the profiles of those who participated in the interview is attached as Appendix 7.

4.12.3 Interviews with Kenyan Policy Makers

The researcher found it challenging interviewing the policy makers. For one, it was difficult to get appointments with them and two, to keep them focussed on the interview. They were more interested in discussing emerging findings and how they could be taken forward. This was due to the fact that the areas the interview sought to interrogate was like challenging what the government had not done to support students aspiring to and those studying abroad. What was surprising was that the interviews were like a 'wake up call' as three of the interviewees confessed that in the ongoing reforms within Kenya's higher education system, international education had not received as much attention as the local universities although there were high numbers of Kenyan students abroad. One of the interviewees even proposed a consultancy to unravel exactly what happens in Kenya when students are being recruited up to the time the students leave the country; identify student support structures that exist and the efficacy of recruitment agencies.

Two of the interviews were conducted by phone and two while the researcher had visited Kenya. During this time, the preliminary findings arising from the questionnaire analysis were shared with the Ministry of Education officials as away of validating the findings. The last interview was conducted during the interviewees visit to London on official government business. These were semi structured interviews and the lead questions are attached as Appendix 8. The interviews were more of discussions and highlights were summarised at the end of the sessions. Note taking was adopted throughout the five interviews.

In most cases the interviews took longer than the one hour agreed at the beginning of the study as the interviewees wanted to discuss areas pertaining to international education which were outside the scope of this study. The interviews were transcribed immediately on completion so as not to forget even those areas not captured in the notes. Information was organised under different themes that had been identified borrowed from the questionnaire analysis. At the same time, emerging themes were also identified during the transcribing process. However, before ending the interviews the researcher summarised key emerging points and shared them with the interviewees to confirm if they were true summaries of what they had said. There was therefore no need to further validate the content of the interviews with them.

4.12.4 Interviews with Staff from International Student Offices in UK Universities

As already explained, identifying staff willing to be interviewed proved to be difficult to the researcher. However by using contacts to help in identifying those to participate the researcher was able to hold interviews with five members of staff dealing with international students in their respective universities. The criteria for participation were that those to participate were from universities that had more than forty Kenyan students enrolled and were actively involved in international student recruitment. Therefore, even when someone was introduced to the researcher and their university had less than forty Kenyan students enrolled in their universities and were not actively involved in international student recruitment they were eliminated on that basis.

The staff members who were identified to participate were directly involved in advising their universities on international student recruitment and were involved in implementing the policy on international student recruitment in their respective universities. Two of the staff members who participated were recommended to the researcher by one of the largest agency in Kenya that recruits students for UK universities. Semi-structured interviews were conducted guided by lead questions attached as Appendix 9. The researcher observed that the interviewees were very cautious of their responses. The researcher appreciated that there was an underlying conflict of interest arising out of the fact that they were obliged to support the interests of their universities but at the same time having consented to the interviews they were expected to be open and honest in responding to the research questions.

The interviewees were careful not to comment negatively about international student recruitment and support as it is big business to the universities as some of them confessed. The researcher appreciated the interviewees' position because the discussions were touching on their work which they are duty bound to protect. At the same time it was not clear whether they were discussing their experience in international student support and recruitment based on policy or practice. Primarily, they contextualised their discussions within the Prime Ministers Initiative for international student recruitment as a way of raising additional revenue for the universities and enhancing a multicultural mix of students in their institutions.

The researcher recorded highlights from these interviews which greatly informed the findings of this study. The interviews were all tape recorded. Three of the interviews were conducted by phone; one took place at the Kenya High Commission offices and one at the university where the interviewee works. The interviews were short, lasting about forty five minutes to one hour but informative. However the respondents were wary to give recommendations which I assumed was because they did not want to contradict the existing policies on student recruitment in their respective institutions. They decided to focus on their experience during student recruitment and what happens when students arrive at the university.

The criteria used to stop data collection in qualitative research is determined by exhaustion of resources, emergence of regularities, over extension or going too far beyond the boundaries of the research (Guba 1978). Guba further maintains that the decision to stop sampling must take into account research goals, the need to achieve depth through triangulation of data sources and the possibility of greater breadth through examination of a variety of examination sites (Ibid. 1978). This approach by Guba was adopted to determine when to stop collecting more data from individual interviewees.

4.13 Data Analysis

Data analysis involves the process that a researcher goes through to find meaning in the data collected through 'systematic arranging and presentation of the information' (Burns 2000:430). It involves sorting the data, editing, coding, entry, cleaning, processing and results interpretation (Fowler 2002 and Obure 2002:1).

4.13.1 Analysis of Quantitative Data

The researcher went through each of the questionnaires without changing the content to check on completeness of responses, to remove those questionnaires that had scanty information or which were not properly completed. Uniformity in interpretation of questions and instructions was established. A check was also made to ensure that all questions were accurately answered as inserting answers in the wrong boxes can affect data validity (Robson 2002). The questionnaires that were found to be complete enough for analysis were numbered to help in identification during data entry. After sorting out the questionnaires, data was coded to reduce it to a manageable level. The advantage of coding and assigning numeric values to open ended questions is that it makes it possible for descriptive statistics to be generated even for the open ended questions. However, as some questions were pre-coded the researcher only coded the open ended items. For the open ended questions a coding frame was devised after the editing of the questionnaires. This was done by taking a random sample of 10% of the questionnaires and generating a frequency tally of the range of responses as a preliminary to coding classification. Using the coding frame to code a further sample of the questionnaires validated the coding frame. The qualitative data in the questionnaires was analysed using the Atlas Ti

which was also used to analyse the qualitative data collected in this study. The process of using Atlas Ti in qualitative data analysis is explained in detail in the next section on qualitative data analysis.

The study used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), which is recommended for Social Science Research (Obure 2002). The coded data was transferred from the questionnaires to the computer file for analysis. The SPSS program was used to clean the data. The process assisted the researcher in inspecting the data for scores or values that are outside the accepted range. This cleaned the data of visible errors that could affect the research findings and also assisted the researcher in identifying whether there was any missing data as a result of respondents not answering all the questions. Data was then analysed in relation to the different themes identified for the study. The researcher did not look for causal relationships among any of the factors that were identified. This was left for a future study. Descriptive statistics such as percentages, frequency distributions and cross-tabulations were used to report the findings.

4.13.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Interviews were transcribed and categorised according to pre-determined and emerging themes using Atlas Ti. The analysis of the interviews took the form of transcribing the recordings. The student interviews were categorised and coded under individual students 1-24 (Labelled as ST1-ST24), gender of the respondent encrypted as (male-*m* or female-*f*), categorisation of the institution where the respondent was enrolled, the study area and level was included. However, the sample was limited in that it would have been ideal to include samples from the different regions of Kenya by ethnic and tribal origin but this was found not to be appropriate as Kenyans have a national outlook and looking at tribal based groups would be seen as politicising the study. The philosophy that guides development in Kenya is equal opportunities for all as enshrined in Kenya's constitution. This was therefore not considered within the scope of this study and can be taken forward in a future study.

Themes that emerged were not necessarily the same as those in the questionnaire. This was not unexpected, because information collected from the interviews was to fill information gaps identified through questionnaire analysis and capture information not provided in the questionnaire. The qualitative data was used verbatim to capture the 'voices of the students' on what they had to say about their study experience in the UK. This approach was adopted because the experiences as told by the students were so rich that giving them a numerical value seemed like not only diluting their messages but also taking away the power of the spoken word in portraying the respondent's views of their study experience. The direct quotes were used together with numerical data to show emphasis, variance or simply to support. The direct quotes were considered the best to do this other than the researchers' interpretation of what the respondents said. The combination of what was written in the questionnaires and what was said in the interviews gives the feel of a lived experience of Kenyan students in the UK.

Findings in chapters five, six and seven are presented and discussed using a combination of both quantitative and qualitative data. Each set of data was to inform, support or provide discrepancies in data collected either from the questionnaire or interview analysis. As individual students were the focus of this study every response was considered important in informing the study findings as that which could have happened to one student is important in informing what could be happening to the next student and amongst Kenyan students and is instrumental in determining future action.

Analysis began with identification of themes that emerged from the raw data a process referred to as "open coding" (Strauss and Corbin 1990). Strauss and Corbin explain that during open coding the researcher must identify and tentatively name the conceptual categories into which the phenomena observed will be grouped. The categories were borrowed from themes identified during questionnaire analysis. This aimed at creating descriptive, multidimensional categories which form a preliminary framework for analysis (Ibid. 1990). In coding, words phrases or events that appear to be similar can be grouped into the same category (Ibid. 1990). These categories may be gradually modified or replaced during the subsequent stages of analysis that follow (Ibid. 1990).

As the raw data are broken down into manageable components, the researcher must also devise an "audit trail" that is a scheme for identifying these data chunks according to their speaker and context. The particular identifiers developed may or may not be used in the research report but speakers are typically referred to in a manner that provides sense of context (Strauss and Corbin 1990). In this study the identifiers were used in the main report. Further, Strauss and Corbin observe that qualitative research reports are characterised by the use of "voice" in the text; that is participant quotes that illustrate the themes being described. However they caution that, the process of data analysis is not linear but in practice it may occur simultaneously and repeatedly. Additional data collection may occur at any point if the researcher uncovers gaps in the data. They further caution that, informal analysis begins with data collection and can and should guide subsequent data collection (Ibid. 1990).

The data was coded using Atlas Ti which is a programme used for qualitative data analysis. The programme helps to code and organise the frequency of occurrence of emerging and different pre-determined themes. The programme helps the researcher to identify patterns of issues reported and in categorising them. Those that had the highest frequency of occurrence were then considered as the ones that had the most impact on the students' experience. They were then used in the discussions to support or fill in information gaps in the quantitative data either as quotes or in the text.

During the transcribing process, to prevent the original tape being damaged, data was saved in another tape that was used during the actual transcribing and the master copy kept in a secure place. The tapes were labelled with the informants' code name and the date of the interview. As the student interviews were not transcribed immediately owing to limited time and energy and the volumes of what had been captured to guard against forgetting what the researcher considered important and to capture my reflections after the interviews, each day's occurrences were noted in a research journal and the highlights from the interviews recorded to ensure that one does not forget those salient points that made "impressions" during the interviews.

4.14 Validity and Reliability of the Study

The building of validity and reliability of the study is viewed as a continuous process embedded in the whole study a process which begins from the time the study was conceived up to its dissemination. The issues that portray the validity and reliability of the study are discussed in different stages of the study. The findings of this study (Chapters 5, 6, 7) are presented and discussed according to the objectives of this study. Data generated from all the instruments used are discussed together. In addition, quotes from the participants and literature are used. In the interpretation of the qualitative data findings from the views of the participants are presented verbatim. Indication is made where the researchers' views or views from literature are added. This not only increases the authenticity of the study but also confirms validity, reliability and dependability. Arising from the findings, conclusions and recommendations are made. Recommendations made based on the findings are action oriented and provides details of what should be done and by whom. This makes the findings useful to all stakeholders. By including areas for further research is an admission that the research could not possibly cover all areas that were intended and those that came up in the process of the study. This could be seen as a measure of credibility and applicability as well.

4.15 Ethical Considerations

Bryman (2004:509) point out that ethics committees and their guidelines are there to protect research participants and institutions as a way of deterring researchers from behaving in ethically unacceptable ways as this would cause problems for institutions if ethically inappropriate behaviour gave rise to legal action against them or adverse publicity. In addition, Bryman (2004:509) further observe that ethics committees' and their guidelines also help and protect researchers too so that they are less likely to conduct research that could damage their reputation. Therefore, associations whose members conduct research with human beings have come up with code of ethics to guide their members. These institutions demonstrate that a researcher has a responsibility to the respondents, profession, sponsors and all institutions involved. The guiding principles are concerned with the participants, research sites, scholarship and the general public. Some of these institutions include: The British Educational Research

Association Guidelines (2004), Coventry University Ethics Guidelines, The American Anthropological Association's Code of Conduct (2003). The ethical considerations that guided this study are discussed here below.

Lending support to Bryman's contention of the need for participants to be fully informed of the totality of the research Bassey (1999:73) suggests that, in any piece of research in the social sciences, ethical considerations are necessary in conducting and reporting the research in respect of democracy, respect of truth and respect of persons. These principles were considered while conducting the research and full disclosures regarding this study were made to all participants at all times. The next section discusses the ethical considerations adopted for this study.

4.15.1 Informed Consent Adopted in this Study

For this study, the issue of consent does not only apply to participants but also to relevant organisations and institutions. Therefore, approval to carry out this study was sought from the Kenya government as is mandatory for any research undertaking involving Kenyan nationals or being conducted in Kenya and from Coventry University Ethics Committee. Creswell (2005:171) points out that in qualitative studies data collection should respect individuals and sites. In addition, obtaining permission before commencing data collection is not only part of informed consent but is also an ethical practice (Ibid. 2005) which was done for this study. The researcher and the research assistants at all times explained to the participants the purpose of the study before the respondents were requested to participate and during the interview sessions. On invitation to participate and before commencement of the interviews the researcher informed the interviewees of their right not to be involved and their right to dropping out at any stage even after the sessions had started.

To ensure that ethical underpinnings were observed during questionnaire administration, a covering letter was attached to the questionnaire (Appendix 1) explaining the purpose of the research, informing the students that they were not obliged to complete the questionnaire and that participating in the study was voluntary and they therefore had the right not to complete the questionnaire. Posting or emailing the questionnaire back

or handing it in to the contact person at the university where applicable, was also considered as consent by the student to participate in the study. An information participation sheet attached as Appendix 3 was given to students' to read and sign as a confirmation that they understood and had consented to the full implications of participating in the research. The respondents were encouraged to ask any question or seek clarification about the study or information presented in the information sheet before they were invited to sign the consent form which is attached as Appendix 2. Only then were the respondents given the questionnaire to complete.

4.15.2 Confidentiality

The respondents were continuously assured of confidentiality of information that they provided and that the information would be used sorely for the purpose of this study. In addition, they were requested not to write their names or names of the institution where they were enrolled on the questionnaire as it was meant to be anonymous to protect the identity of the respondent and of the institution. According to Creswell (2005) the anonymity of individuals can be protected by assigning numbers to returned instruments as keeping the identity of individuals' confidential offers privacy to participants (Ibid. 2005). The completed questionnaires were assigned numbers as soon as they were received.

At the same time, data collected should be treated with confidentiality and not shared with other participants or those outside the study (Creswell 2005). The questionnaires were therefore kept under lock and key to ensure that nobody was able to access them except the researcher or those authorised to do so. Information that was keyed in was safe as the researcher was the only one with the password to allow access. As earlier mentioned all the questionnaires were assigned numbers as a way of identifying them during data entry and to also keep a record of the questionnaires returned. The same assurance of confidentiality was extended to those who participated in the interviews. According to (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004:62) this can be achieved through what he refers to, as "the promise of confidentiality". Cohen suggests that this could be done by establishing "boundaries" around the information to be protected and not

shared with anyone else and in explaining fully what the researcher means by confidentiality.

Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) have suggested some techniques that have been developed to allow public access to data and information without confidentiality being betrayed. These include: deletion of identifiers such as names, addresses or other means of identification from the data released on individuals; crude reports-releasing the year of birth rather than the specific date; profession but not the speciality within that profession; general information rather than specific; micro aggregation-that is the construction of average persons from data on individuals and the release of these data, rather than data on individuals. These techniques ensure that the notion of non-traceability is upheld (Ibid. 1992) and were therefore applied where appropriate to address the concerns raised above in regard to ensuring confidentiality of data and that of the respondents.

The ethical considerations considered in this section served as the code of conduct for the purpose of collecting data for this study. The ethics were selected owing to their appropriateness to this study in line with what Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004:72) suggest that a researcher's code of practice is validated by their own sense of rightness. This helps researchers to develop an intuitive sensitivity that would be particularly helpful to them as researchers in dealing with the unknown and the unexpected (Ibid. 2004) as there is no code of conduct that can anticipate all problems. Cohen emphasised the need to construct a set of rational principles appropriate to a study's own circumstance (Ibid. 2004) which for this study the researcher attempted to do as detailed in this section on ethical considerations adopted for this research undertaking.

4.16 Addressing and Reducing Researcher Introduced Bias

The researcher has addressed this concern through various approaches. In Chapter One Section 1.8 the researcher provides the personal drivers that influenced this study. It reveals the researchers background, as an administrator and policy developer in the Ministry of Education, Kenya and her current position as the Education Attaché, Kenya High Commission, UK. By being honest and acknowledging her position in relation to

the study in a way introduces the reader to likely bias that may arise as a result of her background and position. It also serves to address Lincoln and Guba's (1985) concern of identification and discussing some of the areas that could distort the study.

At the same time, Miles and Huberman (1994:278) claim that credibility of a study can be achieved by giving a detailed description of the research process or what they refer to as 'audit trail' for anybody wishing to trace and confirm how the study was carried out. This has been achieved in this chapter, research methodology and design, which gives a detailed account of how the findings were arrived at. The description serves several purposes. It lays bare research decisions such as sampling, construction of research instruments, their validation, pilot tests that were conducted and the results. By doing this, anybody else wanting to replicate the study would have all the details of the procedure. It also points out how far the results can be or cannot be generalised. The ethical considerations in particular, gaining consent of the participants were important in giving authenticity, so was the recording of individual interviews. This therefore demonstrates the subjectivity of the research in that the reader can determine that the findings, conclusions and recommendations were as a result of the data collected and the analysed results and there was no influence from the researcher whatsoever, it was the data speaking.

Recording the student's voice, which was used as direct quotes during presentation and discussion of data contributed to distancing the researcher's official position as what was said, is what was reported by the respondents without further interpretation therefore maintaining authenticity of what was being reported.

4.17 Researcher's Reflection of the Field Work

The field experience was found to be very enriching not only in terms of data collected but the opportunity that it gave the researcher to interact with the respondents within their study and living environments. The students were no longer statistics but became living subjects in the eyes of the researcher. Although observation was not a data collection methodology used in this study this nevertheless helped the researcher to have a better understanding of the environment Kenyan students lived and studied in.

The enthusiasm with which the study was received by Kenyan students further demonstrated the need for this study because as the students confessed to the researcher, 'it was the only time ever that anybody from Kenya spoke to them about their study experience and they actually enjoyed every moment'. 'There was somebody finally who could listen to them', a student commented during one of the sessions. The interest shown gave the researcher a further impetus to work on this research undertaking. The interaction during questionnaire administration also greatly shaped and informed the second phase of the data collection which involved speaking to students during the interviews. I considered the interaction with the students, Kenyan policy makers and staff from the international students' offices in the process of data collection a strength to this study.

The quantitative data collected through the questionnaires provided an overview of the experience of Kenyan students. Similarly, the student's voice captured through the interviews invited me into a world that was filled with unique experiences of individual respondents. For me as the researcher, it was a really exciting trip walking with the students through their experiential journeys. The qualitative and quantitative data collection method adopted was a time and energy consuming exercise which also proved to be very expensive as the researcher and the research assistants had to traverse wide geographical distances to reach the various study cites. However it was the only way that the researcher could triangulate the various data sources and collect evidence which could support the study's findings without being seen as having been influenced by the researcher's official position. The lessons learnt and experience gained not only shaped the study but also equipped me with skills for use in my professional work going forward. By being there and taking the walk I learnt so much.

4.18 Analytical Focus in the Qualitative Analysis

This study adopted a mixed method approach where both quantitative and qualitative data was collected in different phases. Creswell (2005) points out that the methodological approach used in a study is informed by the study objectives, the purpose and the situation. In this study, the main objective was to provide knowledge on the experience of Kenyan students in the UK and how their experience impacts on their

study outcomes. While the survey data provided insights into broad areas of the student experience, the qualitative data was used to provide a more in-depth understanding of their experience by speaking to the students and to also corroborate, fill in information gaps, illustrate, explain and verify areas of student's experience derived from the analysis. Manen (1990) also observes that interview data is expected to provide hermeneutics, making sense of the written text, thereby allowing respondents to corroborate their responses in their own words.

In this study, it is apparent there was a greater tendency towards highlighting the negative experiences through the collection and analysis of the qualitative data. This was not surprising because as Golafshani (2003) observes, although potent in disclosing underlying issues, in a study like this one, qualitative data has the potential of emphasising one aspect of the responses. In this research, there was a greater emphasis on the 'problematic' dimensions of the students' experience rather than the majority experience which appeared from the data to be positive. This focus reflected the researcher's initial experiences and positioning in relation to the research, coupled with the findings that most of those presenting had problems. Although the overall majority had a positive study experience, the analytics from both the study and living experience showed that only half of the respondents reported having a positive experience. In addition, it could be argued that it only takes relatively few negative experiences to distort the perception of the student experience.

A key strength of this research was that, using a mixed method approach, the positive experiences and the factors that contributed to the experiences emerged and were captured in the research. The factors, both positively and negatively influencing the student experience were not compared but they are discussed together with the student's experience where both the analysed qualitative and quantitative data is simultaneously reported. This not only provides knowledge on the students experience but relates the experience to factors that contributed to the divergent experiences. This study aimed at making recommendations to policy makers (Objective 4). Therefore factors which may have affected the students experience were emphasised but without losing the positive attributes/factors that contributed to successful study outcomes. This was deliberate in

that the negative experiences form the basis to the use of this research by policy makers as they focus on existing gaps that need to be addressed to enhance the quality of student's experience.

4.19 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the research methodology and design used in this study. Several methods were used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data in various stages. The investigation incorporated the how and why of Kenyan student experience and how it can be improved. The rationale of choice, the strength and weaknesses of the approaches and methods used have been explained in detail. The next chapter presents and discusses the findings on pre-departure experience of Kenyan students and internationalisation of higher education in Kenya and how it is conceptualised by staff dealing with international students in UK universities.

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER FIVE: PRE-DEPARTURE EXPERIENCE AND INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN KENYA

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses data on pre-departure experience of Kenyan students in the UK. The chapter also analyses how those involved in higher education management in Kenya and in international student recruitment from UK universities conceptualise internationalisation of higher education and to what extent this impacts on practice. The background to this study (Chapter One Section 1.5) identified the push factors in Kenya in favour of international education and provides the rationale (Chapter One Section 1.2) of using Kenyan students as a case study. Literature analysed, provides both theoretical and empirical evidence that is used as a basis for discussing the findings. Both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were adopted. The quantitative data was collected though use of questionnaires administered to Kenyan students in the UK while the qualitative data was collected through interviews with Kenyan students, policy makers from the Ministry of Education in Kenya and staff dealing with international students in UK universities. Policy documents on education in Kenya were analysed. Triangulation of data sources allowed for validation, clarification and filling in information gaps arising from any one data collection method used. This is explained in detail in the research methodology and design chapter four.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were calculated based on the number of participants who responded to each question and the results were used in reporting. Basing the analysis on individual questions was to get the true picture of each item in the questionnaire as opposed to when calculations are based on the total number of respondents. Cross tabulations were used to report associations. The response rate of the questionnaire was 73%. Atlas Ti which is described in detail in Chapter 4 Section 4.13.2 was used to analyse the interview data and to identify quotes used to support or fill in gaps in the quantitative data.

Specifically, this chapter presents and discusses respondent's profiles in terms of gender, age, education attainment before coming to the UK, institutions and courses that they are enrolled. The chapter also discusses what informed the choice of UK as a study destination and how study institutions were identified so as to understand better the push factors that influence the choice of UK as a study destination amongst Kenyans. Respondent's pre-departure expectations and attainment of their expectations are also discussed. The results reported in this chapter and in chapter six are based on different thematic areas reported in chapter 3 section 3.10.

5.1 The Respondents' Profiles

This section addresses objective one of this study 'to describe a sample of Kenyan student population in the UK'.

5.1.1 Respondents whose Views Informed the Findings of this Study

Three hundred questionnaires were distributed and two hundred and eighteen were received back representing a response rate of 73%. However after editing, one hundred and ninety two questionnaires representing (64%) of those received back were considered appropriate for analysis while twenty six (9%) had various errors or were incomplete and were therefore not included in the analysis. As explained in chapter 4 section 4.12.1, the study used non-probability sampling and combined different strategies such as purposive, convenience and snowball sampling during questionnaire administration.

The criteria used to determine the sample size for this study (Chapter 4 Section 4.9) was that the respondents were Kenyan students in the UK, were willing to participate, to volunteer, their geographical locations and institutions where they were enrolled. Students representing all levels of study (first year to postgraduate), different study disciplines and enrolled at different classifications of UK universities were purposively selected and interviewed (Chapter 4 Section 4.10.1). Profiles of those interviewed are attached as Appendix 7. Policy makers from the Ministry of Education in Kenya and staff dealing with international students from UK universities (Chapter 4 Section 4.10.2

and 4.10.3) were also interviewed. Table 5.1 shows study levels of the respondents who completed the questionnaire.

Table 5.1 Study Levels of Respondents who Completed the Questionnaire (N=191)

Level Enrolled	Count	%
PhD	21	11.0
Masters	75	39.3
Degree	66	34.6
Diploma	11	5.8
Foundation	2	1.0
Vocational Course	3	1.6
Other	13	6.8
Total	191	100.0

Table 5.1 shows that slightly more respondents who were pursuing master's degrees (39.3%) participated in the study compared to undergraduate students (34.6%). PhD students (11%) and students at various other levels diploma (5.8%), vocational (1.6%) and foundation (1%) participated in the study. The findings of this study were therefore informed by a representative sample drawn from across all study levels.

5.1.2 Gender of the Questionnaire Respondents

Respondents also comprised almost an equal gender representation (Table 5.2) comprising 49.7% males and 50.3% females. Therefore the findings of this study are from the perspectives of both gender.

Table 5.2: Gender of the Questionnaire Respondents (N=189)

Gender	Count	%
Male	94	49.7
Female	95	50.3
Total	189	100

The gender composition of the respondents who informed the findings of this study differs slightly from that which informed the findings of ISB (2008) survey which had more male respondents (54%) compared to female (46%) respondents. However the gender balance of the respondents reflects gender composition of Kenyan students in the UK. HESA (2008) shows that Kenyan students enrolled in UK universities comprise equal gender representation. For example, in 2007/8 the number of female students pursuing higher education in the UK was 1250 which was almost equal to the number of male students who comprised 1300. In 2006/7 the numbers of male and female students were equal while in 2005/6 there was a small marginal difference (Appendix 17).

Results show that the gender balance of Kenyan students is comparable to that of the general population of African students in the UK. For example, UKCOSA (2004) notes that approximately 40% of students from Africa studying in the UK are female. This information was considered important in designing strategies for student support as anecdotal evidence have shown that female students are likely to have different social challenges compared to male students which ultimately require different interventions.

5.1.3 The Age of the Respondents

The age profile of the respondents was analysed by banding age intervals of five year periods. This was done to allow sufficient numbers for analysis, since individual ages were widely variable. The ages of those who responded to the questionnaire ranged from 15-43 years. Many of the students who participated in the study (39.5%) were in the 21-25 age bracket followed by (26.3%) who were in the 26-32 age bracket. These findings are comparable to those by UKCOSA (2004) which explored the experience of international students in the UK. UKCOSA (2004) reported that the average age of those who participated in their study was 25. Figure 1 below presents the age details of the respondents.
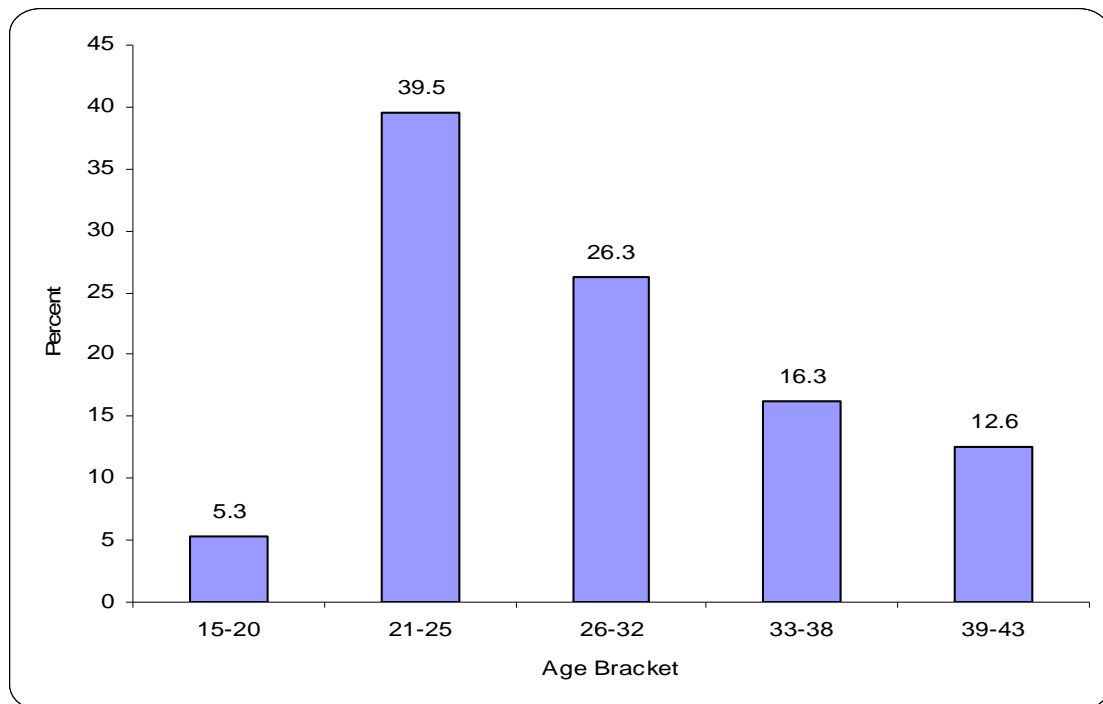
Figure 5.1 Age of the Respondents (N=190)

The figures above the bars indicate the percentages of those who constitute the various age bands. Results show that (44.8%) of the respondents were of a relatively young age between the ages of 15-25 while over half (55.2%) were mature students of between the ages of 26-43. Findings also show that there were relatively young students (5.3%) between the ages of 15-20. In Kenya, those who are not 18 years are categorised as children and therefore requiring parental guidance. These students could have enrolled immediately after completing secondary education which majority of Kenyan students complete at between the ages of 18 and 20 (Republic of Kenya 2005a).

Chapter six section 6.10 presents the social-cultural experience of Kenyan students and shows that some of the respondents were travelling abroad for the first time leaving behind supportive social structures such as households, communities, religious organisations and schools (Lewins 1990). Despite the inexperience of living outside their social groupings, the young age of some of the respondents and inadequate pre-departure and arrival support the respondents are expected to manage their new found freedom, be self dependent, settle in a foreign culture and adjust for learning (Byram and Feng 2006). It can be difficult for such students to settle for learning if they are not

adequately prepared and supported at pre-departure and on arrival to handle the responsibilities that come with living in a foreign country (Ibid. 2006). The situation is further compounded because as argued by Luzio-Lockett (1998) foreign students' are expected to squeeze in their self identities into pre-determined host cultures. Therefore international students need to be supported to manage this transition especially for those between the ages of 15-18. This study seeks to understand how the transition of Kenyan students is managed.

5.1.4 Respondents Education Attainment before Coming to the UK

In describing the profiles of Kenyans studying in the UK, their education attainment before coming to the UK was considered important. For planning purposes, there is need to understand the qualifications of those leaving the country as well as determine if students have the requisite qualifications to pursue higher education in the UK. Data analysed in Figure 5.2 shows that respondents had post secondary qualifications, diploma, first degree or master's degree before coming to the UK and were therefore well qualified to pursue higher education.
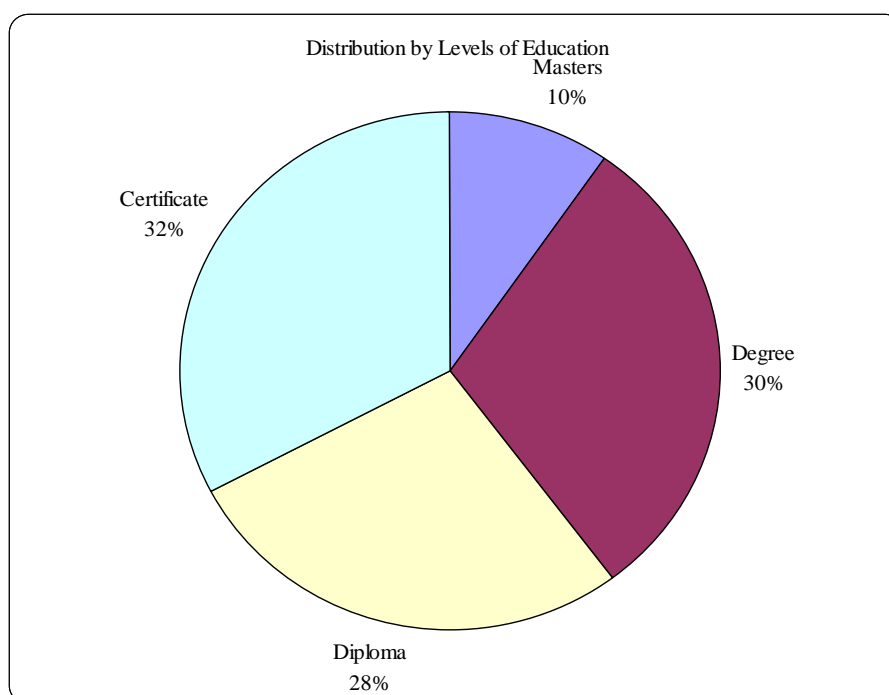
Figure 5.2 Education Attainment of Kenyan Students before Coming to the UK (N= 192)

This study found out that about a third (32%) of the respondents had a post secondary certificate followed by those with a degree (30%) and diploma holders 28% while 10% had a master's degree. Therefore, 40% of the respondents entered the UK for graduate studies and the majority (60%) for undergraduate studies. These findings therefore confirm Ayano's (2006) observation that international students coming to the UK have the necessary qualifications to pursue higher education and it is the responsibility of UK institutions to fully support them to realise their full potential as students in the UK. Vision 2030 (Republic of Kenya 2007b) observes that a highly skilled human capital is needed if Kenya is to indusUtrialise by 2030. However, with the current levels of higher education participation where only 3% of adults access higher education in Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2006a) and the many graduates leaving the country for higher education abroad, who are potential contributors to Kenya's development but might not go back even after completing their studies it will be difficult for Kenya to achieve the industrialisation targets set out in Vision 2030.

The need for a critical mass of high level skills to propel a country to the league of developed nations is further underscored by Tillak (2003) who argue that in developed countries enrolment ratios in higher education vary between 20% and can be as high as 90%. In developing countries access to higher education is still low, as is the case in Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2006a) and many other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (Juma 2003). According to Tillak (2003), among the group of high income countries there is no country with an enrolment ratio of less than 20% in higher education. Therefore, the 20% enrolment ratio in higher education is a critical threshold for a country to become economically advanced and a level to which Kenya should strive to achieve to become an industrialised nation. There is therefore the need to understand the skills not only of those in Kenya but those leaving the country if Kenya is to join the league of developed countries. This is because, with the current levels of low enrolment in higher education in Kenya to realise a critical mass of high level skills to manage the process of industrialisation, Kenya will require to utilise the skills of all those with higher education qualifications in the country and/or abroad.

5.1.5 Institutions Respondents were Enrolled

As explained in chapter one section 1.5.1 limited access to local universities in Kenya, quality of university programmes, lack of opportunities to pursue science based courses or courses of students choice have acted as push factors for those who have sought study opportunities abroad. Resultantly, an increasing number of Kenyan students have sought study opportunities in the UK. In the decision making process the choice of study destination and institution emerged as not very well informed (Chapter 5 Sections 5.2 and 5.3) for some of the respondents. The study therefore sought to understand how this impacted on choice of institutions and courses that respondents eventually enrolled. As explained in Chapter five Sections 5.1.4, Kenyan students who come to the UK are those who have attained the requirements for university entry and those enrolling for graduate studies.

Data presented in Figure 5.3 show that majority of the respondents (77.5%) were enrolled in universities and (22.5%) in colleges of further education. The levels of education were further cross-tabulated (Figure 5.3) with types of institutions where respondents were enrolled.

Course Enrolled	PhD	Masters	Undergraduate	Diploma	Foundation	Vocational course
FE College	1	7	10	9	1	3
University	20	68	56	2	1	0
Total	21	75	66	11	2	3
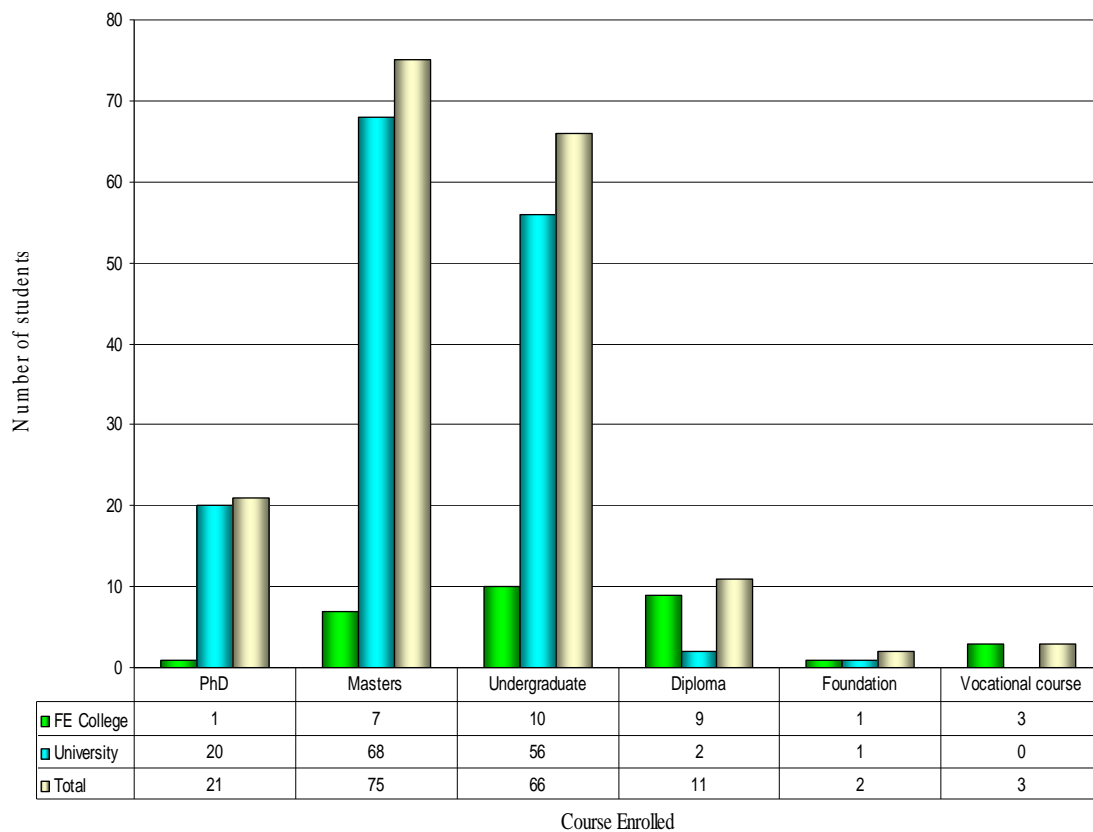
Figure 5.3 Levels of Education and Types of Institutions Respondents were Enrolled (N=191)

Results in Figure 5.3 further show that those pursuing diploma programmes were more likely to enrol at colleges of further education as opposed to those pursuing other levels of education such as undergraduates, masters or PhD majority of whom were enrolled in universities. This study sampled students enrolled in colleges of further education but not constituent colleges of universities. Results show that some respondents were happy studying in colleges of further education as they found the fees affordable, there were fewer numbers of students and colleges provided the opportunity of continuing being in school instead of dropping out.

However, some respondents were disappointed at having enrolled in colleges of further education as this was contrary to their expectation. Respondents felt that the institutional promises by universities were not realised which Rousseau (1995) refers to as breaking psychological contracts. Students are shown beautiful campuses during

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recruitment only for them to end up in low level colleges. The inability of some UK institutions to keep the institutional promises that they make to students during recruitment was also echoed by Bohm *et al.* (2004). ST 24 expressing her displeasure in enrolling in a college of further education explains that:

> *Colleges have fewer students and one lacked the good feel of being in a university. It is not unusual to be in a class of five or less than five students. The subjects that are offered are also limited, mainly arts and business courses.*

[ST 24, f, 26, Undergraduate, 3rdyear, College of Further Education, Arts]

ST 24 was disappointed because she missed being in a University environment and courses offered in colleges were limited. Similar sentiments were expressed by ST 22 when asked about her experience of being in a college:

> *She looks down…holds her shin…and utters, simply disappointing. Here I was enrolled in what to me was a backstreet college where as my dream was to join the beautiful university that I had been shown in the brochure sent to me while in Kenya.*

[ST 22, f, 24, Undergraduate, 2nd year, College of Further Education, Arts]

The respondent expectation of joining a top UK university which she was promised during recruitment was not realised as she found herself in what she refers to as a 'backstreet college'. When asked why she was not happy studying in a college she explained:

> *The problem of studying in a college was that I could not enrol for a degree course as they did not offer one. I enrolled for ABE certificate, then a diploma and will finally get a degree of another university. I feel cheated. I did not attain my aspiration and I consider myself as being unlucky having spent so much money only to end up in such an institution.*

[ST 22, f, 24, Undergraduate, 2nd year, College of Further Education, Arts]

Explaining the effect this had on her self esteem and the time it would take her to graduate because she was not properly advised she says;

> *I do not boast of my UK experience. It will take me a cool five years to get my degree. I only wish I was better advised.*

[ST 22, *f*, 24, Undergraduate, 2nd year, College of Further Education, Arts]

Similarly, ST 20 was also disappointed at having enrolled in a college of further education as he did not realise his 'dream' of enrolling at a university;

> *I am studying in a college but I am not happy. The college where I am does not have enough learning facilities compared to the university where I first enrolled when I first arrived in the UK. I definitely feel I am missing out being in a university environment which is every young person's dream and where I expected to be.*

[ST 20, *m*, 22, Undergraduate, 1st year, College of Further Education, Arts]

The words that this student uses, 'I am not happy' and 'I am missing out' further explains his dissatisfaction for not having realised his dream and aspiration to study in a UK university. The dissatisfaction and frustration that respondents felt studying in colleges of further education was further echoed by ST 22:

> *I came to study in a university not a college. Otherwise I would rather have joined a private university in Kenya. I feel cheated. The images of UK universities which we were shown during recruitment were beautiful. That is what motivated me to choose UK as a study destination. If I knew I was going to join a college, I would not have bothered. I wouldn't let my parents or friends know that I am in a college.*

[ST22, *f, 24Years, Undergraduate*, 2nd year, College of Further Education, Arts]

Reasons that emerged from data collected as to why students transferred from mainstream universities where they were initially enrolled to colleges of further education included: financial difficulties as they could not afford to continue paying tuition fees at universities; others had enrolled in wrong courses and needed to change and could not afford the cost of repeating at a university; and colleges charged low fees and were therefore affordable unlike the universities. For these reasons, the colleges were considered by the respondents as 'second chance institutions' for those who for one reason or another could not continue their studies in mainstream universities. Student 19 explained that she transferred from a university to a college to at least take

home a qualification to avoid the shame associated with failure as she had enrolled for a course that she did not have the capacity to pursue.

> *I needed to change the course. I was initially enrolled to pursue a law degree which I found very difficult and I was continuously failing or repeating modules. I had chosen to study law as I thought it was the most prestigious. Nobody had explained to me the core subjects I needed, to study law in the UK. At the college I enrolled for a general course in ABE which I could do in stages up to degree level. Although this is not what I would have wanted to do at least it saved me from the shame of going home to face parents, friends and the general community without a qualification. At least I could take something home. Being in a college has sustained my hope of making something out of my life.*

[ST 19, *f*, 22, Undergraduate, 1ˢᵗ Year, College of Further Education, Arts]

The qualitative data has provided evidence that some respondents were affected emotionally for having enrolled in a college. Some reported loss of self esteem and confidence because they felt that studying in a college denied them the opportunity to experience life in a university which they had aspired to before coming to the UK. Others felt that studying in a college was not as prestigious as being in a university as some colleges had few students, facilities and offered limited courses compared to universities. Respondents also missed the feel of being in a university environment and often hesitated telling their peers where they were enrolled as they felt ashamed confessing that they were not in a university as that signaled things had gone wrong in one's academic life. For some of the respondents therefore, their pre-departure expectations of enrolling in top UK universities were not realised and this negatively affected their academic experience. In the next section, the study analyses the study areas Kenyan students were enrolled.

5.1.6 Courses that Respondents were Pursuing

Despite the increasing number and the projected increase of Kenyan students in the UK a grey area exists in terms of study areas that they are enrolled. The push factors discussed in chapter one section 1.5.5 indicate that there exists skills gap in science and technology in Kenya and this have led to Kenyan students seeking study opportunities in the UK. The need for skills in science and technology in the Kenyan market is supported by Kaane (2006) who argue that despite a large number of graduates leaving

universities every year in Kenya many of them end up in the informal sector while there lacks skilled personnel in key science and technology based sectors. As reported in Chapter six Section 6.1 although majority of respondents (89.7%) reported high satisfaction levels with the pre-departure information received on courses the quality and relevance of information that they received was evidently not satisfactory as some enrolled in wrong courses and in courses whose skills are not in key demand areas of the Kenyan economy. Figure 6.2 summarises the study areas that the respondents were enrolled.
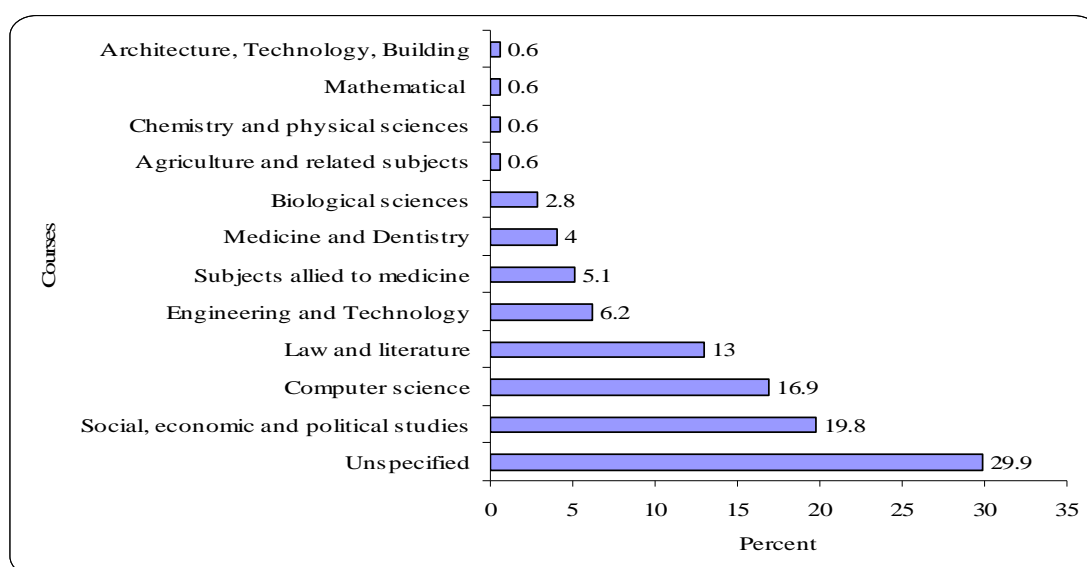
Figure 5.4 Courses Respondents Enrolled (N=177): Results are in Percentages

It is evident that the most popular subjects for Kenyan students are the humanities, that is social, economic and political studies (19.8%); law and literature (13%) and computer studies (16.9%) which are easily accessible in Kenyan universities. These are not in key skills shortage areas of science and technology that have opportunities for employment and which are required in Kenya to accelerate the attainment of goals and targets set out in Vision 2030, which is Kenya's road map to industrialisation. Results further show that less than 10% in each category were enrolled in science based courses which included: Medicine and Dentistry (4.0%), Biological Sciences (2.8%), Mathematical Sciences (0.6%), Engineering and Technology (6.2%). The enrolments were even worse in areas that require knowledge in pure sciences such as in chemistry and physical sciences where only less than 1% were enrolled. For example, only (0.6%) were enrolled for mathematics, (0.6%) in architecture, technology and building, (0.6%) in

Agriculture and related fields, 0.6% in Chemistry and Physical sciences. The qualitative data reported in chapter five section 5.2 shows that lack of opportunities to study science based courses in Kenya informed the choice of UK as a study destination. It was therefore unexpected that many of the respondents were not enrolled in science based courses.

The researcher acknowledges that there is need for different skills but also posits that there could be an argument as to why more Kenyans should be studying subjects allied to science and technology if they have the opportunity to do so for three main reasons. First, there is demand in the Kenyan market for those with such qualifications; two, there is a skills shortage in Kenya in the areas of science and technology; and three, there is a shift in Kenya's development from being agro-based to technological based (Republic of Kenya 2007b). For this to be achieved, Kenya will require more skills in science and technology.

This study did not explore why Kenyan students did not seek enrolment in science based courses even when they had the opportunity to do so and have to spend so much in terms of tuition fees to attain an art-based degree easily accessible and affordable in Kenyan universities. This could be a case where students are not properly guided or do not receive career guidance to assist them in pursuing courses which are relevant to market needs. As this was not within the remit of this study it would be useful to explore this area further by following up graduates while they are into their careers to test the reality of employment against courses pursued. This study recommends this, as one of the areas for further research.

These findings were reinforced by HESA Data (2008) which showed that majority of Kenyan students have traditionally enrolled for business and administrative courses. The subject areas that Kenyan students are enrolled compares with that of other students from African countries with high student numbers in the UK. For example, HESA data (Appendix 19) show that in 2002/03 Zimbabwe had the highest numbers of students pursuing business and administration courses, followed by Kenya and Ghana. During the same period majority of students from Nigeria were pursuing engineering and

technology courses and computer science while those from South Africa were enrolled in subjects allied to medicine followed by students from Kenya and Nigeria. However four years later, in 2007/8, there was a shift in enrolment patterns in terms of study areas that students were enrolled. For example majority of Nigerian students were no longer enrolled in science and technology courses but in business and administration oriented courses (Appendix 20). This shows that Kenyan students are not the only ones who enrol in big numbers in the humanities but also students from other African countries.

5.2 Factors that Influenced Respondents' Choice of Study Destination

Evidently, the UK is a preferred destination for Kenyans whose student numbers is the second highest amongst African students in the UK after Nigeria (HESA 2008, Ramsden 2006). The study therefore sought to understand the actual reasons why respondents choose UK as a study destination. According to Mazzarol (2001) making the right choice of a study destination is important to a student as study abroad is considered as one of the most significant and expensive initiatives that students may ever undertake. Maringe and Carter (2007) points out that there is very little written on what influences African students decision making to study abroad, yet the population of African students in UK higher education continues to rise annually. They suggest that since there is very little empirical evidence of what influences the choice of study destinations of African students, then this area of research becomes imperative (Ibid. 2007). This section discusses the reasons why Kenyan students choose UK as a study destination out of many other destinations.

There are challenges that students face when identifying a study destination (Mazzarol 2001). The process becomes more complex because most of the quality attributes in higher education cannot be perceived, felt or tested in advance (Ibid. 2001).This therefore brings challenges associated with the evaluation of a program especially to an international student who have no means of counter checking the information received (Srikatanyoo and Gnoth 2002). Table 5.3 summarises reasons given by respondents on why they choose UK as a study destination.

Table 5.3 Reasons that Informed the Choice of UK as a Study Destination (N=270)

Reasons	(Count)	(%)
Recognition of UK qualifications, head start, employment on graduation	108	40
Course not available in Kenya	45	16.7
Work and study	41	15.2
Exhibition and fairs	25	9.3
Parental decision	21	7.8
It was affordable	3	1.1
Most fashionable thing to do	6	2.2
Other reasons	21	7.8
Total	**270**	**100.0**

Results show that some respondents gave multiple answers and therefore the total number of responses (270) which is more than the actual number of questionnaires analysed. The information presented is based on percentages of reasons given for each category answered but not the percentage of the respondents who answered the questionnaire. Recognition of UK qualifications was cited by majority of students (40%) as a key factor that influenced their choice of UK as a study destination. The perception that a UK qualification provides a competitive edge in job placement and a head start while competing for job placement was found to be an important factor in the decision making process. Economic considerations were also reported by 15.2 % of the respondents who choose UK as a study destination so that they could work and study. This confirms that economic considerations are important while making the choice of study destination as argued by Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (2001).

At the same time 16.7% of the respondents indicated that their reasons for choosing UK as a study destination was because the course they wanted to take was not available or was restricted in access in Kenyan universities. This confirms the push factors discussed in chapter one section 1.5 that Kenyan students sought study opportunities abroad because the course they wanted to take was not available or was restricted in access in Kenyan universities. Confirming the unavailability of courses of individual student's choices in Kenya ST 10 had this to say:

The science based course I wanted to pursue was not available in Kenyan universities. I wanted to be a neurologist but this was not being offered at the university where I was admitted although I had passed very well. There was also no chance for me to change to another university as policies in Kenya do not allow one to do so. I therefore decided to seek for a study opportunity in the UK.

[ST 10 m, 24, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Russell group, Science]

The expectation that UK qualifications enhanced employment opportunities and gave one a head start during recruitment were further cited during the interviews as having influenced the choice of UK as a study destination. This corroborated quantitative data presented in Table 5.4 where similar factors were cited as having influenced respondents' choice of UK as a study destination. ST 3 explains,

I chose to study in the UK because a UK degree has worldwide recognition. One also stands a better chance in job placement. See, all my friends who qualified in the UK have got great jobs either in Kenya or in the UK.

[ST 3, m, 43, Russell Group, PhD, Arts]

Results further reveal that in addition to individual drivers cited in Table 5.3 respondents relied on official and unofficial sources of information during the decision making process. The official sources that influenced their choice of UK as a study destination included UK universities through advertisements in Kenyan print and electronic media. The print and electronic media were not cited in the quantitative data analysed as having influenced the choice of study destination and therefore the qualitative data provides this additional information. The official sources consulted included UK universities during fairs and exhibitions which are held in Kenya to market UK universities (9.3%) and the British Council in Kenya which supports UK universities in their recruitment activities in Kenya and acts as a source of information to prospective students (British Council 2007).

Findings further show that the internet, newspaper adverts and recruitment agencies also influenced the choice of study destination. Although newspapers were not cited as directly influencing the choice of study destination they were important sources of information as they provided leads as to where students could begin to look for

information on study destinations as narrated by Student 15. She narrates her experience while making the choice of a study destination which is marked by frustration, anxiety, and indecisiveness which results in making a wrong choice;

> *Well I saw this advert in a local newspaper advertising for an upcoming exhibition of UK universities. I had always aspired to study outside the country, but I had no idea of where to begin searching. I only used to hear that so and so had gone to study abroad. I thought all destinations offered the same opportunities. Whether I went to study in USA, UK or Australia. Most of those I knew had gone to the US. I had unsuccessfully tried to contact them for guidance.*

[ST 15, *f*, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Science]

When she was asked why it was difficult for her to get information from the internet which was used by many students to inform their choice of study destination, she explained the difficulties students in rural areas have to go through as there are no internet facilities. Many of them also leave school without computer skills that could help them in searching the different sources of information available on the internet. She explains;

> *I had gone to a school in rural Kenya and I had stayed in the rural areas all my life. There was no internet. Anyway I did not know how to use one. When I saw this advert I felt like the answer to my quest for study overseas.*

[ST 15, *f*, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Science]

Unfortunately, she confesses that even when she went to UK universities exhibition and fairs she did not know what to ask as she did not have background information on studying abroad. This was not discussed in career advice programmes offered in schools. All she had was a desire to study abroad but she did not know how to actualise her dream. Therefore she took in any information without questioning and she made a wrong choice.

> *I did not know what questions to ask when I went to the exhibition. I was simply amazed and excited. The hall was crowded with students. When my turn came I was mesmerised. It was like my dream had come true. I said yes to whatever was proposed. That's how I ended up in a course that I couldn't manage. I have had to continuously repeat modules and am making very little progress. I only wish I was better advised to help me make informed decision.*

[ST 15, *f*, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Science]

This demonstrates that information about studying abroad is not easily accessible. Although the student wanted to study abroad she was not aware of where to search for information. She had no way of counter checking the information she received. The result was that she enrolled for a wrong course and she was struggling to cope. The role of UK university exhibitions and fairs in providing information to students is also questioned. It is evidently clear that as study abroad is not openly discussed in Kenya and information is not easily accessible from government sources except those with an interest in recruiting students, students have no basic information which they could use to get the best out of the exhibitions and fairs as explained by ST 15. According to Solomon (2002) the process is further affected, because many young people do not have the patience and discipline to consider information so meticulously in their decision making and for many, chance factors play a big role in their destiny. This study supports this view and underscores the need for pre-departure information support services by sources other than those interested in student recruitment.

It further emerged that some of the respondents were not satisfied using only the internet to identify their study destination. Choosing a study destination required more than internet interaction (ST9) as students were not even sure of questions to ask or the information to look for. The same limitations were earlier expressed by ST15 while using fairs and exhibitions as sources of information. Respondents suggested that they would have preferred to speak to someone in person to clarify or confirm information they got from the internet as reported by ST 9 whose first impressions of the UK was marred with anxiety, fear and uncertainty.

> I *wanted to take a course in renewable energy. All I was sure about was that I wanted to do it the UK. I didn't know where to start. I decided to just Google the course and I got a university called Reading which I thought was pronounced as in the word "reading". That was it, I did not know of anything else except what I got from the information pack that I received from the university. When I arrived at Heathrow the situation got worse. Nobody knew of a university called 'Reading' because of the way I was pronouncing it. My confidence was shattered.*

[ST 9, *f*, 28, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

The qualitative data reinforces the quantitative data which indicated that the practical and social use of the English language was a concern to 17.9% of the respondents

during the first two months of arrival in the UK. This underscores the need for support centers in Kenya to help students in demystifying practical issues associated with living and studying in the UK.

Although agencies in Kenya who recruit on a commission basis on behalf of UK universities were not cited as having influenced the choice of UK as a study destination in the quantitative data collected, they were found to have informed students' choice of study destination during the interviews. However not all respondents were satisfied at the choice of study destination made through the agencies. Student 14 uses very strong language to express his disappointment and the feeling of hopelessness at the choice of study destination made on his behalf although he had done internet search and his decision to study in another country was based on informed choice.

> *When I was short listed for a Master's program I did a lot of internet search to identify a country and an institution that offered an appropriate course relevant to my study interest. When I presented my choice of an institution in USA where many of the professors in my university had studied my principal flatly refused and referred me to a recruitment agency. Although it was a only a college of further education in the UK, I ended up there and I believe it is such a waste of money for me to have been sponsored there when I had the opportunity to study in a top rated university as funds and qualifications were not a problem. I later learnt that the principal was running a recruitment agency and had an interest in placing students in that particular college. It left me wondering how the government can leave the students at the mercy of business people.*

[St 14, *m,* 43 Years, Masters, College of Further Education, Arts]

It was evident that the agency was more interested in placing the student in an institution where they could get a commission but not that would meet the student's education needs. In Kenya there is no code of conduct to ensure ethical recruitment of students by recruitment agencies and findings in this study supports the need for one to regulate their conduct and ensure accountability of the information they give to prospective students. Foskett and Hemsley-Brown decision making theory underscores the centrality of individual and personal concerns in influencing decision making. However without proper support as in this case, individual and personal considerations could be overtaken by economic interests. This is the reason why this study advocates a

student support structure that has no economic interest in student recruitment and placement.

Branding and reputation of UK education owing to adverts in electronic and print media in Kenya was also found to be a key factor that informed the students' choice of UK as a study destination. Bourke (2000) observes that the quality of reputation and branding of UK education is important in choosing a study destination as ST 5 explains:

> *I searched the internet as I did not know where else to start. I always knew that I wanted to study in the UK since my elder brother had also studied in the UK and he had a good job and one can see that he is comfortable.*

[ST 5, *f*, 23, undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Science]

The quantitative data presented in Table 5.4 show that the choice of UK as a study destination of 7.8% of the respondents was made on their behalf by their parents. This was corroborated by (ST21) which showed that parents also choose UK as a study destination on behalf of their children.

> *My parents made the decision for me to study in the UK because everybody had started complaining about the quality of education being offered in the local universities due to the many numbers of students being admitted as fee paying but without expansion of facilities.*

[ST 21, *m*, 23 Years, Post 1992, 2nd Year, Undergraduate, Arts]

ST6 also had the choice of UK as a study destination made by her father because he had also studied in the UK.

> *Although I really wanted to go to America, my father refused. He insisted that he can only sponsor me to study in the UK. The reason he had so much attachment with the UK education system is because he had studied at Oxford University as he later explained.*

 [ST 6, *f*, 31 Years, Post 1992, Masters, Science]

Similarly, Student 22 whose choice of UK as a study destination was made by her parents reported that this was because their friends' daughter was studying in the UK.

> *My parents were friends with another family who lived in the same estate and they went to the same church. Their daughter was studying in the UK*

and my parents therefore thought that it was good for me to also study in the UK.

[ST22, *f,* 24, Undergraduate, 2ndYear, College of Further Education, Arts]

This demonstrates how parents make uninformed decisions regarding their children's choice of study destination. There was no evidence that the parents of ST22 sought further information to help them make informed choice of UK as a study destination for their daughter. Because of the uninformed decision making the student faced serious challenges on arrival in the UK as she found out that part of the information given to her parents was not correct and she therefore arrived in the UK unprepared to handle the challenges she experienced. She complained that,

> *What was most traumatising is when I discovered that my friend had not told my parents the whole truth about studying in the UK. There were no jobs for me and even if I got one it was not going to raise enough money to pay my fees. I had to enrol in a college as the fee was manageable although my accommodation was appalling. I wish my parents had listened to me, and allowed me to go to a university in Kenya which I really wanted to.*

[ST 22, *f*, 24, 2nd Year, Undergraduate, College of Further Education, Arts]

Those in leadership positions in Kenya many of whom had studied in the UK were also seen as role models by those who chose UK as a study destination (ST13). However role models did not emerge as influencing the decision of Kenyans to study in the UK from the quantitative data collected. Therefore qualitative data as argued in chapter four has provided additional information on factors that influence the choice of UK as a study destination. ST13 explains,

> *Look at our President, he is a former alumni of London School of Economics; majority of cabinet ministers have also studied in the UK; each one of them have had their children study in the UK. There must be something there. I and my friends made a decision. Regardless of the cost, we shall work our way through and get a UK qualification. I am happy I took this decision as I am doing well in my studies. Maybe one day I will be an important person in the Kenya Government.*

[ST 13, *f,* 24, 2NDYear, Undergraduate, Russell Group, Science]

The hope of getting into leadership positions and to emulate children of the well to do studying in the UK was also an important factor in influencing the choice of study destination. As this study did not explore whether students with UK qualifications had better chances of getting employment in Kenya or getting into leadership positions this is one of the areas that this study recommends for further research to establish employment trends of Kenyans who have studied in the UK.

For others, choosing UK as a study destination was influenced by peer pressure because their friends studying abroad seemed to be doing well while in the UK based on information which their friends posted on 'face book' as ST1 explains:

> *I only knew that I wanted to study in the UK because many of my former schoolmates were studying there. What inspired me on was that every time I opened "the face book" i could see the transformation that had occurred to those who had gone abroad for studies. They looked like everything was going on well for them and they were enjoying their new-found freedom.*

[ST 1, *m*, 21, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Arts]

The words used by ST1 reveal excitement and a sense of adventure which supports the argument by Byram and Feng (2006) that studying abroad is not only driven by the desire to pursue higher education qualifications but is increasingly becoming part of adventure amongst young people. Student 1 was also influenced by the need to experience the freedom those studying abroad seemed to enjoy confirming Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (2001) theory that personal and individual considerations influence decision making. However, findings in chapter six show that some respondents could not handle their new-found-freedom and this adversely affected their study outcomes while others had negative social experiences.

Literature reviewed in this study (Srikatanyoo and Gnoth (2002) and Mazzarol 2001) have shown that reliable sources of information during the decision making process are critical as potential students have no way of authenticating information that they receive before they pay for the services as university information packages are given to students after they have accepted the offer and made subsequent committal payments. Findings of this study have shown that there are no structures in Kenya except those with an interest in student recruitment to support students with additional information or

validate the information that they receive from those involved in student recruitment. Against this background it was also evident that studying abroad amongst Kenyans is not open making it difficult for others to benefit from the experience of those who have studied abroad as explained by ST 13 who acknowledges the need to demystify studying abroad for Kenyans and to make it more open.

> *Don't you know studying abroad is a closed door affair which even your closest relatives are not supposed to know? I don't know how this can be made more open so that we can share experiences and support each other.*

[ST 13, f, 24, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Russell Group, Science]

The findings of this study have shown that sources of information both official and unofficial that were used by the respondents while choosing the study destination were limited in that some had an economic interest in student recruitment while others did not have facts on studying in the UK. The universities have an economic interest in student recruitment as there are benefits of international fees and for the recruitment agencies there is the commission paid to them based on the number of students they recruit. Although the internet and newspapers served as sources of information some of the respondents were dissatisfied owing to the fact that there was no personal contact to help them in confirming or making further enquiries about information accessed from the internet or from the newspapers. At the same time some of the parents who identified the study destination of their children had no idea about living in a foreign country as they had never travelled outside Kenya and mainly relied on what they had heard from their friends and relatives who had taken their children to the UK.

Evidently there was an information gap in supporting students' decision making process. Against this background under which the recruitment activities are conducted in Kenya and which students identify study destinations there is no regulatory framework or code of conduct that can be used to regulate or bench mark the activities of the various players. At the same time the Kenya government which could have been expected to play a moderating role in authenticating information provided to potential students was not consulted. Students expressed dissatisfaction about the lack of official information from the Kenya government about studying in the UK which denied them the opportunity to make informed choices. More importantly, there is no policy on

international education in Kenya which according to Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (2001) is important in informing decision making.

Literature reviewed in this study Davey (2005), Gomes and Murphy (2003), Mazzarol (2001) and Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) has shown that the choices of a study destination is informed by the different contexts and backgrounds that international students come from which is the same for Kenyan students. Although based on western perspectives, these studies concluded that economic, political, institution reputation, international recognition of qualification, personal interests and teaching quality were crucially important in the decision making process. Similarly, findings in this section confirm that similar factors informed the choice of UK as a study destination for Kenyan students. However, this study argues that how different factors impact on students experience is influenced by the different contexts and backgrounds that international students come from.

For example, Davey (2005) points out that EU students study in the UK because it provides them with an opportunity to learn English while Taiwanese students chose to study in the UK because they consider the international acceptability and recognition of UK higher education as a tremendous benefit for their long term investment (Ibid. 2001). This is further reinforced by Maringe and Carter (2007) who argue that, the outcome of decision making is choice and both come under the influence of a range of factors including the broad context in which the decision is made. They point out that environmental, organisational, individual influences and the inner personal factors which mark the individual's internal value systems and perceptions (Ibid. 2007) are instrumental during the decision making process. Findings of this study have identified factors within these broad areas as having influenced the choice of UK as a study destination of Kenyan students.

This study adopted Foskett and Hemsley-Brown (2001) theory on decision making which recognises the context, social-cultural, economic and policy environment as important influencers in the decision making process reinforcing what other researchers discussed in this section have argued. However, Foskett and Hemsley-Brown argue that

choice is neither rational nor irrational or random but it involves three broad elements for those making the choice. The first element is the context within which the choice is being made. This includes societal, cultural, economic and policy which help shape choices within any given context (Ibid. 2001). The second consideration brings together the range of choice influencers including schools, teachers, the media and home influence (Ibid. 2001). Finally, the third consideration involves those making the choice in terms of their self-image; perceptions held about available pathways and the estimation of personal gain associated with specific choices (Ibid. 2001). However, these factors exist in a complex dynamic process in which decision making becomes a reflexive process (Foskett and Hemsley-Brown 2001). The chooser consciously or unconsciously falls under the reflective influence of these elements to emerge with a decision or no decision at the end of the process (Ibid. 2001). As this study have established, this therefore underscores the need to have students supported in their decision making process to help them make informed choices before and during their study period.

The findings of this study were benchmarked against those of ISB (2008) to determine how Kenyans rated UK as a study destination. Data from the ISB (2008) survey shows that when Kenyan students were asked whether UK was their first choice of a study destination the majority (87%) reported that it was, while only 13% reported that it was not which further supports the findings of this study that UK is a preferred destination of Kenyan students. Those who reported that it was not were asked of other destinations they would consider as study options. The top four destinations reported included: USA (52%), Australia (35%), Canada (34%) and South Africa (26%) (ISB 2008). Findings of this study therefore show that quality of education, branding and reputation of UK institutions, completion period, study and work opportunities; recommendation by friends, adventure and parental influence informed the choice of UK as a study destination of Kenyan students.

5.3 Factors that Informed Respondents' Choice of Study Institution

Making the choice of a study institution (Bourke 2000, Turner 1998 and ISB 2008) is the next most important decision after making the choice of a study destination. The

ISB survey found out that making the choice of a study institution was more important (78%) than the study destination (22%). This study therefore sought to establish factors that informed the choice of study institutions of Kenyan students. The quantitative data analysed in this study (Figure 5.5) reveals the various sources of information that informed Kenyan students' choice of study institution.
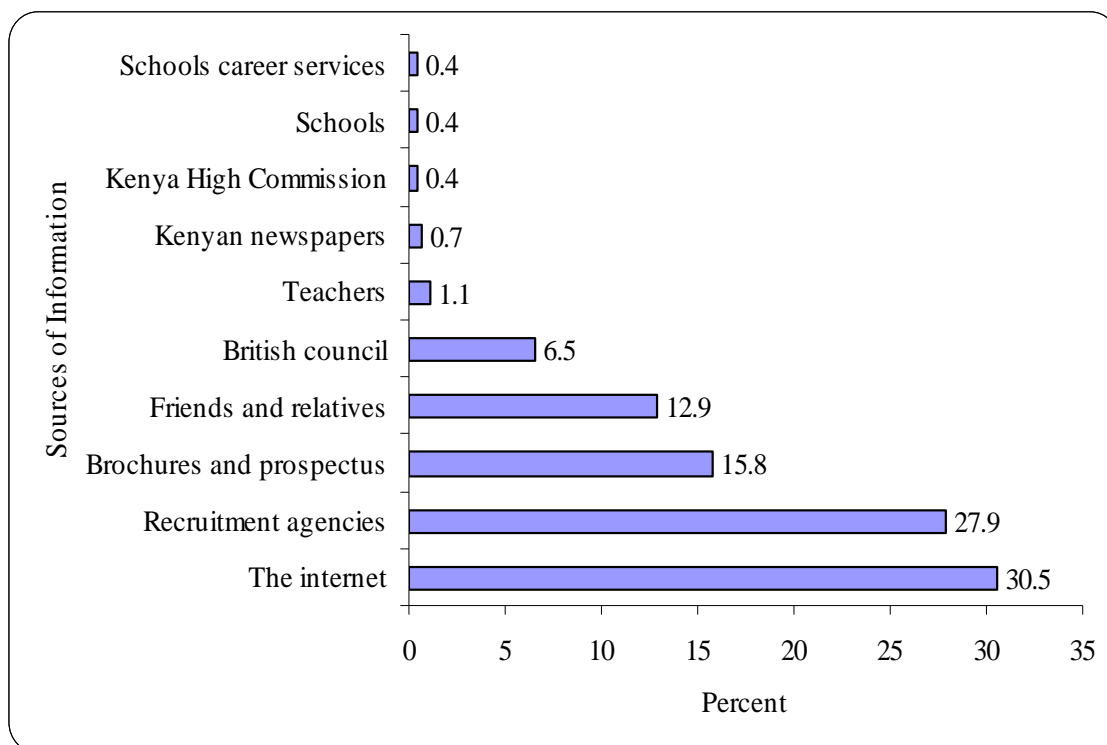
Figure 5.5 Information Sources that Informed Choice of Study Institution (N=279)

Findings show that in identifying the study institution respondents used both official and unofficial sources of information and were more likely to consult unofficial sources as compared to official sources. The official sources consulted were university brochures and prospectus (15.8 %) and the British Council (6.5%). However, findings reported in (Figure 5.5) reveal that only a few of the respondents sought information from government and its agencies such as the Kenya High Commission (0.4%), schools (0.4%), career guidance services (0.4%) and teachers (1.1%). These findings were unexpected because in Kenya there is a robust institutional structure that supports students seeking admission to local universities which begins from secondary schools

through the career guidance programmes and while making the choice of study institutions which is provided by local universities through newspapers and other government agencies. Anecdotal evidence shows that support services are available and easily accessible to students hoping to join local universities in Kenya as opposed to those who wish to study abroad.

Interestingly, the British Council which is expected to support students with information on studying in the UK was only consulted by 6.5 % of the respondents in this study and even fewer (4%) (ISB 2008). It is evident that important sources of information such as university brochures and prospectus which could have provided additional and important information on study institutions were not consulted by many of the respondents. In the ISB (2008) survey the Kenya government was reported to have been consulted by only 3% which is less than the 5% that consulted government agencies in this study (Figure 5.5). The qualitative data further reinforces the lack of a well defined system in Kenya to support students' while identifying study institutions abroad.

> *Definitely there is need for a government support system for those opting to study abroad.*

[ST 8, *m*, 41 Years, PhD, Russell Group, Arts]

Asked to explain why the government needs to get involved as studying abroad is more of an individual based initiative ST8 observes that the economic interests that drives the process in Kenya have not served all students well and Kenyan's abroad just like those in local universities in Kenya need government support as well;

> *Currently student recruitment in Kenya is a free for all. It is big business for the recruiting universities and their agents. From my experience during the time I have been in the UK as much as some Kenyan students have benefited and realised their dreams it has been disastrous for others and therefore the need for government support to those abroad as well. No one leaves such an important sector to the whims of business.*

[ST 8, *m*, 41 Years, PhD, Russell Group, Arts]

Similarly ST7 provides further evidence of lack of Government support systems in Kenya for students identifying study institutions abroad and proposes that the government should provide,

Mentoring, coaching and expert support facilities to students during and following their decision to study in the UK especially for undergraduate students.

[ST 7, *f*, 30, Undergraduate, 2ⁿᵈ Year, College of Further Education, Arts]

Student 16 complains of the lack of a co-ordinating strategy for international education in Kenya and lack of government support to those aspiring and studying abroad.

For those opting to study abroad the process is conducted almost in secrecy and no one cares especially the government which is expected to guide the students. I was lucky because my father had studied in the UK and knew how to select the best university for me. Not many of the students are that lucky.

[ST 16, *m*, 24 Years, Undergraduate, 3ʳᵈ Year, Russell Group, Arts]

From the quantitative and qualitative data reported it is evidently clear that respondents were of the view that they were not well supported to assist them in identifying quality institutions during the in country phase which could have contributed to them enrolling in institutions that they were not satisfied with or in wrong courses which they did not have the capacity for as findings in this study has shown. The quantitative data reported in Figure 5.5 further show that in the absence of official sources of information, respondents consulted unofficial sources which included the internet (30.5%), recruitment agencies (27.9%) that recruit on behalf of UK universities, friends and relatives (12.9%). Using friends and relatives as sources of information is further acknowledged by Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003) and Ivy (2001) who observes that word of mouth is an important source of information in marketing study institutions. Similarly, ISB (2008) also found out that current students were cited by 6% of Kenyan undergraduates and 8% of postgraduates as having influenced their choice of study institution and destination.

The findings of this study were compared with those of ISB (2008) which showed that respondents in this study consulted different sources of information while identifying study institutions from those reported in the ISB survey. For example, ISB (2008) showed that almost half of the respondents (45%) used prospectus and brochures to identify the study institution compared to (15.8%) in this study. Majority of the

respondents in this study (30.5%) used university websites which was the next most preferred source of information in the ISB survey. The ISB (2008) survey also confirmed that parents (37%) and friends (34%) were important sources of information while identifying study institutions. What differed significantly in the two studies was the number of students who reported using recruitment agencies. The ISB study show that only 8% of the respondents in their survey reported using recruitment agencies while this study found out that the second most used source of information while choosing the study institution were recruitment agencies (27.9%).

Although the majority of respondents in this study consulted the recruitment agencies this study did not pursue the levels of satisfaction with the services that they received. However, the ISB (2008) survey explored the satisfaction of using recruitment agencies and found out that majority of Kenyan students who used this service (66%) were very satisfied with their services and 28% were satisfied. Only 6% of the respondents were dissatisfied with the services offered by recruitment agencies. It could be assumed that the high levels of satisfaction expressed about the services offered by the recruitment agencies was because the agencies were being paid for their services as explained by 24% of students in the ISB survey. Consequently, agencies had to render the best services possible if they were to continue being in business. However it is not clear whether the level of satisfaction expressed was to do with the in-country process or with information related to their study period in the UK.

However, findings of this study generated from the qualitative data differ with that of the ISB survey in relation to satisfaction with information respondents received from recruiting agencies. Findings show that respondents were dissatisfied with information received from recruitment agencies. They explained that information which they received (ST6) was not adequate to assist students to live and study in the UK and the process that they take students through while identifying study institutions and courses is not adequate owing to lack of a criteria used to assist them make the decision of a study institution. Students only received logistical information, how to apply for a visa, but were not given information to help them in social adaptation and how to deal with practical issues to help them live and study abroad.

It was not easy identifying an institution. I saw this advert in the newspaper about a university in the UK. It was put up by a recruitment agency. When I went to the agency I found other students. We were given ten questions to answer. I scored eight out of ten and that was it. I then got an admission letter and was on my way to the UK .The rest is history.

[ST 6, *f*, 31 Years, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

Asked whether she received further information on studying and living abroad ST 6 explains;

I left Kenya without a single clue of what to expect in the UK. I had a culture shock. I was treated for depression many times as I was affected by almost everything, name it. Food, cost of living, loneliness, weather. I wish someone had told me of what to expect. I wish they even mentioned that there is a Kenyan High Commission that I could speak to when I faced challenges. Such basic information would have helped.

[ST 6, *f*, 31 Years, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

Although in this study information on identifying study institutions was not captured by levels of study, the ISB data shows that postgraduate students (22%) used the prospectus more compared to undergraduate students (13%). At the same time postgraduate students (30%) used the internet compared to only 9% undergraduates, while the alumni were also used by many postgraduate students (22%) compared to 6% of undergraduates. The undergraduate students tended to rely more on their parents (14%) and friends (11%) and staff at UK university fairs and exhibitions (8%) to identify their study institutions. What is in agreement from the two studies are the sources of information consulted. However there were differences in the two studies regarding the sources of information which were more popular to undergraduate or postgraduate students and those that were consulted more by the different levels of students. This study argues that this information is useful while designing student support programmes.

Qualitative data provided new insights that were not captured by the quantitative data. During the interviews, some of the respondents expressed the need for expert advice in selecting study institutions, the need for career guidance, supporting them with information to help them understand the different courses offered and their relevance to market needs and future careers. ST5 observes;

Lack of proper career guidance has been the undoing of students who go abroad for further studies. Many students find themselves in the west without thorough knowledge of the courses they intend to pursue. Those who make their choices based on un-informed decision making may join universities and colleges to pursue courses that do not match their capabilities and which are irrelevant which leads to frustration later on.

[ST 5, *f*, 23, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Science]

Parents were also cited as influencing the choice of study institution. However, having parents only, to make this very important choice had its own limitations in that not all of them are conversant with issues related to studying in a foreign country, fully understand the consequences of living abroad, opportunities that do or do not exist to guide their children appropriately as ST11 rightfully observes;

You see why it is so stressful for some to study abroad is because it is not the students who decide. It is the parents. But some parents have no idea of how it is to live in a foreign country, like my parents who have never traveled outside Kenya. When you are in problems they can't support you because they don't understand what you are going through. When you want to give up and go back home they discourage you not only because you are a shame to yourself but the whole village and the community. You give up and resign to fate. This is what happened to me and to many students that I know. They got frustrated as they had no parental support and eventually quit.

[ST 11, *m*, 32, Undergraduate, 2nd Year College of Further Education, Science, Dropped out]

Student 7 further explains how making uniformed choice affected her study progress;

My elder brother studied at the same University where I enrolled. It was a reputable University among the top twenty, the so called Russell group universities. I was enrolled for a foundation degree in Law. I had to transfer to a college because I could not cope with legal studies. I did not have the ability to study law and I kept on failing.

[ST 7, f, 30, Undergraduate, 2ND Year, College of Further Education, Arts]

The respondent chose her study institution only because her elder brother went to the same institution. Probing further the student confessed that she finally had to drop out as she found it difficult to cope as she had enrolled for the wrong course in an institution that admits high achievers and she felt intimidated. She later transferred to a college of

further education where she is much happier and feels supported and is pursuing the course that she likes.

Findings showed that newspapers were not cited as important sources of information during questionnaire analysis as only 0.7% reported using newspapers to identify their study institution. However, when this was followed up during the interviews it emerged that newspapers were important to students as they provided information on where students could identify study institutions such as contact details of recruitment agencies, universities or internet sources as ST4 explains;

> *I just saw the advertisement of the UK University in a Kenyan newspaper. I then followed up by seeking more information about the university from the internet. I was impressed by the visual images of the university. The grounds looked beautiful, with happy laughing mixture of students from all cultures. The pictures must have been taken during summer. Maybe these are the visual selling points of universities. You get to know nothing but feel like you know everything. The anxiety and excitement of travelling to London of all places blinds you and you do not meticulously consider the product being offered to you, which could be detrimental as happened to many of the Kenyans I know.*

[ST 4, *m*, 21, Undergraduate, 1ˢᵗ Year, Post 1994, Science]

Quality of institutions, programmes that they offer and students' satisfaction are becoming very important if universities are going to continue attracting students in destinations that they have cut a niche for themselves. Paramewaran and Glowacha (1995) explain that institutions need to develop a competitive and distinctive image if they are to continue attracting international students. Branding of UK institutions also emerged as an important factor in identifying study institutions.

> *The assumption among Kenyans is that any institution as long as it is in the UK offers quality education. We are not given the option to explore other study destinations. Australia for example is a cheaper destination for students. Students should be given information on different study options by persons who have no interest in them joining a study institution like it is currently happening in Kenya, to help students make informed choices. I was lucky as my aunt works in the UK. She helped me get into a top institution and I am happy.*

[ST 17, *m*, 24 Years, Undergraduate, 3ʳᵈ Year, Russell Group, Science]

As explained by ST17 and as anecdotal evidence reveals, branding of UK higher education also informs the choice of study institutions without considering other parameters important in identifying a study institution. For example, the 'Times ranking of UK Universities' is based on parameters which would be useful to students such as satisfaction ratings, employability of graduates, completion period and ranking of UK institutions. This information would be useful while choosing an institution.

ST13 also complained that information that she received from UK university exhibition and fairs was not adequate as it was only related to their studies but did not include practical information important to living and studying in the UK.

> *Exhibition and fairs only focus on the academic side of things. Nobody tells you anything about the social life in the UK and what to expect. You are given brochures to read, that's it. You don't even know what to ask because you have no clue of how a country outside Kenya looks like. You went to a rural school and have lived in a rural area all your life. Mind you, you did not even make the decision to study in the UK, your parents made the decision for you. What then do you ask?*

[ST 13, *f*, 24 Years, Undergraduate, Russell Group, 2ND Year, Science]

Yet another student who expressed dissatisfaction with information received from the staff at the university exhibition had this to say;

> *You need a person who is not interested in your recruitment to advise you. The universities are interested in selling their courses and will only tell you of the good side but not the down side of things. You are a potential customer. This did not only happen to me but to many students whom I have had the chance to meet since I came to the UK. They have told me that they wished someone cared enough to demystify the whole issue of studying in the UK. Maybe their decision could have been different.*

[ST 19, *f*, 22 Years, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1994, Arts]

However others were satisfied with the information that they received from the university exhibition and fairs as ST1 explains;

> *I identified the university where I am enrolled through the UK university exhibition held in Nairobi. It was the second time to visit the exhibition. Although I got a university the first time I attended I was not successful in getting a visa. I was lucky at the choice that I made. I am happy about the teaching and learning in my University.*

[ST 18, *m*, 25 Years, Undergraduate, 3ʳᵈ Year, Post 1992 Arts]

Respondents confessed that they did not know the exact questions to ask during the exhibition and fairs which would have been a good opportunity for them to get information to help them in identifying appropriate study institutions. However, as they had no background information about studying in the UK, in most cases they just accepted without questioning information given out to them by those marketing the UK universities. The numbers of people searching for information made it difficult for individual attention.

Findings in this study have shown that marketing strategies used to recruit Kenyan students have in most cases been the sole determinant when making choice of a study institution. It might have been expected that the strength of the universities in terms of courses offered, their ranking and competitiveness within the UK higher education system would have been a key consideration but this was not the case amongst the majority of the respondents. Arguably, there exists a major weakness in the current student recruitment process in Kenya. The weakness in the existing student recruitment process in Kenya is further demonstrated in the next section which reveals that over half of the respondents had set unrealistic expectations about studying in the UK, while others had no expectations or did not know what to expect which expectation theorists Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) and Furnham and Bochner (1986) critics as not ideal in achieving goals and targets.

5.4 Respondent's Expectations Prior to Coming to the UK

Against this background where many of the respondents relied on unofficial sources to inform their choice of study institution and destination the study sought to explore their pre-departure expectations, whether they were realistic and in what way they impacted on their study and living experience while in the UK. Appleton-Knapp and Krentler (2006), Furnham and Bochner (1986), Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) underscore the value of expectations in achieving set goals in that initial student expectations have been found to be strongly related to course satisfaction. Views were therefore sought on students' pre-departure expectations about studying and living in

the UK. The results are reported in Figure 5.6 and show that some students had very high expectations while others did not have any expectations.
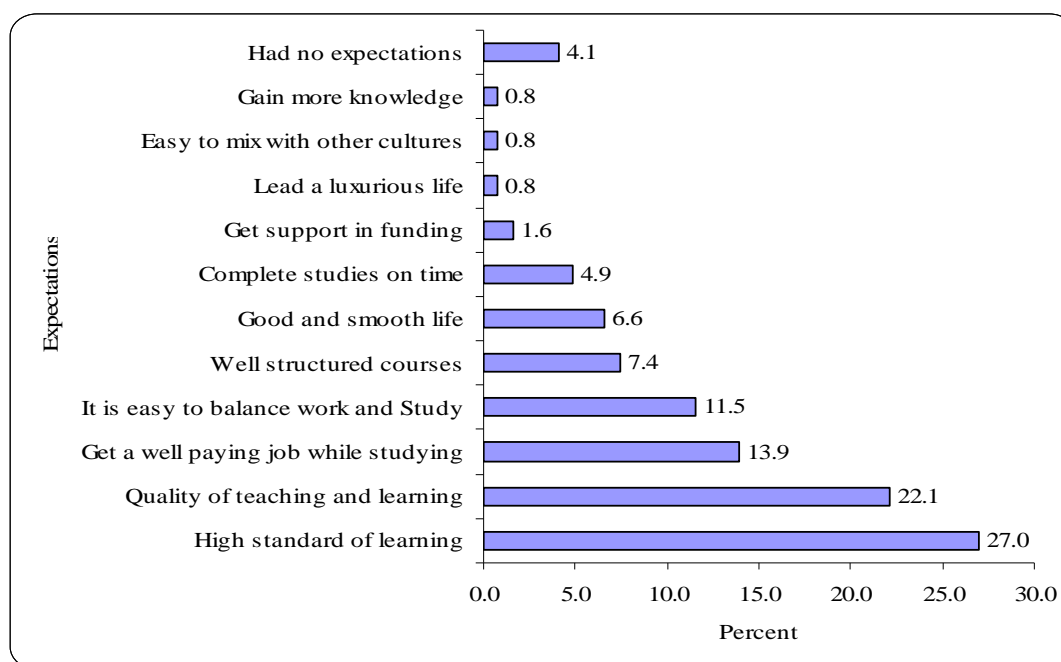
Figure 5.6 Expectations of Kenyan Students before Coming to the UK (N=131)

Results presented in Figure 5.6 are based on individual questionnaires and therefore data reported does not capture multiple responses. Findings show that the highest numbers of respondents were concerned with their academic experience as 27% expected high standards of learning, 22.1% expected quality teaching and 7.4% expected well structured courses while 4.9% expected to complete their studies on time and 0.8% to gain more knowledge. Economic gains were ranked second, as respondents expected to get a well paying job while studying (13.9%) and to balance work and study (11.5%) while 1.6% expected to get support in funding. Social adaptation was ranked third with only 6.6% of respondents expecting to lead a good and smooth life while 0.8 % expected to lead an easy and luxurious life. Social-cultural integration was reported by less than 1% who expected to mix with other cultures. Surprisingly 4.1% reported that they had no expectations while this question was not answered by sixty one respondents out of the one hundred and ninety two questionnaires analysed.

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Qualitative data (ST5) provides further evidence of lack of expectation by the respondents which could provide insights as to why there was such a high non-response rate regarding this question.

> *To be honest I really didn't know what to expect, I was just stepping into the unknown. The fact that I was going to London was enough for me. It is every young person's dream.*

[ST 5*f*, 23, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Science]

Supporting the expectancy value model by Furnham and Bochner (1986:171) discussed in Chapter 3 Section 3.2 that the higher the expectation the more likely one is to achieve their expectations ST18 who had set high expectations which were not realized but nevertheless succeeded in achieving his expectations narrates his experience;

> *My expectation was that everything in the UK would be perfect. I would live a high class life and would have the best time in the world. I would work hard pay my tuition fees and even send some money back home to help my parents pay the loan they had borrowed from the cooperative society and had charged the only piece of land we had as security. How wrong and misinformed I was? It has not been easy but at least I am lucky than most Kenyan students I have had the opportunity to meet because at least I am still on course as far as my studies are concerned.*

[ST 18, m, 25, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Arts]

However others were unable to cope with the high expectations they had set for themselves, as they did not have information on what it takes to study in the UK. Therefore, their expectations were unrealistic and they had to face the unexpected reality of living in the UK which they were not prepared for as ST2 explains;

> *I thought life would be easy in the UK and as long as I worked hard everything would be okay. But reality hit me on arrival. It was not the land of opportunities that we had been promised. One had to work harder than in Kenya to survive.*

[ST 2, f, 25 Years, Post 1992, Masters, Science]

Findings further show that on arrival in the UK half of the respondents (52.2%) did not have their expectations met whilst 47.8% reported that their expectations were met. Those who reported that their expectations were not met were asked to give reasons why they were not met which are summarised in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Reasons Respondents' did not Meet their Expectations (N=90)

Reasons	(Count)	(%)
Difficult to find jobs	21	23.3
High cost of living	14	15.6
Students only get low skilled jobs	10	11.1
Difficult to find part time work	8	8.9
Insecurity	6	6.7
Lack of relevant work experience / placement	5	5.6
Difficult for culture mix	5	5.6
Commercialization of education	4	4.4
Quality of teaching/learning low	3	3.3
Lack of family support	3	3.3
Information given by recruiting agencies	2	2.2
Information received before departure inadequate	2	2.2
Difficult to raise tuition fee	2	2.2
Courses not challenging	1	1.1
Programmes intensive and stressful	1	1.1
Not completed studies	1	1.1
Few funding opportunities	1	1.1
Course was not informative and global	1	1.1
Total Responses	**90**	**100.0**

In Section 5.2 respondents reported that one of the attractions for identifying UK as a study destination was the opportunity to work and study which rarely happens in Kenya owing to lack of employment opportunities. However, on arrival in the UK 23.3% found it difficult to get jobs and those who did could only get low skilled jobs (11.1%) while 8.9% could not even get part time work and 5% lacked relevant work experience or placement. At the same time 15.6% found the cost of living high while (2.2%) found it difficult to raise fees while 6.7% reported that insecurity was an issue. Education was too commercialised (4.4%) while less than 1% in each category reported that they found programmes intensive, stressful and some courses were not informative as they had expected. These results further reveal that for some of the respondents' their financial, academic and social expectations were not met. This study argues that these are practical issues which could have been addressed through adequate pre-departure and arrival preparation and information provision.

Both quantitative and qualitative data have revealed that there exists discordance between the reality and expectations of Kenyan students in the UK which affected their

study and living experience. This strongly echoes the argument by Oldfield and Baron (2000), Yanhong and Kaya (1998), that fulfillment of student expectations leads to satisfaction with educational services. However, this study did not explore to what extent unfulfilled expectations affected the experience of individual groups of students although in general the study found out that whereas some students had a positive experience for others it was negative. This can be taken forward in a future study in relation to expectancy models cited in this study.

5.5 Outcomes of Interviews with Kenyan Policy Makers and Staff of International Student Offices in UK Universities

This study is set within the wider context of internationalisation of higher education. Literature reviewed in this study (Chapter one Section 1.0) has demonstrated that there is an increasing demand for international education which is expected to continue growing owing to push-pull factors in source and receiving countries (Chapter one Section 1.5 and Chapter two Section 2.2). Apparently those involved in the promotion of UK universities are increasingly questioning how well the reality of studying in the UK matches the marketing strategies adopted during international student recruitment (UKCOSA 2004). Therefore, understanding the level of satisfaction with the study experience of international students becomes increasingly important to stakeholders.

In addition to data collected from Kenyan students this study also gathered information from policy makers at the Ministry of Education, Kenya and staff from international offices in UK universities through interviews. The rationale for including the interviews was to gain insights as to how well staff dealing with international students understood their different roles in the context of internationalisation of higher education. The outcomes of the interviews are included at this point because what is done or not done by either of the two groups is likely to impact on students experience either at the in-country phase or while in the UK.

5.5.1 Interviews with Education Policy Makers in Kenya

One of the key factors identified in this study which appeared to suggest that international education is a fragmented initiative in Kenya is lack of a policy on international education in Kenya to guide practice in international student recruitment. In the absence of a policy there lacks bench marks for planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of international education as well as budgeting for it. This was evident during interviews with Kenyan policy makers when asked to comment on how well international education was understood by the Ministry of Education. To ensure that policy makers who participated in this study are not identified their titles are coded as (MOES: Ministry of Education Staff). Asked about their role as policy makers in supporting students studying abroad MOES2 observed that:

> **MOES2**: *International student recruitment is not one of our functions. There has been many Kenyans studying abroad even before independence.*

Asked to provide insights as to why the Ministry was not involved, **MOES3** observed that:

> *Studying abroad for Kenyans is driven by donor countries that provide scholarships to Kenyans. However there are conditions attached to them in terms of the areas of study, the levels of enrolment, study period and level of funding. The government merely implements in terms of identifying candidates for training. The government also sponsors civil servants in specialised areas that are not available in the local universities. However these are very few scholarships as the government does not encourage overseas study due to the cost involved.*

When **MOES1** was asked how those who study abroad identify study institutions, he expressed total ignorance of the recruitment process and had this to say:

> *I am not aware as to how those who go to study abroad identify study destinations or how they select the study institutions.*

It is evident from the respondent's that Kenyan policy makers who should be providing information to students going abroad had distanced themselves from what was happening and they viewed international education as a responsibility of others except themselves, the donor community, those going out to study and as more located within a long time ongoing practice "since independence". This seems to have institutionalised the practice as the accepted code of conduct in dealing with international education. It was clear that the respondent did not view international education as one of the

departmental responsibilities and therefore was not sure of their exact roles. Government's responsibility was limited to implementing already pre-determined study conditions in terms of study destination as the scholarships were tenable in donor countries and to some extent certain study institutions. Surprisingly, MOES 4 also expressed lack of understanding about Kenyan students abroad.

> **MOES4**: *I am aware that there are many Kenyans who travel to different study destinations abroad. However we are not aware of the numbers of individual students who travel abroad as the government has no registration mechanism and have no support for students abroad.*

According to **MOES4** '*lack of government support could be the reason why the parents and the students do not come to us*'.

This further demonstrates lack of government engagement with the student recruitment process that takes place in Kenya. There seems to be a misconception of the role that the policy makers should be playing. The respondent's views are that as long as the government does not provide financial support to students studying abroad then they have nothing to do with them which is contrary to the findings of this study. Respondents expressed the need for information from the government to authenticate information which they receive from the different sources. Therefore as the findings from the interviews and questionnaire analysis have shown the Kenya government is not in charge of international education and have left it to the forces of the market place.

However data analysed from student interviews and the questionnaires show that students were emphatic that the government has a role to play in ensuring a positive study and living experience for Kenyans studying abroad just as they do for those studying at local public universities. Students viewed the government's role as providing guidance and information to help them make the right choices. This could be achieved by putting in place a regulatory framework to facilitate students abroad to gain the academic qualifications and experience merited by their investment of time and money which can best contribute to their future career success.

It is also evident from the response by **MOES1** that parents and individual students are responsible for making the arrangements of overseas study. The only government

support which currently exists is the award of limited bursaries to less than five percent of students abroad. The criteria for the awards was also not clear and those administering it confirmed that it was based more on practice than actual informed decisions and in many cases has no impact at all on the retention and completion rates of students abroad which is mainly the objective of the awards.

> *MOES 1: I am not aware of what criterion is used to determine the level of award or who should be supported. Although the bursaries should target the neediest I would be happy to see a merit based award with clear guidelines. The bursary award is based more on practice and does not reflect the changing nature of higher education. I wonder if it has any impact at all.*

The respondent questions the very practice that they are following in implementing bursary awards but in the absence of guiding policies against which its implementation can be benchmarked it is difficult to implement changes and the practice therefore continues. It was evident that there was no structure to provide information support to students preparing to study abroad within the ministry of education. MOES 5 observes that,

> *MOES 5: At the government level I am not aware of any information centre for those travelling abroad. However students are encouraged to register with our missions abroad and to get in touch with them when they get there. However I am not aware as to how students get to know of the existence of our embassies abroad and even those who are aware whether they register with them or not.*

However this is not surprising, because as this study confirmed very few students about (16%) got in touch with the Kenya High Commission, UK or even bothered to register online. Again it was not clear how or who encourages the students to register with Kenyan missions abroad or whether it is just left to chance.

Findings in section 5.2 and 5.3 show that respondents would have wanted the government to provide information support during identification of institutions and courses. Un-informed decision making led to wrong choices which affected respondents study experience. The need for professional support during the decision making process to ensure that students get into the right institutions and courses is reinforced by Abagi (2007) who points out that.

> *'The symptom of the fundamental imbalance between demand and enrolment in Kenyan universities explains the mushrooming of universities*

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and other institutions of higher learning in Kenya. Apart from foreign traditional well-established universities, a new variety of foreign institutions mainly high school colleges, technical institutes, community colleges, polytechnics, distance education centers and open universities have emerged. Such institutions are mainly based in Europe, US, Asia, Australia, and South Africa and are aggressive in marketing and popularising their academic programs. Taking advantage of communication technology, many institutions have also entered the higher education landscape by offering training programs online. The challenge facing Kenya is how to control the mushrooming of these institutions and protect the public from being cheated and exploited by foreign institutions that either do not exist or offer low quality or irrelevant academic and training programs.

Abagi, The Standard Newspaper 21st April, 2007

Echoing similar concerns to those raised by Abagi (2007) anecdotal information in Kenya reveals that the kind, type of institution and education Kenyans are exposed to when they travel abroad has been a major concern to the Kenyan public over the years. Some students have come back home with certificates that are 'fake' while others are found not suitable for the Kenyan market when they are equated.

This study found out that even when students were on full sponsorships they still found it difficult dealing with the practical aspects associated with studying abroad, identifying quality and recognised institutions (Section 5.2 and 5.3). Similarly, the social use of the English language affected respondent's social integration which strongly echoes Luzio-Lokett's (1998) argument that language is a key facilitator to such integration. Therefore, inadequate in-county support adversely affected the experience of students on arrival in the UK which could have been avoided if there were support systems in place to sensitise them on issues they were likely to encounter in a foreign country. How being unprepared or sensitised to live abroad, can affect students on arrival, was further reinforced by an article in the Standard Newspaper, January, 12th 2007, which highlighted the plight of a Kenyan student on arrival at Heathrow Airport, UK to pursue a master's degree. Her arrival experience which affected her much cherished dream of studying in the UK was shocking, demeaning and most unwelcoming. She wrote of her first impressions on arrival in the UK;

Quote removed for copyright reasons

It is clear that this student had high expectations about London which she refers to as a 'dream come true'. However, her perceptions changed on arrival at Heathrow airport as the reality about London begins to sink in. Her first impression is of people who do not care about anybody else, accent that was difficult to understand and the feeling that one is being treated like this because of their race. The harsh weather makes matters worse as students arrive in September at the onset of the cold season, which is difficult to adjust to if one is not well prepared especially coming from a tropical climate. The inclusion of this literature from newspaper review is to further demonstrate the need for the government and other stakeholders to provide information that would assist potential students to make informed decisions, set realistic expectations, prepare them to live, study and cope with practical challenges that that they are likely to experience in a foreign country.

5.5.2 Interviews with Staff from UK International Student Offices

Graham and Govindarajalu (1997) maintain that lack of a common understanding of the concept of internationalisation is likely to have hindered attempts of individual universities to internationalise. This study found out that engaging with internationalisation is a complex process, driven by a myriad of factors. As discussed in the literature review chapter two section 2.1 and as findings in section 5.5.1 and this section reveal, internationalisation of higher education is not only not understood by policy makers in Kenya but also staff from the international student offices in UK universities who are directly involved in international student recruitment and support. Therefore this study sought to establish from staff of international student offices in UK

universities as to how internationalisation is perceived in their institutions. This was achieved by conducting semi-structured interviews whose guiding questions are attached at Appendix 9.

Management staffs were interviewed as opposed to frontline staff as it was expected that they were in a better position to discuss policy issues on internationalisation in their respective universities. To ensure that the staff who participated in the interviews are not identifiable they are referred to by a code (Staff International-STI) while reporting the findings. The qualitative data discussed here below shows that internationalisation was conceptualised in different ways by those who were interviewed. When respondents were asked of their perceptions about internationalisation and the internationalisation strategy adopted by their institutions, they had this to say;

> ***STI 2:*** *Internationalisation means international student recruitment. The more the number of international students an institution recruits the more the university is considered to have internationalised.*
>
> ***ST1 4****: Internationalisation is changing the face of the institutions to provide a positive international teaching and learning experience including the curriculum. It also involves designing courses with an international dimension, linking UK institutions with overseas institutions and setting up overseas campuses of UK universities.*
>
> ***ST1 3****: Internationalisation is an administrative procedure that is concerned with students enrolling at a university in the UK, mounting adverts about our universities in brochures and the internet. In addition, recruiting a multicultural mix of students is a sign as to how well an institution has internationalised.*
>
> ***ST1 5:*** *Internationalisation embraces all services offered at the university from teaching, research and service functions at the university.*
>
> ***STI 1:*** *Internationalisation was also considered in relation to having an international office, international telephone numbers and the many numbers of international students whose faces (Black, Asian and White) were used in adverts to demonstrate the international 'face' of the university*

This demonstrates that there was no one agreed concept on internationalisation amongst the international staff interviewed. The respondents interpreted the concept in relation to internationalisation activities their universities were involved in. Their definitions bordered on international student recruitment, administrative procedures like

communication and advertisements, curriculum integration and an integrated approach that links research, teaching and all other services in a university to internationalisation. Similarly, Elkin and Devjee (2003), Patrick (1997) and Smith and Parata (1996) point out that there is no one common agreed understanding of internationalisation which has further hampered the efforts of universities to internationalise..

When the international staffs were interviewed about the support that they give to the international students that they recruit in relation to their respective institutions, they observed that:

> ***ST1 3****: There is little engagement between those involved in actual recruitment abroad and other levels of staff at the university.*

> ***STI 1****: Except student recruitment I am not involved in the other internationalisation activities that take place at the university.*

> ***ST1 5****: There is very little interaction if any between the academics, the frontline staff in international student offices and those that are involved in student recruitment in different countries. Their experience of the countries and the students they recruit would be important in informing how those who do not go to the field to recruit interact and support the students the students on arrival in the UK.*

Lack of involvement of international staff in supporting international students on arrival in the UK was evident during interviews with the students. When respondents were asked about their sources of information on arrival in the UK the study found out that respondents consulted the course tutor, academic staff, friends and family (Chapter 6 Section 6.4). The international students' office was not consulted by the students at this crucial time when they were settling down just like they did not consult the Kenya government or its agencies. The study found out that some of the strategies adopted by universities to support international students were in themselves barriers to internationalisation at the Universities as ST 3 explains.

> ***STI 3****: To help international students integrate universities hold special events meant only for international students which in the long run ended up isolating the students further. Even for accommodation some of the universities allocated international students to the same halls of residence denying them the opportunity to mix with home students.*

Findings in this section raise concern on how well managers who are expected to support international students both in Kenya and in the UK understand their roles and responsibilities in providing support to students to enable them handle challenges associated with studying and living abroad.

5.6 Conclusion

Findings in this chapter have shown that those who should be supporting students in the UK and in Kenya where the student journey begins are not very clear of their roles and responsibilities. This may have hampered the development of responsive systems to support students at the in-country phase. Inadequate support at the in-country phase contributed to some respondents making unrealistic expectations and un-informed decisions which negatively affected their study and living experience. The study found out that practical problems that students experienced could have been avoided with professional support at the pre-departure phase. There was evidently a gap in professional, impartial and empathetic student support at the in-country phase which needs to be addressed to support students as they make their study choices and to prepare them to study and live abroad. Against this pre-departure experience, further elaboration is done in the next chapter to illuminate Kenyan students' actual study and living experience during their study period in the UK.

CHAPTER SIX: THE STUDY AND LIVING EXPERIENCE OF KENYAN STUDENTS WHILE IN THE UK

6.0 Introduction

Chapter five presented the profiles of Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK and their pre-departure experience as they prepared to study and live in the UK. This chapter presents and discusses their study and living experience in the UK. Quantitative and qualitative data informed the findings reported in this chapter which seeks to highlight the Kenyan students' experience in relation to factors which were identified in Chapter 3 Section 3.10 as important to them. These were: pre-departure, social-cultural, accommodation, work and study, financial and academic experiences. In addressing these broad areas practical issues that affected their experience such as immigration, food and meeting religious are discussed. Findings in this chapter address the second objective of this study, 'to identify and evaluate the study and living experience of Kenyan students in the UK'. The different thematic areas are not presented in any order of importance but in a logical sequence to provide insights and a clear understanding of the study and living experience of Kenyan students in the UK.

6.1 Students Satisfaction with Pre-Arrival Information Received

The need for appropriate, reliable and well timed pre-arrival information to overseas students before departing from their home countries to alleviate anxieties when facing the unknown has been described as critical to how well students settle for learning (Lewins 1990:83). Lewins further explains that such information is key to understanding the British culture, UK higher education in general and the specific institution at which the student is enrolled, the institution's expectations, its academic programmes and facilities (Ibid. 1990). The study therefore sought to explore the levels of satisfaction with pre-arrival information respondents received before departure. Findings derived from the questionnaire analysis are presented in Figure 6.1.
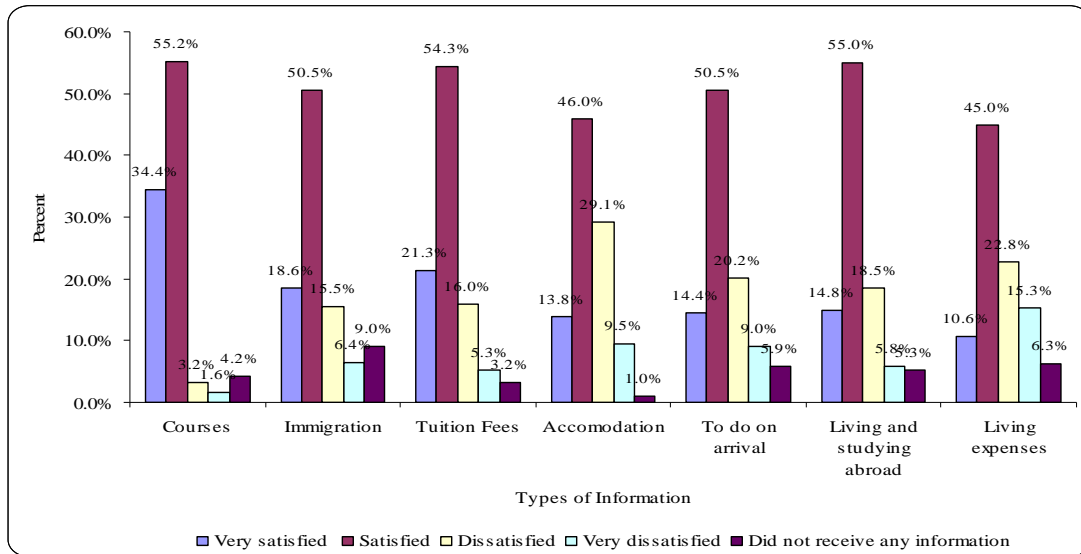
Figure 6.1 Satisfaction with Pre-Arrival Information Respondents Received (N=189)

Findings show that over 50% of the respondents expressed high satisfaction ratings on pre-arrival information received on different areas related to their study and living experience. The majority (89.6%) expressed satisfaction with information received on courses, followed by 75.6% on tuition fees and 69.8% about information on living and studying in the UK. The highest number (38.6%) was dissatisfied with information received on accommodation, followed by cost of living expenses (38.1%) and what to do on arrival (35.7%). Evidently, some of the respondents were not well prepared to handle practical challenges related to their stay in the UK as reported by (21.9%) who were dissatisfied with information received on immigration while the highest number (9%) of those who did not receive information in any one area reported was on immigration.

Detailed information on immigration is crucial to help students make realistic expectations on work and study and visa renewal during their study period which would affect their status as students in the UK if they flouted visa regulations. The need for adequate pre-departure information to international students was also highlighted by UKCOSA (2004) in a survey they conducted in the UK on experience of international students and which found out that adequate pre-departure information has an important role in helping students to manage expectations, alleviate anxiety and make informed decisions. It is therefore evident that a good number of the respondents came to the UK

without adequate pre-arrival information to help them address practical challenges they were likely to encounter in a foreign country.

Although over half of the respondents (64.9%) reported satisfaction with pre-departure information received on what to do when they first arrived in the UK 20.2% were dissatisfied with information received while 5.9% did not receive any information. The high level of satisfaction with pre-arrival information received was not unexpected as international students were likely to have received information packages from their universities telling them what to do an arrival. Those who might not have received them, prior to departure, would have received information on arrival or during induction (Lewins 1990). However, it is of concern that a quarter of the respondents were dissatisfied or did not receive any information before arrival. As UKCOSA (2004) observes and as discussed in chapter five of this study lack of such crucial information is likely to contribute to setting unrealistic expectations and goal setting and can affect how well a student settles for learning.

The qualitative data reported in this section provided a better understanding of the quality of pre-arrival information that respondents received which was not evident from the quantitative data analysed. During the interviews it emerged that although many of the respondents were satisfied with the pre-arrival information that they had received it was not informative and neither was it realistic in some cases. For example, on arrival in the UK respondents found out that it was not possible to meet the cost of education through part time work without flouting immigration laws that allow students to work for only twenty hours during term time. ST23 complains about the inaccuracy of the information that she received:

> *All I knew was that I wanted to study abroad. I had heard that all a student needed to do was to raise fifty per cent of school fees and then one would work and raise the balance of the fees. I later came to learn that this was not true and I regretted not having sought proper advice as I am at the verge of dropping out as I cannot raise fees through part time work without breaking visa rules.*

[ST 23, *f,* 28, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Science]

Information received was also not adequate to help respondents make informed choices regarding their study institutions and courses as ST 24 explains:

> *I didn't know what course or university I wanted to join. When I looked at the brochures being dished out at the UK universities exhibition many of the courses being advertised sounded different from those being offered in the local universities. The only one which was familiar to me was business administration which I selected. I was given admission forms and that was the last and only time I saw the university staff. I was then handed over to a recruitment agency who knew nothing about the courses. I later learnt they were working together with the university. They were to help me in visa application and that was the only help I got. Nobody gave me any information on studying and living in the UK.*

[ST 24, *f,* 26, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, College of Further Education, Arts]

The study found out that not all the respondents received or were satisfied with pre-arrival information related to living and studying in the UK. Against this background, the next section report findings on information that respondents sought on arrival in the UK. This provides insights on information gaps that may have existed as students arrived in the UK.

6.2 Areas Respondents Sought Information on Arrival in the UK

As discussed in section 6.1 a quarter of the respondents were dissatisfied with pre-arrival information that they had received, with some reporting that they did not receive any information on areas crucial to how well they settled in the UK. Findings in Chapter five Section 5.2 and 5.3 have shown that many of the respondents relied on unofficial sources of information with very few consulting official sources. However, the official sources consulted were those which had an interest in international student recruitment. In a review of unpublished research on experience of international students in the UK, Pelletier, Leonard, and Morley (2003) observes that practical challenges that foreign students are likely to face, which she refers to as 'the nuts and bolts of travel' such as visas, orientation, reception are rarely the primary focus of many studies conducted by students in the UK on experience of international students. They often get covered in studies by staff within the universities perhaps in part because these practical concerns may be potential barriers to recruitment (Ibid. 2003). This section therefore provides

knowledge on practical concerns to Kenyan students on arrival in the UK by examining areas that they sought information on arrival.

Table 6.1 Areas Respondents Sought Information on Arrival (N=183)

Information sought	Count	(%)
Courses	171	18.8
Information issues	93	10.2
Work placement	58	6.4
Opportunities open to students	70	7.7
Fees and cost of living	146	16.0
Accommodation	140	15.4
What to do on arrival	94	10.3
Living and studying in UK	137	15.0
Others	3	3
Total	912	100.3

Results show that although majority of the respondents (89.6%) had expressed high satisfaction levels with pre-arrival information received on courses with only 4% (Figure 6.1) reporting that they had not received any information on courses, findings show that it was one of the areas that the highest number of respondents (18.8%) sought information on arrival, while information on the cost of living and tuition fees was the next most important (16%) with accommodation (15.4%) ranked third. Information on practical issues associated with living and studying in the UK was also an area where a good number (15%) sought information while 10.3% reported seeking information on what to do on arrival. This was not surprising considering that only half of the respondents (55.6% Figure 6.1) were satisfied with information received on living expenses. It was however unexpected that 16% of the respondents would seek further information on tuition fees when the majority (75.6%) had reported (Figure 6.1) that they were satisfied with pre-departure information received on tuition fees.

Surprisingly on arrival, many of the respondents were not pre-occupied with information on work placement or on opportunities open to international students in the UK. Only 6.4% and 7.7% respectively, reported looking for information in these areas. The findings of this study on areas that respondents sought information on arrival in the UK are similar to those reported by Allen and Higgins (1994) and UKCOSA (2004)

which showed that information on course content and accommodation was the most sought by international students on arrival in the UK.

It is not unexpected that respondents sought information on courses on arrival in the UK because as discussed in chapter three section 3.3 universities face challenges in disseminating pre-arrival information and therefore students may arrive without having received such information. Although universities are expected to have sent arrival information packages to students who have been admitted and have fulfilled university entry requirements in some cases such information is not received or is delayed because of communication problems in developing countries (Lewins 1990:83). Therefore students arrive without basic information (Ibid. 1990) which is important to them as they form their first impressions of the host country and in settling down for studies.

Without adequate pre-departure and pre-arrival information the situation is worse on arrival since university officials assigned to assist students are disadvantaged as majority have scanty knowledge of the culture and needs of students they are dealing with to enable them address students concerns appropriately (Kinnel 1990). As discussed in Chapter five Section 5.6.2 staff involved in overseas student recruitment are not directly involved when international students' report to the universities although they are likely to be familiar with the backgrounds that international students come from having visited some of these countries. The problem of inadequate pre-arrival information is further compounded by the fact that information packages for overseas students are prepared without consultation with or reference to those targeted for recruitment (Lewins 1990).

Universities further experience challenges in providing information to new students and in settling them because even where induction and orientation sessions are held for overseas students not all students benefit as some arrive late after the induction and other welcoming events which take place at the beginning of the academic year have taken place (Ibid. 1990:87). As observed in chapter three appropriate advice and help on arrival is important because if first impressions are unfavourable the student's whole learning experience intends to become 'problem' based (Ayano 2006, Lewins 1990:85

and Yorke and Longden 2008). Evidently there are challenges that universities face while disseminating information to international students prior to their arrival in the UK. This coupled with the reported numbers of students who were dissatisfied with pre-departure information that they received and those who did not receive any pre-departure information on studying and living in the UK, it was appropriate for this study to find out the impact this had on respondents two months after they arrived in the UK. The results are discussed in the next section.

6.3 Areas of Concern to Students two Months after Arriving in the UK

In this section the study sought to understand how well respondents had settled by identifying those areas that were still of concern to them two months after they arrived in the UK. The researcher concurs with Lewins (1990) that the arrival experience is important to a student's continuous positive learning experience. Lewins (1990) observes that for a student to settle properly for learning, it is imperative to get the first three weeks right. Overseas students need to feel settled in every aspect of their personal lives if they are to have a chance of developing fully as true students (Lewins 1990:89). Table 6.2 below highlights areas that were of concern to students two months after they arrived in the UK.

Table 6.2 Students Concern two Months after Arrival in the UK (N=808)

Area of concern	Count	(%)
Adapting to UK cultures/customs	94	11.6
Feeling homesick/lonely/isolated	94	11.6
Finding part-time work	90	11.1
Accommodation	76	9.4
Financial problems	71	8.8
Keeping in touch with the family back home	64	7.9
Balancing study with work	61	7.5
Food	60	7.4
Meeting religious needs	50	6.2
Mixing with UK students	49	6.1
Obtaining or extending visa	38	4.7
Bringing family members to join them	27	3.3
English language - social and practical	21	2.6
English language - academic use	13	1.6
Total	808	100.0

For the purpose of reporting and highlighting the importance of the concerns reported they were grouped as follows: financial, social, academic and practical. Table 6.2 shows that social-cultural, practical and personal problems were the main concerns (in that order) two months after respondents arrived in the UK. Two months after arrival, concerns to do with social-cultural adaptation and integration were the highest ranked unlike on arrival when concerns with courses and accommodation were the highest ranked. For example, adapting to UK culture and customs was the highest ranked (11.6%), and feeling lonely, homesick and isolated (11.6%), while 7.9% were worried about keeping in touch with the family back home, 6.1% mixing with UK students and 3.3% in bringing family members to the UK.

Practical challenges such as finding part time work unlike on arrival, was cited as a concern by 11.1% who found it difficult to find part time work which may have contributed to respondents financial problems for those who expected to work and study as a way of meeting the cost of their education. It was also challenging to balance work and study (7.5 %), identifying appropriate accommodation (9.4%), and handling issues on immigration (4.7%), food (7.4%), and meeting religious needs. Surprisingly, (6.2%) had language problems owing to social and practical use of the English language. The importance of language in enhancing socialisation was highlighted by Luzio-Lockett (1998) who argues that language can act as a barrier to effective socialisation.

During the interviews social adaptation was also reported as a concern two months after respondents arrived in the UK. ST2 reported experiencing loneliness which was made worse by her accent:

> *It was terrible…the loneliness that I felt and that I continue to feel cannot be explained. It is like 'a cold lump in my heart'. The winter did not make it easy. I could not make friends easily as nobody seemed to understand what I was trying to say. There was a real accent problem. You can imagine how I felt coming from a position of authority to nothingness.*

[ST 2, *f*, 25, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

Asked how she coped, she explained that:

> *At least when I made contact with the Kenya High Commission, I felt better. At least I had people I could talk to. People who could understand why I was feeling the way I felt. I made it a habit to go to the embassy to read*

Kenyan newspapers during my free time. If it were not for the turn of events, I guess I would have abandoned my studies and fled back home.

[ST 2, *f*, 25, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

The argument in this study is that practical challenges that continued to face the students two months on arrival in the UK could have been addressed before departure through induction and information gathering as reported by ST23 who took time to familiarise herself with the transport system in the UK and this contributed to a pleasant arrival experience.

> *I arrived at Heathrow airport and as there was no one to meet me I took a train to the University which was outside London. Everybody was shocked to hear I found my way alone to the University. For me it was okay as I am very good in Geography. I had a map which I had collected from the embassy when I went to collect my visa and I had studied it at length. The university was very efficient in the registration process and I was given all the registration cards and taken to the halls of residence. Before this somebody had pointed to me where Tesco was and informed me that I could go there for anything I needed. I was hungry. That was it. I took a map and took a bus to Tesco.*

[ST 23, *f*, 28, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Science]

This section has highlighted concerns that respondents continued to experience two months after arriving in the UK. Findings show that after respondents had enrolled for courses the next most important concern was social adaptation and dealing with practical issues. The following section highlights information sources available to respondents in the UK to support and help them address challenges they might experience.

6.4 Information Sources Available to Respondents on Arrival in the UK

This study found out that at the in-country phase respondents relied on both official (although from those who had an economic interest in student recruitment) and unofficial sources (which at times was based on hearsay as some had no idea of what it takes to study in the UK) while others did not get any pre-departure information on studying and living in the UK. Similarly, on arrival in the UK the respondents consulted both official and unofficial sources of information just like they had done at the in-country level. Universities emerged as a key source of official information. The highest

number of respondents (28.1%) consulted the university and university personnel, that is, course coordinator (16.9%), personal tutor (13.1%) and lecturer (10%). Unofficial sources of information such as friends (20.7%) acted as the most important source of information outside the university as well as the family (11.1%). It would be important in future to follow up and establish areas students sought information from families and friends to determine whether it was to source for official or unofficial information. If it is established that it was to get official information more emphasis could therefore be put in place to disseminate to students available sources of official information that they can consult to ensure correctness of information that they receive.

This study also found out that the respondents mainly consulted the academic staff but surprisingly staff from international student offices at the universities was rarely consulted. The international student offices in UK universities are expected to be the first points of contact to international students when they first arrive to provide information support on where to get social and practical information outside their academic life. The Kenya High Commission in London was also not consulted by students on arrival. Inclusion of these two institutions as information sources to new incoming students would have been ideal for three reasons.

First, staffs from the students' international office are likely to have participated at the in-country student recruitment and therefore have a better understanding of the cultural contexts as well as backgrounds of the students and are therefore better placed to respond to their needs. Secondly, students are likely to get reliable information from these institutions. Thirdly, the mandate of the Kenya High Commission is to provide support to students to help them manage their transition and provide them with any other relevant information as Kenyan students in the UK.

The qualitative data showed that students were not informed of the presence of the Kenya High Commission and its mandate. ST 5 complained of having not been advised of the presence of the Kenya High Commission, UK and its role in supporting students which could have alleviated the emotional trauma that she went through on arrival in the UK and the loneliness that she felt.

I only wish someone had told me of the existence of the Kenya High Commission. That would have been my next place of call. I continued having this feeling of fear in case I got something wrong and was full of uncertainty well into the first year. So much time wasted when support was within reach but which nobody had cared to let me know before I left Kenya.

[ST 5, *f*, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Science]

The Kenya High Commission and international students' offices in UK universities would have been expected to be the first official contacts for students who had just arrived in the UK in providing information support to them but this was not the case. Like ST5 confesses she was not even aware that there was the Kenya High Commission in the UK and nobody had informed her about it. However, this study did not explore why the two institutions were not consulted by majority of the respondents, as it was not within its remit. With the inadequacy of pre-departure and arrival information, the information that respondents received on arrival was also not informative. When ST12 was asked about his arrival experience and information sources available to him on arrival he had this to say:

Students are met at the airport by fellow students who do not have anything substantive to share with you. They drop you at the university halls of residence. You meet other students who are as lost as you are and then you begin to map out your life the best way you know how. The only point for socialising tends to be the bar. It is the only place the students know. The other place is the library. That's it. You are lucky if you don't become an alcoholic. The first things that you learn about living in the UK are from the students that you meet in these places. You can be sure that the information you get depends on who is giving it. If you are unlucky to fall in the hands of bad characters you are done. This happens to both girls and boys. There are people just waiting to pounce on young new incoming students. They know they have money on them and they don't know anything except what they are told. Some girls get hooked to bad people and boys get into drugs.

[ST 12, *m*, 20, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Science]

ST12 was further asked how students can be assisted not to fall into such pitfalls and explains:

It is important for students to be given information about some of these things before they leave Kenya and on arrival in the UK as one would not expect such things in the UK.

[ST 12, *m*, 20, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Science]

Therefore, the need for information from those directly involved in international student recruitment and with background information of the contexts and cultures that international students come from was evident. The need for reliable and appropriate pre-departure and arrival information is well summarised by ST5 who explains her arrival experience which was all the more difficult as she was for the first time leaving the 'comfort zone' of the rural areas without information and sensitisation.

> *I did my four years of secondary education in a boarding secondary school. My four years comprised school work and helping at home during the school holidays. I had not even travelled to Nairobi (Kenya's capital city). I was shocked when I first saw the city on my way to the airport. The journey by plane was exciting and at the same time scaring.*

ST 5, *f*, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Science]

She continues to narrate her arrival experience which was affected by her inability to communicate although she was a highly rated student, which confirms the argument of this study on the need to sensitise international students on practical issues that are likely to affect them as international students.

> *When I arrived at Heathrow the nightmare began. People kept to themselves. I followed them and thank God I could read as I read all the signs to immigration point. Nobody could have prepared me for this. The immigration officers could not understand what I was trying to say and neither could I understand them. We could not understand each other although I was an 'A' student, a Chevening scholar at that. The accent was completely different and I felt completely embarrassed. She ponders and looks down in a pensive mood. At that point I felt completely alone and missed the warmth of my family and village.*

[ST 5, *f*, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Science]

The respondent expresses disappointment and frustration about her arrival experience as a result of her 'accent' which affected her personal confidence. This study argues that if she had been sensitised about the differences in accents owing to the multi-cultural nature of the UK, she would have been able to cope. The study further underscores the need for adequate, reliable, appropriate and timely pre-departure and arrival information if Kenyan students are to have a successful study and living experience. In the next section, the study presents findings of the respondent's satisfaction with support services offered by the universities.

6.5 General Support Services Offered to Students at UK Universities

Having established the information sources consulted by respondents before and on arrival in the UK, the study sought to determine respondent's satisfaction with university support services which this study considers important in addressing information gaps that students may have on arrival as well as in supporting them throughout their study period. The study also sought to establish whether students used these services and whether they found them useful. The support services that are examined are listed in Table 6.3 below. The areas considered were adapted from similar studies (Allen and Higgins 1994, UKCOSA 2004, Ward and Masgoret 2004) which had also investigated the usefulness of these services in supporting international students. Findings from these studies for example (Ward and Masgoret 2004) reported that students found informal support services easier to access compared to formal ones while Walker (1999) reported under use of support services provided by universities.

Table 6.3 Respondents' Perceptions about Support Services Offered at UK Universities

Service Provided	Very Useful	Useful	Not useful	Not used service	Not aware of the service
Induction and orientation (N=187)	40.6%	44.4%	7.5%	5.9%	1.6%
Study skills support classes (N=185)	28.6%	45.9%	3.2%	10.8%	11.5%
English classes (N=180)	13.3%	24.4%	6.1%	50.6%	5.6%
International students office (N=186)	27.4%	44.1%	11.3%	14.5%	2.7%
Student union (N=187)	15%	37.4%	14.4%	29.2%	3.2%
Social activities by university (N=184)	14.1%	53.3%	17.3%	12%	3.3%
Clubs, Unions, Religious Meetings (N=184)	13.6%	51.1%	8.7%	22.8%	3.8%
Medical services (188)	23.4%	40.4%	9%	18.6%	8.6%

Findings reported in Table 6.3 show that the majority of respondents found the support services offered at universities under different categories useful. However, some did not find them useful, did not use the services or were not aware that the service was available. Results show that 74.5% of those who used the study skill classes found them useful, 3.2% not useful and 10.8% had not used this service and the highest number (11.5%) reported that they were not aware that the classes were available. There was also a high satisfaction rate with the induction and orientation classes (85%) although 7.5% did not find them useful, 5.9% did not use the service and 1.6% was not aware that the induction classes were available. Although the satisfaction rating for induction was high, some of the respondents during the interviews reported that they did not attend the sessions because they had been advised by those who had attended them previously that they were not useful and the information they gave could be found in the resource materials which had been given to them.

> *I never attended the induction or orientation programs as many students kept on telling me they are not useful. They address the same issues that you find in the information pack and the students online blackboard. What I would have wanted to hear are challenges that as an international student I was likely to face and where to go for social help. I knew where to go if I needed help with my studies but not with social and practical problems.*

[ST 18, *m,* 25, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Arts]

This was further supported by ST12 who had attended the induction sessions but found out that the information they gave was not responsive to their needs as it did not take cognisance of their different cultures and backgrounds.

> *When they address you for two hours during induction, it doesn't help much because those inducting you have no idea about the different cultures in that room and the dos and don'ts that make communities what they are. For example where I come from it is a taboo for a young person to be seen in a bar drinking.*

[ST 12, *m,* 20, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Science]

The highest percentage (50.6%) of those who did not use a service offered by the universities was on the use of English language classes. This was not unexpected as English is the language of instruction and the official language in Kenya and therefore Kenyans are conversant with the use of the English language. However those who used

the classes (37.7%) found them useful while 5.6% were not aware that the classes were being offered.

International students' offices in UK universities are expected to provide welfare support to international students enrolled in their institutions. The majority of respondents (71.5%) were satisfied with the services that they offered while 11.3% reported that they did not find the international students' offices useful and (14.5%) did not use their services while 2.7% were not even aware that there was an international students' office. This study considers the international students office as the 'face of the university to international students' and any barriers that would make students not find them useful needs to be addressed. The international students office is the point at which needs of international students are addressed and it should therefore be seen to be responsive and user friendly to international students.

These findings strongly echo those reported in the earlier Section 6.4 where this study found out that on arrival respondents consulted the academic staff but not the staff at the international office. During interviews with staff from international students' offices in UK universities the staff complained that some front office staff have no knowledge of the diverse contexts, cultures and backgrounds of international students to help them in responding to their enquiries appropriately.

> *Lack of knowledge by some front office staff of the situations, environment and cultures of international students may be affecting the way they attend to students on a day to day basis as they have no idea of the diverse contexts and backgrounds of the students.*

[Staff from International Students Office 3]

Another member of staff explaining some of the perceptions about international students that hinder those assisting them from addressing their real needs had this to say:

> *During a survey conducted by her University amongst staff dealing with international students some of the staff reported that they had this misconception about international students. Because of the high fees paid by international students there is the feeling among frontline staff that international students come from rich families and this 'kind of blinds' them*

to addressing the real human needs of the students. They are also overcautious while dealing with them.

[Staff from the International Students' Office 5]

The students' union is meant to support students on areas that touch on their personal welfare and social life. It was therefore considered important to find out whether the students found the students union helpful. Only about a half of the respondents (52.4%) found the services they offered useful, while 14.4% did not find them useful, 29.2% had not used the service although they knew that it was available and 3.2% did not know there was such a service. To establish why almost a third of the respondents had not used the service although they knew that it was available, a student had this to say during interviews when asked about his perception of the students' union,

> *The union only organises expeditions and tours for students and you have to pay for them if you want to participate. If you want to discuss anything substantive with them they have no help that they can give. Those working at the union are just students like me. What is it that they know and I do not know. I also do not have the money or the time for expeditions. I need the little time I have to work as I can hardly support myself.*

[ST 21, *m*, 23, Undergraduate, 2ndYear, Post 1992, Arts]

This was supported by another student who felt that unions are more of socialising clubs and do not give help to students.

> *Students union…she chuckles… they are just chat away clubs. Nothing substantive comes out of them. I have never contacted them and neither of my friends has received any assistance from them.*

[ST 23, *f*, 28, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Science]

Findings in this study show that one of the main challenges Kenyan students experienced while in the UK was in relation to their social life. They found it difficult to socially adapt which left them feeling homesick, lonely and isolated. The study therefore sought to find out from the respondents if they found social activities organised by universities to help them in socialising useful. Organised social activities by institutions are important because as Furnham and Bochner (1986:184-85) observes when individuals leave their own country for another, they leave behind many people with whom they have a relationship. These people are for example families, friends,

colleagues at work, clergy, doctors, and neighbours (Ibid. 1986). Some of them are closer and more important to them than others. No matter what their relationship, they influence and support each other in different ways and in different degrees (Ibid. 1986). Therefore in a foreign country, in the absence of supportive social structures which students find helpful they are left feeling lonely and vulnerable.

The study found out that over half of the respondents' (67.4%) found social activities by institutions useful. However a good number (17.4%) reported that they did not find them useful, while 12% did not use the service although they knew that it existed and 3.3 % were not aware about the social activities organised by their institutions. When further asked if they found clubs, unions and religious gatherings useful which could have served as forums to bring the students together 64.7% found them useful and 8.7% did not find them useful. Interestingly, 22.8% reported that they did not make use of these facilities although they knew that they were available while 3.8% did not know there were such facilities. However, when this was followed up during the interviews it emerged that '*respondents found clubs and unions expensive to join, owing to membership fees charged*' and they needed '*any free time to work and support themselves*'. Respondents preferred '*attending religious meetings*' which they found to be more useful as they provided them with that '*much needed company and a feeling of belonging*' which they missed at the universities.

Access to medical services is considered important to students in terms of sustaining their well being. Many of the respondents (63.8%) found health services at universities useful while 9% did not find them useful. As with the many other support services a good number (18.6%) did not visit or make use of the health services in their institutions. Availability of free health care services was cited by the students as one of the benefits of studying in the UK.

Student 6 acknowledged the academic support provided by universities but lamented about the lack of social support to students. This reinforces the findings reported in section 6.4 that on arrival respondents were more likely to consult academic staff as

compared to those who are expected to handle their social and practical concerns, at the international students' offices.

> *Yes, the lecturers will take care of the academic side of things. The librarians will help you in the library. Academically you feel supported. The online communication with your lecturers keeps you fully updated. However when it comes to other aspects that reflect the totality of a student such as social life, advice on career prospects, opportunities for financial support they do not get involved at all. When you have a social problem it is terrible as you do not know what to do.*

[ST 6, f, 31, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

The need for universities to design information centers that are culturally sensitive was expressed. This study argues that, this could have been the reason why some respondents were not making use of the university support services.

> *There are personal tutors. However these are only useful when dealing with academic related problems not personal problems. How can you go telling your teacher your problems? It is not African to do so. That is not the way we are socialised. We were taught to respect the teacher and that's it.*

[ST 1, *m*, 21, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Arts]

To make university support services useful to international students a PhD student suggested,

> *Demystify the high sounding functions. Let the students appreciate the role of counseling services. For example it is not African to seek counseling in Kenya. It is perceived if you do you have a mental problem. Let students also understand the role of personal tutors. In other words, let the students know where to go for what support and let the people that the student meet on the first instance instill confidence and provide the requisite support to students when they need it. Otherwise, the student will just go away and never come back or go to seek information from those interested in exploiting them.*

[ST 8, m, 41, PHD, Russell Group, Arts]

Various prospectuses of UK universities were examined and also borrowing from the researchers' personal experience as an international student and as the education attaché for Kenya in the UK, it was evident that universities had in place a robust system to support international students. For academic support there is the student tutor support system which includes personal tutors, lecturers, supervisors, course tutors and other

academic support services. For social support there are guidance and counselling services, chaplains, debt management teams and other related services. However, findings of this study showed that about half of the respondents did not find the services useful and others did not use them although they were aware that they were available while others were not even aware that the services were available for their use. This study found out that there is need to disseminate, sensitise and educate students about the support services available at the universities before and on arrival in the UK. These findings were similar to those by Kinnel (1990:30) who found out that although universities have support services, overseas students do not seem to understand their functions fully and the questions to ask and were therefore not very useful to students as support centers which is true for many of the respondents in this study.

The study further found out that some respondents did not make use of the support services provided by the universities and those who did, some did not find them useful. Others were not even aware of the availability of the support services. This study argues that this kind of feedback is useful to institutions for them to ensure that the support services they provide to students are responsive to students' needs and they are sensitised to their use and availability. This also highlights the need for universities to regularly consult with international students to determine the appropriateness of the services they offer to them as the consumers and seek suggestions as to how the services can be improved if need be.

In the literature reviewed in chapter three of this study, it is evident that some universities conduct satisfaction surveys of international students in their institutions. Surprisingly, this study did not find evidence as to how such research is disseminated to inform practice and enrich the experience of international students not only during their study period in the UK and to relevant institutions but also during the in country preparation phase. Undoubtedly, information that is user friendly is important if international students are to trust and use support services offered by the universities. This study has recommended further exploration of support services offered by Universities to international students. The next section examines respondents' satisfaction with academic support services offered at the universities.

6.6 Satisfaction with Academic Support Services Offered at UK Universities

For students to achieve their academic goals, academic support services are important especially for some Kenyan students who come from a different education system and culture. The importance of academic support services is supported by Tan and Kek (2004) who maintain that, and which this study agrees with, that fulfillment of expectations regarding educational support services such as libraries and administration leads to a satisfying educational experience. Table 6.4 shows respondents' satisfaction with the teaching and learning services offered at institutions of learning.

Table 6.4: Respondents' Satisfaction with Academic Support Services

Service Offered	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	I do not Know
Seminars and Tutorials (N=188)	27.1%	64.4%	1.6%	4.7%	2.1%
Supervision (N=187)	29.9%	59.9%	2.1%	4.3%	3.7%
Quality of academic support (N=189)	31.7%	59.3%	2.1%	5.3%	1.6%
Course content (N=189)	32.3%	59.8%	1.1%	5.8%	1.1%
Course relevance and future career (N=190)	43.2%	49.5%	1.1%	4.2%	2.1%
Library (N=190)	43.7%	48.4%	1.1%	6.3%	0.5%
Computer facilities (N=190)	51.1%	43.2%	3.2%	2.1%	0.5%
Classroom, lecture halls, Laboratories (N=190)	42.1%	49.5%	3.2%	3.7%	1.6%

A high level of satisfaction with academic support offered was revealed. The majority of respondents (91.5%) were satisfied with the quality of seminars and tutorials while only 6.3% were dissatisfied and 2.1% were undecided. They also expressed high levels of satisfaction (89.8%) with supervision with only 6.4% saying that they were dissatisfied and 3.7% were undecided. As results from each individual student contributes to a better understanding of a situation it would have been important to

explore further why some respondents were dissatisfied while others did not comment. However, this was one of the limitations of this study as this was not pursued owing to resource constraints.

The study also found out that there were high levels of satisfaction (91%) with the quality of academic support and only (7.4%) were dissatisfied and 1.6 % undecided. Similarly while the majority (92.1%) was satisfied with the course content 6.9% were not and 1.1% was undecided. At the same time, the majority (92.7%) were satisfied that the courses they were pursuing were relevant to their future careers while only 5.3% reported that they were not and 2.1% were undecided. This was an interesting finding because as discussed in Chapter one, Section 1.5.4 graduates un-employability in Kenya is a push factor for study abroad. Section 1.5.4 has argued that there is an oversupply of graduates with art based qualifications amongst university graduates in Kenya and a lot of them cannot be absorbed in the job market while as there is a shortage of manpower in areas related to science and technology (Kaane 2006). The high satisfaction ratings might not reflect the reality on the ground in terms of acquisition of demand driven skills for those studying abroad as this study found out (Chapter 5 Section 5.1.6) and as HESA (2008) shows that majority of Kenyan students in the UK are enrolled in humanity based courses (Appendix 16).

Respondents also expressed high satisfaction with the provision of teaching and learning facilities. Majority were satisfied with provision of libraries (92.1%), computers (94.3%), classrooms, laboratories and lecture halls (91.6%) with only less than 10% in each category expressing dissatisfaction and less than 2% being undecided. The high satisfaction levels with teaching and learning facilities was not unexpected as chapter one section 1.6.3 observes that teaching and learning facilities are underprovided in many Kenyan universities owing to expansion of student numbers and the high cost of delivering science and technology courses. This has affected the quality of some of the courses being offered owing to congested lecture halls, high lecturer student ratio and lack of laboratories (Republic of Kenya 2006a). The need to study in a well provided learning environment was reported in Chapter five Section 5.2 as influencing the choice of UK as a study destination. This section shows that

expectations for the majority of respondents were met as they had a quality academic experience unlike in other areas such as social cultural adaptation and integration.

Although the majority expressed high levels of satisfaction with teaching, learning and with support facilities provided by the universities findings show that some respondents experienced challenges related to teaching and learning. For example, some respondents were not happy with the pedagogical approaches adopted by the universities which were in total contrast to the education systems the students were used to and resultantly found learning stressful. Respondents confessed that, as a result, they found it difficult to adapt to the UK system of education which is different to the Kenyan education system. The respondents suggested that UK universities should devise ways to prepare students to adjust to different styles of teaching and learning starting from the in-country phase. Therefore respondents demonstrated high satisfaction ratings with academic support services except for the few who were dissatisfied or did not comment. Against a background of the high satisfaction the study sought to explore if this translated into a positive academic experience for the respondents, which is discussed in the next section.

6.7 Respondents' Academic Experience

This section examines the general satisfaction of the respondents with their academic experience.

6.7.1 Respondent's Study Completion Period

One of the reasons why respondents chose UK as a study destination was because they could complete their studies on time (Chapter five Section 5.2) as students in Kenyan universities take long to complete their studies owing to frequent university closures (Sifuna 1990) and the admission policies for local universities discussed in Chapter one Section 1.5.1. However, contrary to expectation findings in this study show that this phenomenon of students taking longer to complete their studies also affects Kenyan students in the UK as some take longer than anticipated to complete their study program. Results presented in Figure 6.2 show that some of the respondents took longer to complete their studies than anticipated.

Figure 6.2 Time that Respondents took to Complete their Study Programmes (N=185)

Findings in Figure 6.2 show that the study programmes that the respondents were enrolled in would take the following years to complete; 40.6%:1-2 years; 52.1%: 2.1-4 years and 3.2%:4.1-6 years. This study considered the existing UK policy on international students that they should be in full time education and that degree programmes in the UK takes 3-4 years for undergraduate studies including the foundation year that Kenyan students are expected to take as a requirement by some UK universities since Kenyan students do not take A levels; 1 year for a master's program; and 3-6 years for PhD studies. However findings in Figure 6.3 reveal that some respondents who were supposed to have completed their studies when this questionnaire was administered (2007) were still pursuing their studies eight years since they first enrolled. The length of time that respondents had taken in school was derived by cross tabulating the year that the respondent first enrolled and the year they were enrolled in 2007 when they completed the questionnaire.
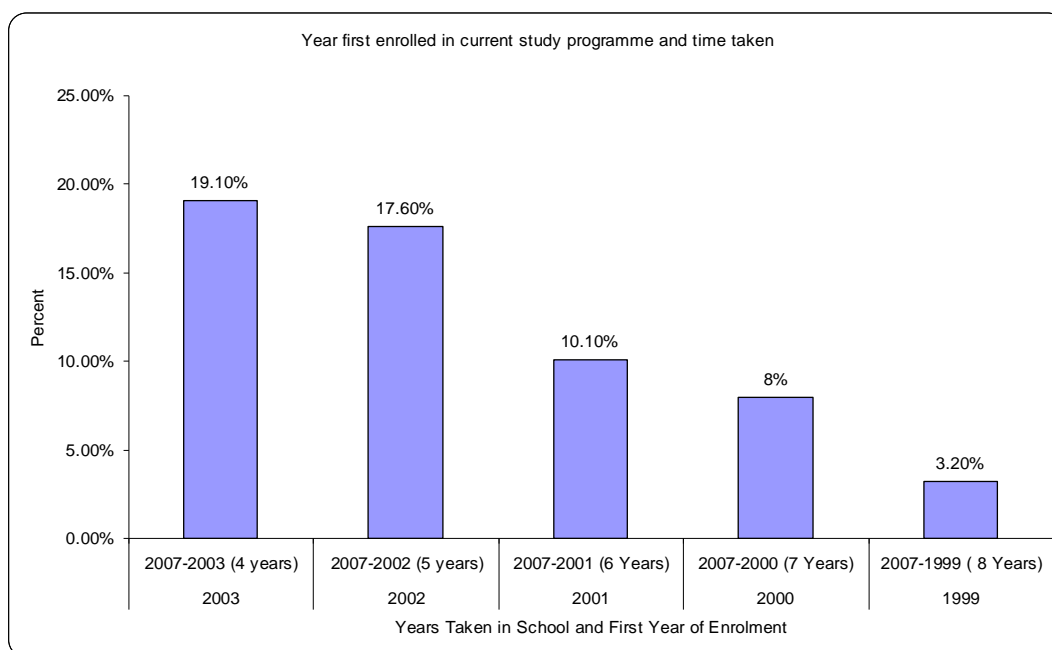
Figure 6.3: Year when Respondents First Enrolled in the UK (N=188)

Findings show that at whatever level, students who had first enrolled between 1999 to 2003 and were still in school at the time of collecting data for this study (2007) had taken more than the normal study period to complete their studies unless they were enrolled for a PhD which also has a cut off period in most universities of 6 years. Considering that international students are expected to be in full time education then 17.6% of those who had enrolled in 2002 had been in school for 5 years when they should have completed whatever level of study while 10.10% who had enrolled in 2001 had taken six years, 8% of those who had enrolled in 2000 had taken 7 years and 3.2% of those who had enrolled in 1999 had taken 8 years. Although it could be argued that the 19.1% who enrolled in 2003 and had been in school for 4 years might have enrolled for a PhD this could not have been the case since at the time of collecting data for this study, the students study profiles show that there were only 11% of Kenyan students pursuing PhD studies in the UK.

There are obvious implications for students who take longer than the normal period to complete their studies. There is high wastage owing to additional time spent in attaining a degree which translates to additional costs, opportunity cost, loss of personal confidence and earnings. For the institutions, there is the risk of losing their established

markets owing to loss of reputation. These findings are reinforced by those in chapter seven of this study which reveals that some respondent's completion period was affected as they had to extend their studies, repeated academic years while others dropped out without completing. HESA continuation marker (Appendix 23) also shows that the study progress and outcome for Kenyan students was affected. This study therefore sought to establish the reasons why some of the respondents did not complete their studies on time although they had the requisite qualifications when they entered the UK (Chapter five Section 5.1.4) to pursue their study programmes. The next section presents the findings.

6.7.2 Reasons why Respondents took long to Complete their Studies

When respondents were asked if they expected to complete their studies on time the majority (72.5%) were positive that they would while 27.5% said they would not. Those who reported that they would not complete their studies on time were asked to give reasons why they would not. Surprisingly the majority (83.9%) did not answer this question. It was assumed that this question was sensitive to them or they were not willing to disclose the reasons why they would not complete their studies on time.

Table 6.5 Reasons Why Respondents did not Complete their Studies on Time

Financial setback	29%
Taken a year out	12.9%
Psychological Problems	9.7%
High cost of tuition fees	7%
Change of lifestyle	7%
Cost of living expenses	5.9%
Lack of jobs on completion	4.3%
High expectations from family back home	2.7 %
Could not manage time	2.1%
Lack of cooperation among Kenyan students	2.1%
Wrong choice of course	0.5%

Financial problems emerged as one of the key factors that made almost half (41.9%) of the respondents not to complete their studies on time. For example, 29% had financial setbacks, 7% had problems with the high cost of tuition fees whereas 5.9% were affected by the cost of living expenses. This was unexpected because as findings in

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Chapter 6 Section 6.1 reveal pre-departure information received on tuition fees and living expenses was reported to have been satisfactory. However, as reported in the next section on financial experience the reality was that on arrival in the UK respondents faced financial hardships and the information they had received was limited in that they were not informed of unexpected factors such as exchange rate fluctuations, cost of living expenses, annual increments likely to affect the cost of their education.

The qualitative data also corroborated results from the quantitative data that financial challenges adversely affected student's completion period. In the face of financial difficulties the situation gets worse as those affected try to cope and like ST18 explains one keeps on getting deeper into financial problems:

> *I came to the UK in 2004 and immediately enrolled at a university for an undergraduate degree in computer science. My degree program was supposed to take 3 years but I have had to extend as I cannot raise the expected fees as well as finance my living expenses. I am always being locked out of the university system and I am expected to pay interests on arrears which put me deeper into debts. This really affects my study progress and it will now take me about 5 years to complete if I am lucky. I feel so bad and I no longer call home as I don't want to be asked about my study progress.*

[ST 18, *m,* 25 Years, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Arts]

ST18 was interrogated further to find out the reason why he was experiencing financial difficulties when he knew how much it would cost him to pursue an undergraduate degree before departure.

> *I was being sponsored by a Non Governmental Organisation but they stopped my scholarship abruptly and I was forced to leave the university. My parents could not afford to support me and my siblings. I had to study and work at the same time to try and support myself. This was not easy as i thought. I am in and out of school many times which affects my study progress.*

[ST 18, *m,* 25 Years, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Arts]

Others (12.9%) did not complete their studies on time as they had taken a year out and found it difficult to go back to school after the break. This was supported by ST 21 who had this to say during the interviews:

I was not aware of any additional costs I was likely to encounter as an international student and nobody had prepared me for it. The un-anticipated costs made it very difficult for me and my parents to finance my education. I had to take a year out to try and work and meet the additional expenses or drop out altogether.

[ST 21, *m*, 23, Undergraduate, 2ndYear, Post 1992, Arts]

It would be important to provide support to such students to help them in re-integrating after their academic break. Student 18 reported that he took one year out as he encountered unanticipated financial difficulties due to withdrawal of his sponsorship. However, when he resumed he found it difficult to cope and kept on failing his modules as he had to work more hours to bridge the financial gap which ultimately affected his study progress.

Yes, I needed to work more hours to at least pay my living expenses which were more of a concern at the time than the tuition fees. This have already affected my studies and am so worried that my immigration status will also be affected as I am working more than the twenty hours students are entitled to work. I keep on worrying all the time as nothing seems to be going on well for me.

[ST 18, *m,* 25 Years, Undergraduate, 2ndYear, Post 1992, Arts]

Social and personal problems also affected respondent's completion period as 9.7% experienced psychological problems and 7% were affected by change of lifestyle and they found it difficult handling their new found freedom. This was not un-expected as findings in Chapter five Section 5.2 shows that respondents chose to study in the UK as part of adventure. Undeniably, this might have affected how well such students settled for learning unless well supported. Although findings have shown that universities in the UK have a robust student support system, this study found out that some of the respondents did not find the support services useful, while others did not consult them even if they were aware of their availability while others were not aware that these services were available. At the same time, findings in this chapter have shown that not all the respondents received pre-departure information. Evidently, some of the respondents were not well equipped to handle challenges that they encountered and support services available were not well received by all the respondents which ultimately affected their study completion.

Inability to secure jobs on completion was also cited by 4.3% of the respondents as having affected their completion period. When this was followed up during the interviews a respondent reported that, '*he opted to stay in school longer so that he could work part time as it was difficult to get permanent work after graduation*'. Other factors that affected the completion period of less than 3% of the respondents were: high expectations from family back home (2.7%), time management (2.1%), lack of cooperation (2.1%) amongst Kenyan students and wrong choice of courses (0.5%). Interestingly, the reasons students gave for not completing their studies on time were different from those that they gave for dropping out. The only similarity was financial difficulty (43%) which was singled out as the most important factor for those who dropped out. Immigration issues were also not cited as affecting the completion period although it was the next highest ranked which caused (12.1%) of the respondents to drop out.

Reading through the list of factors reported in this section which affected respondents' completion period, drawn from both the qualitative and quantitative data analysed for this study, it is evident that these issues, except financial difficulties, would have been addressed through guidance and counseling. They could also have been detected early enough through guidance and counseling and through professional support students could have been supported to cope. This then raises the question as to whether international students are aware of counseling services at universities or as already reported in other areas whether they did not find them useful or could students not be completing their studies on time owing to the undefined social networks that they found themselves in.

The other question that needs to be addressed is how institutions identify and support such students before they drop out, whether they are aware of the challenges that such students face during their study period or universities become aware of such cases when students drop out or when they take too long to complete their studies. This study argues that with a responsive student support system and timely intervention situations such as this could be avoided. The responsibility of universities in supporting students achieve their academic goals is well summarised by Yorke and Longden (2008:50) who argue

that 'the challenge for institutions is to find ways of optimising the chances of individual student's success' which was not evident in the case of the many Kenyan students who did not complete their studies on time or who dropped out before completing.

6.7.3 Respondents' Satisfaction and Advantages of Studying in the UK

UK is the most expensive destination for Kenyans studying abroad compared to other international destinations owing to the exchange rate of the Kenya shilling to the British pound. Therefore paying for education services in the UK for Kenyan students is a most expensive venture as it costs a minimum of twenty thousand pounds for one academic year at any one level (British Council 2007). Ayano (2006) who conducted a study on experience of Japanese students in the UK points out that many international students come to the UK with the sole purpose of studying and achieving their academic goals and that they are neither selected elite nor representatives of their home countries, but are fee paying customers who expect positive learning outcomes and their satisfaction with their study and living experience therefore becomes important.

Findings show that about half of the respondents (57.3%) were satisfied studying and living in the UK while 23.2% were not and 19.5% did not answer this question. As suggested by Kinnel (1990:46) and Ayano (2006) which this study supports overseas students have a pressing need above all else to return home with the inner satisfaction of having been students in the UK and the outward measure of successful academic achievement. The expectation is the same for every Kenyan student. These findings were reinforced by those in other surveys on experience of international students (UKCOSA 2004 and HEPI 2006) which also found out that while international students are broadly satisfied with their study experience significant numbers of them (53% in the UKCOSA survey and 30% in the HEPI survey) did not regard the experience in the UK as value for money.

This study sought to understand from the respondents' perspective the advantages of studying in the UK despite the high costs associated with it. Table 6.6 has the details.

Table 6.6 Respondents' Perceptions of Advantages of Studying in the UK

Quality of education	20%
Good teaching and learning facilities	16.8%
Excellent technological advancement	12.7%
Opportunity to work and study	10.9%
International exposure	10.9%
Qualifications internationally recognised	9.5%
Multicultural interaction	7.3%
Better pay prospects	7.3%

Results in Table 6.6 show that there are various advantages of studying in the UK with the quality of teaching and learning being the highest ranked. These were: quality education (20%), good teaching and learning facilities (16.8%), excellent technology in teaching and learning (12.7%), attaining global qualifications (9.5%) and the opportunity for international exposure (10.9%). Economic considerations such as the opportunity to work and study (10.9%) and better pay prospects (7.3%) was the second highest while social integration such as the opportunity to mix with other cultures (7.3%) was ranked third. Less than 3% reported that one completed studies on time and studying in the UK enhanced job opportunities on graduation.

Findings from the qualitative data further reinforced results derived from the quantitative data on advantages of studying in the UK. These included availability of modern journals, technology to support learning, the international exposure, opportunity to mix with students from other nationalities, becoming independent and responsible as ST 18 explains,

> *One can access journals and modern technologies, which broadens your thinking. You also meet many international students. You make contacts and learn how to live with people of different nationalities. Studying here gives you an opportunity to work. This develops your maturity level and yes, you appreciate that it is not easy to earn money. You learn to organise your life. This is a skill that will no doubt help me.*

[ST 18, *m*, 25 Years, Undergraduate, 3ʳᵈ Year, Post 1992, Arts]

This was further reinforced by ST6 who was happy at having studied at a UK University:

The academic experience is definitely good. I like the course that I am doing as it is relevant to market needs in Kenya. The library facilities are also excellent with journals, periodicals and any text book that you may need. Here you can only fail because you are not focused. The technology for learning such as computer facilities and the internet are also excellent. The learning facilities are also available and there are all sorts of support programs for international students.

[ST 6, f, 31, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

When asked about some of the challenges that affected students study progress she explained:

There are many distractions because for one you have your money and two you have all the freedom that you need and nobody seems to care about what you do as long as you do not break the law. Where the universities do not do very well is in giving social support to students. Maybe it is because universities do not understand the different cultures and backgrounds of international students.

[ST 6, f, 31, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

ST 6 acknowledges that availability of teaching and learning support facilities are some of the attractions associated with studying in a UK university. However like many others, she complains about the lack of social support in the face of distractions that respondents are likely to encounter living in a developed country. University social support programs were also reported as not responsive to the cultural diversity therefore treating all international students the same, requiring similar support and intervention.

ST2 supporting the favorable learning environment in the UK that prepares students for self learning, to be more analytical and equips them with skills for critical thinking had this to say:

Oh yes, there is a big difference. Teaching here is interactive, trains you to think and be analytical while in Kenya learning is more teacher centered and students are trained to cram and not ask questions. Students survive on notes dictated to them. Here the lecturers have more time for students. The learning environment is conducive if one does not have other distractions. One can access teaching/learning materials easily, the libraries are well stocked, there is availability of reliable, fast and affordable internet, and books are easily accessible. Kenya's education system focuses on rote learning and is geared towards students passing exams. Students are spoon-fed, it doesn't leave time for creativity, and one just crams and crams things.

[ST 2, f, 25, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

Despite the overall challenges that some respondents experienced the majority enjoyed studying in the UK and had a positive academic experience. Respondents (94.4%) showed high levels of satisfaction with only 5.6% reporting that they were dissatisfied. The level of satisfaction amongst Kenyan students (94.4%) was higher than that reported by other studies on international students in the UK but compares well with that reported by ISB (2008) of 91%. For example (MORI 2002) found out that 83% of international students in the UK were happy studying in the UK and UKCOSA (2004) reported a high satisfaction rating of 87% amongst international students in the UK. Therefore the satisfaction levels of the study experience of Kenyan students in the UK compares well with that of other international students.

6.8 Respondents' Financial Experience

Adequate information regarding tuition fees is considered important to prepare students to appreciate the magnitude of financial implication expected of them as international students and prepare appropriately. The UKCOSA (2004) report on experience of international students found out that tuition fees was one of the most important concerns to international students. Results analysed in this study demonstrate that majority of respondents (75.6%) were satisfied with pre-departure information received on tuition fees. This is not surprising as issues to do with tuition fees are straight-forward and are available from both the print and electronic materials accessible to students before and after admission. However (21.3%) were dissatisfied with the information that they had received on tuition fees while 3.2% did not receive any information. Findings in this study show that respondents were not given information on funding opportunities open to international students, the repercussions when students are not able to raise tuition fees and what would likely affect the tuition fees they were expected to pay.

The decision to study abroad is one of the most important and expensive decision that students may ever make (Mazzarol 1998). Therefore students' financial experience is important as to how well they settle for learning and their study outcomes. However, findings in this study have shown that issues to do with finance mainly affected the

study outcomes of the respondents who were self funding. Like many other international students around the world majority of Kenyan students were self funding despite the high cost of a UK education. About half (49.7%) were responsible for paying their tuition fees while (52.6%) had their fees paid by their families. At the same time 58.4% paid for their living expenses while 45.9% had families pay for them.

However, these findings on majority of Kenyan students being self funded echo quite strongly those of Ward and Masgoret (2004) who reports that in New Zealand 80% of students in tertiary education were self funded Smith, Morey and Teece (2004) who reports that 68% of students in higher education in Australia were self funded, CBIE (2002) reports that 61% of students in Canada are self funded, Open Doors (2003) shows that (64%) of students in USA were self funded and UKCOSA (2004) reveals that in the UK 71% of international students are self funded. Therefore as the results show the phenomenon of self funding is world over and is consistent with the results of this study where majority of Kenyan students are self funded.

Although the majority of Kenyan students were self funding a few of them (5.8%) were receiving partial scholarships, (1.9%) full scholarships from UK universities and 1.3% from UK charities while 17.8% were on full Kenya Government scholarships as part of the governments training policy for serving civil servants. At the same time 18.3% were on partial bursaries of £750 (2007) offered to needy students by the Kenya government which is inconsequential compared to an average tuition fees and living expenses of twenty thousand pounds per year.

Foreign exchange losses occasioned by exchange fluctuations also affected the respondents' ability to meet their financial obligations. This was because the cost of education was budgeted for in Kenya shillings at the point of registration. However, during remittance the payment is first converted to the dollar and then to the British pound. The end result and cumulative effect was that owing to the exchange loses *students are left with shortfalls* and *one is paying higher fees that had been quoted during recruitment and has to continually top up* making it very difficult to make actual

projections of what it will cost to sustain a Kenyan student for the duration of the study period in the UK. A student had this to say:

> *Students start having tuition fee arrears and working longer hours to meet the unexpected financial shortfalls. If this was fully explained to us during recruitment one would have been in a position to determine the affordability of a UK education and adequately plan for it or alternatively enrol in a more affordable destination.*

[ST 9, *f*, 28 Years, Masters, Post 1992, Arts]

The respondents were unhappy that they were not given full disclosures as to what would likely affect tuition fees payable for the duration of their course during recruitment. They were also not informed that in some institutions tuition fees as well as the cost of living went up almost every year thus affecting the planned cost of their education. This affected their ability to meet their financial obligations which also affected their study outcomes. ST 15 who was affected by annual tuition fee and cost of living increments and eventually had to drop out explains:

> *I found myself in financial shock which is an understatement. During recruitment no one mentioned that the cost of everything in the UK, from the bills, accommodation, tuition fees, transport is increased on an annual basis. I felt completely cheated and misinformed. I thought that this information was kept away from me to make sure that I did not change my mind about taking up the admission offer. The money that we were to pay for tuition fees and living expenses was not realistic as none of the other unanticipated costs were ever mentioned to us. The cost went up every year. The rest is history, I dropped out.*

[ST 15, *f*, 23, Undergraduate, 1st Year, Post 1992, Science, DO]

As findings reveal, the respondents were not informed of the likely annual increases and how this would affect their ability to meet the cost of their education which resulted to their planned budgets being unsustainable. ST 15 had to work more, to meet the additional expenditures and could not keep up with her school work.

> *My parents could not cope with the unplanned rising cost of my education. They advised me to get part time work and pay for my living expenses while they struggled to pay the ever increasing tuition fees. It was the beginning of the end. For me to cater for my living expenses I had to work for more than the twenty hours students are allowed. This affected my education and I started handing in my assignments late and finally not handing them in at all. I started feeling frustrated. It was too much. I quit. I do not know what*

to do next. I blame the recruiting officers of my university for not preparing me on what would likely affect my budget for UK study. They were so pleased to give me information on tuition fees and even proposed that one could pay fees in installments but none of them alluded to the other things or even bothered to break down the figure of living costs.

[ST 15, *f,* 23, Undergraduate, 1ˢᵗ Year, Post 1992, Science, DO]

The student felt let down in that if she had been given all the information needed in making informed decision about studying in the UK she would not have found herself in her present difficult financial circumstances.

It was also evident that although information on tuition fees and living expenses was given to the students there were other unanticipated costs that the students were expected to meet in the course of their studies which further exacerbated the cost of their education. For example, respondents complained that many of the social activities within the universities such as sports, joining clubs, societies and other facilities were not part of the tuition fees and they had to pay for them separately. In addition students had to pay interests on arrears when they were behind with their tuition fee payments. Students therefore felt that they did not get to enjoy the full life as university students in the UK as there were so many facilities that they could not access due to attendant costs. They could not afford the extra-curricular activities and they were persistently worried about the various charges that kept on being levied.

The respondents' financial experience was made worse by the methods used by universities to enforce tuition fee payment or recover arrears. About half of the students (44.3%) felt that universities should adopt a more humane way to recover fees from students who are in fee arrears instead of blocking them from accessing university facilities. This affected their study progress, self esteem and social standing among fellow students. Despite being locked out of the university system students are the ones that lose in terms of learning time. The university has nothing to lose but ultimately benefits when students eventually pay. The inability to meet their financial obligations was further compounded by their inability to find part time employment (Chapter 5 Section 5.4) and the inability to balance work and study which made some of them choose not to work although they needed the money to support themselves.

Owing to the increased costs of their education, to cope, some of the respondents had to work longer hours to meet the financial shortfalls. This adversely affected their studies and their immigration status, as students are not allowed to work for more than twenty hours during term time which some had to, at the risk of flouting visa regulations. Findings show that respondents were also disappointed with the extra charges levied by the universities especially those related to learning which they were not aware of at the point of admission as they were not included in the initial tuition fees quoted. The additional charges levied further exacerbated the cost of their education. The respondents were frustrated having to pay for use of academic support facilities such as photocopying, binding, library fines and interests on unpaid tuition fees and other charges. The additional charges levied limited or denied them the use of these facilities.

To the respondents, the reality on arrival was that university social amenities such as clubs which are some of the attractions that UK universities use to advertise their institutions on the internet and in the university brochures are only meant for home students as many international students cannot afford them. The small bits and pieces of payments required when one uses a service puts one in a panic mood as one does not have the money to pay whenever required to. Therefore, *one does not feel as a full member of the university*, reports student 5. Even things that are basic to learning and which one would have expected to be covered as part of the tuition fees attracts additional charges as ST 5 reports:

> *Yes, I am talking about photocopying, printing and special software required for my media course. Imagine one has to pay for it. If one had been told of these costs my family would have made provisions for it. I feel extremely frustrated having to ask my parents for money all the time as all these costs keep on popping up. Many times I opt to do without them.*

[ST 5, *f*, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 2nd year, Post 1992, Science]

The financial experience of Kenyan students compares well with that of the UKCOSA (2004) which found out that there was a real sensitivity about the cost of education for international students owing to the likely effect and changes on future budgets and recommends that the UK should take caution that it does not price itself out of the market. The study suggests that good practice that has been adopted by some institutions be considered where arrangements that peg fees to local currencies are made

to provide students with a guaranteed maximum cost. Some institutions set fee rates for students for the entire course at the time of entry to allow for more certainty in budgeting for the full period of study (UKCOSA 2004). The researcher highly recommends this practice for the Kenyan context as it is a developing country that is prone to foreign exchange fluctuations and challenges of liquidity flow.

However, respondents suggested that universities should also consider providing free recreational facilities and any additional charges should be part of the tuition fee structure given to students on recruitment. In addition, 49.3% would want the UK government to reduce fees, provide grants and loans which currently are not accessible to international students and grant students a visa for the entire duration of their study programme as it is expensive to renew visas on an annual basis. Respondents also reported that financial support (38.5%) was important in enhancing their study experience. Respondents suggested that financial challenges could be addressed if the UK government could lower fees for international students (16.9%) while a third (34.4%) reported that the Kenya government should treat Kenyan students in the UK in the same way they treat those in Kenyan universities by giving them loans and information to help them settle as students in the UK and make informed choices.

The need to sensitise families was also proposed. About half of the respondents (52%) were receiving financial support from their families. However a few of them (7.2%) felt that families should be fully sensitised to understand what it means to study in the UK so as to stop setting unrealistic expectations and demands on their children when they travel abroad. Some families expected to receive financial support from the students instead of giving them moral support, which further aggravated their financial status. Other families stopped giving financial support when students arrived in the UK in the hope that they would work and pay their way through education.

Almost half of the respondents (44.4%) were not fully aware of the cost of living expenses in the UK before departure and how it would likely impact on their living experience making it difficult for them to plan appropriately. Findings discussed in chapter seven have shown that the high cost of living expenses which some respondents

were unprepared for affected their study outcomes. ST 23 complains that, although she received information from the British Council it was not satisfactory as it did not reflect the reality of the cost of living. The information received did not prepare her for the high cost of living in the UK which she found to be more expensive than she had planned for. She complained that,

> *I thought I was lucky to have received information on living expenses from the British Council. With this information I came to the UK with high expectations only to face the harsh reality. Everything was so expensive and I could hardly afford to support myself on the budget we had made. The winter clothes, the heating and contracts which one could not break became a nightmare for me.*

[ST 23, *f*, 28, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Science]

Further enquiries revealed that students were given the impression that it was almost a guarantee for them to get employment on arrival. As a result many of them expected to support themselves through their earnings which made life difficult for them when employment was not forthcoming as ST 5 explains:

> *I was very unhappy with the information I had received about work and study. It took me almost an year to get something to do and during this time I really suffered as I could hardly afford to feed and keep myself warm during winter.*

[ST 5, f, 23 Years, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Science]

This could explain why majority reported that financial hardship was one of the key challenges that they faced while studying and living in the UK.

Findings in this study have further shown that only half of the respondents (55.8%) were satisfied with the pre-departure information that they had received on living expenses while a large number (38.1%) were dissatisfied with the information received and 6.3% had received no information at all. Although respondents were aware that they would have to meet the cost of their living expenses and they were even given the estimated cost, they found it unsustainable as there was so much information that no one bothered to explain to them regarding what constitutes living expenses. Respondents found the cost of food, telephone, accommodation contracts and cost of transport that went up every year expensive to sustain. Foreign exchange fluctuations and annual

increments of the cost of living made it difficult for them to plan and budget the real cost of their living expenses. As a result, for many of the respondents their financial experience was negative and it adversely affected their living and study experience as findings in the next chapter, seven, shows.

6.9 Respondents' Accommodation Experience

Various surveys on international students' experience have highlighted the need for better information on accommodation for international students Allen and Higgins (1994), UKCOSA (2004) and Blacky (1994:73) notes that universities have used provision of accommodation as an incentive for international student recruitment due to the competition in recruitment in the market place. Blacky further points out that, the majority of universities provide accommodation to first year students only. However they have to move out of the university halls of residence after the first year to avoid having a negative image caused by new students having difficulties finding a place to live, when they first arrive in a foreign country (Ibid. 1994).

Findings of this study reveal different levels of satisfaction with accommodation. Half of the respondents (59.8%) were satisfied with pre-departure information received on accommodation, while the highest level of dissatisfaction recorded was on information received on accommodation (38.6%), whereas 1% did not receive any information. Accommodation is an area that requires adequate and reliable information so that respondents make informed choices. As Lewins (1990:89) observes and which this study concurs with, good accommodation in a comfortable and relaxing environment is an important pre-requisite for settling down to study especially for overseas students because their accommodation will be their home during their study period.

As already reported in this chapter, many of the respondents cited accommodation as one of the highest ranked pre-arrival concerns. However, most new incoming students had pre-booked accommodation offered by the universities but only if students booked in good time to ensure availability. Findings show that many of the respondents were happy with university accommodation which they found good and convenient. However it was more expensive than privately rented accommodation. A few (2.9%) found it

disruptive as they had to move out during vacations and at the end of first year. As students had to move out after the first year from university accommodation majority of respondents (63.2%) were residing in private rented accommodation with non residential landlord, while 14.1% were in halls of residence with self catering facilities alongside UK and other international students. Only a small number (0.5%) were living in halls where meals were being provided. In addition, 6.5% were in accommodation controlled by the institutions, while 5.4% were in private student hostels and 2.2% were living with a British family.

Findings show that although the majority of students were not in university managed residences majority (90.2%) were satisfied with their accommodation as they reported that it was good (47.4%) while 28.3% said that it was very good, 9.2% fairy good and 5.3% found the accommodation very appropriate. However a few of the students (5.3%) reported that their accommodation was not good and 4.6% said that it was poor. Therefore, majority of the respondents were properly accommodated although there were challenges associated with accommodation in terms of sharing, cost and location.

About half of those in shared accommodation (62.2%) reported that it was good and appropriate while 18.9% reported that they found it satisfactory. Respondents reported that shared accommodation was appropriate because students kept each other company, it was cheap and affordable. To the respondents, shared accommodation "can be a way of reducing cost". ST 21 talking of the benefits of shared accommodation also confirmed what was reported during questionnaire analysis that shared accommodation provided opportunities to socialise and that much needed company. A student had this to say,

> *For an international student it is ideal for companionship and since we are all students time and again we remind each other of what our goals are hence encouraging one another to cope with difficulties as they arise.*

[ST 21, *m,* 23, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, Post 1992, Arts]

It is evident that students perceived shared accommodation not only in terms of socialising but also as a support network to help them achieve their academic goals as explained by ST 23 here below.

Shared accommodation also takes away the loneliness. You are not on your own. It helps to live with other international students who are in similar circumstances. It takes the weight off your shoulders as an international student and enables you to focus on your studies.

[ST 23, f, 28 Years, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Science]

However, the quantitative data show that (16.1%) of the respondents were not happy with shared accommodation and did not find it appropriate. When this was followed up (10.5%) reported that the problem with shared accommodation was that it required individual discipline. This was further reinforced by the qualitative data which revealed that, despite the reported benefits associated with shared accommodation it had its disadvantages as ST 9 observes:

The only drawback with shared accommodation is lack of privacy that an adult student would require. It also affects concentration and private study time if one is not careful.

[ST 9, *f*, 28, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

The disruption to one's study time while living in shared accommodation if one is not focused was reported as a possible threat to one's academic attainment.

Shared accommodation depends on whom you are sharing the house with. If you are sharing with like minded and focused people who remember where they came from and what brought them here, then you shouldn't have a lot of problems.

[ST 20, *m*, 22, 1st year, Undergraduate, College of Further Education, Arts]

Although the majority of respondents expressed high levels of satisfaction with their accommodation arrangements (43.5%) reported having difficulties living with others, while 17.2% were unhappy with the inflexible contracts that did not allow them to terminate their contracts before the expiry period even when they had problems with their accommodation and 13.4% said that their deposits were not refunded by the landlords. For those who were living in the university halls of residence they found it disruptive to move out during vacations and at the end of the first year of their studies even if they had a few months to complete their studies. This posed real challenges for international students especially those who had to move in the midst of their studies.

What was of most concern to the respondents (86.7%) was the high cost of accommodation as they were paying £100-£500 per week. Similarly, ISB (2008) also found out that 37% of Kenyan students were dissatisfied with their accommodation. Concern was also expressed (2.9%) of the lack of single sex accommodation especially for those from cultures that do not allow male and female students to share premises unless they are married.

Results have shown that some respondents faced challenges with their accommodation and it was therefore important to find out whether information that they received on accommodation before coming to the UK was useful. Although the majority (59.2%) found the information useful (15.9%) did not. On arrival, respondents found out that a lot of information that would have helped them make informed decision about their accommodation was not included in the websites that they consulted or the university brochures. For example, geographical location, security, effects of distance from the university and where the student was residing were important as the students later found out owing to transport costs. The further the distance to the university the higher the transport costs which increased the cost of their living expenses. In addition, distances also affected the effective use of libraries especially at night and during winter.

Interestingly, although some respondents faced challenges with their accommodation, 4.8% reported that they were not aware that there was an office to support students with accommodation needs. This calls for better dissemination of information so that students who are not only coming to the UK for the first time but those already in the UK know where to look for information on accommodation, if they need to, which is central to students' academic success.

6.10 Respondents Social Cultural Experience While in the UK

Results show that social integration was a real concern that left some respondents feeling homesick, lonely and isolated. The study therefore sought to find out from the respondents the facilities that were available in their institutions which they could use for leisure and to facilitate social interaction. Results show that universities had provided facilities for students' leisure activities. These were: sports facilities (25%),

clubs and societies (25%), students' union facilities (27.3%) and campus catering outlets. The majority of the respondents (76.2%) reported having used the facilities and a quarter (23.8%) had not used them. Half of the respondents (53.6%) did not use the facilities because they did not have the time, while 39.3% said that it was because they used their free time working to support their education, while 3% found them expensive to use. During the interviews respondents expressed similar reasons:

> *I am not involved in any social activities. It is work, work and study. You need the money how else do you survive.*

[ST18, *m*, 25, 3rd Year, Undergraduate, Post 1992, Arts]

However, some respondents were happy with the students union as they were likely to mix with other students as ST 5 explains:

> *I have friends who are in a University with international students union run by the students and supported by staff from the international students' office. It works out very well as you have the opportunity to interact with students whom you share common background and even language. They understand what you are going through as international student because they are also going through the same experience.*

[ST 5, *f*, 23, 2nd Year, Undergraduate, Post 1992, Science]

However, others complained about the services offered by the students union as they were fee paying. ST 17 explains:

> *We have a student's union but it only organises excursions which we are expected   to pay for. They add no value to the student.*

[ST 17, *m*, 20,1st Year, Undergraduate, Pre 1992, Science]

The desire for respondents to participate in social activities was evident as findings show that some were involved in social activities where there were no payments expected like in voluntary work (21.9%), leadership programs at the university as student representatives (16.7%), acting as a buddy or mentor to other students (15.8%), charity fundraising (13.6%), and music and drama groups. To establish the opportunities open to students to mix with other Kenya students in the UK respondents were asked if they were aware of any Kenyan students' organisations in the UK. A few (23.3%) said that they were aware of such organisations, which also involved the wider Kenyan community while 76.7% were not. When they were asked if they were members of such organisations, only 21.2% reported that they were members while (78.8%) were not.

Findings show that there were no organised associations for Kenyan students which respondents could use to socialise and to network although findings in this study have shown that respondents preferred using informal sources of information. Respondents also reported experiencing social problems which affected their adaptation as ST 4 reports:

> *Yes, most of the students had financial difficulties. But what made living in the UK difficult for them were social problems. They were overwhelmed with their new found freedom coupled with the money that they were getting through part time work.*

[ST 4, *m*, 21,1st Year, Undergraduate, Post 1992, Science]

It also emerged that undergraduate students experienced more social problems owing to their new found freedom either because they were not properly inducted or counseled to live independent lives. Findings in Chapter five Section 5.1 also show that some of the respondents were below the age of 18 and therefore still categorised as a child within Kenyan laws. ST 2 explains:

> *Well, the undergraduates are the ones with real problems especially of coping with their new found freedom. Back in Kenya, students are constantly under the watchful eye of their parents or relatives. Once they leave home they find that they have too much independence. Nobody cares about what you do. You can also decide to continuously party. Nobody is there to tell you whether you are wrong or right. Many of those in problems adopt an attitude of 'I have my own life'.*

[ST 2, *f*, 25, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

Culture was also cited as an important factor in influencing the cultural integration and adaptation of the respondents. This echoes the findings of this study on the need to design different support strategies to reflect the different backgrounds and contexts of international students. ST 13 observes that:

> *The issue of mixing is dictated by the back ground we come from. Culture is a very important determinant in groupings. It is also a case of perceptions. For example, we have been discouraged all through not to go to bars, but here it is ok among young people.*

[ST 13, *f*, 24,2ndYear, Undergraduate, Russell Group, Science]

Interestingly during the interviews, it was evident that not all the respondents were happy living with students from their own nationalities as they felt that there was more to learn interacting with students from other cultures as ST 20 explained:

> *I prefer living with students from other nationalities. Like when you continue living with fellow Kenyans you learn nothing new. I live with Ivorian. I have started learning French and I practice with them. At least there is so much one can learn by interacting with other cultures.*

[ST 20, *m*, 22, 1st Year, Undergraduate, College of Further Education, Science]

In Chapter 5 Section 5.3 the study found out that one of the reasons why respondents identified UK as a study destination was that, they expected to mix with other nationalities and UK students. However on arrival, some respondents found out that it was not easy mixing with UK students but they could mix with other international students and Kenyan students. ST 10 explains:

> *We found it difficult to integrate with other students especially the UK students because we thought they were very sophisticated and had everything going for them.*

[ST13, *f*, 24, 2ndYear, Undergraduate, Russell Group, Science]

Luzio-Lockett (1998) had identified language as a barrier to effective socialisation and this was also confirmed during the interviews as respondents cited language as one of the barriers to mixing with home students, as ST 1 noted:

> *You see, I found it very difficult to understand what the UK students were saying. The accent was completely different from mine. They could also not understand what I was saying. It was not like we were all speaking in English. This tended to make me avoid speaking to them.*

[ST 1, *m*, 21, 1st Year, Undergraduate, Post 1992, Arts]

Respondents also complained about the practice by universities where international students accommodated at the halls of residence were kept together which did not enhance mixing with home students. If anything it acted as a barrier to their effective integration as ST 6 observes:

> *We stayed together with students from other countries. In the hall of residence we had students from Asia, China and Malaysia. I kept on wondering whether we were kept together because we did not belong. There were no home students.*

Maybe we were grouped together as we were international students, which was not good in my opinion.

[ST 6, *f*, 31, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

Inadequate preparation and support also affected how well the students settled as ST 12 explains,

Nobody prepares students for rejection which I and fellow foreign students experienced. You see we were not sure of what to expect or what to ask.

[ST 12, *m*, 20,1[st] year, Undergraduate, Post 1992, Science]

Findings also show that during group work home students were not keen to join groups with other international students. Therefore, not all respondents achieved social adaptation or were able to mix with students from other cultures owing to barriers that existed and which hampered respondents' effective adaptation and integration while others faced social challenges.

Aveline and Dryden (1988), Henderson and Forster (1991), Luzio-Lockett (1998) and Whitaker (1987) recommends social support groups for facilitating the adaptation and integration of international students. The student support groups would supplement the existing infrastructure of provision by universities through which student needs are addressed (Luzio-Lockett 1998). These studies suggest that, the commonality of being with people who share the same experience is vital in helping them feel less isolated and provides a strong incentive to group members to seek alternative solutions to common problems with the objective of the group being to support the personal and learning needs of each other.

6.11 Respondents' Work and Study Experience

Findings of this study have shown that respondents identified UK as a study destination because they could work and study at the same time. Although many of them (66.8%), were in part time employment others found it difficult to find part time work although students are allowed to work for twenty hours during term time and full time during the holidays. However, it was evident that some of the respondents were not aware of the

practical issues related to employment which could have prevented them from being employed as explained by student 5:

> *I decided to look for part time work. It took too long because before that I had not worked and I didn't know that one needed a National Insurance Number to be allowed to work. It took me a while and I also realised it was difficult to get work.*

[ST 5, *f*, 23, Undergraduate, 2ⁿᵈ year, Post 1992, Science]

To support students get employment, institutions have career advice centers which over half of the students (64.5%) who used their service found   useful, while 14% did not find it useful and 17.2% reported that although this service was available they had not used it. At the same time, 4.3% reported that they were not aware of such services being offered at their institutions. In the UK, there are recruitment agencies and job centers and maybe those respondents (17.2%) may have contacted them. Respondents reported that they found these institutions to be more in touch with the world of employers and more useful than career advice centers at institutions. ST6 complains about the services offered at the career advice centers:

> *Why bother with career advice centers at the universities? One goes directly to a recruitment agency that will link you directly with the employer. What you need is a job to support yourself and not talk shop. During my two years at the university I have not seen one person who has got a job through the universities career advice centre.*

[ST 6, *f*, 31, Masters, Post 1992, Science]

Even though many of the respondents chose UK as a study destination to study and work, 28.7% of the respondents reported that it was difficult to find part time work, while 26.5% worked only during vacations. Surprisingly, 44.9% reported that they could not work because of the heavy academic workload. A postgraduate student who could not find part time work had this to say:

> *It is hard for African students to get jobs in UK after the borders were opened to citizens of the European Union. Forms that declare your ethnicity are used to discriminate. Those who are lucky to get jobs work as cleaners, in security, as carers and are underpaid.*

[ST 3, *m*, 43, PhD, Russell Group, Arts]

Respondents therefore reported feeling discriminated when it came to competing for jobs with home students and those from the European Union. Not all students were lucky to get jobs and those who did could not get jobs related to their study areas to gain work experience. They could only get unskilled jobs that were not related to their areas of study. Therefore, those who expected to get well paying jobs while studying did not realise their expectations. Unexpectedly, those who were lucky to get part-time work found it difficult to balance work and study which affected their study progress as findings in Chapter seven suggests. During the interviews explaining the inability to balance work and study and how this affected their studies ST 24 had this to say:

> *Students must learn to balance work and study. When many of the students start working they pay more attention to money so as to support themselves and they end up loosing focus and failing in their studies and eventually dropping out.*

> **[ST 24, *f*, 26 Years, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, College of Further Education, Arts]**

ST 7 explained how difficult it was to balance work and study as one felt persistently tired and with little time to work on assignments.

> *It was very difficult for me to balance work and study. I used to go to school for three days in a week. For two days, I worked in the evenings. I would report at 3pm and then leave at midnight sleep for two hours and then wake up to do school work. On Saturdays I would work half day and then go to catch up with my studies and then Sunday I go to church and work on assignments in the afternoon. I was determined not to let my parents down. However I just managed to scrape through.*

> **[ST 7, *f*, 30, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, College of further Education, Arts]**

When student 7 was asked about how students can be assisted to learn how to balance work and study she had this to say:

> *I would say that get a part time job, plan and live your life. Live within your means and prioritise your needs. Don't overwork. The government should create awareness of systems in place and how they support students to cope. Let them use the print and electronic media to disseminate information on work and study programs. Integrate some of these things in career guidance programs so that students are fully informed even as they make decisions regarding their study options.*
> **[ST 7, *f*, 30, Undergraduate, 2nd Year, College of further Education, Arts]**

This emphasises the need for sensitisation and creating awareness amongst students to help them address challenges they are likely to encounter as they balance work and study as majority of Kenyan students are self sponsored and therefore need to work to meet their financial obligations. The need for sensitisation and support to help students handle their new found freedom was expressed. According to ST 23 some respondents were not ready to handle their new found freedom and lacked self discipline in balancing work and study which affected their study progress.

> *Yes, most of the students had financial difficulties. But what made it difficult for them to cope were social problems. The students were overwhelmed with their new found freedom coupled with the money that they were getting through part time work. For them it was the other way round. Work became a priority to their studies. Working means I devote less time to my studies at the expense of my grades. When they started failing or handing in assignments that were not properly done or not handing them in at all the end of their academic journeys had began. What is interesting is that many of their parents are not aware of the present circumstances of their brilliant children. Occasionally they send some money to their parents. When it is exchanged to the Kenya Shilling it translates to a substantial amount that makes the family feel that all is going on well if their children can afford to send them that amount of money.*

[ST 23, *f*, 28, Undergraduate, 3rd Year, Post 1992, Science]

Similarly, ST 14 reported that his academic progress was affected because of working longer hours to meet his financial obligations.

> *Yes like I have mentioned I have had serious financial problems and as I struggle to overcome I tend to work more hours and this definitely affects my studies.*

[ST 14, *m*, 43 Years, Masters, College of Further Education, Arts]

Findings show that, unless one is well disciplined the tendency is to focus more on work at the expense of studies. For the majority it was possible to balance work and study but only if they used their time well. Students were in agreement that for those not fortunate enough to have sponsorship the only way out was to balance work and study in an effort to pay their way through education considering that the majority were self funding.

6.12 Conclusion

It is evident that although many of the respondents' reported a positive study and living experience in areas that were considered in this study the findings of this study suggest that there is need for stakeholders especially the Kenya Government and UK Universities to pay more attention to areas which were identified in this section as having contributed to negative experiences or those that posed challenges to students such as poor choice of study institutions and courses, balancing work and study and appreciating the full implications of studying in a foreign country and practical knowledge to help them adapt. The adequacy and quality of information that respondents received prior to departure was contrary to their expectations and on arrival the support structures that students could have used to address any information gaps were either not responsive to their needs or respondents were not sensitised to their existence and use and therefore did not make use of them. The next chapter presents findings on the likely impact of respondents' experience reported in chapters five and six on their study progress and outcomes.

CHAPTER SEVEN: EXPERIENCE STUDY PROGRESS AND OUTCOMES OF KENYAN STUDENTS IN THE UK

7.0 Introduction

This chapter examines whether the experience of Kenyan students reported in chapters five and six influenced their study progress and outcomes in any way. Currently, the evidence base for correlation between Kenyan students experience and their study outcomes is weak with most evidence being anecdotal. For Kenyan students in the UK, little or no empirical evidence exists in this area. Findings discussed in this chapter include Kenyan students study progress and outcomes and whether this was in any way influenced by the following: lack of adequate pre-departure and arrival information, respondents concerns in the first two months of arrival in the UK, respondents financial experience, accommodation and employment experience. This section attempts to unravel the complexity of issues that influence respondents study progress and outcome by cross tabulating key variables reported in the multiple responses and open ended questions and ranking them. The relationships presented are associations based on observed trends.

This study is a descriptive survey research which Best (1977) describes as being concerned with conditions or relationships that exist; practices that prevail; beliefs, points of views or attitudes that are held; processes that are going on ; effects that are being felt; or trends that are developing. There are different types of descriptive survey research which include longitudinal, cross-sectional and trend studies. These are sometimes referred to as developmental research Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) because they are concerned in describing what the present relationships are among variables in a given situation and to account for changes occurring in those relationships as a function of time. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2004) also observes that the single 'snapshot' of a cross-sectional study provides researchers with data for either a retrospective or a prospective inquiry. This type of inquiry (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2004) attempts to determine if there is anything about the previous experience of an individual that can account for their present situation.

However, owing to factors of expense, time and the study's remit it was not possible or practical to carry out an in-depth relational analysis to determine the actual cause and effect. The study limited itself to providing data and knowledge of likely relationships between the respondents experience and their study progress and outcomes. The study further gives an indication of factors that would have influenced the study progress and outcomes of the respondents. The associations reported are based on the average total number of students affected by the factors that is the average of the column total (totals at the bottom of the tables). This being a policy study, these findings are considered a good background from which the Kenya government and UK institutions can begin to understand what is happening to a segment of international students and can develop policies and strategies to reduce negative effects and ensure quality study progress and outcomes for those involved. The next section explains the numbers and percentages in tables 7.3 -7.9 and what they mean.

7.1 Explanation of the Tables

To answer objective three of this study 'to establish how the student's study experience affects their study outcomes' the respondents experiences reported in Chapters five and six were cross tabulated with the study progress and outcomes in Figure 7.1. The findings presented cover selected items which had the highest impact on study progress and outcomes for a large percentage of the respondents. In the tables, each cell contains a count (number outside the bracket) and a percentage (put in bracket). Take Table 7.4 for example, the count 25 in first row represent the number of students who sought for and received information about fees and cost of living and have extended their studies by one year. The figure in bracket is the row percent i.e. the 25 students' forms 86.2% of all the students (29) who sought various information reported in the Table and who repeated their studies by one year. The counts in each cell are independently based on the number of cases with responses in both of the two corresponding items thus excluding all the other cases with responses in only one of the two items. This is called 'case wise deletion'. The remaining cases are called valid cases. The sample applies to the row/column totals which are based on the number of cases with responses in all the items (on top of the table). It is this combination that makes the row/column totals much less than would be the aggregated row/column total. The row percentages in the cells

are computed by dividing the cell count by the row total then multiplied by 100, that is, $(25 \div 29) \times 100 = 86.2\%$. On the other hand the total row percent is computed by dividing the row total by N (total number of students who responded to the question, in Table 7.4 N=80) then multiplied by 100 i.e. $(29 \div 80) \times 100 = 36.3\%$. Since it is practically impossible to cross tabulate all the items in the two variables, the items are first combined into multiple variable sets representing the two variables then the sets are cross tabulated to give a two way table whose frequency distributions, just like normal crosstabs, are indicative of the association between the two variables in question.

The SPSS program was used to generate crosstabs showing associations between specific experiences and study outcomes. The variables were coded from multiple responses and open ended questions in the questionnaire. In cross tabulation involving multiple response variables, the values in the cells (rows and columns) may vary depending on how the respondents responded to the items within the question. The row and column totals are based on valid cases only but are not aggregates of the row or column count.

Each cell therefore represents a unique combination of values of the two cross tabulated variables and the numbers in each cell tell us how many observations fall into each combination of values. The count of valid cases reported in each cell represents those who actually responded to the question. The last column and row total represents those who responded to both questions in different combinations of the items involved. Another example, in Table 7.2 the number 30 at the beginning of the last column represents the total number of students who extended their studies by one year where as the counts in row cells represents number of students with various experiences in the first two months of arrival in UK. Therefore the five students who extended their studies by one year were mainly concerned with the social and practical use of the English language and they form 16.7% of the 30 students who extended their studies by one year for various reasons. This means that the row percentages can be used to rank the students' concerns that can be associated with their extension of studies by 1, 2, 3 or 4 years in order of which concern is most common to the least common i.e. the most important concern among the students who extended their studies by 1 year was finding

part time work (66.7%), while their least concern (6.7%) was the academic use of the English language. In general the students who extended their studies by one year formed 53.6% of the 56 students who responded.

Depending on the number of valid cases in each of the variables being cross tabulated the total number of respondents (N) in each of the tables presented can either be less than or equal to the total number of questionnaires or respondents in the study. This is because in a multiple response people respond to some questions and leave others therefore during cross tabulation only cases with responses on both variables being cross tabulated are included and the rest of the cases are excluded (a process called case wise deletion) hence the low numbers (N=80) in Table 7.4. There could also be a low response rate when there are open ended questions. Therefore if one is relating or cross tabulating two variables, for example, in one question where there were (70) responses and the other question had (50) all blank cells or missing counts are excluded and this can reduce the number reported as happened in the tables presented in this study. Therefore the count/percentage in each cell represents the relationship between the two corresponding items under consideration within the table whilst the distribution of the frequencies/percentages within the table is indicative of the relationship between the two variables under consideration. This section therefore present and discusses the relationships between variables based on the frequency/percentage distributions in the tables.

7.2 Respondents' Study Progress and Outcomes

In chapters five and six respondents expressed high levels of satisfaction with pre-departure information that they received about their courses. The high satisfaction level was not unexpected, as information on courses is readily available on websites, university brochures and university information packages for those who receive them. Respondents also reported that (Chapter 5 Section 5.2) they chose UK as a study destination because of the high quality education, globally recognised qualifications and the head start that a UK qualification provides while competing for jobs. With the high satisfaction levels and expectations expressed it would have been expected that all respondents had successful study progress and outcomes. The argument adopted in this

study is that if students attained their qualifications and within the stipulated study period owing to the opportunity cost, the actual cost of being in school and the impact of their qualifications on their future careers then their study experience in the UK would be considered to have been positive. This chapter presents respondents study progress and outcomes derived from the quantitative data reported in chapter six. Findings presented in Figure 7.1 and Table 7.1 show that some of the respondents extended their studies by one to four years, repeated an academic year or modules, dropped out or did not have any hope of completing their study program.
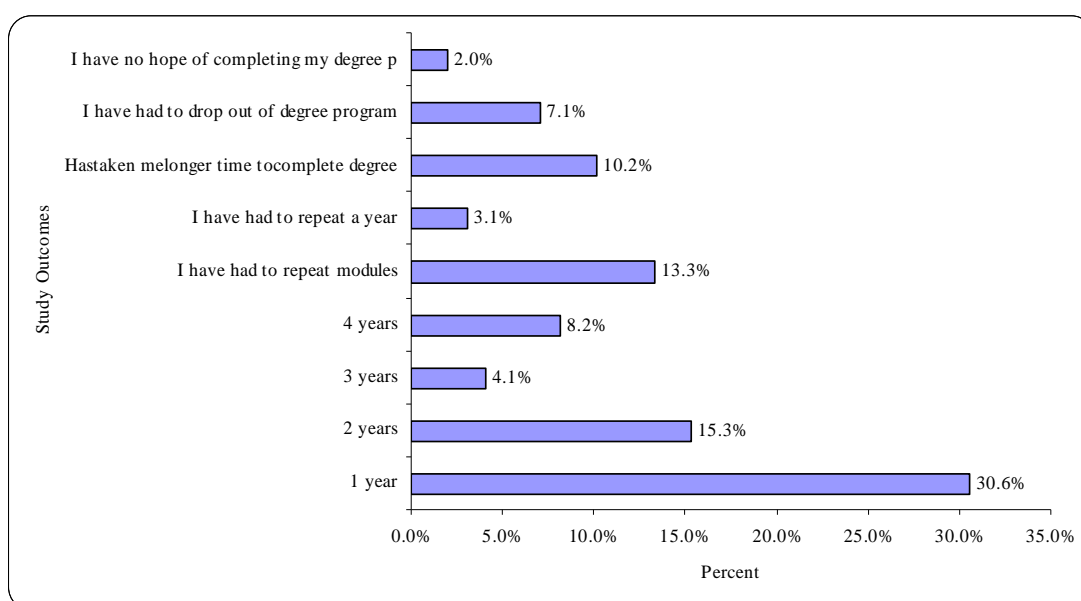
Figure 7.1 Respondents Study Progress and Outcomes (N=97)

This was a multiple response question which was answered by 97 respondents although the responses were 108 as Table 1 shows. The respondents were expected to select from a range of choices how the challenges they had experienced had affected their study progress and outcomes. Table 7.1 presents percentages of the total number of the responses. The counts and percentages in the table are similar to those reported in Figure 7.1. This helps the reader to appreciate how the percentages reported in Figure 7.1 were generated.

Table 7.1 Respondents' Study Progress and Outcomes (N=97)

Study Progress/Outcome	Count	Pct of Responses	Pct of Cases
1 year	30	27.8	30.6
2 years	15	13.9	15.3
3 years	4	3.7	4.1
4 years	8	7.4	8.2
I have had to repeat modules	13	12	13.3
I have had to repeat a year	3	2.8	3.1
Has taken me longer time to complete degree	10	9.3	10.2
I have had to drop out of degree program	7	6.5	7.1
I have no hope of completing my degree p	2	1.9	2
Other	16	14.8	16.3
Total responses	108	100	110.2

Figure 7.1 and Table 7.1 presents the respondents study progress and outcome which shows that 30.6% had to extend their studies by one year, 15.3% by two years, 4.1% by three years and 8.2% by four years. The findings further reveal that 13.3% had to repeat some modules while 3.1% repeated the entire academic year. On the other hand 10.2% reported that it had taken them between two and four years longer to complete their degree program. Unfortunately, 7.1% of the respondents were forced to drop out of the university while 2% reported that they had no hope of completing their studies successfully. This being a multiple response question means that the study progress or outcome of a respondent could have been affected by more than one factor.

One could argue that since the majority of the respondents 94.4% (Chapter six Section 6.7.5) had expressed satisfaction with their academic experience then generally the study experience of Kenyan students was positive as the numbers presented in Figure 7.1 is lower compared to those who had a positive experience. However the argument in this study is that the 94.4% is a total figure that is bound to hide individual negative experiences in relation to respondents study progress and outcomes. Therefore, the information presented in Table 7.1 and Figure 7.1 provides useful insights into the study progress and outcome of individual students whose studies were affected. In total, as data presented in Figure 7.1 and Table 7.1 shows out of the 192 questionnaires analysed 97 respondents (50.5%) had one problem or another related to their study progress and outcome which ultimately is a case for concern and which needs to be addressed.

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This study adopted snowball and convenience sampling (Chapter 4 Section 4.9) to help the researcher reach out to hidden populations. The researcher used the same approach and asked the respondents (Appendix 4 Question 53) if they knew of Kenyan students who had left the university before completing their studies. Findings show that, half of the respondents (51.6%) were aware of Kenyan students who had left school before completing their studies. Respondents were further asked if they were aware of the reasons why the students dropped out (Appendix 4 Question 54). The quantitative data analysed, showed the respondents perceptions as to why students do not complete their studies which were mainly, financial, social, academic, practical and personal reasons. These were: financial difficulties (45.8%), inability to balance work and study (13.1%), immigration issues (12.1%), lack of interest in their studies (9.3%), bad company (4.7%) and wrong choice of subjects (3.7%), taking long academic breaks (3.7%), poor performance (1.9%) and stress due to work load.

Although the reliability of the responses cannot be fully ascertained, the researcher's view is that this information provides useful insights that some Kenyan students in the UK could have dropped out of the university without an award as the phenomena for dropping out amongst Kenyan students was validated by HESA (2008) and the qualitative data analysed in this study. In addition, this provides a rationale as to why an in-depth study should be conducted to confirm the level of non-completion amongst Kenyan students in the UK and what happens to such students. The general pattern of responses by the Kenyan students was quite similar to that reported by Yorke *et al.* (1997) about students who discontinued their studies in the UK. Yorke *et al.* (1997) identified the major influences on non-completion as poor choice of study programme, lack of personal commitment to study, teaching quality, lack of contact with academic staff, inadequate academic progress and finance as having contributed to non-completion of UK students. However, lack of contact with academic staff was not cited by Kenyan students as having contributed to discontinuation as opposed to all the other factors. Other key factors not cited by Yorke *et al.* (1997) as having contributed to non completion of UK students but which affected Kenyan students were social problems and immigration issues.

HESA (2008) reinforces and validates the findings of this study that some Kenyan students drop out before completing their studies. HESA (2008) shows that the number of Kenyan students who dropped out and left without an award between 2002/3 to 2005/6 were as follows: 2002/03 (13.2%), 2003/04 (14.7%), 2004/05 (14.1%) and 2005/06 (15.9%). Surprisingly, during the years cited the numbers of those who left without an award increased annually with the highest level of increase of 1.8 percentage points recorded between 2004/5 and 2005/6. This is a notable level of wastage both in terms of finances invested and the opportunity cost for the individuals concerned. HESA (2008) provides further insights into the drop out patterns of Kenyan students and shows that the numbers of female and male students who left without an award was almost the same (Appendix 24). HESA (2008) further highlights the non-completion phenomenon amongst Kenyan students and shows that between 2002/3 and 2005/6 (1073) Kenyan students left the university without an award while the awards of 674 were reported as unknown (Appendix 23).

Relating these findings to the argument of this study that completing studies and within the stipulated period is a measure of successful study outcomes then it is apparent that the study experience of some of the respondents was negative as they took long to complete their studies, dropped out or had no hope of completing their studies. This information is useful as it helps the consumers of this research and especially the Kenya Government and UK institutions to mirror the academic progress and outcomes of Kenyan students against the existing reality which is important in designing support strategies for students to reduce such occurrences. The study progress and outcome of Kenyan students reported in this study is a key contribution to knowledge on skills acquisition for Kenyans which otherwise remained undetected under the various studies on experience of international students conducted in the UK which tends to treat all students as a homogeneous group. This therefore makes this study unique as it provides specific information on a specific segment of international students which is useful for management intervention. These findings also provides empirical evidence to counter the belief amongst the Kenyan public that Kenyan students in the UK are all doing well in their studies which might not be the case for all students. There could be real issues amongst some Kenyan students in the UK in relation to their study progress and

outcomes that needs to be addressed. The sections here below (7.3-7.9) sought to assess the interactions between two or more variables which were then ranked to highlight those that had greater impact on respondents study progress and outcomes.

7.3 The First Two Months Experience and Study Progress

The study sought to understand more clearly and specifically whether the respondents' concerns in the first two months of arrival in the UK affected their study progress and to what extent. This was achieved by cross-tabulating the experience of the first two months in the UK reported in Chapter Six Section 6.3, Table 6.2 and study progress in relation to those who extended their study period with 1-4 years. This helped to highlight more clearly specific factors that contributed to extension of the study period. Table 7.2 discusses associations between respondents' first two months concerns on arrival in the UK and their study progress.

Table 7.2   The First Two Months Experience and Study Progress: (N=56)

Number of Years Respondents Extended their Study Period		Respondents Concerns in the First 2 Months of Arrival in the UK															
		English language - social and practical use	English language - academic use	Food	Meeting religious needs	Accommodation	Feeling homesick/ lonely /isolated	Keeping in touch with family back home	Bringing family members to join you	Mixing with UK students	Adapting to UK cultures/ customs	Financial problems	Finding part-time work	Balancing study with paid work	Obtaining or extending your visa or other immigration issues	Other concerns	Row Total
1 year	Counts 5	2	6	6	15	16	17	4	9	15	17	20	14	7	2	30
	Pcts 16.7	6.7	20	20	50	53.3	56.7	13.3	30	50	56.7	66.7	46.7	23.3	6.7	53.6%
2 years	Counts 2	0	3	3	3	10	1	2	3	8	5	9	5	9	0	14
	Pcts14.3	0	21.4	21.4	21.4	71.4	7.1	14.3	21.4	57.1	35.7	64.3	35.7	64.3	0	25%
3 years	Counts 1	0	2	1	1	3	1	0	1	2	1	2	3	2	0	4
	Pcts 25	0	50	25	25	75	25	0	25	50	25	50	75	50	0	7.1%
4 years	Counts2	1	2	3	2	5	3	3	2	6	7	5	5	2	0	8
	Pcts 25	12.5	25	37.5	25	62.5	37.5	37.5	25	75	87.5	62.5	62.5	25	0	14.3%
Column Total	Counts10	3	13	13	21	34	22	9	15	31	30	36	27	20	2	56
	Pcts 17.9	5.4	23.2	23.2	37.5	60.7	39.3	16.1	26.8	55.4	53.6	64.3	48.2	35.7	3.6	100%

In Table 7.2 there were 56 valid responses meaning that only 56 responded to this question. For the purposes of cross tabulation only valid combined responses were included. The last column shows the row total counts and the percentages. Results in Table 7.2, show that 53.6% of all the students who responded (56) had to extend their study period by one year. The findings further indicate that out of all the students who extended their studies by one year (30), majority had problems finding part time work (66.7%) which indirectly affects their ability to meet their financial obligations especially for those who are self funded. Keeping in touch with family back home and financial problems were the next highest ranked. This affected over half of the respondents (56.7% each) who extended their studies with one year because they felt homesick, lonely and isolated as reported by 53.3% of the respondents making it the fourth ranked factor. This was not unexpected as half of the respondents (50%) reported that they had not adapted to UK cultures and customs. They extended their study period with one year.

The next highest ranked factor that affected those who extended their study period by one year was accommodation issues which also affected half of the students. Unfortunately, some of those who got work (46.7%) also had to extend their studies with one year as they could not balance work and studies. Interestingly, practical issues that one would have expected the respondents to have been advised of during induction such as accommodation (50%), immigration (23.3%), practical and social use of the English language (16.7%) and food (20%) nevertheless adversely affected their study progress. Information in Table 7.2 also indicate that out of the 56 students who responded, 25% extended their studies by two years, only 7.1% extended their studies by three years and 14.3% extended by four years. The major factors that affected those who extended studies by two years were; feeling homesick, lonely and isolated with 71.4%, followed by finding part time work and immigration issues with 64.3% each and then adopting to UK cultures and customs with 57.1%. Although those who extended studies by three years were the lowest in number they were mainly feeling homesick, lonely and isolated, had problems with food and adopting to UK cultures and customs as well as immigration issues. The students who extended their studies by four years reported financial problems (87.5%) as the major factor; this was followed by adapting

to UK cultures/ customs (75%); and finding part-time work, balancing study with paid work, and Feeling homesick, lonely, and isolated with 62.5% each.

These findings could mean that some of the respondents did not overcome the concerns that they had in the first two months of arrival in the UK which continued to affect their study progress and caused some to extend their studies for the same reasons for one, two, three and four years. Therefore respondents had still not settled two months on arrival in the UK and well into the first semester. Results show that reasons that caused the respondents to extend their study period were similar for all those who extended their study period by different years. This raises the question as to how well students are inducted before they leave home to study and live in the UK and the appropriateness of the student support systems available at the universities to detect early enough the challenges that respondents are likely to experience on arrival in the UK when they require all the support they can get to settle down and cope with the challenges of being new students in the UK. This study argues that early detection and support might have stemmed the challenges that students experienced on arrival and helped them to handle such challenges when they experienced them so that they do not continue to affect their study progress.

In the next section the study examines the first two months' experience and respondents' study progress and outcomes in relation to repetition, drop outs and having no hope of completing their studies.

7.4 The First Two Months Experience, Study Progress and Outcomes in Relation to Repetition, Drop Out and Hopelessness.

In this section the study examines the possible influence of the first two months experience on respondents study progress and outcome in relation to repetition, dropouts and some having no hope of completing their studies. The results are discussed in Table 7.3 here below.

Table 7.3 First Two Months Experience, Repetitions, Drop Outs, Hopelessness: (N=33) Numbers in the Tables are Counts of Valid Responses

Study Repetitions, Drop Outs, and Hopelessness	English language - social and practical use	English language - academic use	Food	Meeting religious needs	Accom-modation	Feeling homesick/ lonely/ isolated	Keeping in touch with family back home	Bringing family members to join you	Mixing with UK students	Adapting to UK cultures/ customs	Financial problems	Finding part-time work	Balancing study with paid work	Obtaining or extending your visa or other immigration issues	Other	Row Totals
							Respondents' Concerns in the First 2 Months of Arrival in the UK									
I have had to repeat modules	3	1	4	4	10	6	4	1	3	6	5	8	4	3	0	13
	23.1%	7.7%	30.8%	30.8%	76.9%	46.2%	30.8%	7.7%	23.1%	46.2%	38.5%	61.5%	30.8%	23.1%	0%	39.4%
I have had to repeat a year	1	0	2	3	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	3
	33.3	0	66.7	100	0	33.3	33.3	0	66.7	66.7	0	0	0	33.3	0	9.1
Has taken me longer time to complete degree program with 2,3,4yr	0	0	7	2	7	5	2	0	3	4	6	3	4	3	1	10
	0	0	70	20	70	50	20	0	30	40	60	30	40	30	10	30.3
I have had to drop out of degree programme	1	1	3	3	5	6	6	3	4	4	6	4	7	4	0	7
	14.3	14.3	42.9	42.9	71.4	85.7	85.7	42.9	57.1	57.1	85.7	57.1	100	57.1	0	21.2
I have no hope of completing my degree programme	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	2
	0	0	100	0	50	0	100	0	50	50	0	50	50	50	0	6.1
Total	5	2	16	12	21	18	13	4	13	17	17	16	14	10	1	33
	15.2	6.1	48.5	36.4	63.6	54.5	39.4	12.1	39.4	51.5	51.5	48.5	42.4	30.3	3	100

There were different factors, social and economic, that affected the study progress of the respondents leading to some repeating, not completing or having no hope of completing their studies. According to the findings in Table 7.3, out of a total of 33 respondents who responded to this question 39.4% repeated some modules, 9.1% repeated a whole academic year, 30.3% took longer time to complete degree program with 2,3,4 years, 21.2% had to drop out of degree the programme and 6.1% lost all hope of completing their degree programme. The findings further show that the major factors associated with students who repeated modules were accommodation issues with 76.9% and finding part time work with 61.5%. The other factors which also ranked highly were feeling homesick, lonely, and isolated and adapting to UK cultures and customs with 46.2% each.

Findings also show that the major factors associated with students who repeated a whole year were religious issues which affected all and food, mixing with UK students, and adapting to UK cultures and customs with 66.7% each. The major factors associated with students taking longer with 2,3,4 years to complete their degree programmes were accommodation and food affecting 70% of the students and financial problems which affected 60% of the students, feeling of homesick, lonely and isolated also affected half of the students. All students who dropped out of degree programmes were affected by the difficulty of balancing paid work with studies while others reported that they had problems with accommodation (71.4%), keeping in touch with the family back home which affected 85.7% each and were homesick, lonely and isolated. All students who lost hope of completing their studies reported that trying to keep in touch with the family back home and finding food were the most important concerns to them.

Interestingly, practical issues that Pelletier *et al.* (2003) refers to as the 'nuts and bolts' for international students and which one would have expected students to have been inducted prior to departure such as food affected 48.5% of all the students where 30.8% repeated modules because of food, 66.7% repeated a year citing food problems, 42.9% dropped out while 100% lost all hope of completing their study program. It is of concern that challenges to do with food would have had such a major impact on the study progress and outcome of so many students. Although this could be as a result of

the cost of living which affected most of the respondents and cultural habits to do with food this could be investigated in a future study to determine the actual reasons. Practical and social use of the English language affected 15.2% of all the respondents while 6.1% of the students had problems with the academic use of the English language where one student each had to repeat modules while one of them dropped out. This reinforces Luzio-Lockett's (1998) contention that language is a key factor in effective social-cultural adaptation and integration.

7.5 Information Received on Arrival Study Progress and Study Outcomes

Findings in this study (Chapter Six) have shown that there existed pre-departure information gaps in areas that respondents sought information on arrival in the UK. This section therefore, examines the association between areas that respondents sought information on arrival in the UK and their study progress in relation to extending their study period, repeating modules or academic year, dropping out or having no hope of completing their studies. The results are discussed in Table 7.4 here below.

Table 7.4 Information Received on Arrival, Study Progress and Study Outcome: (N=80) Numbers in Tables are Counts of Valid Responses

Study Progress/Outcomes	Your course	Information issues	Work placement	Opportunities open to you as a foreign student	Fees and costs of living	Accommodation	What to do when you first arrived	Living and studying in the UK	Total
1 year	28 (96.6%)	15 (51.7%)	8 (27.6%)	15 (51.7%)	25 (86.2%)	23 (79.3%)	13 (44.8%)	23 (79.3%)	29 (36.3%)
2 years	12 (100%)	5 (41.7%)	1 (8.3%)	2 (16.7%)	9 (75%)	8 (66.7%)	5 (41.7%)	7 (58.3%)	12 (15%)
3 years	4 (100%)	0	0	0	4 (100%)	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	2 (50%)	4 (5%)
4 years	7 (87.5%)	4 (50%)	2 (25%)	2 (25%)	7 (87.5%)	7 (87.5%)	6 (75.0%)	5 (62.5%)	8 (10%)
I have had to repeat modules	13 (100%)	6 (46.2%)	3 (23.1%)	4 (30.8%)	11 (84.6%)	8 (61.5%)	7 (53.8%)	10 (76.9%)	13 (16.3%)
I have had to repeat a year	2 (66.7%)	3 (100%)	1 (33.3%)	1 (33.3%)	3 (100%)	2 (66.7%)	3 (100%)	2 (66.7%)	3 (3.8%)
Has taken me longer time to complete degree program with 2,3,4yr	7 (77.8%)	6 (66.7%)	1 (11.1%)	2 (22.2%)	6 (66.7%)	7 (77.8%)	5 (55.6%)	5 (55.6%)	9 (11.3%)
I have had to drop out of degree programme	5 (71.4%)	3 (42.9%)	2 (28.6%)	1 (14.3%)	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.9%)	4 (57.1%)	5 (71.4%)	7 (8.8%)
I have no hope of completing my degree programme	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (100%)	2 (2.5%)
Total	75 (93.8%)	39 (48.8%)	18 (22.5%)	25 (31.3%)	66 (82.5%)	58 (72.5%)	42 (52.5%)	56 (70%)	80 (100%)

NB: Owing to multiple responses the numbers of cases were 459 indicating that a respondent could have sought information in more than one area.

Table 6.1 shows the areas that respondents sought information on arrival in the UK. This would suggest that, there existed pre-departure information gaps in those areas that students sought information on arrival which likely affected their study progress and outcomes. Results in Table 7.4 show that out of the 80 students who responded the highest number (36.3%) repeated their studies with one year. Upon arrival most of the respondents who repeated one year of study had sought information about their courses (96.6%), while the next most important information sought was on fees and cost of living (86.2%) and 79.3% each sought information on studying and living in the UK and on accommodation in a descending order. The next most affected, were those who repeated modules (16.3%). Findings show that on arrival, they were more concerned with information on their courses (100%), fees and cost of living (84.6%), living and studying in the UK (76.9%) and accommodation (61%). Half (51.7%) of those who repeated one year were also interested in information on opportunities open to international students in the UK. However, this information, in addition to information on work placement did not seem to be important to those who extended their studies or dropped out as very few in this category sought information in these areas during the first two months of arrival in the UK.

Findings also show that those who dropped out (8.8%) were more interested in getting information about their courses (71.4%), living and studying in the UK (71.4%). The next most important concern to 57.1% each was on fees and cost of living and what to do on arrival while accommodation was still a key concern to almost half of them (42.9%). The findings show that those who extended their study programmes had sought information on many areas related to their studies on arrival in the UK, with the most sought after by over half of the respondents being on courses (93.8%), financing education and living expenses (82.5%), accommodation (72.5%), living and studying in the UK (70%). Those who dropped out or repeated modules were also likely to have sought information on these same areas on arrival in the UK.

Although the response rates witnessed in these tables have been low the counts and percentages might prove very significant in larger samples than these. However, this information provides useful insights on areas that adequate pre-departure and arrival

information should be availed to those preparing to study in the UK since lack of information on some of these areas can affect respondents study progress and outcome. The findings of this study have highlighted the need for quality of information given to the students which could also be affected by the source of the information. For example, despite that some of the respondents expressed satisfaction with information received on their courses this study found out that nevertheless some of them enrolled in wrong courses or institutions and they had set unrealistic expectations. These challenges characterised the students' arrival experience. At the same time majority of the respondents still sought information about their courses on arrival in the UK. These findings also provide background information on areas that could be delineated for further research using a different methodology for data collection and analysis.

7.6 Mode of Financing, Study Progress and Outcomes

In Chapter 6, Section 6.7 the study highlighted the financial experience of the respondents. Findings showed that majority of the respondents were self funded either by themselves or their families while only less than 6% received grants from the government, charity or UK universities. The quantitative and qualitative data presented in chapter six section 6.6 have shown that many of the respondents had a negative financial experience owing to various challenges that they experienced as a result of lack of information on unexpected expenses likely to affect the cost of their education, their expectation to get work was unfulfilled as they found it difficult to get part-time work and for those sponsored by their families funds stopped coming and some of the families expected to receive support from the students putting undue financial pressure on them. This section therefore explores how different funding options impacted on respondents study progress in relation to study repetition and extension, not completing their studies, having no hope of completing their studies or dropping out

Table 7.5 Different Modes of Financing, Study Progress and Outcome: (N=84) The Numbers in the Tables are Valid Counts of Responses

Study Outcomes	Self-Funded		Funded by Family		Partial scholarship from Kenyan government		Scholarship from Other sources		Partial scholarship from UK college or university		Full scholarship from UK college or university		Your employer		Total Row	
1 year	17	(56.7%)	16	(53.3%)	8	(26.7%)	2	(6.7%)	3	(10.0%)		0		0	30	(35.7%)
2 years	11	(78.6%)	5	(35.7%)	2	(14.3%)	1	(7.1%)		0	1	(7.1%)		0	14	(16.7%)
3 years	4	(100%)	3	(75%)		0		0		0		0		0	4	(4.8%)
4 years	7	(87.5%)	3	(37.5%)	3	(37.5%)		0	1	(12.5%)		0		0	8	(9.5%)
I have had to repeat modules	6	(46.2%)	8	(61.5%)	4	(30.8%)		0	2	(15.4%)		0	1	(7.7%)	13	(15.5%)
I have had to repeat a year	1	(33.3%)	3	(100%)		0		0	1	(33.3%)		0		0	3	(3.6%)
Has taken me longer time to complete degree program with 2,3,4yr	6	(60%)	5	(50%)	1	(10%)	2	(20%)		0		0		0	10	(11.9%)
I have had to drop out of degree programme	6	(85.7%)	2	(28.6%)	2	(28.6%)		0	1	(14.3%)		0		0	7	(8.3%)
I have no hope of completing my degree programme	1	(50%)	2	(100%)		0		0		0		0		0	2	(2.4%)
Total Column	53	(63.1%)	43	(51.2%)	19	(22.6%)	5	(6 %)	6	(7.1%)	1	(1.2%)	1	(1.2%)	84	(100%)

Results presented in Table 7.5 show that majority of the respondents (63.1%) were self funded while the next highest number of respondents (51.2%) had their fees paid for them by their families, 22.6% were on partial scholarships from the Kenya government, 7.1% from UK government and 6% from other sources. Those with scholarships from UK universities or the employer were only 1.2% each. Therefore the study sought to establish the effect of the different funding options on respondents study outcomes. Results show that the majority (35.7%) of the respondents who extended their studies by one year were self funded (56.7%) followed by those supported by their families (53.3%) and those on partial scholarships from the Kenya government (26.7%). An encouraging finding was that those who were on scholarships or supported by their employer were least affected as only 7.1% extended their studies with 2 years and 7.7 % repeated modules. However none dropped out or had no hope of completing their studies. However, those on partial scholarships from the Kenya government (22.6%), from a UK institution (7.1%) and 6% from other sources were likely to extend their studies, repeat modules or drop out. The same trend was evident amongst the 16.7% of those who extended with two years with the majority being self funded (78.6%) and those funded by their families (35.7%).

Repeating modules was the third ranked factor which affected the study progress of 15.5% of the respondents. Those supported by their families had the tendency to repeat modules (61.5%) followed by those who were self funded (46.2%) and those who were on partial scholarships from the Kenya government (30.8%) and from a UK institution (15.4%). However, those on full scholarships from a UK university or from another source were not reported as having repeated modules. Extension of study period by two years affected 14% out of which (78.6%) were self funded or supported by their families (35.7%). However financial problems mainly caused 8.3% to drop out as those who were mainly affected were self funded (85.7%). Financial challenges was a key factor to those who had no hope of completing their studies (2.4%) as they were either self-funded or sponsored by their families. However, those supported by their employers or on full scholarships were likely to have a more positive study progress and outcome and were likely to complete their studies uninterrupted. Only a negligible number of those who were sponsored, one each, reported extending their study period

with two years or repeating modules while those who were self funded or supported by their families were affected in many ways as they either extended their studies, repeated modules or dropped out. Therefore financial experience was an important factor in students study progress and outcomes.

7.7 Unexpected Costs Study Progress and Outcomes

As reported in chapter six respondents expressed high levels of satisfaction with pre-departure information they received on cost of education. However, the qualitative data analysed in Chapter six Section 6.6 on financial experience showed that the information respondents received was inadequate as it did not cover all aspects of what would likely affect respondents' ability to meet the cost of their education. Therefore, it was not surprising that on arrival in the UK majority (82.5%) still sought information on tuition fees and cost of living which suggests that they still had information gaps related to the cost of their education. Table 7.6 examines the extent to which the unexpected costs affected the respondents study outcomes and the relative impact of each.

Table 7.6 Unexpected Cost, Study Progress and Outcomes: (N=82) The Numbers in the Tables are Valid Counts of the Responses

Study Progress/Outcome	Exchange rate fluctuations		Money promised by sponsor or family was not available		Illness of self or family		My studies lasted longer than expected		I was unable to get a job in UK		The cost of living was higher than I budgeted for		Tuition fee were higher that I had budgeted for		Total	
1 year	14	(46.7%)	8	(26.7%)	8	(26.7%)	13	(43.3%)	8	(26.7%)	18	(60%)	8	(26.7%)	30	(36.6%)
2 years	4	(28.6%)	6	(42.9%)	4	(28.6%)	2	(14.3%)	3	(21.4%)	6	(42.9%)	4	(28.6%)	14	(17.1%)
3 years	2	(50%)	3	(75.%)		0	2	(50%)		0	3	(75%)		0	4	(4.9%)
4 years	6	(75%)	2	(25%)	3	(37.5%)	2	(25%)	3	(37.5%)	6	(75%)	4	(50%)	8	(9.8%)
I have had to repeat modules	7	(58.3%)	2	(16.7%)	3	(25%)	2	(16.7%)	3	(25%)	7	(58.3%)	3	(25%)	12	(14.6%)
I have had to repeat a year	2	(66.7%)		0		0	2	(66.7%)		0	1	(33.3%)		0	3	(3.7%)
Has taken me longer time to complete degree program with 2,3,4yr	5	(55.6%)	2	(22.2%)	1	(11.1%)	5	(55.6%)	2	(22.2%)	6	(66.7%)	3	(33.3%)	9	(11%)
I have had to drop out of degree programme	1	(14.3%)	5	(71.4%)	4	(57.1%)	3	(2.9%)	3	(2.9%)	3	(42.9%)	4	(57.1%)	7	(8.5%)
I have no hope of completing my degree programme	2	(100%)	1	(50%)		0		0	1	(50%)	1	(50%)	1	(50%)	2	(2.4%)
Total	39	(47.6%)	26	(31.7%)	20	(24.4%)	29	(35.4%)	23	(28%)	47	(57.3%)	22	(26.8%)	82	(100%)

As reported in Chapter six, Section 6.7 on arrival in the UK, respondents experienced difficulties in financing their education because their planned budgets were affected by unexpected costs such as interest on tuition fee arrears, annual tuition fee increments, exchange fluctuation, payments for using the extra-curricular facilities, library fines, cost of photocopying and printing. These led to some extending their studies with 1 year (36.6%), two years (17.1%), three years (4.9%), four years (9.8%), they repeated modules (14.6%), took longer to complete their degree programme (11%) or dropped out (8.5%). Those who were mainly affected (57.3%) on arrival in the UK found out that the cost of living was higher than they had budgeted for. They comprised the majority of those who extended their studies with one year (60%), two years (42.9%), three years (75%) while 58.3% had to repeat modules and 42.9% who did not complete their studies reported that they found the cost of living higher than they expected. This was not unexpected as many respondents had expressed dissatisfaction with pre-departure information received on living expenses (Chapter 6, Section 6.8).

The next ranked factor was exchange rate fluctuations (47.6%). Findings show that this led to many of the respondents who were affected to repeat by one year (46.7%), followed by those who repeated modules (58.3%). However, unlike in many other areas exchange rate fluctuations did not greatly contribute to students dropping out, as only one respondent was affected. Those whose studies took longer than expected (35.4%) comprised the third ranked factor which affected respondents study progress and outcome of those who mainly repeated an academic year (43.3%) and obviously they were in school for a longer period of time. When students extend their studies, they have to use additional funds for their tuition fees and living expenses in addition to the opportunity cost involved, which amounts to high wastage.

The unfulfilled promises by families, when money promised was not sent was also an important factor which likely influenced the study progress and outcome of a third of the of the respondents (31.7%) majority of whom (71.4%) dropped out which constituted the highest number of those who dropped out while (26.7%) extended their studies with one year and (42.9%) with two years. Unexpected challenges such as illness of family member (20%) led to the majority in this category (57.1%) to drop out

maybe because support was no longer forthcoming followed by (26.7%) who extended their studies by one year, and two years (28.6%). Contrary to expectation and promises made to students during recruitment there were those who could not get part-time work (28%) which mainly affected those who extended their studies by one year (26.7%).

7.8 Accommodation Study Progress and Outcomes

Findings in this study have shown that the accommodation experience for a quarter of the respondents was not positive. As discussed in Chapter Six Section 6.9, although there were positive attributes related to accommodation provision some of the respondents faced challenges related to accommodation which adversely affected their study progress and outcome. In Chapter Six, 37.5% of the respondents reported having problems with accommodation two months after they arrived in the UK while 38.8% had reported that they were dissatisfied with pre-departure information received on accommodation. This section therefore explores the relative impact of the challenges that respondents experienced on accommodation in relation to their study progress and outcomes.

Table 7.7 Accommodation Study Progress and Outcomes: (N=69) The Numbers in the Tables are Valid Counts of the Responses

Study Outcomes	Having to move out during vacations		Inflexible contracts - not able to change		Deposit not returned by landlord		Not being able to get single sex accommodation		Difficulties living with other people in the same place		Total Row	
1 year	9	(39.1%)	5	(21.7%)	8	(34.8%)	2	(8.7%)	19	(82.6%)	23	(33.3%)
2 years	3	(25%)	4	(33.3%)	2	(16.7%)	1	(8.3%)	8	(66.7%)	12	(17.4%)
3 years	1	(33.3%)		0	1	(33.3%)		0	3	(100%)	3	(4.3%)
4 years	2	(33.3%)	1	(16.7%)	2	(33.3%)	2	(33.3%)	3	(50%)	6	(8.7%)
I have had to repeat modules	3	(23.1%)	2	(15.4%)	3	(23.1%)	1	(7.7%)	9	(69.2%)	13	(18.8%)
I have had to repeat a year	1	(33.3%)	1	(33.3%)		0		0	2	(66.7%)	3	(4.3%)
Has taken me longer time to complete degree program with 2,3,4yr	5	(71.4%)	4	(57.1%)	5	(71.4)	1	(14.3%)	3	(42.9%)	7	(10.1%)
I have had to drop out of degree programme		0		0	3	(42.9%)		0	6	(85.7%)	7	(10.1%)
I have no hope of completing my degree programme	1	(50%)		0	1	(50%)		0	2	(100%)	2	(2.9%)
Total Column	21	(30.4%)	16	(23.2%)	21	(30.4%)	6	(8.7%)	50	(72.5%)	69	(100.%)

In this study, issues to do with accommodation continued to be of concern to many of the respondents' right from the in-country phase and through the study period as findings in Chapter Six Section 6.9 have shown which adversely affected respondents study progress and outcome. Findings in Table 7.7 show that majority of those whose study progress and outcome was affected by accommodation (72.5%) mainly had difficulties living with other people in the same place which led to the majority (82.6%) extending their studies with one year, followed by (69.2%) who repeated modules because of accommodation problems. Difficulties' living with other people was a key factor associated with the high number of the respondents (85.7%) who dropped out because of accommodation problems. Having to move out during vacations also affected the respondents study progress and outcomes and deposits not returned by landlord were the second highest ranked factor with 30.4% each. Respondents who were affected mainly extended their studies with 2, 3, 4 years (71.4%).

However, having to move out of their accommodation during vacation was also a factor that could have influenced the study progress and outcomes as the second highest number of those who extended their studies with one year had to move out during vacations. However, no results showed cases of students who dropped out because of having to move out of their accommodation during vacations. Those who had problems with inflexible contracts (23.2%) mainly extended their studies with 2,3,4 years although there were no cases reported of respondents who dropped out or had no hope of completing their courses because of the inflexible contracts. Single sex accommodation was not a key factor as it was only reported by (8.7%) who mainly extended their studies with 4 years (33.3%). However no students dropped out, had no hope of completing their study program or repeated because they could not get single sex accommodation.

7.9 Part-time Employment Study Progress and Outcomes

Findings presented in chapter five showed that some of the respondents choose UK as a study destination for economic reasons, because of the opportunity to work and study. To the respondents, this was an added attraction to studying in the UK as it is difficult to work and study in Kenya owing to limited employment opportunities. Working was important to students as they expected to meet part of their education costs through part time work. However results in Chapter Six Section 6.11 show that, for some of the respondents their expectations were not met as they could not get part time work and those who did, could not balance work and study and this had serious consequences for their study progress and outcomes as Table 7.8 below shows.

Table 7.8 Employment, Study Progress and Outcomes: (N=49) The Numbers in the Tables are Valid Counts of the Responses

Study Outcomes	I got poor grade because I don't have enough time to work on my assignments		I don't have enough time to revise		I get to class when I am too tired to concentrate		My overall academic performance is low because of the time spent in employment		I miss my lectures because I have to work to support myself		I have had to drop out of school because working is more important to me than studying as I have support myself		Total Row	
1 year	3	(17.6%)	9	(52.9%)	8	(47.1%)	3	(17.6 %)	5	(29.4 %)		0	17	(34.7%)
2 years		0	3	(37.5%)	4	(50%)	2	(25%)	2	(25%)		0	11	(16.3%)
3 years		0		0	1	(33.3%)	1	(33.3%)	2	(66.7%)	1	(33.3%)	5	(6.1%)
4 years	3	(50%)	3	50%)	3	(50 %)	3	(50%)	2	(33.3%)	1	(16.7%)	14	(12.2%)
I have had to repeat modules	5	(62.5%)	5	(62.5%)	5	(62.5%)	4	(50%)	4	(50%)		0	8	(16.3%)
I have had to repeat a year	1	(50%)	1	(50%)	2	(100%)		0		0		0	2	(4.1%)
Has taken me longer time to complete degree program with 2,3,4yr	5	(83.3%)	3	(50%)	4	(66.7%)	3	(50%)	2	(33.3%)		0	6	(12.2%)
I have had to drop out of degree program	1	(25%)	2	(50%)		0	2	(50%)	1	(25%)		0	4	(8.2%)
I have no hope of completing my degree program	1	(100%)	1	(100%)	1	(100%)	1	(100%)	1	(100%)		0	1	(2.0%)
Total Column	16	(32.7%)	23	(46.9)	24	(49%)	15	(30.6%)	15	(30.6%)	2	(4.1%)	49	(100%)

Results show that the inability to balance work and study negatively affected the study progress and outcomes of the respondents in different ways. The highest number of those affected reported that they got to class too tired to concentrate which showed that those in this category were the second highest ranked (47.1%) of those who extended their studies with one year, those who repeated modules (62.5%) and 66.7% whose study would take longer to complete with 2, 3, 4 years. At the same time those who did not have enough time to revise 46.9%, comprised the highest number of those who extended their studies with one year (52.9%) because of work related problems. Surprisingly 30.6% each missed lectures because they had to work to support themselves and their performance was affected because of the time spent working. Mainly findings show that many of those in part-time employment were likely to repeat modules (16.3%) maybe because they did not have time to revise (62.5%), got to class too tired to concentrate (62.5%) did not have time to work on employment (62.5%) and 50% each because they missed lectures as they had to work which affected their academic performance. Generally, getting to class too tired to concentrate affected the study outcomes of the highest number of respondents (49%) followed by those who did not have adequate time to revise (46.9%), work on their assignments or those who missed lectures because they had to work. Results further show that 8.2% dropped out because of work related problems as they did not have enough time to revise (50%) or they spent more time in employment (50%). It is therefore evident that the inability to balance work and study likely affected the study progress and outcomes of the respondents an area which can be addressed through counseling and information support.

7.10 Conclusion

These findings have highlighted factors that are likely to have influenced the study progress and outcomes of Kenyan students. Results show that some respondents had to defer their studies while others did not attain their academic goals as they dropped out without attaining an award. Factors that greatly impacted on respondents study progress and outcomes were economic and practical concerns associated with studying and living in the UK. The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations arising out of the

findings of this study. An inclusive model which brings together different stakeholders for better management of international education in Kenya is proposed.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0 Introduction

This study investigated the experience of Kenyan students enrolled in UK higher education institutions and the impact of their experience on their study progress and outcomes. In order to unravel the issues and determinants of experience and study outcomes, this study examined the pre-departure experience of Kenyan students in relation to their decision making process, expectations, support centers available to them and institutional framework in support of their preparation to study in the UK. The study further examines students' profiles and their experience while in the UK in relation to financial, socio-cultural, academic support systems available to them and the likely impact of their experience on their study progress and outcomes. The findings of this study makes a contribution to the body of knowledge on experience of Kenyan students specifically and that of international students in general from the perspective of a developing country by highlighting the experience of Kenyan students in the UK which currently remains a grey area. Finally based on the study findings, recommendations on how to harness the benefits of an international education by students and countries involved are outlined.

This study was conducted during a time when the face of international education had changed dramatically with increasing numbers of students seeking an international education (Mai 2005) and the realisation of the inherent and substantial economic benefits to host countries (Baldwin and James 2000, Binsardi and Ekwulugo 2003, Hyland *et al.* 2008). The cross-border movement of students has become the norm amongst students from both the developing and developed countries therefore fuelling the need to obtaining empirical evidence on the experience of international students (Hyland *et al.* 2008). Regrettably, the north/south divide is very much apparent in this area, with most of the studies being conducted on experience of international students being mainly from the developed countries in the north (Pelletier, Leonard, and Morley 2003). The present study

therefore, based on the stated objectives examined a sample of Kenyan students and provides knowledge of the experience of international students from the perspective of a developing country. This chapter therefore summarises the main findings of this study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations for an inclusive system to manage international education in Kenya whose aim is to empower Kenyan students to realise their full potential and to enjoy a quality experience as students in the UK. A model for management of international education in Kenya and areas for further research is proposed. These findings address the study's objectives stated in chapter one which was to:

1) identify and describe the Kenyan student population in UK higher education institutions;

2) identify and evaluate the study and living experience of Kenyan students in the UK;

3) establish how the student's study experience affects their study outcomes;

4) formulate policy recommendations to enhance the experience of Kenyan students in UK higher education institutions.

This study has responded to the stated objectives as demonstrated in the presentation and discussion chapters five, six and seven. Chapter five identifies and describes a sample of Kenyan student population in the UK and what influenced their choice of study destination and institution. Chapter six addresses objective two and presents students' experience while in the UK which have been evaluated in terms of whether the experience was positive or negative. Chapter seven examines the likely impact of the respondents experience on their study progress and outcomes in response to objective three while the current chapter presents the study's recommendations. In addition to addressing the study objectives this study through the literature reviewed has also provided knowledge on areas important to management of international education. This information is important to developing countries such as Kenya where literature on experience of international students and internationalisation of higher education is not easily available. The findings have further shown that although anecdotal evidence amongst the Kenyan public presupposes that studying and living in the UK meets every young person's dream it is clear that not all

students in the UK have a positive experience owing to challenges that they face and some do not realise their dreams. A key theme throughout this study was that international education is an economic driven sector and the study provides insights as to how stakeholders have positioned themselves in relation to international education. The researcher considers this information crucial in formulating future policies and strategies on international education.

8.1 Summary of the Main Findings

The findings of this study have shown that the experience of Kenyan students in the UK has not been satisfactory to all students as many Kenyans would want to believe and those recruiting students in Kenya would want to claim. While some of the respondents admitted that, in their struggle to cope with unexpected realities they became more mature, self independent and achieved their academic goals, others were struggling to balance their pre-departure expectations and the reality of studying and living abroad which the findings of this study have shown that they were not adequately prepared for, before departure. Similar findings were reported by Byram and Feng (2006) that one of the advantages of international education is the personal growth that some of the students experience while Bordia, Wales, and Pittam (2006) and Lewins (1990) also found out that not all international students had a positive experience. As a result those affected had to revise their initial expectations downwards which caused disappointment and could be traumatic without adequate support. Findings in this study further show that there is need for accountability and responsibility from all those who are involved in the lives of international students. This section presents the findings which are summarised according to themes adopted for this study.

8.1.1 General Characteristics of the Respondents

The general profiles of Kenyan students are discussed in detail in chapter five in terms of age, gender, study levels and education attainment before coming to the UK. Findings show that the respondents were between the ages of 15-43 and were enrolled across all levels

with the majority (39.3%) at masters (34.6%) at undergraduate and 5.8% at diploma level. A few (11%) were enrolled for PhD studies while only 1% of the respondents were taking foundation courses. Those who participated in this study comprised almost an equal gender representation with 49.7% male and 50.3% female. The sample reflects the composition of the general population of Kenyan students in the UK which constitutes almost equal numbers of both male and female students. Before entering the UK respondents were well qualified to pursue higher education studies as they were either holders of secondary school certificates (32%), diplomas (28%) degrees (30%) and Masters (10%). Despite the shortage of skills in science and technology in Kenya (Kaane 2006) findings show that, the majority of students were pursuing humanity based courses. Majority of the respondents (78%) were enrolled at universities while (22%) were enrolled at colleges of further education. The majority was self funding or had their fees paid for by their families while less than 10% in each category were on full or partial scholarships from the Kenya government, their universities or charities.

8.1.2 Pre-departure Experience

During the in-country preparation phase students mainly relied on unofficial sources of information such as recruitment agencies, internet, newspapers, friends, peers, parents and role models to identify study destination and institution and for information on studying and living in the UK. Findings further show that there lacks a co-coordinated system in Kenya to support potential students seeking study opportunities abroad and those who are already enrolled. Official sources consulted were those involved in student recruitment in Kenya and therefore posed a conflict of interest because of the economic underpinnings associated with international students which has been variously highlighted in this study. These included the British Council in Kenya, recruitment agencies and UK universities during fairs and exhibitions. The Kenya Government or its related institutions were not involved or consulted by students during their study preparation or on arrival in the UK. Therefore respondents came to the UK without fully understanding what it takes to study and live in the UK. Others set unrealistic expectations which left them feeling frustrated and disappointed on arrival in the UK. Crucial and practical information on social

adaptation and integration, living and studying abroad, possible difficulties international students are likely to face, how to cope with such difficulties, setting realistic expectations and information on existing student support centers was not provided. Surprisingly, the need for adequate pre-departure and pre-arrival information to international students was reported by Kinnel and Lewins as far back as 1990 (Chapter 3 Section 3.3) but as this study have shown this has not been implemented in Kenya and some international students, as demonstrating by the case of Kenyan students continue to come to the UK ill prepared to study and live in a foreign culture.

8.1.3 Financial Experience

Just like many other international students in major destination countries are self funded, 71% in the UK, UKCOSA (2004); 80% New Zealand, Ward and Masgoret (2004); 64% in the USA, Open Doors (2003); this study found out that, likewise, the majority of Kenyan students were self funded with half of them 49.7% paying their own fees and 52.6% had their fees paid by their families. However, 17.8% were on full Kenya government scholarships, 18.3% on partial Kenya Government scholarship, 5.8% and 1.3%, respectively, were on full or partial scholarships from UK universities and 1.3% from UK charities. Findings in Chapter Seven Section 7.6 show that those who were on full scholarships had   better study progress and outcomes compared to those who were self funded. None of them was reported to have extended their study programs, repeated or dropped out. They completed their studies on time. However those sponsored by their families had challenges almost similar to those who were self sponsored which adversely affected their study progress and outcome. Many of the respondents experienced financial difficulties because they could not get work despite them being allowed to work for twenty hours by UK government, while others, found it difficult to balance work and study. Many were not aware of the unexpected costs likely to affect the cost of their education such as foreign exchange fluctuations, the unanticipated levies charged by universities, the cost of breaking contracts, the annual tuition fee and living expenses increments, while some sponsors stopped their support mid way through respondents' study period. As a result,

those affected were unable to meet their contractual obligations when they fell due which further aggravated their debt levels and ultimately their study experience.

8.1.4 Social-Cultural Experience

Studies discussed in Sections 3.1 and 3.4, Byram and Feng (2006), Crossman and Bordia (2008), Furnhan and Bochner (1986), Kinnel (1990), Luzio-Lockett (1998) and Lewins (1990) underscore the need for adequate pre-departure and pre-arrival information and preparation to help international students adapt to host cultures. They also emphasise the role of formal and informal social support networks and language to help international students to integrate. However findings show that the social-cultural experience for some respondents was not satisfactory as they could not achieve an all round social adaptation and integration. Findings reveal that contrary to their pre-departure expectation, they could only mix with other international or Kenyan students whom they found more accessible compared to home students. Language which was identified by Luzio-Lockett (1998) and Lewins (1990) as a barrier to effective socialisation was also found to be an issue as some of the respondents reported having difficulties with the practical and social use of the English language which may have hampered their efforts to socialise. Social adaptation was also poor, as some respondents reported feeling homesick, lonely and isolated with opportunities for mixing with other nationalities or other Kenyan students limited. Others did not make use of the extra-curricular activities organised by the universities which could have provided opportunities for them to mix with home students as they found them expensive or did not have time to use them. They preferred going to religious venues where they were likely to meet with their own nationals. This echoes findings by Lewins (1990) who reported that providing these facilities did not mean that foreign students will make use of them.

During group work where respondents could have further mixed, different nationalities kept to themselves and home students were not keen to join them. However, it was evident that respondents were keen to take part in group activities where there were no levies charged as they were involved in voluntary work such as drama, music groups, mentoring and

leadership programs. Although informal social support networks have been identified as important in enhancing the socialisation of international students (Furnham and Bochner 1986) there are no Kenyan student associations or student support networks in the UK or in Kenya. Overall many respondents found it challenging dealing with practical issues such as food, transport, immigration and balancing work and study which adversely affected their study progress and outcome.

8.1.5 The Accommodation Experience

Blacky (1994), Pilkington (1994) and Lewins (1990) points out that although accommodation is important in influencing how well a student settles for learning, which they refer to as getting the first three weeks right, many international students have faced accommodation related problems (Chapter 3 Section 3.9) which ultimately affects their experience. Similarly, accommodation was a concern to Kenyan students before departure, on arrival in the UK and during their study period. Although respondents were happy living in shared accommodation as it was cost effective and provided much needed company, it was disruptive at times if one shared with undisciplined students. Others did not find it conducive for private studies. However, respondents were happy with university accommodation as it was close to the university but was expensive and disruptive as one had to move out after the first year and during vacations. For others, the distance between their private rented accommodations' to the universities affected their effective use of university facilities especially at night and during winter. Although private accommodation was cheaper it turned out to be expensive because of the distance to the university as some had to incur transport expenses which they did not have to, when they lived in the University accommodation and they found it difficult dealing with agents, keeping to fixed contracts, difficulties having deposits returned by landlords and getting accommodation in secure areas.

8.1.6 Impact of Respondents' Experience on Their Study Progress and Outcomes

Findings show that respondents chose UK as a study destination so as to benefit from globally recognised qualifications, quality education and to acquire skills that provide a head start in the competitive job market. There were positive attributes associated with the study and living experience of many of the respondents who reported being more independent, self reliant, more decisive, learnt to socially adapt and became more resilient. The majority successfully completed their course programs and expressed high satisfaction ratings with their academic experience. However for some, their study expectations were not met as they found it challenging to adapt to the UK system of education, found the high technology used in teaching and learning stressful and difficult to use. Others did not achieve their dream of enrolling in a top UK university as they had to enroll in colleges of further education. Those affected considered colleges as 'second chance institutions' because they provided opportunities to continue learning to those whose only alternative was to drop out as they could not afford to continue paying fees at universities, those who found themselves on wrong courses or those who wanted to change to less demanding ones. In addition, the inability to balance work and study, lack of commitment amongst students to their studies, freedom and independence that some students were not used to and inability to finance their education also affected their study progress. For others, their study experience was negative as they did not achieve their academic goals. They had to drop out before completing their studies, owing to challenges that they experienced. Others took long to complete as they had to extend their studies, progress was poor as they had to repeat modules and academic years or took academic breaks thus being affected by the 'opportunity cost effects'. The key factors that were found to have affected the students study progress were finances, social-cultural adaptation and integration, inadequate information and practical issues.

8.1.7 Institutional Framework for International Education in Kenya

Literature reviewed in this study (Republic of Kenya 1998, 2003a, 2005a, 2005b, 2006a) together with the study's findings have shown that there is no policy on international

education in Kenya to guide its implementation and against which the experience of Kenyan students abroad can be monitored or evaluated. International education in Kenya is therefore principally guided by practice. In the absence of policy guidelines in Kenya, as to how international education should be implemented and managed, critical areas important to enhancing students study and living experience have been neglected as findings in this study have shown. For example, there lacks student support centers in Kenya to disseminate information to those preparing to study abroad and there is vested interest with those providing information to potential students. As a result, respondents made an-informed decisions in choosing study destinations and institutions, enrolled in wrong courses and study institutions. Consequently, the pre-departure experience for some of the respondents was negative as some set unrealistic goals and expectations which negatively affected their study and living experience.

Against this background, on arrival in the UK some of the respondents did not make use of the support facilities provided by universities and they continued to seek information from informal sources such as friends and families while those who used the support facilities offered by the universities did not find them useful while others ignored them altogether. It was evident that there was poor dissemination of information and lack of sensitisation on studying and living in the UK therefore inadequate preparation to study and live abroad. Arising from interviews with policy makers in Kenya and staff dealing with international students at UK universities it was noted that the various players at the policy level and those who should be providing support to students abroad were not aware of the challenges that students in the UK were experiencing. They did not seem to fully appreciate their role in supporting students abroad in the case of Kenyan policy makers. It was also evident that in Kenya responsible and ethical recruitment of students was not evident as crucial information that would have helped the students to settle well for successful study outcomes was not given to them. There were no systems to ensure accountability by the various bodies involved in student recruitment or a code of conduct to ensure responsibility and professionalism in student recruitment.

8.2 Study Conclusions

It is evident from the findings of this study that although many Kenyan students in the UK had a positive study and living experience there were those whose experience was negative as they faced challenges that adversely affected their study progress and outcome. This study proposes that to enhance the student experience there is need for an inclusive system where the different bodies involved in international education in Kenya and in the UK work together to create synergies if Kenyan students are to reap the full benefits of being students in the UK. The student support work will take place both in Kenya where the student journey begins with UK institutions taking the responsibility of ensuring that the support services that they provide are relevant and responsive to students' needs. Sensitisation of students to the practical use of the services will need to be continuous from the pre-departure phase throughout the study period for timely feedback and intervention but not a one off induction.

The proposed department of international education in Kenya, based at the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology is expected to ensure responsible and ethical recruitment by UK institutions and agencies dealing with student recruitment in Kenya, monitor students' experience and provide the Kenyan public with information and support. There was evidently a disjuncture between the promise, expectation and the reality and as argued by Rousseau (1995) this amounts to 'breaking the psychological contracts' between the students and institutions which the latter are obligated to keep. Based on the findings, scope and remits of this study the following conclusions are drawn.

1) There is no policy on international education in Kenya to guide student recruitment. Recruitment of Kenyan students by UK institutions is fragmented, underpinned by undocumented practice, poor cultural understanding and it is economically driven by the recruiting agencies in Kenya who benefit from the commissions paid to them and UK institutions that also benefit from the fees paid by international students. Individual students and their families also act as a driving force to overseas study.

2) There lacks information support centres in Kenya that are independent of student recruiting bodies/agencies to support students when making choice of study destination and institution, to prepare them to live and study abroad or set realistic goals and expectations. In addition, there is no regulatory mechanism or a code of conduct to guide practice.

3) Although UK universities provide support centres, services and facilities for use by international students not all students make use of them as students have to pay to use them, others do not have the time to make use of them or the services they offer are not responsive to students needs and therefore students prefer to use informal sources of information or facilities outside the universities. Not all students were sensitised to the existence and use of these facilities as some reported that they were not aware that the facilities were available.

4) The majority of the respondents were satisfied with their academic experience and personal development. However, some of them experienced financial, social, practical and personal problems which resulted in negative study experience. Their study progress and outcome was affected in that they did not complete their studies on time as some extended their study period, repeated and others dropped out altogether while some had no hope of getting their awards. Others enrolled in wrong courses and institutions which was contrary to their pre-departure expectation.

5) Inadequate pre-departure and arrival information on the cost of studying in the UK affected the study progress of some of the respondents who in an effort to cope could not balance work and study.

6) Some of the respondents lacked knowledge of the host culture and the ability to use it within the appropriate context which hindered the building of relationships with the home community. As a result, respondents found it easier

socialising with Kenyan nationals and other international students and therefore did not achieve their expectation of mixing with home students. Their social experience was further affected by inadequate preparation and information especially on practical issues necessary for them to live abroad such as accommodation, food, weather and finding part-time work. Therefore some of the respondents did not adapt or integrate socially and therefore their social-cultural experience was negative.

7) To some of the Kenyan students, studying in a college of further education was not as prestigious as being in a university. However, fees charged by colleges are lower than that charged by universities and students found colleges to be more interactive as the student population was not as large as that in universities. To guard students from enrolling in colleges that are not accredited as is currently the case, a directory of accredited colleges should be accessible to Kenyans showing the competitiveness of the colleges in terms of the courses that they offer, student's satisfaction, employability of their graduates and universities that they have links with. A directory of accredited colleges would provide a pathway to the many Kenyan students who want to study in the UK but cannot afford fees charged at universities and help in the transition of those who on arrival in the UK would want to transfer to colleges which were found to be more affordable.

8) Evidently there lacks an established system through which ongoing worldwide research on experience of international students or good practice that would influence and shape the experience of international students, inform the decision making process and practice for overseas study in Kenya.

8.3 Recommendations for Policy and Practice

It is expected that the proposed recommendations will open up a new chapter for international education in Kenya and specifically for Kenyan students in the UK. Areas that

require policy for implementation have been identified as well as those that can be implemented at strategy or practice level. The key actors responsible although not exhaustive have been identified to facilitate implementation. The recommendations have been categorised for implementation under three levels: those to be implemented by the Kenya government, the Kenya High Commission and UK higher education institutions. The findings will be disseminated to the Kenya government through status reports to the Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology. Opportunities during seminars and conferences will be used to disseminate and share the findings with other practitioners in the field of higher education management. Publications derived from the study will be shared with UK universities that supported the study, during the annual recruitment exhibitions and fairs by UK universities in Kenya and through the British Council in Nairobi. Excerpts where possible will be published in different print and electronic forms. The proposed recommendations that aim to bring key stakeholders in international education to work together, attempts to incorporate the current thinking of democratising education policy making where practitioners and consumers give feedback on the product (Oakes *et al.* 2008). The recommendations are presented in Table 8.1 here below.

Table 8.1: Recommendations

Level for Action	Aspect to be Addressed	Recommendation	Action by	Level of Activity
Kenya Government	Develop Policy on International Education in Kenya	The current education act is in the process of being reviewed and relevant policy guidelines on all aspects of international education in Kenya should be included.	Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, Ministry of Education and Relevant Stakeholders.	Policy
		The findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study should be disseminated as widely as possible to ensure that they input to the review process and also inform ongoing practice on student recruitment in Kenya.		Practice
	Co-ordination	A fully fledged department manned by experts in international education should be started in Kenya to play a similar role to the Universities and Colleges Admission Service (UCAS) UK. The department should provide information on studying and living abroad to parents, schools, students and the general public. It would also link students to universities in the UK and help them match qualifications with appropriate courses and provide information on study options and pathways.	The Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology, Kenya High Commission, Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Related Stakeholders.	Strategy
		The department should facilitate organisations and institutions dealing with international education in Kenya and abroad and publicise good practice, research and publications on international education.		Strategy
	Monitoring and Evaluation	Institute regular surveys to assess the experience of Kenyan students in the UK.	Kenya High Commission	Practice

Kenya Government	Data and Information Intelligence	Collect data and maintain an up to-date data bank to inform policies and practice and monitor experience of Kenyan students in the UK.	All stakeholders with Kenya government taking the lead.	Policy
	Code of Conduct	Devise a code of conduct to ensure that professionalism and ethical recruitment of Kenyan students is observed at all stages.	Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology, Recruiting agencies, Universities, British Council.	Strategy
	In Country Student Support Structures	Constitute support systems for Kenyan students aspiring to study abroad and publicise them so that the public is aware that they exist and can access information/support when they need to.	Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology, Relevant Stakeholders	Policy
	Transition	Manage student transition from Kenya to the UK by putting in place support systems that are responsive to students needs and with more stakeholder involvement.	Kenya/UK Governments, Higher Education Institutions in the UK.	Strategy
	Publicity	Demystify international education in Kenya and make it more open. This could be done by providing information through regular bulletins in print and electronic media detailing the role of various agencies involved in student recruitment.	Stakeholders, Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Kenya High Commission.	Practice
		Guide those interested as to where they can access information on studying abroad so that Kenyans can make informed decisions and choices not only on studying in the UK but in other destinations outside Kenya.		

Kenya Government	Awareness and Sensitisation	In Kenya there are programmes at secondary schools and universities to sensitise students on courses and opportunities offered by different local universities and the careers they lead to. Similar programs on studying abroad should be included so that Kenyans are able to make informed decisions on their academic futures based on choices and options available.	Ministry of Education, Career Advice Teachers, Universities, Stakeholders, Head teachers, Teachers, Ministry of Higher Education Science & Technology, Commission for Higher Education, Kenya High Commission	Practice / Strategy
Kenya High Commission, UK	Networks	Establish a network of Kenyan students in the UK and alumni in Kenya. The network should be supported by an interactive website with an information blackboard where students can make enquiries or raise concerns and get a response from those who have experience of studying in the UK.	Kenya High Commission, Alumni, Students in the UK, Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology, Ministry of Education.	Strategy
	UK-Kenyan Student Organisation	Establish a three tier Kenyan student organisation in the UK with peer counselors, mentors and Kenyan professionals. Its mandate should be to give Kenyan students a forum to share their successes, best practices, failures, concerns, information, offer counseling services and support to each other.	Kenya High Commission, Students, Kenyan Professionals in the UK, Alumni, Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology.	Strategy
		The organisation should also identify opportunities for students, act as a point for making social contacts and organise seminars for Kenyan students in the UK and in Kenya for those that are preparing to study in the UK.		

Universities in the UK	Monitoring Benchmarking Dissemination	Institutions should, where desirable, benchmark against the findings reported in this study and in any other survey relevant to Kenyan students in relation to pre and arrival experience, policies relating to fees, financial support, student work and study programs, accommodation, social integration and immigration.	UK Universities, Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, Kenya, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Stakeholders.	Policy and Practice
		The findings of such research/surveys should be disseminated to appropriate institutions, organisations and individuals. This aims to provide information in areas that might negatively affect the students experience as competition for recruitment of international students' increases and the quality of students experience becomes a key marketing strategy.		
Universities in the UK	Addressing Information gaps/ Student Support	Review approach by stakeholders, to providing practical information to students by having an institutionalised system responsive to different groups of students. Induction should be institutionalised in the different levels of student support.	UK Higher Education Institutions, Organisations and Stakeholders.	Strategy Practice
		Information provided to students should not only be market oriented aimed at selling UK universities to potential clients but should include challenges past students have experienced, current students are facing, how to address likely challenges, where to or not to look for help, labour market trends and course relevance.		
		Train staff dealing with guidance and counselling, working with international students in intercultural communicative competence to support students from different cultures and promote intercultural mixing of students.		

8.4 Proposed Model on Management of Higher Education in Kenya

A model on management of international education in Kenya is proposed (Figure 8.1) to address gaps that have been identified and discussed in chapters five, six and seven as affecting the experience of Kenyan students in the UK. There are key elements arising out of this study that have informed the construction of the model. Findings have shown that there is no policy on international education in Kenya to support those seeking study opportunities abroad and during their study period, as well as guide the activities of various organisations and institutions involved in student recruitment in Kenya. Current student recruitment in Kenya by UK universities is based on practice as findings in Sections 5.2 and 5.3 have shown. Within the current student recruitment practice in Kenya engagement with government institutions is not evident. There lacks independent structures to support students in their decision making and in providing them with information to study and live in the UK. Those that provide information to potential students have an economic interest in their recruitment.

The proposed model seeks to empower Kenyan students for an enhanced student experience while in the UK. This is crucial, as literature reviewed in Section 1.1 has revealed that UK has been and continuous to be a preferred destination for Kenyan students and the number of Kenyan students seeking a UK education has been on the increase (HESA 2008). Similarly, there are push factors that continue to influence the decision of Kenyans to seek study opportunities in the UK as a country of choice. These factors are discussed in background Chapter One Section 1.5 and in Chapter Five Section 5.2. Understanding push factors from a students' country of origin is important in that it provides a basis for the broad conceptualisation of the recruitment environment (Zimmermann 1995) and therefore help in designing appropriate strategies.

For Kenyan students, push factors discussed in chapter one and five include economic factors, demand for higher education, limited access to higher education, quality of education in Kenya, subject choices, adventure among young people, need to acquire global qualifications and international experience. The pull factors that contribute to

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internationalisation of higher education have also been discussed in detail in the literature review chapter two section 2.2. Although the push-pull factors are so evident this study (chapter five and six) has demonstrated that there lacks systems to support students during the initial in country phase and the support provided on arrival do not meet the needs of all students resulting to a negative experience for some of them. It is also evident from the literature reviewed in this study (chapter three) that research on experience of international students has been ongoing for a long time in developed countries. This is supported by Pelletier, Leonard, and Morley (2003) who decries the lack of research on experience of international students from Africa studying in the UK while such research exists for students from other parts of the world. This study did not find evidence on research on experience of Kenyan students in the UK although it has been a long standing practice for Kenyans to study in the UK and other destinations around the world.

The findings from this study highlight the continuing importance of ongoing research on the experience of international students in shaping or influencing students experience especially for those from countries not involved in such research. As discussed in section 5.6.1 during interviews with policy makers in Kenya it was not evident how governments in developing countries have positioned themselves in relation to the ongoing internationalisation of higher education and recruitment of their nationals. This is supported by the case of Kenya where the government and its institutions have had limited or no involvement with Kenyan students in the UK despite the fact that Kenyan students comprise 15% of the total number of students from Africa studying in UK (HESA 2008). The model therefore proposes an institutionalised and inclusive stystem that will provide a network through which key stakeholders can work together and share their experience for continuous enhancement of the experience of Kenyan students.

It was also not evidently clear how previous and ongoing research on experience of international students feeds back into or informs in country processes or is disseminated to students before they arrive in the UK to inform decision making, goal setting and expectations and adequately prepare them to study and live in the UK. This study further

recognises that Kenya is integral to globalisation which is demonstrated by the many Kenyan students abroad. Therefore, enriching the experience of Kenyan students in the UK should be part of the internationalisation process of higher education in Kenya with institutions listening to feedback, responding and sharing information to continuously improve the students' experience. This is what the proposed model seeks to achieve.

However, there was no one single model that could inform the proposed model. Therefore the criteria used in different models, that is, the Transformative Model (Harvey and Knight 1996), Engagement Model (Haworth and Conrad 1997) and the Responsive University Model (Tierney 1998) were used to inform the model proposed in this study. The Transformative Model (Harvey and Knight 1996) aims to enhance students' experience, adding value to their capability and ultimately empowering them. Harvey and Knight, point out that for this to be achieved there is need for a transparent process which is open about aims, processes, and methods of attainment, is integrated and linked together to a cohesive whole, contributing to a rich and relevant "Total Student Experience". The model advocates for quality policies to result in a clear focus on student experience. The Transformative Model is about a responsive process that is explicit, integrated and based on dialogue.

The Transformative Model differs from the Engagement Model by Haworth and Conrad (1997) in that the Engagement Model focuses on programme quality and is organised around the student, faculty (academicians) and administrative engagement in teaching and learning. According to the model clusters of programme attributes should contribute to enriching the learning experiences of students. This model was found limiting in that it focused more on teaching and learning and what happens within universities and excludes external factors affecting students. In contrast, Tierney (1998) collated views of leading authors on 'restructuring for high performance' which together formed a model for excellence titled 'A Responsive University Model'. Unlike the Transformative and the Engagement models the Responsive University Model is based on the premise that the public will judge the university in terms of the quality of their relationships and the quality of their outcomes.

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Tierney in his model observes that, for universities to survive and thrive they will have to be responsive and be service oriented. For this to be achieved, the responsive university model proposes development of new internal relationships, communication, new external partnerships including social partnerships with communities. Tierney underscores the need for joint activities across all levels. That is between academic units, between institutions and between governments so that the institution is allied with public purposes. The model recognises the need for communication which requires new relationships and partnerships both internally and externally. With more emphasis on relationships and outcomes the university will be more of a network than a place (Tierney 1998). Creating of networks is a key feature that is recommended in the model proposed in this study. The model also recognises the role of academics who are expected to regularly review and take into account shifts in student demand, resource allocations, departmental goals and the evolving mission of universities (Tierney 1998).

While each model is unique in itself the three models that inform the current model focus on enhancing the student learning experience through collaboration. Each model provides a common focus of elements this study considers important in developing a quality management model for international education in Kenya. The principles expounded in the different models complement each other and can be summarised as: governance, collaboration, communication, interaction, dialogue and monitoring. These principles have informed the proposed model presented as Figure 8.1. How the different elements interface at the operational level with the aim of creating a network of student support is discussed after the presentation of the model.

Policy on International Education in Kenya

Coordination, Monitoring, Dissemination

Department for International Education in Kenya

Family

Network and Associations

Student

UK Universities

-Student to student support
-Alumni
-Institutionalised student support through websites, mentors and peer counsellors

-Support services
-Periodical surveys
-Systems for feed back
-Consultative recruitment strategies
-Best practices shared
-Timely interventions –- Shared Research

International and Regional Policies and Strategies

Outcomes
-Students empowered to realise their full potential, achieve personal development and self-actualisation
-Influence on policy and practice on student migration at national, regional and international level
-Forum for informal support
-Student voices
-Shared values, practice and experience

Figure 8.1 Model on Management of International Education in Kenya

The model recognises the need for collaboration, communication and dialogue between the Kenya Government, UK universities, student networks and associations as stakeholders in shaping the student experience. This study recognises these bodies as important in enhancing the experience of Kenyan students. The model proposes that the student should be at the centre of services provided and processes adopted by the different bodies providing support to students. Findings in this study (Chapters' five, six and seven) have shown that the family has a strong influence on the student because what families do or do not do will impact greatly on support provided by universities, the Kenya government and the student's well being.

The family influences the experience of the majority of students who are self-funding and being supported by their families. Families were also cited as influencing the students' decision while making choice of study destination and institution (Chapter Five Section 5.2 and 5.3). Although families were found to be playing this critical role in influencing the students experience this study found out that (Chapters Five and Six) most families are not empowered to provide informed guidance or influence the study choices of their children. Therefore, directly or indirectly the family will influence policy and practice and the activities of the other bodies. That is why the family is inside the circle with non-continuous arrows pointing at both the student and the Kenya government.

The first step in actualising the model will be the development of a policy on international education in Kenya to provide guidelines to actualise the model and enable budget provision to support its strategies. This is in agreement with the transformative model (Harvey and Knight 1996) on the need for a policy to provide a clear focus on students' experience. In the Kenyan situation, in the absence of a policy the government cannot plan, make budgetary provision, monitor or provide the necessary infrastructure required to support and implement international education in Kenya. Models (Harvey and Knight 1996, Haworth and Conrad 1997 and Tierney 1998) that informed the construction of this model identify collaboration and coordination as key elements at the operational level. Coordination and collaboration was therefore considered in the proposed model. Although

the recommendations of this study have identified the important bodies in student support, regrettably, there is no system in Kenya through which they can work together to support students studying abroad. The proposed model is expected to provide this.

The policy is expected to provide for a department of international education in Kenya whose proposed mandate will include: coordinating all aspects of international education, policy implementation, monitoring and evaluation, providing strategic leadership, setting up a databank of Kenyan students abroad, conducting periodical research on experience of Kenyan students, disseminating such information to stakeholders, conducting experts joint seminars amongst stakeholders as a way of sharing and embracing changes likely to affect the experience of Kenyan students. Such interventions should be designed to reflect the changing nature of higher education offered internationally. Similarly, international and regional policies and strategies on international education are also recognised as influencing the students' experience. For example, the UK government has highlighted its full commitment to international education through a number of initiatives such as the international strategy introduced in 2004, and the launch of the Prime Ministers Initiative 2 (PM1 2) in 2006. The five year initiative aimed at securing UK's position as a leader in international education (DfES 2006). This has resulted to UK Universities recruiting more and more international students and Kenya is a key market in Africa for UK universities after Nigeria and Ghana (HESA 2008, Ramsden 2007). Therefore in the model such policies are considered in the outer circle alongside the other stakeholders.

The work of the department for international education will be informed by the policies and strategies of the Kenya Government, activities of UK universities, student networks and associations. Evidently, in the proposed model the intensity of interaction and relationship will vary and this is demonstrated by the design of the arrows. To show the relationship between the different bodies and opportunities for collaboration that exist, based on the proposed model, the outer circle has a non continuous line with link arrows pointing at both ends. This means that any of these bodies may influence each other in different ways and at different times and can choose to work together or not. For this reason the outer lines of the

circle are not continuous emphasising the need for partnerships but not power play. This further emphasises that the relationships are mutually acceptable, voluntary and operate at strategy level within a defined policy framework. The arrows also aim to encourage dialogue, consultation and partnerships. This is why a relational model was considered as different bodies are not ranked but complement each other. What may have a greater impact is the intensity with which any of the bodies influences the student experience, as each of the bodies at any one time during a student's journey is bound to.

The arrow between the Kenya government and the student is the boldest with pointers at both ends. This implies that the government will have a greater impact on the student's experience through the policies and strategies that they develop which will define guidelines that will govern student recruitment in Kenya and a code of conduct to guide practice. The arrow also provides for feedback through policy monitoring and evaluation which currently do not exist. There are two arrows pointing at different directions linking the student with the student networks and associations and UK universities. One of the arrows (Top) denotes the influence of policy and practice on students with the second arrow (Bottom) providing for a feedback process which is likely to influence policy and practice.

Universities were included in the model because as Maringe and Carter (2007) suggest institutions should make sure that not only is information available to international students but the right information gets to them. Information that universities would access by interacting with the other bodies would be useful in designing their recruitment strategies and internationalisation activities in Kenya. For example, considering the economic value of a qualification to a Kenyan student issues to do with the value of the subject in the labour market, labour market factors and issues of post qualification progression would be of more interest to Kenyan students as they make study and institutional choices. This is in contrast to the current marketing strategy in Kenya as told by the students (Chapter 5 Section 5.2 and 5.3) where universities are more interested in showing visual images of their campuses instead of focusing on real issues that would benefit students. This is a limitation to the

current student recruitment strategies in Kenya and which the proposed model seeks to address.

The model recognises the need to involve students while making decisions that affect them which this study considers instrumental for sustainable empowerment to enable them make informed decision regarding their study pathways. Students' voices are imperative to the successful implementation of the model. They will be involved through networks, alumni and professional associations. This support network will be an important source of information as findings in chapter five have shown that students were more likely to consult informal sources of information as opposed to formal support centers provided by universities. The model will provide a forum for informal peer support with shared values and experiences. Therefore a Kenyan student network and association with involvement of alumni, counselors and mentors supported by websites is proposed situated on the outer circle together with the other bodies so that at an informal level students can access support and information.

The advantage of this all inclusive approach is that with the continued growth of higher education markets, institutions will understand their markets better and begin to provide a higher education experience that is both relevant and meaningful to international students (Maringe 2005). As argued by Maringe and Carter (2007) it is through such understanding and working together that institutions can begin to market appropriately to the needs of emerging markets and consumers and begin to address the contemporary international recruitment concept of 'responsible recruitment' (Ibid. 2007). Findings have demonstrated that the shortcomings with the current student recruitment model in Kenya is because it is directly influenced by practice, wrong expectations, poor goal setting and uninformed decision making. It is on the basis of this that an alternative model to the one that currently exists has been proposed.

The model is not expected to control international education in Kenya but it is expected to ensure ethical recruitment of students and provide a feedback system amongst stakeholders

to continuously inform policy and practice to ensure that students have reasonable chances of succeeding. Findings in this study have revealed that about 15% of Kenyan students in the UK leave universities without an award (Appendix 23). At the same time, during the data collection process the study found out that institutions in the UK have a dearth of information on experience of international students studying in the UK. Therefore the proposed feedback system is expected to provide a system through which previous and ongoing research on experience of international students can inform in-country policies and practice. This is possible because the proposed organisational structure also provides opportunities for different bodies to interact at different levels and share experiences on all aspects of international education from pre-study to study period and post study experiences in a coherent manner.

The strength of the proposed model is that it recognises the need for coordination, collaboration, communication, provision of networks for sharing best practices, monitoring, feedback and a platform for stakeholders to influence policy change and practice. The model also provides a platform to encourage continuous debate on experience of Kenyan students studying abroad and to create synergies amongst the different bodies working in the field of international education in Kenya. The outcome of the model is an enhanced experience of Kenyan students in the UK which enables them to realise their full potential, achieve personal development and self actualisation. The model will also influence policy and practice on students' migration at national, regional and international level.

The researcher is conscious of the risk of 'bureaucratic red tape' that may hinder the successful implementation of the model and the additional budget required for implementation. However drawing from the experience of the various bodies involved in international education, using the personnel and facilities of the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology which is responsible for higher education in Kenya will rationalise the costs involved and facilitate implementation for better implementation of international education in Kenya and a quality experience for students who take up this offer.

8.5 Suggestions for Future Study

This study marks the beginning point through which the experience of Kenyan students in the UK can begin to be understood based on empirical evidence. It is expected that, this study will generate interest on research on experience of Kenyan students not only in the UK but in other destinations where Kenyan students are enrolled. The following areas are therefore recommended for further research.

- Replicate the study in other destinations which are popular to Kenyan students such as USA, Australia, Canada and Russia so as to have an inclusive understanding on experience of Kenyan students abroad.

- Conduct a qualitative study, using longitudinal survey method on a cohort of first year Kenyan undergraduate students to determine their experience by the end of their three year study period.

- Conduct a comparative study of Kenyan students with that of other international students in the UK to determine their experiences and existing support structures.

- Undertake a study to determine the support systems that exist for international students in UK universities, those which are most useful, those that need to be reformed and how they can be improved to reflect the emerging diversity and multicultural face of the universities.

- Carry out a study in Kenya to establish the employment patterns of those with UK qualifications and whether those who get a UK qualification have a competitive edge during recruitment.

- Conduct a study to determine the status and efficacy of recruitment agencies in Kenya.

8.6 The Epilogue

In a career spanning over twenty five years, in policy development and management in the Ministry of Education, I thought I had reached the apex in policy development and research in the education sector in Kenya. I also believed that policy development in Kenya had achieved its strategic purpose and was thus all embracing and covered all areas in education. This belief changed when I left Kenya and was posted to the Kenya High Commission, in London. I realised that in a sector as important as international education there were no consistent national policies in Kenya and the level knowledge necessary to guide its implementation. What existed was at best anecdotal and inconsistent. This led me to embark on two simultaneous journeys. One, that of building my capacity and capability to meet the many and often varied needs of Kenyan students in the UK, in my official work. Two, embark on a research undertaking to inform future policies in higher education management in Kenya and also build an evidence base necessary to provide support and guidance to Kenyan students in the UK.

When I arrived in the UK, I was quickly confronted by various challenges in my work. I lacked information about the Kenyan students I was supposed to support to help me in locating where these students were enrolled and what kind of support they needed, if any. I started by contacting the universities to get details of any Kenyan students in their institutions. To my utter surprise, I was made aware that owing to the 'data protection regulations' nobody could give out information about a third party without the authority of the individual concerned. Sadly, I retreated back not knowing what to do and how to connect with the Kenyan students I was supposed to support. I was almost falling into despair after I learnt that there are about two hundred universities in the UK and many other colleges of further education offering higher education. Kenyan students could be in any one of these institutions and I had just arrived in the UK. I did not know where to start. I then thought my solution lay with the Kenya government as it might have a register of Kenyan students that I could use to track down the students in the UK. My hope turned to despair when I was informed that the Kenya government does not have a record of students who are successful in getting visas to study in the UK and I could check with the British

Embassy in Nairobi. I had hit a dead end. The embassy also could not release any information owing to the data protection regulations.

I was at a loss and I was feeling desperate as I had read in various publications (Ramsden 2006 and 2007, HESA 2004) that Kenya had about two thousand and nine hundred students in the UK. Further search confirmed that Kenyan students constituted the second highest number of students from Africa in the UK after Nigeria. Despite the high numbers, the Kenya Government had no records or information about these students, where they are enrolled or what was happening in their midst. This information would have helped me to connect with the students to know their needs, design appropriate support strategies or benchmark their experience as international students in the UK. It was against this background that one morning completely captivated in sorting out the huge amount of work on my desk a call from Kenya was put through to me. I was jolted back to reality by the high pitched and hysterical voice of a woman loudly sobbing, where is my Katrina? Absent minded I asked, who is Katrina?

A review of literature Baldwin and James (2000), Binsardi and Ekwulugo (2003), Enders (2004), Hyland *et al.* (2008), Yorke and Longden (2008) had made me realise that as a practitioner there was so much I did not know about internationalisation of higher education and if not well managed the risks it posed to students specifically and Kenya in general. Contact with colleagues at the Ministry of Education in Kenya where all policies that govern education are formulated further confirmed my fears that this sector of education although very much heard about, little was known about the factors that shape the experience, perpetuate the desire and demand for an international education by Kenyans. I developed several hypotheses on why the current situation has persisted for so long and came to the conclusion that the only way forward was to test my assumptions and hypothesis empirically; thus my PhD project was conceived.

My hypothesis was that a policy on international education for Kenya could have provided a monitoring and feedback system, allow for policy implementation and evaluation and

inform future students on what to expect in pursuit of an international education. As the findings of this study have shown, the majority of Kenyan students though primarily driven by the desire to better their lives are unfortunately informed by 'hype' on what to expect in international education settings. Reflecting further, it then dawned on me that it is a 'dense jungle out there', where no one outside the university system, parent or government can penetrate to help or support a student before they come to you which could be too late and if at all such students know where to go for help, when they need it. The government or the guardians come to learn of cases such as 'Katrina's when the worst has happened because this is the only time 'Katrina' stops being a statistic and assumes some form of identity that people can use to reach out to her. The search for 'Katrina' continued for days on end. Sadly, until 'Katrina' dead or alive gave her consent for information about her to assist in the search to be released to a third party no one was willing to assure either the parents or the government that 'Katrina' was safe or discuss anything about her to help the Kenya Government or her parents trace her whereabouts.

However, since I embarked on my PhD I have learnt that internationalisation of higher education is a very important sector for any country and cannot be ignored. Literature discussed in this study, Hyland *et al.* (2008), Mai (2005), Mazzarol and Soutar (2007), Marklein (2007) has demonstrated the economic benefits of international education in the developed world. Although extensive research in this area exists in the developed world this study found no evidence of such research having been conducted in Kenya. It is the same for other African countries (Pelletier, Leonard and Morley 2003). This study therefore aimed at providing knowledge in this grey area of international education in Kenya. This is useful not only in reference to my current work but also to other practitioners in the government and especially the Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology.

My greatest change through this PhD process has been my belief about international education. When I began this work I was convinced that studying in the UK was not the best way to go for Kenyan students who have to pay about seven times the fees that is paid by home students as international students when there are cheaper options to access higher

education. On reflection, and at this time of my PhD, this belief has changed. With proper support, I have realised that studying in the UK equips a student with a life time experience that changes their lives. Having been an international student myself and taking the walk that other Kenyan students have taken has changed me and my perceptions. I encountered many challenges, just like many other international students. I have struggled to perfect my analytical and writing skills and to conduct the field work. It was also difficult to balance work and study and this taught me to be more resilient and to better manage my time. However, I enjoyed every moment so much and have gained immense life time skills in research and knowledge on international education.

Through this PhD process, the profiles of Kenyan students in the UK can be defined which was not the case three years ago. The knowledge and skills gained has helped me to play my role of supporting Kenyan students in the UK better, with clear targets and benchmarks. I have further developed my skills in different methods of doing research especially the use of qualitative methods in research. I also learnt a new way of analysing qualitative data by using Atlas Ti. When I began my PhD, I expected that it would give Kenyan students an opportunity to speak out about their journey as international students and their personal experiences in the UK as told in the process of data collection and in writing the PhD. This would give them hope that someone is listening and 'Katrina' will live in a real world that can respond to her needs in a practical way.

The recommendations of this study and the proposed model are expected to provide a platform for engaging the different bodies in the UK and in Kenya whose work in one way or another resonates around the student. The organisational structure will allow for feedback which will go a long way in ensuring a quality experience for Kenyan students in the UK. The proposed student support network, supported by student associations and alumni will also provide an informal support to Kenyan students. The researcher has started to lay the background and logistics required for the two student associations.

However, I adequately recognise and appreciate the challenge involved in engaging the bodies proposed in this process and making them buy into the recommendations proposed in this study. However, the findings of this study could be a strength to the 'buy in process' as the issues raised are pertinent and cannot be 'wished away' without adversely affecting UK universities that recruit in Kenya through diminishing student numbers coming to the UK from Kenya; the Kenya government through loss of high level skills required to propel Kenya into an industrialised middle income country; the individual students whose completion, retention, relevance and quality of their degree programs are pertinent to their future careers. Most importantly, I am conscious that these recommendations will only be successfully implemented within Kenya's own policy framework and context. The findings will also provide useful insights, to other African countries, about the experience of international students from the perspective of a developed country.

On sharing my ongoing work with practitioners in Kenya a lot of interest has been generated on the experience of Kenyan students studying not only in the UK but also in other destinations that are popular to Kenyan students. It is expected that this study will encourage debate in Kenya and by extension other countries within the region on the experience of students who year after year leave their home countries in pursuit of higher education abroad. Regrettably, only the stories of students who are successful are ever told but those who do not complete their studies or face other challenges just disappear into oblivion, as their stories are never told. Although the findings of this study add voice to what others may have said on experience of international students the researcher takes cognizance that this study in itself takes the debate on international education to source countries (Kenya) and is conscious that successful implementation of these recommendations is dependent on in-country policies and practice.

I do recognise that having completed my PhD does not mark the end of this exciting journey, for search of knowledge is never optimized and transformation through knowledge acquisition in this our information age is the best asset for anyone. Regrettably, the excitement I feel at having come to the end of my PhD is crowded with many unanswered

questions which this study could not address as it was not within its remit. Some of these have been proposed as areas for further research. Understandably, the pursuit for knowledge is a continuous endeavor and I am delighted that this study marks my first steps to my contribution to knowledge in this area of international education. With this understanding, I end, by echoing the concerns raised by Yorke and Longden (2008) who raise a very pertinent question which this study similarly pauses, that, 'since there has been so much attention given to retention and completion of international students since the late 1990's should things not have changed?' Maybe this study provides the answer by taking the debate on students experience to the source country (Kenya) where the student journey begins and by proposing an inclusive frame work for student support where different bodies involved in international education work together to create synergies to bring about change for better student support and experience.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE COVER LETTER.
INTRODUCTION LETTER TO STUDENTS

Dear Student,

Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire. The information will contribute to my ongoing PhD study at Coventry University on experience of Kenyan students and their study outcomes. The information is confidential and will only be used in making recommendations to enhance the study and living experience of Kenyan students studying in the UK. You are requested not to write your name or that of your university in this questionnaire.

Should you have any questions or suggestions related to this questionnaire please contact me on:

Telephone   +442076371926
Address: Salome Gichura
               46 Sevington Road
               London
               NW4 3RX
E-mail: gichurasalome@yahoo.com

Your co-operation in completing this questionnaire is greatly appreciated.

Thank you very much for your time.

Salome Gichura

COVENTRY UNIVERSITY

APPENDIX 2: CONSENT FORM

Student Identification Number:

Title of Project: Experience and Study Outcomes of Kenyan Students Studying in the UK

Name of researcher: Salome Gichura

Please tick as appropriate

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the participation information sheet and have had the opportunity to ask questions where need be ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving reasons and without my studies or support being affected. ☐

3. I agree to take part in this study. ☐

....
Name of Participant   Date   Signature

....
Name of person taking consent   Date   Signature
(If different from researcher)

....
Researcher   Date   Signature

SIGN 2 COPIES 1 FOR THE PARTICIPANT AND 1 FOR THE

RESEARCHER

APPENDIX 3: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

1) Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the study experience and study outcomes of Kenyan students in UK higher education institutions. To achieve this, a cross-sectional survey approach will be adopted to explore the students' pre-departure preparations in order to establish the sources of information and support structures available on living and studying abroad; establish how adequately students are prepared to study, live and address any challenges they are likely to face as international students. The study will also investigate if there are any other factors that influence Kenyan students study experience and how this affects their study outcomes.

2) Research Justification

The UK is a leading destination for Kenyan students seeking to study abroad. Despite the high student numbers, their learning experience remains a grey area. There is also the need to understand what drives this demand for a UK education. The study involves collection of qualitative and quantitative data and documentation of Kenyan students study experience as told by the students themselves. This approach resonates with contemporary thinking where the students' voice becomes important in guiding policy development and quality enhancement among others. This information is important to policy makers in Kenya especially towards planning for utilization of high level skills for development and to provide appropriate support to Kenyan students in the UK.

Knowledge gathered will influence and inform future policy decisions on international education for Kenya, influence practice at institutional and country level and set benchmarks for those administering international education not only for /in Kenya but at institutional level in the UK. Further, having considered the emerging economic rationale for international education by UK universities, to investigate the Kenyan students learning experience during their study abroad is important, in order to consider the support systems

required to meet their needs and facilitate them to be effective as students and residents abroad.

This study is important for Kenya because international education has become a key strategy for Kenyan students to access higher education for the many qualified candidates who cannot gain access to Kenyan universities. As more Kenyan students continue to seek study opportunities in the UK there is no research evidence to determine what is actually happening in their midst, the quality of their study experience and how this affects their academic goals. Therefore the study is expected to build and contribute to knowledge development in this key area as well as empirical evidence to help in understanding the experience of Kenyan students in the UK for management action or support.

3) Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen to participate in this study because you are in your [first, second, third year, Masters and PHD enrolled in either science or art based courses: select as appropriate]. It is expected that you can recall the information and the support that you received as you prepared to come for studies to the UK. You have also had the opportunity to interact with other students and you can therefore share your study experience in relation to: academic, social life and financing education in the UK. In addition it would be appreciated if you shared your arrival experience and how prepared you felt on arrival to live and study in the UK. It is also important to know of your expectations before you came to the UK and whether they have actually been met. There is also the need to know whether you are settled and if there are any challenges that you are experiencing as an international student. The interviews will involve eighteen students selected as follows for representative ness: six first years, six second years, six third years, and six postgraduates. Care will be taken to select equal numbers of male and female students and also those taking science and art based courses. Those to participate will be drawn from universities spread across the UK. Data collected will be used to triangulate information gathered through the questionnaires.

4) Do I have to take part?

Although you have been identified as a participant and have consented to participate in the interviews you do not have to take part as participation is voluntary. You also have the right to withdraw at any stage even after the interviews have started. A participant information sheet that gives all the details pertaining to this study will be availed to you so that you make informed decision. You can also discuss your participation with other students as this is an open invitation. Finally you will sign a consent form before you are interviewed.

5) What will happen to me if I take part?

The ideas and opinion shared during the interview will be treated purely as your own and as contribution to advancing knowledge on the study experience of Kenyan students in the UK. You will also receive a personal letter to thank you for your participation and will be contacted when the study is completed so that if you wish you can get a summary of the findings so that you can benefit from the lessons the study might generate. This will be a one off interview and will take forty five minutes. The interviews will be conducted face to face and through the telephone. Telephone interviews will be audio taped and your permission to be taped will be sought first. There will be general questions or prompts to help in the discussions and to also ensure that common areas are covered during the interviews.

6) What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no known disadvantages and risks in taking part in this study. Rather the outcome will provide research evidence of the study experience of Kenyan students in the UK. There are no risks anticipated as the students will have been informed of their rights to withdraw at any stage of the interview process if they do not feel like continuing with the interview, for any reason or if they think the research questions are sensitive to their status as students. Further the information will be confidential in as far as data collection, analysis and storage is concerned

7) What are the benefits?

Although there are no direct benefits to the participating individuals, the general benefits are immense. It will provide empirical evidence about studying in the UK. It will also create awareness of the conditions that the Kenyan students have to study in the UK and what it takes. It will also provide information for students aspiring to study in the UK and those already in the UK. The information provided will help demystify study in the UK for Kenyan students by telling it as it is through the students' voice

8) What if something goes wrong?

Nothing is expected to go wrong as the views expressed are personal and will be treated with strict confidence and at no one time will the respondents identity be revealed.

9) Will taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes, your participation will be strictly confidential and the information provided will be treated with confidentiality and at no time will your name and study institution be disclosed. During the reporting process themes will be used to report the findings and where quotes are used synonyms or codes will be used. The raw data will also be kept under lock and key accessible to the researcher and the research assistants only. After the interview the transcribed data will be stored in a computer file and the researcher will be the only one with a password to ensure that no one else can access the data. The process will be compliant to the Data Protection Act, 1998. The raw data will be shredded after the PHD is awarded and no one will have access to it. It will not be used for any other studies or reports

10) What will happen to the results of the research study?

It is hoped that stakeholders in international education will find the results of this study useful. The findings will also form the basis of further exploration with a view to publishing articles to provide information to the general public in Kenya about studying in the UK. It is expected that the information will demystify study abroad for Kenyans as the

results will be based on research evidence based on students' voice. This resonates within the contemporary thinking in the UK of using the students' voice for quality improvement and enhancing policy development. Information will also be used to sensitise Kenyan students so that they make informed decision on studying in the UK. Where desirable the findings and recommendations will be used for management action/intervention.

11) Who is organising and funding the research?

The research is being undertaken by Sally Gichura a PhD student at Coventry University, UK. The research is funded by the Ministry of Education, Kenya and covers tuition fees only. There are no direct payments to the researcher or individuals who will take part in the study.

12) Who has reviewed the study?

The study has been reviewed by Prof. Paul Blackmore, former director Centre for Higher Education, Coventry University and Dr Andrew Turner of the Centre for Higher Education and Research, Coventry University.

You should keep this information sheet and a copy of the duly signed consent form. Two consent forms have been sent out and you are requested to sign both and send them back for counter signing ahead of the interview date. A copy will be sent back to you to keep. Finally, I wish to thank each one of you for taking time to read this information sheet and more so those who volunteered to participate in this study. Although the study could not accommodate all those who desired to participate due to resource and time constraint your desire to be part of the team is appreciated.

If you are unhappy with any of the procedure please discuss it with me and I will try to resolve the matter. If you wish to take a complaint further you may wish to contact the Coventry University Ethics Committee Chair, Professor Ian Marshall in writing at Coventry University, Priory Street, Coventry CV1 5FB.

Once again many thanks,

Salome Gichura
46 Sevington Road
NW4 3RX

APPENDIX 4: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Section A: About You

Please tick the appropriate box

(1) Which type of institution are you studying at?
- a) ☐ College for further education
- b) ☐ University

(2) What qualification are you pursuing? Tick one
- a) ☐ PhD
- b) ☐ Masters
- c) ☐ Degree
- d) ☐ Diploma
- e) ☐ Foundation
- f) ☐ A Levels
- g) ☐ Vocational Course
- **h)** ☐ **Other**(please specify)… ……………………………………

(3) What subjects are you studying?

Please select the major subject area unless you are studying a course in which two or three areas have equal weight.

- a) ☐ Medicine & Dentistry
- b) ☐ Subject allied to medicine
- c) ☐ Biological Sciences
- d) ☐ Veterinary Science
- e) ☐ Agriculture and related subjects
- f) ☐ Chemistry and physical sciences
- g) ☐ Mathematical sciences
- h) ☐ Computer Science
- i) ☐ Engineering and Technology
- j) ☐ Architecture, building and plumbing
- k) ☐ Social, economic and political studies
- l) ☐ Law
- m) ☐ Literature
- n) ☐ **Other** (please specify) … …………………………………………………….

(4) Are you studying *(Select one)*:
    a) ☐ Part time
    b) ☐ Full time

(5) When did you come to the UK? *(State year)* ……………………………………….

(6) When did you begin your studies in the UK (State year):
    a) ☐ 1999   b) ☐ 2000   c) ☐ 2001   d) ☐ 2002
    e) ☐ 2003   f) ☐ 2004   g) ☐ 2005   h) ☐ 2006

(7) For how long have you been studying in the UK?
    a) ☐ less than one year   b) ☐ 1 – 2 year   c) ☐ 2 – 3 year
    d) ☐ 3 –4 years   e) ☐ More than four years

(8)   How long according to university or college regulation is your study programme supposed to take? ……………………..………………………………………….

(9)   Will you finish your studies within the stipulated time duration?
    a) ☐ Yes
    b) ☐ No

(10)   If your answer is no to number 9, give reasons?

    ………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………

(11)   If you are an undergraduate student which secondary school were you enrolled for the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education, GCSE or A Levels in Kenya:

    …………………………………………………………………………………
    ....
    ....

(12) Other than your secondary, GSCE or A Level qualification did you have any other qualification before you came to the UK. Indicate as appropriate!

      a) Certificate in……………………………………………………….…

      b) Diploma in…………………………………………………………...

      c) Degree in…………………………………………………...............

      d) Any Other……………………………………………......…………

      e) None…………………………………………………..….…………….

(13) How much is your tuition fees per year? Please fill in the relevant space:

As a part time student £………………………….per year

As a full time student **£**………………………….per year

Section B: Choice of UK as a study destination

(14) Why did you choose UK as your study destination? *(Tick all that apply)*

a) ☐ My parents made the decision for me to study in the UK
b) ☐ The course that I wanted to take was not available in the local universities
c) ☐ I thought studying in the UK would give me a head start in terms of skills Acquisition
d) ☐ I heard about studying in the UK during the UK university's exhibitions in Nairobi
e) ☐ I wanted to work and study at the same time.
f) ☐ It is the most fashionable thing to do.
g) ☐ It is was affordable for me to study in the UK

h) ☐ Other *(please specify)*………………………………………………….

(15) Please list down the various sources of information about studying abroad that were available to you as you made your decision to study abroad.

…………………………………………………………………………….………….

……………………………………………………………………...........…………

(16) How satisfied were you with the information that you received before you arrived in the UK on each of the following topics? *(Please check one alternative per row)*.

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Did not receive any information
I. Your course	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
II. Immigration Issues	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
III. Cost of tuition fees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
IV. Cost of accommodation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
V. What to do when you first arrived in the UK	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VI. Living and studying in the UK	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VII. Living Expenses	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(17) What were your expectations before you came to study in the UK?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

..………………………………………………………………………………………….

Section C: Arrival in the UK

(18) Have your expectations been met?
a) ☐ Yes
b) ☐ No

(19) If not why………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………….

(20) Which of the following issues were of concern to you in the first two months after you arrived in the UK? *(Check all that applies)*

    a) ☐ English language – social and practical use.
    b) ☐ English language – academic use
    c) ☐ Food
    d) ☐ Meeting religious need
    e) ☐ Accommodation
    f) ☐ Feeling homesick/lonely/isolated
    g) ☐ Keeping in touch with family back home
    h) ☐ Bringing family members to join you
    i) ☐ Mixing with UK students
    j) ☐ Adapting to UK cultures/customs
    k) ☐ Financial problems
    l) ☐ Finding part-time work
    m) ☐ Balancing study with paid work
    n) ☐ Obtaining or extending your visa or other immigration issues
    o) ☐ Other *(please specify)*………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

(21) List the major challenges in order of priority that you continue to experience in your studies in the UK.

    (i) ………………………………………………………………………

    (ii) ………………………………………………………………………

    (iii)………………………………………………………………………

    (iv)………………………………………………………………………

    (v) ....

(22) How have the challenges that you experienced as a student affected the time within which you are expected to complete your studies? *(Check all that apply)*

I have had to extend my study period with:
    a) ☐ 1 year
    b) ☐ 2 years
    c) ☐ 3 years
    d) ☐ 4 years
    e) ☐ I have had to repeat modules
    f) ☐ I have had to repeat a year

g) ☐ It has taken me a longer time to complete my degree programme with:

    2 years: 3 years: 4 years

h) ☐ I have had to drop out of the degree programme

i) ☐ I have no hope of completing my degree programme

j) ☐ Any other, please explain……………………………………………………

(23) Suggest how the challenges listed in No 21 can be addressed and by who?

    i) ……………………………………………..………………………………

    ii) ……………………………..…………………………………………………

    iii) ……………………………………..…………………………………………

    iv) ……………………………………..…………………………………………

    v) ……………………………………..…………………………………………

(24) Did you receive any help from the Kenyan Government as you prepared to travel to the UK for studies?

    a) ☐ **Yes**

    b) ☐ No

(25) If yes what support did you receive?

    …………………………………………………………………….……………

    ……………………………………………………………………....……………

    ……………………………………………………………………….…..………

(26) If your answer to No.25 is no, what support would you have expected to receive from the Kenyan government?

    ………………………………………………………………….....…………..

    …………………………………………………………………………………

    …………………………………………………………………………………

(27) Have you had any contact with the Kenya high commission since you arrived in the UK?

      a) ☐ Yes
      b) ☐ No

(28) If your answer to question No.27 is No please explain why you have not contacted the Kenyan High commission?

   …………………………………………………......……………………………

(29) On arrival in the UK did you receive information on the following? *(Tick all that apply)*

      a) ☐ Your course
      b) ☐ Information issues
      c) ☐ Work placement
      d) ☐ Opportunities open to you as a foreign student
      e) ☐ Fees and cost of living
      f) ☐ Accommodation
      g) ☐ What to do when you first arrived
      h) ☐ Living and studying in the UK

      i) ☐ Any Other……………………………………..

(30) From whom did you receive this information: *(Tick all that apply)*

      a) ☐ Friends
      b) ☐ Family
      c) ☐ Personal tutor/Supervisor
      d) ☐ Lecturer
      e) ☐ Course coordinator
      f) ☐ College/ University adviser/counsellor

      g) ☐ Other source *(please specify)*……………………………………………

Section D: Academic experience

(31) How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your study program?
(Tick one alternative per row)

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	I do not know
I. The course overall	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
II. Quality of Lectures (Large group teaching)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
III. Quality of seminars/ tutorials	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
IV. Supervisions (small group teaching)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
V. Quality of academic Support e.g. tutors(one to one contact with academic staff)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VI. Course Content	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VII. Relevance of the course for future career	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VIII. Library	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
IX. Computer facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X. Departmental facilities (e.g. classrooms, laboratories, lecture halls)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(32) How useful as an international student have you found the following support services from your institution?

	Very useful	Useful	Not useful	Have not used this service although it is available	I am not aware of such a service being available
I. Induction or orientation Programme	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
II. Study skills support Classes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
III. English classes (e.g. English For Academic Purposes)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
IV. College/university advice Service (e.g. International Office/Students Services)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
V. Student's Union advice Services	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VI. Social activities organized by College or university	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VII. Students' union including Clubs and societies Chaplaincy or multi-faith centre	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
VIII. Health Centre	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
IX. Accommodation office	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
X. Career's services	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(33) In your opinion what factors affects or contributes to the completion of studies for Kenyan students in the UK.

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

(34) Suggest what can be done by the following institutions to ensure the successful completion
of Kenyan students in the UK, within the stated period of study?

a) Your family… ………………………………………………………….…

b) Your university………………………………………………………………..

c) The Kenya Government… …………………………………………………

d) The Kenya High Commission… ………………………………………………...

e) The U.K Government… ……………………………………………………

f) Any other……………………………………………………………………

Section E: Financing Education in the UK

(35) Who is paying your school fees? *(Tick all that apply)*

a) ☐ Myself
b) ☐ Family
c) ☐ Partial scholarship from Kenya Government amounting to £ 1000…………per year
d) ☐ Scholarship from *(indicate source)*…………………amounting to £ ………per year
e) ☐ Partial scholarship from UK college or university amounting to   £ …….….per year
f) ☐ Full scholarship from UK College or university amounting to   £ ………….per year
g) ☐ A charity or trust amounting to   £ ……..………per year
h) ☐ Your employer amounting to   £ …………per year
i) ☐ Other *(Please specify)*……………………………………………………..

(36) Who is paying for your living expenses? *(Tick all that apply)*

    a) ☐ Myself
    b) ☐ Family
    c) ☐ Partial scholarship from my Government
    d) ☐ Scholarship from *(indicate source)*
    e) ☐ Partial scholarship from UK College or university
    f) ☐ Full scholarship from UK College or university
    g) ☐ A charity or trust
    h) ☐ Your employer
    i) ☐ Other *(Please specify)* ……………………………..

(37) Which of the following have brought unexpected costs during your studies? *(Tick all that apply)*

    a) ☐ Exchange rate fluctuations
    b) ☐ Money promised by sponsor or family was not available
    c) ☐ Illness of self or family
    d) ☐ My studies lasted longer than expected
    e) ☐ I was unable to get a job in the UK
    f) ☐ The cost of living was higher than I budgeted for
    g) ☐ Tuition fee were higher that I had budgeted for
    h) ☐ Other *(Please specify)*
        ……………………………………………………………………

Section F: Accommodation

(38) Where are you living now?
    a) ☐ Halls of residence – self catering and mixed with UK and international students
    b) ☐ Halls of residence – meals provided and mixed with UK and international students
    c) ☐ Halls of residence – self catering and mixed with other international students only
    d) ☐ A student house/flat/rooms controlled by the institution
    e) ☐ Private rented house/flat/rooms with non-residential landlord
    f) ☐ Private student hostel
    g) ☐ Home stay with a British family

    h) ☐ Other please specify……………………………..………………………….

(39) How appropriate is your accommodation for a student?

………………………………………………………………..…………………….

 ………………………………………………………………………………….….

………………………………………………………………………………...

(40) How appropriate is shared accommodation for students in terms of attaining the academic goals?

………………………………………………………………...……………….

.....…………………………………………………..………….….……….

………………………………………………………..…….…………….

(41) Which, if any, of these problems have you had with accommodation?
(Tick all that apply)

    a) ☐ Having to move out during vacations
    b) ☐ Inflexible contract- not able to change arrival date
    c) ☐ Deposit not returned by landlord
    d) ☐ Not being able to get single sex accommodation
    e) ☐ Lack of suitable adaptations for disability
    f) ☐ Difficulties with other people living in the same place

    g) ☐ Other *(please **specify**)*…………………………………………….

(42) How much are you paying for your current accommodation? £……….per month

(43) How much do you spend on transport per month from your residence to your institution?

£…………. per month

Section G: Student social life

(44)   Are the following facilities available in your institution?

        a) ☐ Sports facilities
        b) ☐ Clubs and societies
        c) ☐ Students' Union facilities *(e.g. bars and cafes)*
        d) ☐ Campus catering outlets
        e) ☐ Any other

(45)   Do you ever make use of them?

        a) ☐ Yes
        b) ☐ No

(46)   If not tell us why

…………………………………………….............……………………………………..

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

(47)   Which, if any of the following activities have you been involved in while in the UK?

        a) ☐ Sports clubs or teams
        b) ☐ Music or drama groups
        c) ☐ Voluntary *(unpaid)* work *(e.g. in the local community)*
        d) ☐ Being a student representative on a college/university committee
        e) ☐ Charity fundraising or sponsorship activities
        f) ☐ Acting as a buddy or mentor to other students
        g) ☐ None of the above

Section H: Employment

(48)   Are you working?

        a) ☐ Yes
        b) ☐ No

(49) If not why have you not taken advantage of the 20 hrs students are allowed to work in the UK?

………………………………………………………………………………….…

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

(50) If you are working does this affect your studies in anyway *(tick all that apply*?

a) ☐ I get poor grades because I don't have enough time to work on my assignments
b) ☐ I don't have enough time to revise
c) ☐ I get to class when I am too tired to concentrate.
d) ☐ My overall academic performance is low because of the time spent in employment
e) ☐ I miss my lectures because I have to work to support myself
f) ☐ I have had to drop out of school because working is more important to me than studying as I have support myself
g) ☐ Others *(please specify)*………………………………………………………………
h) ☐ General observations……………………………..………………………..

(51) Are you aware of Kenyan student organisations in the UK?

a) ☐ Yes
b) ☐ No

(52) Are you a member of any of the students' organisations?

a) ☐ Yes
b) ☐ No

(53) Are you aware of any Kenyan students who have not completed their studies?

a) ☐ Yes
b) ☐ No

If the answer to No. 53 is yes how many do you know?…………………….

(54) If yes, what are the reasons that made them not complete their studies?

…… ……………………………………...……………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………….

......…………………………………………….…………………………………

(55) What do you hope to do when you complete your current course?

      a) ☐ Return to Kenya as soon as I complete my course
      b) ☐ Find a job in the UK
      c) ☐ Take another course in the UK
      d) ☐ Travel to another country.
      e) ☐ Other, *(please specify)* …………………………………….

(56) In your opinion what are the main benefits of studying in the UK?

…........…………………………………………….………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………….

……………………………………………………………………………………….

(57) If you had a second chance, would you still choose UK as a study destination?

      a) ☐ Yes
      b) ☐ No

(58) If not what would be your choice?

      a) ☐ Study in a Kenyan university
      b) ☐ Study in any other country except the UK
      c) ☐ Other please specify……………………………………….………..

(59) During the period, have you made any visits to Kenya?

      a) ☐ Yes
      b) ☐ No

(60)   Please indicate your gender:
      a) ☐ Male
      b) ☐ Female

(61)   Please indicate your age:

      a) ☐ 15 – 20 year d) ☐ 33 – 38 year
      b) ☐ 21 – 26 year e) ☐ 43 – 48 year
      c) ☐ 27 – 32 year f) ☐ Over 48 years

Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire. Please encourage other Kenyan students that you know to complete the questionnaire. They can get in touch with me or one of the research assistants for a copy.

APPENDIX 5:

Invitation to Kenyan Students to take Part in the Interviews

Dear student,

I am a PhD student at Coventry University. I am undertaking a research on the experience and study outcomes of Kenyan students pursuing higher education in the UK. This will help the researcher to understand about your study and living experience while in the UK and how it has impacted on your study outcomes. It is therefore important to capture your voices in relation to your experience in the UK. It is hoped that the findings of this study can generate useful knowledge to stakeholders on studying and living in the UK which can be used to ensure a quality learning experience for Kenyan students in the UK and also those aspiring to study in the UK.

Information that you provide will be confidential and will be used for purposes of the current study only. During analysis information will be coded to ensure that there is no identification of data sources. A participant information sheet with more details pertaining to this study has been attached to assist you in making informed decision on whether you will participate in the study or not.

The interviews will be conducted by telephone and you will be consulted a day earlier to agree on an appropriate time. Except where an interviewee is not willing all interviews will be recorded on audiotape and will take forty five minutes.

I therefore would like to invite you to take part in the interview. When you respond to this invitation kindly indicate your gender, year of study, institution, level and whether you are enrolled for arts or science based course. This information will assist the researcher in having an equal representation of students from all levels from undergraduates to postgraduates.

If you are willing to participate, require additional information or further clarification you are free to get in touch with the undersigned at the following address:

46 Sevington Road
NW4 3RX
London
Email address: gichurasalome@yahoo.com

Yours Faithfully,
SALLY GICHURA

APPENDIX 6: LEAD QUESTIONS FOR STUDENT'S INTERVIEWS

Semi Structured Interview Guide

The aim of the interviews is to capture the students' voice so as to get further insights of their views in areas considered important to their study experience. This will corroborate information received through the questionnaires and explore further on areas that required additional information. This will be a semi-structured interview guided by the following questions. The questions were organised around the key thematic areas considered in this study.

1) Academic experience

[Are there any differences or similarities in the learning environment and mode?]

Then specifically probe by asking the following questions:

Is the learning environment similar or different from that in Kenya?

Is there any difference between the teaching and learning style in Kenya and the UK?

How do you feel as a student in the UK and why?

How prepared are you for assessments?

In tutorials do you work with UK students?

2) Social-Cultural experience

[Probe for students involvement in social activities and where need be ask the following specific questions]

Do you belong to a group?

What social activities have you been involved in since you came to the UK?

What opportunities do you have to mix with other students?

Do you participate in students union?

Have you made any friends with UK students?

3) Pre-departure information

[Probe for the kind of preparation, information and support provided during the in country phase and by whom]

How prepared did you feel to study in the UK?

What support did you receive and from whom?

Do you have any past experience of travelling, studying and living abroad?

What were your sources of information and why?

4) Arrival in the UK

[Probe for]

   -students experience on arrival

   - settling (whose responsibility was it to settle them)

   -kind of support they get

   -knowledge of where to seek support in case of a problem

-anything you would like to say on your study experience

-challenges faced during this period and whom they consulted

5) Expectations of studying in the UK

[Probe for]

-students expectation before coming to the UK and the reasons for these expectations (what shaped their expectations)

-were the expectations realistic and why? How did this affect your studies?

6) Employment

[Probe for]

-students involvement in part time/paid work

-reasons for working

-effect on their studies

7) Challenges

[Probe for]

-main challenges faced, how students dealt with them and who supported them.

8) Studying in the UK

[How would you sum up your experience of studying in the UK? Probe for]

-progress made

-academic expectations (finishing dates, academic leave, repetition-modules,   cycles,

failures,   whether they are aware of Kenyan students who dropped out)

APPENDIX 7: LIST OF KENYAN STUDENTS WHO WERE INTERVIEWED

STUDENT ID	GENDER	AGE	LEVEL OF STUDY	YEAR OF STUDY	INSTITUTION TYPE	DISCIPLINE
ST 5	Female	23	Undergraduate	2nd Year	Post 1992	Science
ST 20	Male	22	Undergraduate	I st Year	Col. of FE	Arts
ST 22	Female	24	Undergraduate	2nd Year	Col. of FE	Arts
ST 24	Female	26	Undergraduate	3rd Year	Col of FE	Arts
ST 19	Female	22	Undergraduate	1st Year	Post 1992	Arts
ST 10	Male	24	Undergraduate	3rd Year	Russell Group	Science
ST 21	Male	23	Undergraduate	2nd Year	Post 1992	Arts
ST 15	Female	23	Undergraduate	1st Year	Post 1992	Science (DO)
ST 13	Female	24	Undergraduate	2nd Year	Russell Group	Science
ST 1	Male	21	Undergraduate	1st Year	Post 1992	Arts
ST 16	Male	24	Undergraduate	3rd Year	Russell Group	Arts
ST 18	Female	25	Undergraduate	3rd Year	Post 1992	Arts
ST 7	Female	30	Undergraduate	2nd Year	Col. of FE	Arts
ST 23	Female	28	Undergraduate	3rd Year	Post 1992	Science
ST 11	Male	32	Undergraduate	2nd Year	Col. of FE	Science (DO)
ST 4	Male	21	Undergraduate	1st Year	Post 1992	Science
ST 17	Male	24	Undergraduate	3rd Year	Russell Group	Science
ST 12	Male	20	Undergraduate	1st Year	Post 1992	Science

STUDENT ID	GENDER	AGE	STUDY LEVEL	INSTITUTION TYPE	DISCIPLINE
ST 2	Female	25	Masters	Post 1992	Science
ST 6	Female	31	Masters	Post 1992	Science
ST 3	Male	43	PhD	Russell Group	Arts
ST 9	Female	28	Masters	Post 1992	Science
ST 14	Male	43	Masters	Col. of FE	Arts
ST 8	Male	41	PhD	Russell Group	Arts

APPENDIX 8: LEAD QUESTIONS FOR INTERVIEWS WITH POLICY MAKERS FROM THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN KENYA

The interviews will seek a detailed understanding of policy level context of international education. The following are the lead questions to guide the interviews and to keep the researcher focused in relation to study objectives.

Current policy

What is the current policy on international education or what guides international education in Kenya?

> [Probe for current policy, its components, implications and potential for change]

Specifically find out:

- What is the current policy?
- What issues does it address?
- Where does it come from?
- Who are the stakeholders?
- Has it changed over time?
- Are future changes planned?

Potential for change

- How widely / fully is the current situation (students' actual experiences and outcomes) understood?
- How satisfactory is the current situation?
- What could / should be done to improve matters?
- What affordances and constraints might there be in changing government policy and practice?
- What would help the process and what would get in the way of change?

APPENDIX 9: LEAD QUESTIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL STAFF IN UK UNIVERSITIES

a) What do you understand by the term internationalization?

b) How does your university interpret it?

c) Do you have a strategy for internationalization?

d) What is your strategy?

e) What programs do you have for international students?

f) Do you have customized programs for international students?

g) What is your recruitment strategy?

APPENDIX 10: PROFILE OF STUDENTS WHO TOOK PART IN THE INTERVIEWS

Kindly provide the following information (Information to be used for research purposes only).

Gender F/M

Institution enrolled--

Course enrolled---

Undergraduate--

Year of Study---

Postgraduate--

Masters --

 PhD---

(To be attached to the students consent form)

APPENDIX 11: STUDY APPROVAL BY THE KENYA GOVERNMENT (removed for copyright reasons)

APPENDIX 12: ARTICLE ON STUDENTS ARRIVAL EXPERIENCE (removed for copyright reasons)

APPENDIX 13: HESA DATA SHOWING TOTAL NUMBER OF KENYAN STUDENTS IN UK UNIVERSITIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR *(removed for copyright reasons)*

APPENDIX 14: HESA DATA SHOWING STUDENTS NUMBERS FOR TOP TEN AFRICAN COUNTRIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR *(removed for copyright reasons)*

Students numbers for top Ten African Countries by Academic year

APPENDIX 15: HESA DATA SHOWING STUDENTS NUMBERS FOR EAST AFRICAN COUNTRIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR *(removed for copyright reasons)*

Year

APPENDIX 16: HESA DATA SHOWING SPECIALITY OF STUDY FOR KENYAN STUDENTS ENROLLED IN UK UNIVERSITIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR (removed for copyright reasons)

APPENDIX 17: HESA DATA SHOWING SEX PROFILE OF KENYAN STUDENTS ENROLLED IN UK UNIVERSITIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR (removed for copyright reasons)

APPENDIX 18: HESA DATA SHOWING AGE PROFILE OF KENYAN STUDENTS FOR SELECTED SPECIALTIES *(removed for copyright reasons)*

Age Profile

Age Profile

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APPENDIX 19: HESA DATA SHOWING PROFILE OF AFRICAN STUDENTS FROM MAIN COUNTRIES BY SPECIALITY IN 2002/2003 ACADEMIC YEAR *(removed for copyright reasons)*

APPENDIX 20: HESA DATA SHOWING PROFILE OF AFRICAN STUDENTS FROM MAIN COUNTRIES BY SPECIALITY IN 2007/2008 ACADEMIC YEAR *(removed for copyright reasons)*

APPENDIX 21: HESA DATA SHOWING TOTAL NUMBER OF AFRICAN STUDENTS ENROLLED IN UK UNIVERSITIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR (removed for copyright reasons)

APPENDIX 22: HESA DATA SHOWING LEVEL OF ENROLMENT FOR AFRICAN STUDENTS IN UK UNIVERSITIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR *(removed for copyright reasons)*

Year

APPENDIX 23: HESA DATA SHOWING CONTINUATION MARKER FOR KENYAN STUDENTS IN UK UNIVERSITIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR (removed for copyright reasons)

APPENDIX 24: HESA DATA SHOWING CONTINUATION MARKER FOR KENYAN STUDENTS

IN UK UNIVERSITIES BY ACADEMIC YEAR (removed for copyright reasons)