2002

The Development Of Private Universities In Kenya

Amadu Jacky Kaba

Seton Hall University

Follow this and additional works at: http://scholarship.shu.edu/dissertations

Part of the African History Commons, Economics Commons, and the Higher Education Commons

Recommended Citation


http://scholarship.shu.edu/dissertations/1531
The Development of Private Universities in Kenya

By

Amadu Jacky Kaba

Dissertation Committee

Prof. Joseph M. Stetar, Mentor
Seton Hall University.

Prof. Martin Finkelstein
Seton Hall University.

Prof. Molly N. N. Lee
School of Educational Studies,
Universiti Sains Malaysia,
Penang, Malaysia.

Prof. Kunnura Raiymbekova
Kyrgyz State National University,
Kyrgyzstan.

Prof. A. H. Strydom
University of the Free State,
Bloemfontein, South Africa.

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Seton Hall University
2002
Notice of Copyright
I would like to thank all of the people who made this dissertation possible. I would first like to say a special thanks to the Chairperson of the Seton Hall University Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, Dr. Charles Mitchel for all of his support and confidence in me. I would like to say a special thanks to my mentor, Dr. Joseph Stetar, for assisting me not only in selecting my dissertation topic, but guiding me throughout the entire process. Special thanks to Dr. Martin Finkelstein for serving as a committee member of my dissertation and also for all of the time he spent in preparing me for the dissertation process. I would like to express my thanks and appreciation to the following faculty members of the Seton Hall University Department of Educational Administration and Supervision: Dr. Elaine Walker, Dr. Daniel Gutmore, Dr. Anthony Colella, Dr. John Collins, Jr. and Dr. Shouping Su for all of their support. Many thanks to Mrs. Carol Rawnsley and everyone in the Seton Hall University Department of Educational Administration and Supervision for all of their assistance. Finally, I would like to thank the international faculty members of my committee: Prof. Molly N. N. Lee of the School of Educational Studies, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia, Prof. Kunnura Raiymbekova, currently a Visiting Fellow at the Seton Hall University Department of Educational Administration and Supervision, from Kyrgyz State National University, Kyrgyzstan and Prof. A. H. Strydom of the University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, South Africa.
Dedication

To
My mother, Mrs. Charlotte Umoja
and
Robin Cunningham, Director, Academic Support Services for
Student Athletes, at Seton Hall University.
Table of Contents

Abstract ................................................................. 6

Chapter One
Introduction ......................................................... 7-23

Chapter Two
Methodology ......................................................... 24-33

Chapter Three
History of the Expansion of Universities in Kenya .......... 34-59

Chapter Four
Governance and Finance of Private Universities in Kenya ...... 60-92

Chapter Five
Curriculum and Quality Issues at Private Universities in Kenya .. 93-127

Chapter Six
Faculty and Students Profiles at Private Universities in Kenya .. 128-156

Chapter Seven
Private Higher Education in Malaysia and South Africa ....... 157-200

Chapter Eight
Conclusion .............................................................. 201-217

References ............................................................. 218-236

Appendixes ............................................................. 237-239
Abstract

Privatization of higher education has become an alternate way of providing education for people around the world. In the developed world, the United States and Japan are repeatedly mentioned when discussing private universities because both of these countries have a well-known history of establishing successful private higher education sectors. In developing countries, the trend of privatization of higher education has been spreading very rapidly since the end of World War II. On almost every continent, developing countries are establishing successful private higher education sectors.

The purpose of this study is to examine the history of the development and the functions of private higher education in Kenya and to determine similarities and differences with other private higher education sectors around the world. Africa is one of the regions of the world that has been slow in the introduction of significant private higher education sectors. This study examines the process by which the Kenyan government has created and implemented a framework for the establishment of a significant private higher education sector without providing the funding for the operation of such institutions.
Chapter One
Introduction
Introduction

The nation state of Kenya has been rapidly expanding its private higher education sector in the past decade. Since the end of World War II, private universities have been established in large numbers in many developing nations all across the world. According to the World Bank, a developing nation is classified as a low income and lower middle income economy with Gross National Income (GNI) per capita of $755 or less (for low income) and $756-$2,99 (for lower middle income) in the year 2000 (www.worldbank.org). The history of higher education in developing nations is unique because many developing nations were once occupied or colonized by Western nations. The majority of developing nations gained their independence after World War II, and most of them immediately undertook the responsibility of providing higher education to their people. Developing nations around the world spend 63% on public education and 35% on private education with the World Bank and other external finances making up the remaining 2% (Burnett and Lee, World Bank. 1999)

Privatization is defined as “the divestiture from the public to the private sector of ownership and/or control of productive assets or services, their allocation and pricing, and the entitlement to the residual profits flows generated by them” (Mathur and Torres, World Bank. 1995). The nation state of Kenya is among a large number of developing nations in the world with major private higher education sectors. The emergence of a significant private higher education sector in Kenya is a new development in Sub-Saharan Africa. According to author Philip Altbach, Western Europe and Africa are the only regions of the world with no significant private higher education sectors (Altbach,
That is because higher education in these two regions is provided to citizens at the expense of government. This study will focus primarily on accredited private and public universities in Kenya. Accreditation will be defined as only those institutions that meet all the requirements and standards set by the Kenyan Commission for Higher Education to be officially recognized as accredited institutions by the Commission.

The Emergence of Private Higher Education in Kenya

Since its independence from England in 1963, Kenya has had private colleges, but the establishment of fully accredited private universities did not begin until the early 1990s. In 1963, there were 571 students enrolled at what became known as the University of Nairobi (Weidman, 1995). However, by the 1999-2000 school year, there were 48,745 students enrolled at all eleven of the nation's public and private universities. Private universities make up an estimated 14% of the total student enrollment (Kenyan Commission for Higher Education, 2000).

Since 1985, the government of Kenya, through the Commission for Higher Education, established rules for registering private universities. There are currently are five private universities and six public accredited universities in Kenya. The President of Kenya, Daniel Arap Moi, has just opened a sixth private university (Kabarak University) on his 400-acre farm. This new university will enroll 1,500 students (Kigotho, 2000). According to Table 1, the establishment of private universities has made a significant impact in Kenyan education. Without the establishment of private universities, Kenya's public universities and the government would have had serious difficulty in admitting the nearly 7,000 students who enrolled in private universities in the 1999/2000 academic year.
### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Public Universities</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Private Universities</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990/91</td>
<td>39,269</td>
<td>39,269</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91/92</td>
<td>41,431</td>
<td>41,431</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92/93</td>
<td>45,811</td>
<td>43,290</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>2,521</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93/94</td>
<td>43,349</td>
<td>40,149</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94/95</td>
<td>44,669</td>
<td>41,033</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>3,636</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95/96</td>
<td>45,550</td>
<td>41,799</td>
<td>91.8</td>
<td>3,751</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96/97</td>
<td>46,125</td>
<td>41,172</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>4,953</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97/98</td>
<td>49,456</td>
<td>43,199</td>
<td>87.3</td>
<td>6,257</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98/99</td>
<td>45,724</td>
<td>*40,613</td>
<td>89.0</td>
<td>5,111</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99/00</td>
<td>48,745</td>
<td>*41,825</td>
<td>86.0</td>
<td>*6,920</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kenyan Commission for Higher Education, 2000

*Source: Kenya Economic Survey, 2000

### Causes for the Establishment of Private Universities

Several factors have been cited for the establishment of private higher education in Kenya, one of which is the rise in its population. Since Kenya’s independence in 1963, its population has increased significantly. In 1960, Kenya had 8.1 million people and by mid-year of 2000, that number increased to 30.3 million people (U.S. Census, 2000). The increase in total population in Kenya since 1960 to the present has put pressure on the government to provide its citizens with more goods and services, including university education. However, the decline of Kenya’s economy in the past two decades, combined with the fact that the government is the primary source of income and many other services to citizens has created a need for the establishment of private entities, including private universities to provide some relief to the government. For example, in 1975, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Kenya was $301. In 1998, Kenya’s GDP was only $334 (UNDP Report, 2000). That is a significant drop in living
standards, especially after considering the inflation rates and the annual rise in consumer prices and other services during those two decades. During that 23-year-period, the Kenyan economy declined while the total population increased, causing important national priorities, such as higher education, to be under-funded. This means that the Kenyan government needed help from the private sector to solve the increasing problems that come with a growing population.

Table 2
Mid-year Population Estimates for the Nation of Kenya, 1960 to 2000. (Numbers in Millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The Kenya government's decision in 1985 to shift the education system from the British model to that of an American model, also gave rise to the creation of private universities. The British model of education, which was known as the 7-4-2 system consisted of seven years of primary education followed by four years of secondary school and two additional years of advanced secondary education. This must result in a successful completion of the A-level exams in order to qualify to enter a university, where a bachelor's degree could be attained in three years. Under the American model of education, known as the 8-4-4 system, eight years of primary education are followed by four years of secondary education and four years in a university to attain a bachelor's degree (Weidman, p.2. 1995). The main difference between the American and British educational systems is that in the American system, students graduate a year earlier from secondary schools and complete their university education in four years as opposed to the
three years it takes to graduate in Britain. This meant that because secondary school
students could graduate a year earlier (12 years in the combined primary and secondary
education, instead of 13 years in the British model), the demand for enrollment in
Kenya’s public universities increased rapidly. Since the public universities can only
accept a limited number of students, the private sector accepts the remaining students

This study will examine the private higher education sector in Kenya through two
conceptual frameworks:

1. Roger Geiger (1986) defined privatization of higher education by placing it into three
structural types or categories. The first type of privatization according to Geiger is
Mass Private and Restricted Private Sectors. In this type of higher education system,
the majority of students in a country are enrolled at private universities because only a
small percentage of students are accepted into the elite public universities. This
system is practiced in Japan, Philippines and Brazil. The second type of privatization
is Parallel Public and Private Sectors. In this system, the government tries to
guarantee citizens with equal access to higher education by providing funds to private
universities. The nation states of Belgium and the Netherlands practice this system.
According to Geiger, even though the private higher education sector in the United
States is similar to the parallel system, it can not be classified under it because of the
method by which most private colleges and universities are funded. Most private
colleges and universities in the United States are funded through private revenue.
The third type of privatization of higher education is Comprehensive Public and
Peripheral Private Sectors. In this system, the government mostly provides higher
education, with a small private higher education sector. The nation states of France, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Kenya fall under this category.

2. Daniel C. Levy (1986) studied the functions and goals of private universities in Latin American countries and concluded, though cautiously, that private universities in that region have three major goals and functions. The first function for the creation of private higher education in Latin America, according to Levy, was the creation of Catholic universities. The reason for the creation of Catholic universities by the Catholic Church was to maintain the Catholic tradition in the region. The second function for the creation of private universities in Latin America was to provide a quality education for the “secular elite” in the region. The elite universities were created to prepare the young of the privileged classes for their future roles in government and the business sector. The third function of private universities was to provide secular higher education to non-elite students. Students at these non-elite universities came from poor backgrounds and many of the universities are non-selective in admitting students. Private universities in Kenya performed some of the same functions that Levy described about Latin American private universities. For example, two of the five current private universities in Kenya (Catholic and Daystar Universities) are owned and operated by religious organizations.

The main variables used by Geiger and Levy in their works are as follow:

1. Autonomy
2. Access/Enrollment
3. Curriculum
4. Financing
5. Quality
In both public and private higher education institutions all across the world, the variables continue to represent the major foundations of these institutions. For any institution to be academically successful, there must be a certain level of institutional autonomy. Professors and lecturers must be free to pursue their academic works without fear of government intrusion. Without this autonomy, institutions can not function efficiently. The issue of access/enrollment into higher education institutions has been one of the major developments all over the world in the post World War II era. In fact, the establishment of private higher education institutions around the world in these past five decades has been in response to the rapid demands of higher education enrollments.

The issues of curriculum and quality have been discussed together because, for the most part, a particular curriculum offered by an institution could help determine the quality of that institution. Moreover, the post World War II era has witnessed a situation where higher education institutions in nations around the world that have emphasized academic programs in the medical, computer sciences or engineering for example, have tended to produce the most successful economies and better standards of living for the people in those countries.

The issue of quality, however, is very delicate because quality within institutions is defined differently by nations. What a system of higher education might consider as quality in one country might not be considered as quality in an education system in another country. The issue of finance has been a major concern in every higher education system in the world. The rapid demand and increase in enrollments have led to the demand in funding of higher education institutions. One primary reason for the
establishment of private institutions across the world has been to reduce the financial cost of higher education for governments around the world.

Geiger and Levy's frameworks will help guide this study. The five variables will be utilized in this study because in order to give a good account of the status of private universities in Kenya, these variables must be examined. Moreover, Geiger and Levy's works provided a precise examination of the development of private higher education in various parts of the world and the impact that the establishment of such institutions has had. Their findings have in part provided a foundation on which this study is organized.

**Literature Review**

Before taking an in-depth look at private universities in Kenya, it is be essential to take a brief look at the development of the privatization of higher education in developing nations around the world. Philip Altbach, author of numerous international higher education publications, takes into consideration that some developing nations fare better economically than others, which places them in a better position in establishing private institutions. These “advanced developing countries” include Singapore, Taiwan, Malaysia and South Korea (Altbach, 1998). Also, it would be very important to give a short history of privatization of higher education in advanced nations, especially the United States and Japan.

**United States and Japan**

In the United States about 80% of students attend public colleges and universities and 20% attend private institutions (Altbach, 1998a). The percentage of students enrolled in private institutions is very significant because in 1996 alone there were over 12 million
students enrolled in higher education institutions (U.S. Census). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) by 1998, there were 14.8 million students enrolled in higher education institutions in the United States. Private colleges and universities in the United States are among the leading academic institutions not only in America, but the entire world. For example, U.S. private institutions such as Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Chicago and Johns Hopkins universities are among the leading universities in the world. These universities are among the top research universities, and they annually produce a significant proportion of Nobel Prize winners in various academic fields. Private universities in the United States are privately funded through student tuition, endowments, and receive research and other types of funding from state and federal governments.

In Japan, on the other hand, about 80% of students enroll in private higher education institutions (Burnett and Lee, 1999). However, unlike the United States, part of the reason for the high enrollment in private institutions in Japan is that with a few exceptions, private institutions are less prestigious in terms of academic reputation than public universities. Another difference between public and private universities in the United States and Japan is that while private universities in the U.S. are mostly non-profit institutions, private institutions in Japan operate largely as profit-making institutions. The United States and Japan are the only developed nations with such high proportions of private higher education institutions. In other developed nations such as those in Western Europe, public higher education institutions continue to outnumber the very small number of private higher education establishments.
East and Southeast Asia (Philippines, Indonesia, South Korea, and Malaysia).

Higher education in the Philippines is dominated by the private sector. In 1998, out of the Philippine’s population of 68 million people, nearly 1.8 million students enrolled in the country’s higher education institutions. These students were enrolled in 350 public and 950 private institutions, resulting in private institutions enrolling about 79% of the student population (Gonzalez, 1998). In a 1999 World Bank report, student enrollment at private institutions had increased to about 85% (Burnett and Lee, 1999). According to Gonzalez, with the exception of the University of the Philippines, the country’s leading academic public institution, the quality of the most of other public higher education institutions is limited by lack of sufficient resources. Thus, private colleges and institutions provide the best higher education in the country. Like many private institutions around the world, private colleges and universities in the Philippines are for-profit institutions.

Indonesia

Indonesia is the fourth most populated country in the world, with an estimated 228 million people (CIA World Factbook, 2001). Private colleges and universities make up the majority of higher education institutions in Indonesia. As of 1996, the country had a college enrollment of about 2.5 million students, with over 1,200 private institutions and 77 public institutions. The 77 public institutions accounted for 35% of all college students (World Bank). Private institutions in Indonesia have expanded rapidly the past forty years. Between 1960 and 1990, the total number of public institutions increased from 17 to 900. By 1994, the total number of private institutions had climbed to over 1,200 (World Bank, 2000). According to the World Bank, even though public
institutions enroll fewer students than private institutions, they are considered superior in quality and performance. Private institutions consist of religious schools, institutes, colleges and universities and often lack adequate facilities, teaching materials, qualified professors, and resources for investment. The World Bank reported that students at private institutions in Indonesia also pay more in tuition fees (U.S. $100-U.S. $1000 per year) than students at public institutions (U.S.$100-U.S.$400 per year) (World Bank, 2000).

**South Korea**

As of fall 1998, private four-year colleges and universities in South Korea outnumbered public institutions, with the 124 private institutions enrolling about 75% of all students (Lee, 1998). According to Lee, with the exception of a handful of private institutions, the majority of them operate as non-profit enterprises. As a result student tuition fees make up on average about 63.2% of all finances of higher education. Because of their financial difficulties, private institutions in South Korea lack all the necessary resources to provide the quality of education comparable to that of the public institutions that receive sufficient funding from the government. Private institutions in South Korea have enormous institutional autonomy from the government and they have apprehensions about accepting aid from the government because of fear of losing their autonomy.

**Malaysia**

Malaysia’s private higher education sector is quite unique when compared to its Asian counterparts. For decades, thousands of Malaysian students traveled overseas to attend colleges and universities. However, because of the high costs of such an education
for Malaysian students and the occurrence of the Asian economic crisis of 1997, a number of overseas institutions established campuses in Malaysia to provide less expensive private education to Malaysian students. Before this practice was introduced, foreign universities that have twinning programs in the country required students to travel abroad to the main campuses for a year or two before earning their degrees. By 1999, there were 591 private colleges, 6 local private universities and 3 branch campuses of foreign universities in operation in Malaysia (New Sunday Times, Sep. 26, 1999). According to Lee, out of the 591 private colleges, 17 of them offered “3+0” programs. It is important to note that the colleges offering these foreign degree programs are not branch campuses of foreign universities. The increase in numbers of private higher education enrollments has saved students significant amounts of money (Molly Lee, 1999). The Malaysian government, through the Private Higher Education Act, has requirements that private universities must meet. For example, in order to maintain Malaysian culture and identity, the Malaysian government requires that all private colleges and universities must use the national language, Malay, as a method of instruction. However, according to Lee, with the approval of the Minister of Education, courses can be taught in English or Arabic. Currently, most of the courses in private institutions of higher learning are taught in English.

South Asia (India)

In terms of absolute number, India has the largest private higher education enterprise in the developing world. Over 60% of college students in India are enrolled at private institutions (Burnett and Lee, 1999). In 1995, there were 200 universities, 800 colleges, and 5 million college students in India (Uboerio, 1995). All universities in India
are public and with the exception of a few private colleges, Government funding is
provided to both private and public institutions (Altbach, 1998). Because of its support to
private institutions, the government of India has significant control over the
administration of private institutions.

**Latin America (Brazil, Chile, Colombia)**

Many countries in Latin America have a long history of privatization of higher
education. Over the past four decades the percentage of students enrolling in private
higher education in Latin America has steadily increased. In 1955, of the 403,763
students enrolled in higher education, 57,431(14.2%) students were enrolled at private
institutions. By 1975, the total number of students enrolled at private institutions had
increased to 1,143,395 (33.7%) (Levy, 1998).

Colombia, Brazil and Chile have very high college enrollments in their private
higher institutions. Student enrollment in private higher education in Colombia has
climbed significantly over the past four decades. In 1953, the 33.6% of college students
enrolled in higher education were in the private sector (Tilak, 1998). By 1999, that
percentage had jumped to about 63% (Burnett and Lee, 1999).

The second country with a massive private higher education sector is Brazil. Both
Brazil and Columbia’s higher education systems are described as “Mass Private and
Restricted Public Sectors” (Geiger, 1988). According to table 3, Brazil’s private higher
education enrollment in 1955 was 6.9% of all Latin American countries combined. By
1975 it had increased to 14.6% (Levy, 1988). In 1983, 35.2% of college students were
enrolled in private institutions in Brazil (Tilak, 1998). By 1999, college enrollments at
private institutions in Brazil had reached 60 percent (Burnett and Lee, 1999). It is useful
to note that Brazil is one of the most populated countries in the world, with an estimated 174 million people (CIA World Factbook, 2001).

The third Latin American country with a significant proportion of its college students attending private institutions is Chile. Chile's private college enrollments have actually dropped in the past decade. In the 1986-87 school year, 45.5% of college students were enrolled at private institutions (Tilak, 1998). However, by 1999, it had dropped to about 29 percent (Burnett and Lee, 1999).

Table 3
Latin American Private and Total Enrollments, 1955-75

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1955 #</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>1965 #</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>1975 #</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Latin America (Pri.)</td>
<td>57,431</td>
<td></td>
<td>171,674</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,143,395</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(pub.)</td>
<td>403,338</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>859,076</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>3,396,341</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without Brazil (Pri.)</td>
<td>23,977</td>
<td></td>
<td>103,480</td>
<td></td>
<td>442,824</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Pub.)</td>
<td>329,763</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>703,295</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>2,323,793</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Daniel C. Levy, 1991

Daniel Levy claims that even though one should be careful about generalizing as a group when explaining a region's higher education systems, in the case of Latin American countries the reasons for the establishment of their private higher education systems are so similar that they could be generalized as a group. Levy claimed that three types of private institutions were created in Latin America. The first group was the creation of private Catholic universities. The reason for the creation of Catholic institutions was the church's goal of maintaining its tradition in the region and could maintain influence through educational strongholds. The second type of institution created was secular elite institutions. These institutions were created by business and
political elite who felt that the academic quality of the public institutions was insufficient.

The third types of private institutions created were non-elite colleges. These colleges were established to provide higher education to poor students who normally had to work during the normal periods when public institutions are in session. Most of this group's classes are taught in the evenings.

**Middle East (Jordan)**

Authors of comparative higher education have been quick to point to the nation of Jordan when discussing the development of private higher education in the Middle East. Even though college student enrollment at private institutions in Jordan stands at 35% (Burnett and Lee, 1999), the establishment of private universities in that country began just a decade ago. The lack of accommodations for Jordanian secondary school students into the country's public universities caused about 25,000 students to study abroad. The Jordanian government began licensing private universities in 1990, and as of 1997, there were 12 such universities in Jordan (Burke and Al-Waked, 1997). According to Burke and Al-Waked, private universities in Jordan receive most of their funding from student tuition and fees. Private institutions in Jordan are not tax exempt because under Jordanian laws, they are established as public or private shareholding companies. The quality of private universities in Jordan, according to Burke and Al-Waked is sub-standard compared to public institutions. One reason for the lack of quality is that most of the best professors are at the public institutions where they receive the guarantee of tenure after only two years of service.
Conclusion

Beginning in the late 1980's, the nation of Kenya joined a number of developing nations in encouraging the establishment of private higher education institutions. One primary reason for this development is that governments in developing countries are confronted with difficult economic conditions and an increasing number of these governments are implementing policies that shift the provision of goods and services to their citizens to the private sector. Higher education is one of the most expensive services that governments in developing countries have funded for many decades and the move to allow the private sector to provide part of it to citizens reduces the costs to these governments. In the decade that Kenya has established private universities, not only has enrollment increased, but also the government has saved substantial amounts of funds that would have otherwise gone to building more institutions.
Chapter Two
Methodology
Introduction

The initial steps taken in studying the development of private universities in Kenya were to seek data and read literature on the development of private higher education around the world. These steps were important because there has been a great and rapid development of private higher education around the world in the post WW II era. The nation state of Kenya is among the latest countries to establish private universities in the past decade. This chapter will explain the procedures implemented to conduct the study of private higher education in Kenya. Several methods have been utilized in creating the criteria in which the study is conducted. This chapter will categorize these methods and explain how they fit into the research questions and the overall importance of the study.

Literature on Private Higher Education Around the World

In order to study the development of private universities in Kenya, it is important to study the global trends of this topic, especially since a significant number of countries established private higher education systems decades before Kenya joined that group. For this study, with the exception of the private higher education systems in Japan and the United States, literature on private higher education around the world focuses on developing nations. That is because many developing nations with private higher education systems had similar histories to Kenya. Such histories include being defined as a developing nation, a former colony of Western nations, and having political and economic systems where the governments provided free higher education to their citizens. However, literature on the development of private higher education in developed nations such as the United States and Japan were also briefly reviewed to
determine whether they had similar trends or had influenced private higher education systems in developing nations.

The primary method of compiling information on private higher education around the world is through the Internet. In the past two years, the Internet has developed so rapidly that it has provided scholars from all across the world with the chance to publish their works on the World Wide Web. In addition, many journals of higher education can now be accessed through the Internet.

Other sources applicable to obtaining the necessary literature on private higher education in developing nations are books, research studies, or publications done by organizations such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), UNESCO and the World Bank. Among the books reviewed, two serve as very important sources on comparative private higher education, and are utilized to narrow the study and provided the Conceptual Framework for this study. The two books are (1) *Private Sectors in Higher Education: Structure, Function, and Change in Eight Countries* (1988) by Roger L. Geiger and (2) *Private Education: Studies in Choice and Public Policy* (1985) by Daniel C. Levy. In *Private Sectors in Higher Education: Structure, Function, and Change in Eight Countries*, Geiger attempts to explain privatization of higher education by placing it into three structure types or categories. They include mass private and restricted public sectors, parallel public and restricted private sectors and comprehensive public and peripheral private sectors. In *Private Education: Studies in Choice and Public Policy*, Levy studied the functions and goals of private universities in Latin American countries. Geiger and Levy analyzed five main variables in their books. These variables include autonomy, access/enrollment, curriculum, financing and quality. Each of the research
questions or chapters in this study will include a working knowledge of one or more of these variables.

The World Bank and UNESCO have conducted important studies (UNESCO, 1996, Mathur and Torres, World Bank, 1995, Ahmad and Bloom, et al., 2000, Burnett and Lee, World Bank, 1999, UNESCO BREDA, 1995. etc.) dealing with the development and trends of private higher education in developing nations. Both organizations have also been involved in influencing developing nations to establish private higher education institutions to ease the financial burden they face in providing almost free public higher education to their citizens. Ashby (1964) provided a well documented account of the discussions among African politicians, journalists and ordinary citizens about the role and importance of higher education in the continent beginning in the period after World War II. Another scholar who has studied Kenyan and African higher education in the past several decades is Professor Ali Mazrui. Most of the writings about higher education by Prof. Mazrui, a native Kenyan who now teaches in the United States, will be utilized in this dissertation.

**Information Gathering on Kenyan Private Higher Education**

The most difficult and challenging aspect of studying the Kenyan private higher education system is the process of gathering the necessary information. The challenge arises from the fact that Kenya, unlike most other countries in the developed world, does not easily provide information. This is due to the lack of the needed resources (e.g., financial or logistical) that make the publication of such needed information accessible to the public. The initial process of seeking information on Kenyan higher education and especially its private universities began by looking through scholarly
publications in journals on the Internet. Several works on Kenyan higher education (Weidman, 1995, Sifuna, 1998, Nafukho, 1999, Moses, 2000, Ogot and Weidman, 1993 etc.) were found. Since the study is limited to the post WW II period, articles or books of this era were the main focus of research.

The emergence of electronic mail and the openness of scholars to provide their electronic mail addresses in the articles they publish provides the opportunity to write to scholars who had published works on various aspects of Kenyan higher education. This effort resulted in receiving numerous important suggestions and recommendations from these scholars on how to attain the information I was seeking. The best advice came from my mentors who recommended that I contact a graduate student or a professor in Kenya who would research and retrieve the necessary information needed for this study. With the help of one of my classmates, I was able to contact an instructor, Withira Mirie, who also teaches research methods in the Department of Nursing at the University of Nairobi.

Through Mirie, almost all of the literature and data inside Kenya needed to conduct this study was obtained. There is information on higher education institutions in Kenya available in the country, however, in order to obtain such information one has to go directly to each of the institutions in the country and obtain them. This is due to the fact that most institutions in Kenya, including the Commission for Higher Education (CHE), do not have web sites where necessary information could be retrieved. The CHE was created in 1985, under the Ministry of Education, by the Kenyan government to oversee the creation and accreditation of private universities.
The CHE is also given the authority to set academic and other standards for both public and private higher education institutions. Some important higher education information and data necessary for this study were retrieved from the CHE office in Kenya by Mrs. Mirie. The CHE is important to this study because it gathers various types of important information from higher education institutions in Kenya. In addition, Mirie interviewed six students and three administrators from Kenya’s public and private universities. Among the students interviewed, three were from public universities (two students from the University of Nairobi and one from Kenyatta University) and three from private universities, with two interviewees from the United States International University (USIU) and one from Daystar University. Among the administrators interviewed, one was from a public university and two from private universities. Mirie conducted a set of interviews with students at private universities and another set of interviews from students at public universities. A similar procedure was done with the interviews with all the administrators. The names of the people interviewed by Mirie were not made public. All the student interviews conducted by Mirie dealt with their views or attitudes towards their individual institutions. The interviews with the administrators concerned the characteristics and functions of private and public universities. Finally, I conducted an additional e-mail interview with an administrator at the United States International University dealing with higher education issues at his institution and other private and public universities in Kenya.
Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

This study utilizes both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Through the quantitative method, data on private and public Kenyan universities was collected. This data includes Kenyan higher education enrollment from 1961 to 2000, curriculum, finance, and the number of institutions in Kenya since 1961. The qualitative method includes newspaper and research articles of interviews with stakeholders in the Kenyan higher education system.

Limitations of the Study

The study focuses on Kenyan private universities, especially its five accredited private institutions, and their development over the past decade. However, in order to get a better understanding of private universities in Kenya it is essential to study its public higher education system (particularly its six public universities). Private universities that have not yet been accredited by the Kenyan Commission Higher Education and the process of application and acceptance of secondary school students at Kenyan higher education institutions will be examined. Furthermore, a comparative perspective of private higher education systems in some developing countries are examined.

Dissertation Chapters.

This study has a total of seven chapters including the methodology chapter. Each chapter will correspond with one or more of Geiger and Levy’s five variables. Chapter one presents an introduction and overview of the study. Chapter two provides the methodology in which the whole study is conducted. It presents an outline of all the necessary procedures taken to conduct the study.
Chapter three examines the history of the expansion of universities in Kenya since its independence in 1963. It also discusses the conditions that led to increasing demands for university enrollment and the steps taken to establish private universities. Chapter four takes a look at the issues of governance and the funding of public and private universities. These two issues are very important in the operation of higher education institutions. The chapter examines how public and private universities are governed and funded.

Chapter five examines curricula and quality issues at both private and public universities in Kenya. Universities in Africa, including Kenya, have long been involved with issues of quality of education and the particular academic programs offered. Ashby provided a well-documented section in his book about these issues. Chapter six looks at students and faculty profiles at both public and private universities, for the success of the institution depends on these two groups. This chapter provides a profile of the roles that these two important participants play in university education in Kenya.

Finally, chapter seven looks at private universities in Malaysia and South Africa. The higher education systems in these two countries enroll significant numbers of students. Malaysia, like Kenya, began encouraging the establishment of private higher education institutions in the 1980s. South Africa passed higher education laws beginning in 1997 that call for the establishment of private institutions. This chapter examines the two higher education systems of these countries to determine if there are any lessons that could be applied by Kenya’s educational policies.
Analysis

This study has gathered important data about Kenya's higher education system. Some of the information consists of primary data that was collected at either the CHE or the individual Kenyan institutions. In analyzing this data, a clear picture regarding the enrolment trends in both public and private universities will be presented. The analysis of the financial and curriculum data will be applied to make predictions about the decades ahead.

The study will be able to document the views and opinions of the major stakeholders or participants in the Kenyan higher education system. The interviews with administration officials at private universities will reveal whether the future of private higher education in Kenya is promising. It will be important to get the opinion from administrators about the issue of governance between the Kenyan government and private universities. Interviews with students at private universities will provide information about their backgrounds and how they come up with their tuition money and this will be an important information. That is because the government of Kenya does not provide any funds to private universities, even though an overwhelming number of Kenyan students come from poor families.

The study of faculty both public and private universities will explain the level of academic freedom or autonomy by professors in Kenya. The process of academic appointments, benefits and the overall role of Kenyan professors in higher education and society will be examined. In addition, the views and opinions of professors about the transmission of knowledge and quality of higher education in Kenya will be studied. Finally, the study will explain any influence by private higher education systems outside
of Africa on Kenya. It will examine how this influence(s) shaped Kenya’s higher education system in its current model. Also analysis of the influence of Kenya’s private higher education system on its African counterparts will be provided, and this will help explain whether such trends will continue to spread across the continent.
Chapter Three
The History of the expansion of Universities in Kenya
Introduction

This chapter will examine the history of the expansion of universities in Kenya post 1963. It will provide the factors responsible for the establishment of accredited private universities in Kenya in the 1990s. It is important to note that there is no one particular definition of accreditation of higher education institutions around the world. There are many higher education institutions in Kenya. Currently however, a total of only eleven public and private universities are recognized as accredited institutions by the Ministry of Education in Kenya. According to the Universities (Amendment) Bill, 2001, passed by the Kenyan parliament, accreditation is defined as follows:

"Accreditation" means recognition by the Commission (for Higher Education) evidenced by the grant of a charter or a certificate of accreditation under this Act, that a university meets and continues to meet the set standards of academic and technical excellence: (The Universities (Amendment) Bill, 2001).

Included among the process to become accredited, an institution must meet the following requirements:

- Hold a certificate of registration or letter of interim authority issued by the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) and the certificate or letter must have been held for at least three years and must not have been suspended or revoked.
- The CHE must be satisfied with the institution’s self-evaluation, including progress made in the design, implementation, or maintenance of an academic or an administrative system acceptable in terms of institutional standards…and relevant to the needs of university education in Kenya
- Applications for accreditation must be accompanied by a list and academic qualifications of all members of staff on or expected to be on full-time employment with the university
- A list of total number of students that have been enrolled in each program of instruction offered at the university
- A statement of the size and quality of the library and equipment which have been developed for each program being offered or to be offered at the university
- A statement of the financial resources that are available for the exclusive use of the university, certified by a person qualified to practice the Accountants Act
- An inventory of the physical facilities including land that are available for the exclusive enjoyment of the university

The dimensions and goals of Private universities will also be examined. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the economic and social conditions in Kenya in the past two decades and the impact such conditions have had on that country’s higher educational system.

**Economic Conditions in Kenya**

According to table one (appendix) Kenya’s total population has increased substantially in the past two decades. For example, in 1975, the total population of Kenya was 13.6 million people. In 1999, the population of Kenya increased to 30 million people. The life expectancy at birth of Kenyans has not improved in the past three decades. From 1970-1975, the life expectancy at birth of Kenyans was 51 years. From 1995-2000, it increased to 52.2 years (UNDP Report, 2001). The economy of Kenya has not seen any significant growth in the past two decades. For example, Kenya’s Gross domestic product (GDP in 1995 USS) per capita in 1975 was $301. In 1998, Kenya’s GDP per capita was $334 (UNDP Report, 2000). According to the 2000/2001 World Bank report, the total GDP of Kenya in 1990 was $8,533 million. In 1999, it increased to $10,603 million. These figures show that as Kenya’s annual population increased, its income or wealth is insufficient to provide a better living standard for its citizens.

Trade and investment continue to be vital to successful economies. However, Kenya has not been able to make significant benefits from trade and investments. For example, in 1990, Kenya’s exports of goods and services totaled $2,228 billion. In 1998, its total exports were $2,851 billion. During this same period, Kenya imported more goods and services than it exported. In 1990, Kenya imported $2,705 billion of goods and services. In 1998, the import of goods and services increased to $3,695 billion.
From 1990 to 1998, foreign direct investment in Kenya dropped substantially. In 1990, foreign direct investment in Kenya was $57 million. In 1998, it declined to only $11 million dollars (World Bank World Development Report, 2000/2001). The foreign debt estimated by the World Bank at $7 billion in 1998 continues to be a difficult problem for Kenya. This is especially the case when according to the 2000 UNDP Report, Kenya’s total debt service as percentage of exports of goods and services in 1998 stood at 18.8%. The increase in population and these economic problems have made it difficult for the Kenyan government to sufficiently fund higher education. For example, according to the World Bank 2000/2001 World Report, in 1980 public expenditure on education was 6.8 % Gross National Product (GNP). In 1997, that figure dropped to 6.5 % of GNP. Moreover, the unemployment rate in Kenya in 1998 was estimated at 50% (CIA World Factbook, 2001).

These difficult economic conditions have played a major part in causing the Kenyan government to introduce the establishment of private universities without government funding. That is because since independence, the government of Kenya has been the primary source of goods and services to its citizens.

**The Beginning of University Education in Kenya**

University-level education in Kenya goes back to 1963, when the University College, Nairobi, was created as a branch of the University of East Africa. In 1922, Makere College was established in Uganda as a small technical college, which resulted into an inter-territorial institution admitting students from Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and Zanzibar (Tanganyika and Zanzibar united to form the present day Tanzania). In 1949, Makere College entered into a relationship with the University of London to enable
its students to attain degrees from that institution. Makere College operated as the University College of East Africa and remained the only higher education in East Africa until 1954. In 1954, an institution named the Royal Technical College of East Africa was established in Nairobi. It admitted students for the first time in 1956. In 1961, the Royal Technical College was transformed into the second Inter-territorial University College in East Africa and was renamed the Royal College, Nairobi. In 1963, the Royal College became the University College, Nairobi after the establishment of the University of East Africa with Makere, Dar es Salaam and Nairobi as constituent colleges (www.uonbi.ac.ke).

In 1963, there were 571 students at the University College Nairobi (Weidman, 1995). In 1970, the University of East Africa was mutually dissolved with each of the three countries involved deciding to establish its own national university, under each country’s Act of Parliament. It was during this period that the University College, Nairobi was renamed the University of Nairobi (www.uonbi.ac.ke).

Three more universities were established in Kenya in the 1980s due to the increase in the demand of university education. They are Moi University (1984), Kenyatta University (1985) and Eagerton University (1987). In the 1990s, two more fully-fledged universities, Maseno and Jomo Kenyatta, were established to give Kenya six public universities (Nafukho, 1999).

Enrollment at Kenya’s public universities jumped from 571 in 1963 to over 41,000 students in 1992. The rapid increase in enrollment at public universities began in 1983 with an enrollment of 9,223. By 1987, there were 17,538 students enrolled at universities in Kenya. In 1992, that number had jumped to 41,062 (Orgot and Weidman,
Table 2
Student Enrollment in Public Universities in Kenya, 1963 to 1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>571</td>
<td>5,149</td>
<td>9,223</td>
<td>10,143</td>
<td>17,538</td>
<td>41,062</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Orgot and Weidman, 1993.

Factors Responsible for the Establishment of Private Universities

Several factors have been cited for the expansion of higher education and the establishment of private universities in Kenya, four of which will be examined. The four factors are (1) the increase in total population, (2) the shift from the English model of education to the American model, (3) thousands of Kenyan students studying abroad, and (4) to establish independent universities where students could avoid riots that are persistent in public universities, thus creating an environment where they could graduate on time.

Since Kenya’s independence in 1963 from England, its population has increased significantly. In 1960, Kenya had 8.1 million people. By mid-year of 2000, that number increased to 30.3 million people (U.S. Census, 2000).

Between 1960 and 2000, Kenya’s population grew by 22.2 million people (Table 2 in chapter one). This increase created serious economic challenges for all Kenyans due to the lack of wealth in the country. Furthermore, the increase in population directly led to more demand for university education. That is because the number of secondary
school graduates was likely to increase and many of those graduates would like to pursue university education. For instance, in 1963, the total secondary school enrollment in Kenya was 30,120 (Ogot & Weidman, 1993). According to the Ministry of Education in Kenya, in 1990, there were 618,500 students enrolled in secondary schools. By 1998, that number increased to 700,500 students enrolled in secondary schools. Furthermore, the 1998, secondary school enrollment was only 29% of the eligible (ages 14-17 years) projected population of an estimated 3 million (unesco.org). These figures indicate that even though the government was already having problems finding space for incoming university students, the total number of enrollment at secondary schools was increasing significantly, thereby predicting more problems.

The lack of significant increase in government revenues in the past two decades created a situation where the government had to find an alternate method of increasing students enrollment in universities without actually paying the costs. For example, even though Table 2 (in chapter one) shows that Kenya’s total population in the year 2000 was just over 30 million people, the country seems to have had its most productive year in 1990. According to the 2001 UNDP report, during that year, Kenya’s GDP per capita was $1,078, which represents its highest GDP per capita value.

It is also evident that the education system in Kenya was going to see cutbacks in funding. It is no surprise that public expenditure on education as percentage of GNP dropped from 6.8% in 1980 to 6.5% in 1997 (World Bank, World Development Report, 2000/2001) and this happened at a time when such percentages should have increased. Higher education in Kenya is directly affected with the cuts in education expenditure. For example, public expenditure on higher education was just over one-fifth (21.6%) of
all levels of education in 1990. In 1993, that figure dropped to 15.8 percent
(www.ibe.unesco.org/international)

The substantial increase in population and the harsh economic realities in the past
two decades led the government of Kenya to encourage the establishment of private
universities to assist the public universities to increase enrollment and more importantly
to do so without government funding.

The second factor responsible for the expansion of higher education in Kenya is
the move by the government to shift from the English model of education to the
American model, which resulted in students graduating a year earlier. With the rapid rise
in population and a year earlier entry point, the public universities could not
accommodate all the students who wanted to attend college. This meant that only a
limited number of students could be accepted in the nation’s six public universities, with
the private sector accepting some of the remaining students. For example, in 1998,
169,357 high school seniors took the Kenyan Certificate of Secondary Education
(KCSE). The KCSE is the college entrance exam that determines who gets accepted at
Kenya’s six public universities. Of those who took the exam in 1998, 30,243 qualified
but due to the lack of space only 8,150 (27%) were admitted at the public universities
(Aduda, March 27, 2000). Those students not admitted would have to apply to private
universities or travel out of Kenya to attain university education.

Sifuna (1998) notes that the decision to switch from the British to American
system was recommended by the Presidential Working Party, established in January 1981
to make general recommendations on the government’s decision to establish a second
university in Kenya. The reason for the recommendation by the Working Party of the 8-
4-4 school system according to Sifuna was, “a political response to factors related to historical and regional inequality” (p.183). According to Sifuna, the Working Party claimed that some regions in the country had historically more educational opportunities than others and it was for that reason that it decided to recommend the restructuring of the education system to reduce the regional and social inequalities in the country. Sifuna wrote that:

At the regional level, it was noted that the educationally disadvantaged regions of the country did not reap as much benefits from the ‘A’ level system as did those regions of the country where there were many well established secondary schools. The disadvantaged regions did not enroll as many of their students in ‘A’ level streams mainly because such streams were available in the more economically advantaged regions, which also tended to have enjoyed historical advantages with regard to the establishment of both primary and secondary schools. The Working Party therefore recommended that the ‘A’ level segment of the secondary school system should be scrapped and that entire education system should be structured to an 8-4-4 system (Sifuna, p.183. 1998).

The third factor responsible for the call for the creation of more private universities is to encourage Kenyan students from traveling abroad to study. There are tens of thousands of Kenyan students studying at higher education institutions abroad. According to the president of Kenya, Daniel arap Moi, “only 35% of the qualified students each year were being admitted into public and private universities” (Kigotho, Times Higher, 2000). The Kenyan Ministry of Education estimates that about 20,000 Kenyan students are enrolled in universities outside Kenya. In the 2000/2001 academic year, of the 34,217 African students enrolled in colleges and universities in the United States, Kenyan students comprised 6,229 (18.2%) of that total enrollment (Institute of International Education, 2001). Another 6,000 Kenyans are reported to be studying in the United Kingdom (The British Council, 2001). The Indian High Commission in Kenya reported that there are over 7,000 Kenyan students pursuing higher education at about 50
Indian universities. According to the vice-chancellor of the United States International University (USIU), Dr. Freida Brown, about 72 percent of Kenyans studying at higher education institutions abroad are undergraduates (Kariuki, 1999).

Because of the large number of Kenyan students studying abroad, President Moi has called for the creation of more private universities to encourage Kenyan students to study at home. The President called on businessmen to invest in higher education by creating more private universities, claiming that a significant portion of the population was locked out of university education due to lack of opportunities in public universities. The Ministry of Education claims that Kenya loses approximately $19 million each year to foreign universities (Panafrican News Agency, Nov.24, 2000). According to President Moi:

We cannot afford to lose foreign exchange in such a proportion and that is why private universities should take advantage of the quest for education by expanding their facilities to enroll more students while the Commission for Higher Education should streamline its procedures for accreditation of private universities in order to hasten the process without compromising on quality. (Kariuki, 1999).

In early 2001, the Kenyan Parliament passed the Universities (Amendment) Bill, 2001. A section of this law gave the Commission for Higher Education and the President of Kenya the authority to register and accredit foreign private universities in Kenya.

Finally, the call for more private universities is to provide students with the option of escaping consistent protests and disruptions at public universities. Some secondary school students are directly aiming to attend private universities and even students at public universities have begun transferring to private universities. Kenyan public universities have a long history of campus unrest due to a variety factors. Before presenting a few examples of campus unrest in public universities in the past two
decades, it would be important to first provide the reason for such unrest between students and administration. Mazrui (1991) notes that there was student unrest, though not as violent as recent uprisings, on campuses in Africa in the immediate post-colonial period. During that period according to Mazrui, the reason for student protests was to address the issue of injustice in the wider African societies. However, when African economies began experiencing difficulties, university students began seeing a decline in their own privileges, and this resulted in serious protests.

According to Mazrui, during the 1960s and 1970s when most African economies were much better than in the past two decades, African students had much better living conditions. They had almost all the basic necessities including fees paid by the government and allowances for books and stationery. Mazrui says that due to these facts, most of the complaints of African students during that period were not about them, but rather the injustices of the societies in which they lived. However, as their own privileges began to decline and “… loans replaced free education, dormitories become more overcrowded, sanitary conditions deteriorated and the menu in the hostel become less attractive, the horizons of students’ rebellion have narrowed from their wider issues of social injustice to the more urgent needs of their own existence (p.4).

In January 2001, Kenya’s main daily newspaper, The Nation, reported that more than 80 students from Kenyatta University were suspended or expelled due to riots that eventually led to its closure in October 2000. At the University of Nairobi, another 80 students were suspended in late December, following riots that led to the closure of that institution on November 9, 2000. Moi University suspended 15 students, Maseno
University suspended 42 students and Egerton University suspended 14 students (Siringi, Jan.5, 2001).

In February of 1997, Kenyan government authorities shut down the University of Nairobi after two days of violent protests on campus following the suspicious death of a student leader, Solomon Murubi (Tunbridge, 1997). In February 1997, Kenyan government authorities again shut down the University of Nairobi indefinitely after three days of rioting by hundreds of students that were protesting a controversial sale of public forest land on the outskirts of Nairobi (Tunbridge, 1999). By February of the 2000-2001 academic year, Public universities in Kenya have already suspended or expelled an estimated 300 students for allegedly participating in riots (Aduda, Feb. 19, 2001).

The above incidents of riots and closures of public universities are only a continuation of a history of conflicts between students and the government in the past two decades. On August 1, 1982 due to political repression, the Air Force of Kenya staged a failed coup, which was popular among university students who openly demonstrated their support for the coup. In response the government of Kenya ordered the closure of the University of Nairobi for about one year (Sifuna, p. 184. 1998). It is useful to note that students at public universities are not the only group within public universities who are involved in protests against the government. Faculty at public universities have also been involved in conflict with the government. Between November 1993 and 1994, about 3,700 university lecturers at the country’s four public universities (Kenyatta University, Moi University, Egerton College, and the University of Nairobi) at that time, went on strike because the government refused to register their University Academic Staff Union (UASF) under the Trade Union Act (Attech, 1996).
According to a head teacher at a national school, "Most high school students feel demoralized when they hear of university riots and closures, so they opt for private universities or mid-level colleges" (Aduda, Feb 19, 2000). According to Aduda, with all the protests and violence at public universities it takes some students six years to finish their undergraduate work, instead of the usual four years. This means that attending Kenya's private universities with their discipline and riots free environment, students could graduate in the four years it takes to finish undergraduate studies.

**The Establishment of Private Universities**

There are fourteen registered private universities in Kenya. Currently five of them are accredited, six have registration certificates and three operate under a Letter of Interim Authority. The accredited private universities are the University of Eastern African, Baraton, Catholic University of Eastern Africa, Daystar University, Scott Theological College and United States International University (USIU) (East African Standard, Jan. 12, 2001). Kabarak University is among the private universities with a Letter of Interim Authority. Kenya's president, Daniel arap Moi, owns Kabarak University. The Commission for Higher Education in Kenya is responsible for the registration and accreditation of all universities in Kenya. On January 12, 2001, the CHE published the registration and accreditation status of all private colleges and universities in Kenya in the *East African Standard* newspaper.

The CHE placed private institutions into three categories. The first category (Table 3 a) consists of Chartered Private Universities. Private universities in this group have been fully accredited by the CHE. This means that each of these institutions has met all the necessary requirements set by the Commission. The second category belongs to private universities operating under Letters of Interim Authority (Table 3 b). These
institutions do not have a full charter. However, they have applied to the CHE for their establishment and have fulfilled requirements as stipulated in the Universities Rule, 1989. The CHE is working with these institutions towards being granted full charters. The third category of private universities are those registered with the CHE (Table 3 c). According to the CHE, these are universities which were offering degrees before the establishment of the CHE in 1985 and were issued with Certificates of Registration after fulfilling the requirements set in the Universities Rules, 1989. The CHE notes that, the issuance of a Certificate of Registration is a statement of the existence of the institutions and should in no way be constituted or imply accreditation.

**Table 3**  
**Categories of Private Universities in Kenya as of January 12, 2001**

**a. Chartered Private Universities.**

1. University of Eastern African, Baraton,
2. Catholic University of Eastern Africa,
3. Daystar University,
4. Scott Theological College and
5. United States International University (USIU).

**b. Private Universities operating under Interim Letter of Authority**

1. African Nazarene University
2. Kabarak University
3. Kenya Methodist University
c. Registered private universities

1. The East Africa School of Theology
2. The Kenyan Highlands Bible College
3. The Nairobi Evangelical Graduate School of Theology
4. The Nairobi International School of Theology
5. The Pan Africa Christian College
6. St Paul’s United Theological College


The total number of students at private universities has been growing significantly since the 1992/93 academic year. For example, table one (chapter one) shows that in the 1992/93 academic year, there were 2,521 students enrolled at private universities. This figure was 5.5% of total university enrollment in Kenya. By the 1999/2000 academic year, there were 6,920* students enrolled at private universities. This figure was 14% of the total university enrollment in Kenya. The 1997/98 academic year saw the highest total in enrollment at both public and private universities. That academic year, there were 49,454 students enrolled in Kenya’s accredited universities (CHE, 2000). The total estimate of all higher education enrollment in Kenya in the year 2000, including non-private and private institutions and students studying abroad is 102,444. Table 4 (below) indicates that the introduction of private universities in Kenya has made an important impact in the increase of overall university enrollment. If there were no such institutions, the nearly 7,000 enrolled in accredited private universities would either have not had the opportunity to attend universities or those with more resources would have traveled out of the country to attain university education.
Among private universities, Table 4 shows that in the 1998/99 academic year, the United States International University had the highest enrollment, which was 1,799 (35.2%) out of the total enrollment of 5,111 students. For that same academic year, Catholic University had the second highest enrollment with 1,211 (23.78%) students. Scott Theological College had the lowest enrollment in 1998/99 with 78 (0.02%) students. According to the 2000 Kenya Economic Survey (Kenya Economic Survey), women made up 54.5% of the total private university enrolment in 2000. The male/female ratio is reversed at public universities with women making up 30.9% of the total enrolment in the year 2000. Postgraduate students constituted only 4.5% of total enrolment at private universities in 2000. At public universities, the total enrolment of postgraduate students was only 6.7 percent (Kenyan Economic Survey, 2000). These figures indicate that there is a potential for a rapid growth in private university enrollment in Kenya. The fact that enrollment more than doubled from the 1992/93 to the 1998/99 academic years show that private institutions will be playing a significant role in university education in Kenya in the future.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Academic Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>92/93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USIU</td>
<td>744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAYSTAR</td>
<td>849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BARATON</td>
<td>731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCOTT THEOLOGICAL</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,521</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: USIU-United States International University
Baraton-University of Eastern Africa-Baraton
Dimensions of Private Universities in Kenya

Among the five accredited private universities in Kenya, four are religious institutions and one is secular. The four religious private universities are Daystar University, Baraton University, Scott Theological College and Catholic University for Eastern Africa. The only secular private university is the United States International University (USIU). With the exception of Kabarak University, the remaining five registered private universities are all religious institutions. President Moi stressed that his university (Kabarak) would have a strong Christian background. One major reason for the significant number of religious private universities in Kenya is that over 66% of the 30.3 million Kenyans are Christians (Table 5). People with indigenous beliefs (those who practice traditional African religions) make up 26% of the population, Muslims (7%) and 1% of the population belongs to other religions.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Protestants</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roman Catholics</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People with indigenous beliefs</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslims</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CIA World Factbook, 2001

Missions and Goals of Accredited Private Universities

Daystar University

Daystar University is an evangelical Christian Liberal Art University with students from more than 20 African countries. Daystar University began offering two-year post high school diploma programs in Christian Communications in 1976. In 1978,
the university established a two-year M.A. program in Christian Communications and a
Christian Ministries was started in collaboration with Wheaton College, Illinois, USA. In
April 1984, Daystar University launched its four-year B.A. degree program in
collaboration with Messiah College, located in Grantham, Pennsylvania, USA. In
December 1984, the university changed its name from Daystar Communications to
Daystar University College. On September 29, 1994, Daystar was granted a charter by
the government of Kenya to operate as an accredited private university. At that same
time, the university became known as Daystar University (Daystar University Catalogue,
1999-2002). The university has two campuses, the main campus near Athi River Town,
just outside Nairobi and another in Nairobi, Kenya. The full time undergraduate
programs are offered at the Athi River Campus, while the Graduate, evening
Undergraduate, Diploma and Short course programs are offered at the Nairobi campus

According to the Daystar University 1999-2002 catalogue, its mission is:

a. To provide Christian-based higher education, training and research for the expansion
   of God’s kingdom in the world, and especially Africa.

b. To provide broad biblically based education programs that will develop men and
   women to serve in a variety of supportive and leadership roles in the African Church
   and society, and through the training and extension programs, research and advisory
   services, to help equip the church to effectively serve the society in which it exists.

**University of Eastern Africa, Baraton (UEAB)**

The University of Eastern Africa, Baraton (UEAB) is a Seventh-day Adventist
institution. The earliest Seventh-day Adventist Church was established in Tanzania in
1903, followed by some Church activities in Kenya in 1906. In 1928, what is currently
known as Kamagambo Adventist College was established in Kisii town. In December
1978, the Board of the Afro-Mideast Division of the Church established a university in

According to its catalogue, the university’s mission is the “advancement of quality education and people-reaching ministry of Jesus Christ such as would facilitate the proper mental, spiritual, physical and social development of its faculty, staff, students and administrators alike” (UEAB Catalogue, 2000). The university seeks to accomplish its mission and goals by stressing the relationship between:

- Availability and Affordability;
- Scholarship and Spirituality;
- Learning and living;
- Work and Worship and
- Self and Service

According to the University of Eastern Africa Baraton catalogue, the university’s role is an integral part of society and has the special function of lifting the vision of society by challenging and motivating its students to develop to the highest possible degree. This is achieved through programs for the general public and developing educated citizens who can serve the needs of the community. The university’s goal is to “serve the Seventh-day Adventist Church by offering courses that are relevant to the training of its leaders and administrators” (UEAB Catalogue, 2000).

**Scott Theological College**

Scott Theological College is owned and sponsored by the African Inland Church, Kenya. Scott Theological College’s mission is to “glorify God and build through high-quality programs of training and research” (Document provided by Tom J. Obengo,
Registrar Scott Theological College). The College trains men and women to serve the church through the ministry of pastor, teacher, and other forms of Christian ministry. Applicants to Scott Theological College must be born-again individuals who have evidence of the call of God for serving the Church of Jesus Christ (Document provided by Tom J. Obengo, Registrar Scott Theological College).

**Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA)**

The Catholic University of Eastern Africa began as a school of theology known as Catholic Higher Institute of Eastern Africa (CHIEA), founded in 1984 by the regional ecclesiastical authority known as the Association of Member Episcopal Conferences in Eastern Africa (AMECEA). AMECEA's members are Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia. On May 2, 1984, the Congregation authorized the Catholic Institute of Eastern Africa for Catholic Education, in Vatican City to offer two-year Licentiate/MA programs in Theology. In September of that same year, the programs were officially inaugurated and in August 1985, Pope John Paul II formally opened it.

In 1986, the Graduate School of Theology began negotiations with the Commission for Higher Education in Kenya toward the establishment of Catholic University of Eastern Africa. In 1989, the Institute received a “Letter of Interim Authority” to operate as a private university. Three years later, the Faculty/College of Arts and Social Sciences was established. In November 1992, Catholic University of Eastern Africa became an accredited private university in Kenya.

(www.cuea.edu/brief.htm).
The Catholic University of Eastern Africa states that it:

...aspires to serve local and international communities by confronting perplexing issues and proposing solutions to some of the great problems of societies and cultures” (www.cuea.edu/ginfo.htm). It provides facilities and opportunities to scholars to share the joy of searching for, discovering, and to communicating knowledge. In addition, its Christian inspiration enables the university to promote a moral, spiritual and religious dimension in its research, teaching and community service. It thus aims to produce an authentic labor force capable of contributing to economic, political, social and national development goals that protect and enrich human dignity (www.cuea.edu/ginfo.htm).

**United States International University (USIU)**

The United States International University (USIU) was established in 1952. The parent university is located in San Diego, California. Another branch of the university is located in Mexico City, Mexico. The United States International University, Nairobi, was established in 1969 when it was granted a Presidential Charter by President Mzee Jomo Kenyatta making it the first and only secular university in East Africa. In 1970, the university began with five American students in a house in Parklands. During that period, only the first two years of classes were offered and students had to travel to San Diego to complete their degrees. By 1979, the entire four-year and the master’s degree programs could be completed in Kenya. The first graduation of the United States International University occurred in 1979 with a total of twenty-three students. On December 10, 1999, the university was accredited by the Kenyan Ministry of Education. The United States International University is also accredited by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges, in the United States. The university is located in Kasarani, a few miles outside Nairobi, Kenya.
The United States International University states that its mission is to “promote the discovery and application of knowledge, the acquisition of skills, and the development of intellect and character in a manner which prepares students to contribute effectively and ethically as citizens of a changing and increasingly technological world” (USIU Document). The university’s mission is to achieve the following outcomes:

- Higher Order Thinking;
- Literacy;
- Global Understanding and Multicultural Perspective;
- Preparedness for Career and
- Community Service

Kabarak University

Kabarak University currently has an Interim Letter of Authority (obtained in 2000) to operate as a private university. However, because the president of Kenya, Daniel arap Moi, owns the university, it is important to include it among the five accredited universities because its accreditation as a full-fledged private university will most likely happen by the end of 2001. President Moi notes that although most of the courses offered at his university would be secular, the institution would have a strong Christian foundation. He notes that:

The university would provide quality training within the context of Christian Education and would produce morally upright and patriotic graduates who would be easily absorbed in Kenya’s emerging economy (Njuguma, The Nation, Oct. 17, 2000).

In addition, the Chairman of the Board of Trustees of Kabarak University, Benjamin Kipkulei, said that the university is expected to admit 1,500 students each year and by 2005, it is expected to be the largest private university in Kenya with more than 6,000 students (Kigotho, Times Higher, 2000).
Conclusion

The Kenyan government has made significant efforts to provide access to higher education to its citizens. The Kenyan people have also demonstrated their willingness and desire to attain higher education. However, the current total estimate of higher education enrollment of just over 102,000 people is not sufficient for a country of more than 30 million people. The Government of Kenya is among many of its African counterparts that believed that government had the responsibility to provide higher education to its citizens in order to prepare the intellectual manpower they needed after gaining independence. Ashby (1964) documented the debate as to whether the newly independent African nations in their early years were making the right decision to spending enormously on their newly established universities. He claimed that Britain was influencing nations such as Kenya to imitate its higher education system even though these countries had different backgrounds and cultures. Ashby notes that there were influential Africans who were concerned that African governments were spending too much of their resources on university education and created no other alternatives to expand higher education to the masses.

Mazrui (1992) notes that the influence of European universities on African universities has caused more problems to the people of Africa as a whole and has only benefited the few who had the opportunity to attain higher education. According to Mazrui, those Africans who attain higher education, especially those before and immediately after independence were the ones who took control of their governments and universities and despised other Africans who did not have a Western education. As a
result, only Africans with Western education were permitted to hold the most important political positions and university jobs, even though they received their education at the expense of the masses. For example, Mazrui notes that one could not become a member of an African parliament or a cabinet minister without the knowledge of a European language. According to Mazrui, African universities have contributed to this perception of Western education. He writes that:

African universities played a leading role in fostering this new basis of stratification. They helped to give Western culture as a whole greater legitimacy in African societies. They produced teachers for lower levels of education and thus helped to continue the Eurocentric tradition of colonial educational system. ... The university degree itself was for a while a major passport to influence and opportunity (Mazrui, p. 23. 1992).

The establishment of private universities in Kenya is an essential development. The idea has not only been accepted but it also indicates that private higher education is going to play a major role in providing Kenyans with the knowledge they need to be useful in the twenty-first century economy. However, as it is obvious in this chapter religious institutions dominate private universities in Kenya.

Throughout history religion has been cited as a major reason for globalization. On June 15, Prof. Mazrui gave a speech about globalization to the Royal Society of Art and the British Broadcasting Corporation, in London, England. In the speech, Mazrui points out that four forces that have been major engines behind globalization over time are religion, technology, economy and empire. He notes that these forces have not acted separately, instead they have often reinforced each other (Mazrui, 2000. p.1). Therefore, the establishment of Christian private higher education institutions in Kenya is a way of maintaining Christian influence and its traditions in that country. This is a very important
issue to Christians and Christianity because all of the five countries (Ethiopia, Somalia, Sudan, Tanzania and Uganda, with over 168 million people) bordering Kenya have significant Islamic populations. Somalia and Sudan, for example, have entirely Muslim populations. Ethiopia has an estimated 40-50% Muslim population, while mainland Tanzania (Zanzibar has 99 percent Muslim population) and Uganda have estimates of 35% and 16% Muslim populations respectively (CIA World Factbook, 2001).

It is therefore very essential for Christians to maintain their presence in Kenya or else they stand to lose the gains they have made in the past century. This is especially so because Islam is the fastest growing religion not only in Africa, but also the world. For example, in the 16 West African countries, the Muslim population is estimated at 53% of the 240 people in 2001. Nigeria alone has over 126 million people with 50% of them estimated to be Muslims (Source: data for population and religion compiled from CIA World Factbook, 2001). In Europe and the United States, Mazrui (2001) points out that in all of Europe, excluding Turkey, there are now 20 million Muslims, with ten million of that number in Western Europe. In the United States, Mazrui points out that there are now over 6 million Muslims and that the number is rapidly rising. Competition for religious influence is not between Islam and Christianity alone. There is also competition for influence within Christianity and Islam. As table 5 illustrates, Protestants make up 38% of the Christian population in Kenya while Catholics make up 28 percent. In Islam, the Shi’a and Sunni Muslims have competed for centuries for influence within their religion. The establishment of large numbers of private higher education institutions in Kenya might be one way of addressing this issue. This is especially important to Christians because Kenya is regarded by many as the international center of East Africa.
Kenyans must ask the question as to what type of private universities that they need. Do they need any type of private universities, including those that provide academic programs that are already being offered by the public universities?
Chapter Four
Governance and Finance of Private Universities in Kenya
Introduction

This chapter will focus on two important dimensions of accredited private and public universities in Kenya, which are governance and financing of universities. It will separately examine each of these dimensions and their impact on universities in Kenya. Governance in higher education systems has been examined from different perspectives in various parts of the world. Three major perspectives by which governance in higher education has been studied are (1) Shared governance, (2) Institutional autonomy, (3) and establishment of accreditation bodies to oversee curricula activities. Shared governance can be defined as the division of authority and responsibilities within institutions among administration, faculty and students. Altbach et al. (1999) points out that there are three concepts of institutional autonomy: Academic freedom, Substantive autonomy and Procedural autonomy.

**Academic freedom** is the freedom of the individual scholar to pursue truth wherever it leads, without fear of punishment or of termination of employment for having offended some political, methodological, religious, or social orthodoxy.

**Substantive autonomy** is the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine its own goals and programs (the what of academe).

**Procedural autonomy** is the power of the university or college in its corporate form to determine the means by which its goals and programs will be pursued (the how of academe) (Altbach et al., 1999). The establishment of accreditation bodies provides a system of governance where institutions give authority to such bodies voluntarily to monitor their academic and institutional qualities and make essential recommendations.
In the past twenty years, developing nations that once had very small or no private higher education sectors have established private institutions to meet the increasing enrollment demands. Kenya, Chile, and Malaysia are among the developing nations that have established private institutions to meet rapid enrollment demands. Before each of the governments of the aforementioned countries established private higher education, they first had to pass higher education laws in its parliament specifying precisely how the process must be carried out, what governmental bodies should be in charge of the process and how the private institutions must be monitored to ensure each government’s understanding of quality.

This chapter will examine governance differently. It will explain the relationship of university decision making between African governments including the government of Kenya and their universities. The chapter will also present governance of higher education in Kenya through an examination of government higher education laws that included provisions for the creation of private higher education institutions and government control or overseeing of these institutions. The study will look at governance in Kenyan higher education by examining the higher education laws since 1985, passed by the Kenyan parliament for the establishment and overseeing of universities. Utilizing this approach to study governance in Kenyan higher education is that unlike Western nations, most developing nations were once colonized by world powers such as France and England. When these developing nations (e.g. Kenya, Malaysia, etc.) gained their independence, they made it the responsibility of their governments to fully subsidize higher education to its citizens. However, due primarily to financial problems, many developing nations could not afford to continue to fully subsidize higher education and
therefore shifted to a new policy of establishing private institutions where students could pay their own tuition. In addition, governance will also be examined to some extent from these three perspectives because any work that deals with governance in higher education has to address at least one or all of those three perspectives.

The calls for the establishment of private institutions in developing countries such as Kenya, Malaysia and South Africa have come in a period where the increase of globalization and privatization is causing concern within these nations. This is due to the fact that the private higher education institutions that are established in developing countries such as Kenya, Malaysia and South Africa are mostly foreign institutions with links to Western countries. Special laws are passed by the parliaments of these developing nations to try to limit the influence of these foreign institutions that are opening campuses in these developing countries. For example, even though the nation of Malaysia, a former colony of England, encourages the establishment of private higher education by foreign institutions, the government passed strict regulations that foreign institutions must follow.

One such restriction is that the medium of instruction in private institutions must be conducted in the native language, Malay (Lee, 1999). Currently, most of the courses in private institutions in Malaysia are taught in English. At an international conference entitled “Globalization and Higher Education: Views from the South.” held in South Africa in March 2001, Prof. Idris Awang, Deputy Director of the Academy of Islamic Studies, at the University of Malaya, discussed the gradual influence of foreign institutions in the country. According to a conference synopsis by Cheryn Petersen, Awang said that globalization has resulted in the expansion of export policies of higher
education institutions of Western nations and that the competition between private institutions in Malaysia has resulted in curriculum changes. According to Peterson, Awang notes that in the beginning the courses were locally tailored but students seem to have been more attracted to courses offered by foreign institutions. As a result Peterson quoted Awang as saying that “Courses based on local religious and oriental values thus became less viable which has inhibited development in these fields. The private institutions are set up by foreign programs, which do not take into consideration the local and religious values emphasized by the national education policy” (Petersen, March 2001. p.3).

The President of Kenya is authorized by Parliament to personally approve the establishment of any private university. Although developing countries such as Kenya and Malaysia need foreign institutions to open campuses in their countries to help meet enrollment demands, the experience of colonialism by these developing countries has made them cautious and somewhat skeptical about the influence of foreign institutions. As a result, higher education laws dealing with private institutions are carefully written. The section of governance therefore, in this study will examine rules and regulations set up by the Kenyan government to oversee universities.

In order to understand the issue of governance of private universities, it will be useful to examine public universities. It is useful to study public universities along with private universities because it was due to the problems (e.g. lack of resources and space for high school graduates) confronting the public institutions, that precipitated the need for private universities. It is therefore important to examine the similarities and contrasts of government rules and regulations as they apply to public and private institutions.
Kenya's accredited universities are reported to be recognized internationally (Muya, March 6, 2000). This means that if a Kenyan student in a Kenyan university, for example, was to transfer to a United State university, the academic records of that student would be treated just as the records of an American student transferring from one American University to another. It also means that if a Kenyan student graduates from a Kenyan university with a bachelor's degree that student could apply to a graduate program in a foreign country and he or she could be accepted based on their university degrees. Thus, it will be important to explore the rules and regulations set up by the Kenyan government that universities have to observe in order to maintain that international recognition.

In discussing the section on funding of universities in this chapter, the history of government funding of public universities since independence in 1963 to present will be examined separately from the examination of funding of private universities. This will provide a clear understanding of the method of public university funding and the difficult challenge the Kenyan government faces with very scarce resources, which gave rise to the calls for the creation of private universities in the 1980s. Also, influences of international organizations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) have contributed to the Kenyan government's call for the establishment of private institutions. The World Bank and the IMF have called on developing countries including Kenya to privatize public owned and operated utilities, corporations and institutions. These international organizations have also implemented economic development programs for developing countries such as Kenya that require these countries to cut back
on government spending, and higher education has been one of the areas that has suffered from such cuts (Geneva Conference, 1996).


Since 1985, there have been three higher education bills passed by the Kenyan parliament. The bills are the University Act, 1985, the Kenya Subsidiary Legislation, 1989, and the Universities (Amendment) Bill, 2001. The University Act, 1985 has three main provisions. First, it set up a Commission for Higher Education (CHE) as a branch of the Ministry of Education, which handles all issues dealing with higher education in Kenya and must present any recommendations to the Minister of Education. The functions and objectives of the CHE include:

- to promote the objectives of university education, namely the development, processing, storage and dissemination of knowledge for the benefit of mankind
- to advice the Minister of Education on the establishment of public universities
- to accredit universities
- to cooperate with the government in the planned development of university education
- to examine and approve proposals for courses of study course regulations submitted to it by private universities
- to receive and consider applications from persons seeking to establish private universities in Kenya and to make recommendations thereon to the Minister of Education.
- to make regulations in respect to admission of persons seeking to enroll in universities and to provide a central admissions service to public universities.
- to ensure maintenance of standards for courses of study and examination in the universities
- to collect, examine and publish information relating to university education and research
- to determine and recommend to the Minister of Education, the allocation of grants of money for appropriation by Parliament to meet the needs of university education and research and review expenditure by universities of moneys appropriated by Parliament.
• to advise the government on the standardization, recognition and equation of degrees, diplomas and certificates conferred or awarded by foreign and private universities.
• to arrange for regular visitations and inspection of private universities.

The second main provision of the University Act, 1985, was the call for the establishment of private universities. The responsibility of registering private universities was given to the CHE. Among the conditions listed by the government that persons or organization must meet to established private universities include:

• the name of the private university;
• the aims and objectives for which the private university is to be established;
• the membership and government of the private university;
• the extent to which and the form in which regulations may be made by such body of the private university as may be specified for the better functioning of the institution and
• the financial control and expenditure and the administrative control of other property of the university.

Finally, the University Act, 1985, also made the president of Kenya the President or Chancellor of all universities in that country and also gave him the authority to personally approve the establishment of any university in Kenya. It is important to note that government laws making heads of state of African countries chancellors or presidents of universities, especially those nations that were once British colonies have been common since the establishment of universities in post independence Africa. For instance, Cowan et al. (1965) points out that the first presidents of Nigeria and Ghana after independence, were also the Chancellors of the universities in their respective countries.

The Kenya Subsidiary Legislation 1989, and the Universities (Amendment) Bill, 2001, did not make any major changes to the Universities Act 1985. They were enacted
to strengthen, redefine and re-emphasize some sections of the original bill. The main provisions of the Kenya Subsidiary Legislation, 1989, explain in detail the role and functions of the CHE, the preparation of standards for all universities, the evaluation of performance and supervision of universities, and criteria for accreditation of all universities. The Kenya Subsidiary Legislation 1989, also clearly states the institutional rights and obligations of all accredited universities in Kenya. It states that every accredited university is given full autonomy in the administration of its academic affairs. The Bill also states that every accredited university in Kenya has the right to determine what is taught, who is qualified to teach, and to award degrees and diplomas to students who successfully complete their programs. These rights were to be maintained as long as every accredited university maintains the Bill’s required institutional standards at all times and comply with instructions prescribed by the CHE (Kenya Subsidiary Legislation, 1989).

However, private universities tend to enjoy these institutional rights more than their public counter-parts. Public universities in Kenya face frequent government interventions because almost all of their activities (e.g., teaching, research, staff, etc) are funded by the government. Examples of such interventions include, the authority of the President of Kenya, who is chancellor of public universities to appoint and dismiss Vice-chancellors. The government nominates most members of university councils and it is also involved in administrative matters and admission of students in public universities (Sifuna, 1998). In March 2001, President Daniel arap Moi authorized Kenya’s six public universities to double their enrollments in admitting high school seniors who were qualified to attend those universities. However, university officials found it difficult to
admit more students without the logistical support needed for such expansion (Kigotho, March 28, 2001). In early April 2001, it was reported that 5,000 non-teaching jobs at Kenya’s six public universities were eliminated in a move to reduce costs (Kigotho, April 6, 2001). The job cuts were expected to save the government an estimated $10 million annually. According to Kigotho, the Kenyan Finance Minister, Chris Okemo, who supported the cuts claims that public universities “had too many unskilled and semiskilled workers, as well as a bloated bureaucracy of administrators that could no longer be sustained” (Kigotho, April 6, 2001). Such interventions do not occur in private universities and they make it difficult for public universities to function efficiently.

The Universities (Amendment) Bill, 2001, has two main provisions. First, it amended the University Act, 1985 and the functions of the Commission for Higher Education. Second, it specifically states the authority of the president of Kenya over the establishment of private universities. The Act proclaimed that every private university, which intends to open a campus in Kenya must be established by a charter, granted by the President of Kenya. This is a very important development because in many countries, the president of a nation does not directly get involved in the details of such matters. However, since the establishment of private universities means that foreign institutions will be setting up campuses in Kenya, and the history and experience of colonialism is still vivid in the memories of most leaders of once colonized developing nations, this could be a way of checking the influence of those foreign institutions.

Government interventions into the affairs or operations of African universities is not solely based on the fact that the governments provide funding to those universities and therefore have the authority to intervene when they want. The history of many
developing countries is that after independence the governments of these countries moved to limit any significant foreign influences in all institutions, including higher educational institutions. Ashby (1964) pointed out that one major factor of state control over African universities was that after independence, the newly established African universities did not have the teaching and administrative staffs to run the institutions and thereby had to rely on expatriates to carry out these functions. For example, during the 1960-61 academic year, there were 2,166 teachers at the universities of Middle Africa. Out of this number, there were 1,572 (73%) expatriate teachers and 594 (27%) locally born teachers. The majority of the expatriate teachers came from Western Europe and North America (Cowan et al. p.291). Since the majority of expatriate teachers were from Europe and North America, they advocated for institutional autonomy and wanted the governments’ hands off the running of the institutions.

The problem was that since the universities were run primarily by Western expatriates, it meant that if institutional autonomy were given to them, academic and administrative decisions were going to be based on the manner in which they are done in Western nations, since that is what they knew. This, according to Ashby, was not in the best interest of African leaders and Africans in general. It was obvious that not every educational policy that is good for European universities or students would be good for Africans. Because those are two different continents with different cultural, social and economic needs.

African political leaders, university administrators, and professors have themselves been accused of supporting the idea of only accepting university policies based on European models. This “cultural dependency” as Mazrui calls it, has caused
serious consequences to African universities and their students. Mazrui (1999) points out that African leaders and university officials have been so dependent on Western culture that they have done everything to imitate European universities. According to Mazrui, "the Western-style university is basically a foreign institution in Africa, and yet every African country has attempted to reproduce it, often in unashamed imitativeness. ... many of them are now decaying, partly because they were not adequately relevant to the needs of their societies, and partly because they were not culturally designed in the image of their societies (Mazrui, 1999, pp. 8-9).

The call for the establishment of private universities in Kenya is part of a larger shift in that country's decision to privatize most of its government owned and operated corporations and other public utilities and reduce government spending on higher education and other social programs. This shift was primarily a result of pressures from Western governments and international organizations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). By 1997, it was reported that the World Bank had documented more than 2,700 privatization of companies and institutions in Africa, out of which Kenya had 145 such privatization (Louw, 1999). These governments and institutions have demanded that Kenya privatized most of its public corporations and utilities to qualify for aid or loans. For example, the IMF has called on Kenya to implement structural reforms and privatization. In July 2000, the IMF approved a $198 million Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility Loan for Kenya. The structural reform program focuses on streamlining Kenya's public services, reducing the role of the government in commercial activities, and prioritizing public expenditure. The IMF's privatization program for Kenya focuses on major enterprises that provide essential
infrastructural services, such as the Kenyan TELKOM (Telecommunications) and the Kenyan Commercial Bank (www.africapolicy.org). However, in January 2001, the IMF delayed an $8million portion of the $198 million Poverty Reduction payment because Kenya had not followed up on the privatization requirements of the IMF. One of the requirements of the IMF that Kenya had not met was the privatization of TELKOM Kenya (England, 2001).

Kenya like many developing nations find itself in a situation where it needs foreign corporations, including private foreign higher education institutions, but also wants to limit their influences. One of the reasons for the higher education bills in Kenya to give the President of Kenya with the authority to have the final decision on the establishment of private universities might be to minimize the influence of international organizations in the country. Kenya needs international involvement to improve its economy and higher education system, but such involvement comes with a sense of loss of power or authority to these foreign institutions. Therefore, by having the authority to determine what foreign private universities could be established in Kenya, the President could maintain some type of control over these private universities. The government of Kenya does not fund private universities, which gives them more institutional autonomy than the public universities which depend on government funding to operate. Furthermore, foreign private universities might export the political, social beliefs and values of their home countries that might be different from the countries in which they are established, and there might be concerns by the Kenyan government of the influence of such foreign beliefs and values on Kenyan students.
The impact of the three higher education laws has been very obvious in Kenya. As of the 1999/2000 academic year, university education in Kenya has expanded due to the establishment of five accredited private universities. The total number of students in accredited private universities during that academic year was 6,920 (Kenya Economic Survey, 2000). That figure was 14% of total university enrollment (Commission for Higher Education, 2000). That is a significant development because it is not certain where those nearly 7,000 private university students would have been attending college since the public universities did not have enough space to accommodate them. Moreover, there are nine more private colleges and universities in Kenya awaiting full accreditation by the government (The East African Standard, Jan. 12, 2001).

In terms of governance or institutional autonomy, the main difference between public and private universities is that once fully accredited, private universities have exceedingly more institutional autonomy than public universities. Apart from the authority of the President of Kenya to withdraw the license of any private university that performs activities outside of the guidelines set by the government, all private universities have freedom to carry out their operations. For example, according to an interview with Samuel Waweru, an administrator of the United States International University in Kenya, private universities in that country have adequate academic freedom and are also able to set their programs without any significant government intervention. However, Waweru said that private universities are required to adhere to rules set by the Commission for Higher Education in order for them to maintain their accredited status. The same rules also apply to governance. According to Waweru, all key appointments in
the public universities are political while in the private universities appointments are made by the Board of Trustees or Board of Directors.

It is a fact that all the major appointments at public universities are done either directly by the President of Kenya or his loyal government subordinates. Mazrui (1991) points out that, two main reasons for the persistent government interventions into many aspects of public universities operations. The first reason according to Mazrui is that African governments have continued to play the role of the major employer of university professors, administrators and college graduates. The second reason is that to secure their employment, many university professors and administrators in Africa have collaborated with government officials and therefore do not at least object publicly to university decisions made by politicians. For example, according to Mazrui, three of the Vice-Presidents of the Kenyan government chosen by President Daniel arap Moi, since he took office in 1978 came from universities. Also, Mazrui points out that in Africa "Most university administrators have seen themselves as the equivalent of civil servants and therefore eager to comply with government policy and government preferences." (p.10.).

The compliance by administrators according to Mazrui has led to many problems including government denial of academic freedom in African universities. Abagi (2001) also supports this claim by writing that the education system in Kenya has failed to deliver not because of limited resources provided by the government or investments by parents, students communities and donor agencies, but rather "The problems are rooted in the institutional and structural frameworks that allow mismanagement and misappropriation of resources. There is too much politicking at the expense of addressing
critical issues facing the sector. Politics comes first, and professionalism second” (Abagi, Nation newspaper, Oct. 29, 2001).

**Financing Public University Education in Kenya**

Funding for higher education in developing countries is the responsibility of the national government, especially in countries that were once colonized by Western nations. Sub-Saharan African nations place very high value in university education and they spent substantial national resources after independence to not only provide quality education that was comparable to those in Western European and American universities, but they also spent huge sums of funds to provide adequate facilities and logistical support to the African students attending universities. Many African governments after independence even sent students abroad to study in colleges and universities and held themselves responsible for all financial obligations (Ashby, 1964). Furthermore, Mazrui (1990) notes that African leaders in the post-colonial period so heavily depended on the Western way (especially the British and French) of doing things that any idea of the future of African universities that was not Western was unacceptable.

According to Mazrui, (1990) African universities were established as subsidiaries of a cultural transnational corporation, which was the Western academic establishment. Mazrui points out that instead of simply being a place for the transmission of high Western skills, universities became the “transmission belt for high Western culture.” Mazrui stated that, “African universities became nurseries for nurturing a Westernized black intellectual aristocracy. Graduates of Ibadan, Dakar and Makere acquired Western social tastes more readily than Western organizational skills.
Those graduates became steeped in Western consumption patterns rather than Western productive techniques. . . . Those African graduates who have later become university teachers themselves have on the whole remained intellectual imitators and disciples of the West” (Mazrui, pp.3-4. 1990).

The substantial spending provided to universities by African governments in the early years after independence caused some Africans studying abroad to raise some concerns as to whether it was a wise decision to make during that period. Ashby gave an account of a group of Ghanaians educated in the United States “commenting on the luxurious amenities in the residence halls of the university of Ghana, with their porters, stewards, cleaners, and messengers”, claiming that those amenities were “extremely harmful to the students there” (Ashby, 1964. p.102).

Funding university education in Kenya was primarily the responsibility of the government from the 1960s to the late 1980s. Weidman (1995) points out that Kenya, like many other developing countries in Africa, Eastern Europe and Central Asia, not only had a history of funding higher education free of charge, but “students also received additional allowances from the government for their living expenses and study materials” (Weidman, 1995. p.3). According to Weidman, the cost of an African higher education was significantly high and that “…cost of a graduate of Sub-Saharan Africa, according to one estimate is eight times GNP per capita whereas it is only 3.7 times the GNP per capita for all developing countries combined (Weidman, 1995. p.3).

The late 1980s was the beginning of the trend in the shift in funding of university education from government to students and their parents through the creation of private universities and the call for students at public universities to partially pay for their
education. That idea is currently becoming popular all over the continent. In February 2001, the Association of African Universities met in Kenya and adopted a resolution in support of tuition (Bollag, Feb 23, 2001).

The amount of government expenditure provided for each public university student in Kenya has decreased significantly over the past two decades. In 1980 government expenditure for each public university student was $6,300. By 1995, that figure dropped to $1,200 (Moses, Nov. 2000). The Kenyan Government’s total education budget has also continued to decrease significantly since the late 1980s. During the 1988/89 academic year, the recurrent (e.g. salaries, pensions, benefits, utilities, facilities maintenance, etc.) budget for education was 38% of the government’s total recurrent budget funds. In the 1992/93 academic year, the estimated government’s recurrent expenditure for education was 18% of the country’s total national recurrent budget (Ogot and Weidman, 1993). From 1995 to 1997, public education spending in Kenya was 6.5% of the Gross National Product (GNP). During that same period, public education expenditure was 16.7% of the total government expenditure (UNDP Report, 2001). In 1992/93 higher education in Kenya received 19% of the total national recurrent budget (Ogot and Weidman, Dec. 1993). Between 1993 and 1996, expenditure for higher education as a share of all levels was 15.8% (UNDP Report, 1999).
Table 1

(Amounts in millions of Kenyan/British Pounds).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Education Ministry recurrent expenditure</th>
<th>University Expenditure</th>
<th>Recurrent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1992/93*</td>
<td>575.06</td>
<td>118.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996/97</td>
<td>1,478.49</td>
<td>223.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997/98</td>
<td>2,086.36</td>
<td>257.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998/99</td>
<td>2,161.68</td>
<td>216.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999/00</td>
<td>2,307.96</td>
<td>272.49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Ogot and Weidman, 1993)
Note: Kenyan pounds are actually British Pounds. As of February 11, 2002 1 US$ = 0.702 British cents

The recurrent expenditure for public education according to (Table one) has increased from just over 575 million pounds during the 1992/93 academic year to 2,307.96 million pounds in the 1999/00 academic year. During this same period, the recurrent expenditure for public universities went from 118.62 million pounds in the 1992/93 academic year to 272.49 million pounds in the 1999/00 academic year. It is important to note that even though both the Ministry of Education and the university recurrent budgets more than doubled between 1992 and 2000, the inflation rate in Kenya was very high during that period. However, the inflation rate in Kenya has been declining sharply in the past three years. For example, the annual rate of inflation in Kenya from 1990 to 1998 was 15.8%. In 1998 the inflation rate was 10.6 percent (UNDP Report, 2000). By 2000, it dropped to 7 percent (CIA World Factbook, 2001).
Students Share of Financing Public Universities

In an attempt to reduce costs, the Kenyan government requires public university students to pay for a substantial portion of their university education. According to a 1996 International Higher Education presentation in Geneva, Switzerland, the Kenyan Ministry of Education reported that the government has reduced support of students at the university level because of the influence of the Structural Adjustment Programs advocated by the World Bank and the IMF. The report went on to say that as of the 1994/95 academic year, public university students were required to pay about 41% of their university education (Geneva Conference, 1996).

Table 2 provides a breakdown of the cost sharing of public universities in Kenya. Table 2 shows that the unit cost per student at public universities for per year is 120,000 Kenyan shillings. The contribution of the Kenyan government per student is Ksh.70,000 shillings. Kenyan students enrolled in public universities are eligible to receive annual student loans as much as Ksh.42,000 awarded by the Higher Education Loans Board (HELB). Parents who now must assist their sons and daughters to attain a university education contribute Ksh.50,000 per academic year. Kenyan students who show financial need receive a bursary/scholarship aid of Ksh.8,000. Foreign students in public universities do not receive government support must pay an estimated 3,265 in annual tuition. Table 2 indicates that the government is gradually reducing its financial support of public universities students, while the students with the aid of their parents are beginning to take on the responsibility of funding a significant portion of their own education. It shows a continuous decline from 1980, when government expenditure for
each public university student was estimated at $6,300 and in 1995 when such support declined to $1,200 (Moses, 2000).

Table 2
Public Universities Cost-Sharing, 2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ksh</th>
<th>US$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student loan annum</td>
<td>42,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit cost per student year</td>
<td>120,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government contribution</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental contribution</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct payment</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Students</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3,265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: As of February 11, 2002 1 US Dollar = 78 Kenyan Shillings

According to the Kenyan Ministry of Education, the shift in public university funding methods from total government support to cost sharing was to move the priority of education from higher education to basic education. The Ministry of Education argued that in order to improve the educational development of all of its citizens, it was important to at least provide them with basic education. The Ministry declared that more resources would therefore be devoted to primary and secondary education at the expense of university education. The shift in funding priorities, according to the Ministry would help increase the enrollment of primary and secondary school students and also increase their completion rates (Geneva Conference, 1996).

One major factor responsible for this shift in public university funding in Kenya and other Sub-Saharan African countries is that the original purpose of higher education which was to produce the trained manpower needed to staff the governments of the newly independent countries has not happened as planned. The problem is that the public
universities of Africa train African students at the expense of the governments and many of these students leave the continent for Europe or the United States and do not fulfill those trained manpower goals or needs.

Two reasons can be provided for the flight of educated Africans abroad. First, the opportunity for educated Africans to be able to have easier access to work materials and resources needed in order for them to practice effectively in their fields and also be able to provide better living standards for their families. Second, educated Africans are often in conflict with African leaders in regards to the direction of their countries and the continent, and to avoid imprisonment and other forms of punishment for criticizing government policies, these educated Africans flee their countries to work abroad. John Matshikiza, a columnist for the *Daily Mail & Guardian* newspaper in South Africa, wrote a column on June 1, 2001, titled “There’s hope for the dark continent”, in which he gave an account of a Kenyan professor who fled the country due to fear of punishment from the government. In the article Matshikiza did not give the name of the professor. Matshikiza reported that the Kenyan professor was trained in England and returned to Kenya to teach. However, according to Matshikiza, the professor worked for 18 years in the country when “His commitment came into question-not his unchangeable commitment to academic excellence, but his commitment to the regime that controlled the country” (Matshikiza, 2001).

According to Matshikiza, the professor was arrested by the police and detained for six months before his wife and family had confirmation that he was still alive. The professor was accused of being a Marxist and for a year and half he could not be brought to trial. The professor was quoted as saying “Water torture was the worst. Being locked
up for a week in a room knee high in water, without food or drink” (Matshikiza, 2001). Matshikiza notes that the professor lost his job when he returned to campus. According to Matshikiza, “The only option left to him (the professor) was to go into exile. So he is now part of a brain drain that Africa cannot afford, lecturing at a university in Texas, of all places, and observing Africa’s unfolding drama from afar” (Matshikiza, 2001).

According to a 1999 IMF report, there were 95,000 highly educated Africans out of a total of 128,000 African migrants to the United States alone. The biggest numbers of African migrants to the United States come from Egypt, Ghana and South Africa, with migrants from these three countries comprising of over 60 percent having a tertiary education (Carrington & Detragiache, IMF, 1999). Europe and North America are not the only destination for educated Africans fleeing their homelands. A significant number of African professionals travel to other African nations to seek better opportunities. A World Bank report claims that there are an estimated 700 Kenyan doctors working in South Africa alone (Kayabwe, World Bank/WTO, 2000). In Kenya, a university professor said that, “out of the 15 scientists I have supervised for doctorate degrees, only one, now working for the Kenyan Medical Research Institute, remains in the country. The rest have moved to Europe or America to work” (Okwemba, 2001).

Saha (1991) supports the call for cost sharing of higher education in African countries. His argument is based on the fact that university education benefits students personally more than the society. African students who are highly educated and get along or share the same policy views with their governments receive jobs and therefore they receive high social returns personally at the expense of very scarce national resources. Those Africans who leave the country after they have been educated by their
country also do so at their personal gain. Saha then argues that "Overall, then, because of
the high cost of universities, their inequity and inefficiency, and low rate of return
compared with primary and secondary-level education, it could be said that higher
education in general and universities in particular are obstacles rather than agents for

In this situation, the African masses stand to lose because only a handful of them
get the opportunity to attain higher education, and those who are fortunate, tend to seek
better opportunities abroad. Hence, Saha is trying to make the case that it is a wise idea
to spend scarce government resources for primary and secondary education because it is
important that people in any society be provided with the opportunity to attain at least a
high school education. This helps a society enormously because a society in which a
high percentage of its people can read and write has a potential to be successful in many
aspects. It also helps to unite a society because the different ethnic groups would have
the chance to learn about each other's way of life. However, the situation in Africa is
that significant government resources are spent to provide university education to a small
group of people at the expense of the masses. Most of the benefits of those investments
go directly to those educated people and their immediate families. Therefore, one could
argue that those who are benefiting from such government assistance must find ways to
pay for their own education.

**Financing Private Universities in Kenya**

The three higher education laws (1985, 1989 and 2001) passed by the Kenyan
Parliament clearly state that private universities will not receive government funds. As a
result, private universities in Kenya are funded primarily by student tuition, fundraising,
and other activities by the institutions. However, private universities in Kenya have a tax-exempt status.

The average tuition and fees for non-resident students at three private universities for the 2000/2001 academic year ranges from $1,800 to $2,500. The three private universities are Daystar University, Catholic University and United States International University. The tuition costs per undergraduate student at Daystar University for the 2000/2001 academic year was estimated at $1,792. The costs per student for the postgraduate program at Daystar University for that same academic year was $1,961 (Daystar University Catalogue, 1999-2002).

Table 3
Tuition and Fees Estimates at Daystar University 2000/2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>2000/2001 Academic Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>$1,792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>$1,961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Room &amp; Board</td>
<td>$974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled Daystar University Catalogue, 1999-2002

At Catholic University of Eastern Africa, the average tuition costs for non-resident undergraduate student for the 2000/2001 academic year was $2,544. The costs per graduate student for that same academic year was $2938 (www.cuea.edu/finic.htm).
Table 4
Catholic University Fee Structure for 2000 - 2001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>per credit (Ksh)</th>
<th>per course (Ksh)</th>
<th>per term (7 courses) (Ksh)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>undergraduates</td>
<td>2,800</td>
<td>8,400</td>
<td>58,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>postgraduates</td>
<td>3,275</td>
<td>9,825</td>
<td>68,775</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled from (www.cuea.edu/finic.htm).
Note: As of February 11, 2002 $1US=78 Kenyan Shillings

Table 5
Tuition and Fees Estimates at the United States International University, 2000/2001 Academic Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Annual Tuition (US$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>$2,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>$2,176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Room &amp; Board</td>
<td>$1,540</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled from www.usiu.edu.

At the United States International University (USIU), Table 5 shows that the average costs per non-resident undergraduate student for the 2000/2001 academic year was $2,466. The cost per graduate student for that same year was $2,176 (www.usiu.edu/admissions/fees.htm).

The Higher Education Loans Board (HELB)

In order to assist students at both private and public universities to meet university financial obligations, the Kenyan Parliament established an act called the Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) in July 1995. The three major objectives of the HELB are:
1. Disbursement of loans, scholarships and bursaries to needy Kenyan students in institutions of higher learning both locally and abroad;

2. Recovery of loans from students who were beneficiaries of Kenya government loans since the period 1974 and

3. Establishment of a viable Revolving Fund for future sustenance of student loans, bursaries/scholarships and scholarships.

The activities of the HELB include the following:
- Formulation of policies for regulating the management of the education fund;
- Setting criteria and conditions governing the granting of loans including the rate of interest and recovery of loans;
- Receiving and considering all loan applications from eligible applicants;
- Determining the maximum number of eligible applicants to be awarded the loan;
- Investment of surplus funds, for maximum returns

Source: [www.helb.co.ke/background.html](http://www.helb.co.ke/background.html).

According to the HELB, all Kenyan nationals enrolled in universities and other institutions in the country recognized by the CHE are entitled to loans, scholarships and bursaries. The HELB claims that a current university student pays Ksh 50,000 to study at a public university and that of this amount, the Board awards a maximum of Ksh. 42,000 and a bursary/scholarship of Ksh. 8,000 to very needy students. The HELB also awards smaller loans depending on the financial circumstances and income of students.

According to the HELB, graduates have a grace period of one year before they have to start paying back their loans. The process of loan repayment is done through employers. Employers who employ graduates with HELB loans are required to deduct portions of the employee’s salaries and turn them over to the HELB and employers who fail to do so are fined by the HELB.

According to the HELB, students who took loans from 1995/96 academic year are repaying their loan with an interest rate of 4 percent. The percentage of Kenyan students
with mature loans who are repaying them jumped from 10% in 1995 to 38% in June 1999 (The World Bank Group, July 2000). The HELB claims that the recovery of loans has risen from Ksh. 5 million in 1995/96 to Ksh.33 million during the 1999/2000.

It is useful to note that since the World Bank and the IMF have influenced government policies in Kenya and that the World Bank is among those who had called for the introduction of loans to college students. The World Bank had recommended the introduction of student loans in 1980, 86, 88, and 94 as a way to facilitate cost-recovery in higher education (Eisemon & Salmi, 1995)

Financial Aid and Scholarships for Students at Private Universities

Private universities in Kenya have various financial aid and scholarships that they offer to full-time students in order to help students meet the costs of their education. The administration at Daystar University has a Work-Study program that provides part-time jobs for financially needy students. The students work for ten hours a week and a portion of their fees are paid by the university. For students to qualify and stay in the work-study program, they must have a cumulative Grade Point Average (GPA) of 2.7 per semester (The East African, 1999).

The Catholic University of Eastern Africa’s financial assistance and scholarship program consists of partial tuition scholarships, grants and employment opportunities in its Work-Study program. The university’s financial assistance and scholarship awards are made primarily to students with financial needs and academic achievement. Catholic University awards are given full-time students for a one-year period. The renewal of awards is based on satisfactory work. Students who qualify for Catholic University Work-Study program work for approximately ten hours per week and payments are made
monthly. Students in the Work-Study program work at various campus facilities such as the campus cafeteria, the Library or the maintenance department (www.caes.edu/more.htm).

The United States International University (USIU) has several financial aid and scholarships programs. According to the USIU admissions department, the university has nine student financial aid programs available to students. The are:

1. the Vice Chancellor's Grant for Undergraduate students (VGU)
2. the Vice Chancellor's Grant for Graduate students (VGG)
3. the Campus Work Opportunity Program for undergraduate students (CWO)
4. Graduate Research Assistant program for graduate students (GRA)
5. the Jomo Kenyatta Memorial Scholarship for undergraduate students (FSCH)
6. the Moi Scholarship (MSCH)
7. the Resident Assistanship (RA)
8. the 25% grant for international undergraduate students (IGU)
9. the Sports Scholarship

Students who seek financial aid at USIU must show serious financial need and must also be full-time students (www.usiu.ac.ke).

Apart from student tuition, private universities in Kenya are involved in a variety of fundraising activities to maintain their programs. For instance, the University of Eastern Africa, Baraton receives funding from donors and is also involved in the sale of farm produce, including dairy products. Scott Theological College and Catholic University own land in Kenya and plans to develop it for agriculture. The United States International University is the only private institution in Kenya that manages to sustain itself by generating funds primarily from tuition and other fees. Daystar University depends heavily on tuition and fees. Tuition and fees make up about 80% of it operations budget. The remaining 20% is raised through savings on salaries for academic staff sponsored by churches (East African Standard, June 23-29, 2000)
It is useful to note that the establishment of private universities in Kenya has provided opportunities for thousands of students who would not have been able to attain a university education due to the lack of enrollment space in the public universities. However, one must realize that currently only the rich in Kenya can afford the costs of attaining private university degrees. Ordinary Kenyans can not afford the amount of money it costs to attend private universities. It will cost at least $2,500 annually for a student to attend any private university in Kenya. That amount is a huge sum for the majority of people in Kenya. That is especially so because the per capita Gross National Product (GNP) in Kenya in 1999 was $1,600, which is well below what it cost to send a student to a private university for a year. Furthermore, the high unemployment rate, which was estimated at 50% (CIA World Factbook, 2000) in 1998, makes it exceedingly difficult to attain private or public university education.

**Conclusion**

The governance of university education in Kenya is carried out through laws passed by the government that set rules and regulations that all universities are required to follow show that the issue of governance is dealt with differently in different educational systems around the world. In the case of developing countries, such as Kenya, the history and legacy of colonialism still plays a role in the way governments oversee higher education and in the case of Kenya, university education. Kenya and many other African nations still pay close attention to their universities because they have a long history of placing significant value on these institutions. Ashby (1964) noted this fact when he quoted the first Ghanaian president, Dr. Kwami Nkrumah, as saying “In our time the universities are looked upon almost as if they were the heart of the nation,
essential to its life and progress.” (Ashby, 1964, p.42). With all of their lack of resources, Kenya and many other African nations still continue to place high value in education and higher education in particular.

An example of this high regard for education can be seen in Kenya where government annual expenditure on education exceeds expenditures in health, labor and human resource development and home affairs, national heritage and sports combined. In 1996/97, the recurrent expenditure by the central government of Kenya provided 1,478.48 pounds for the Ministry of Education. That amount was more than what was provided to the Ministries of Health, Labor and Human Resource Development and Home Affairs, National Heritage and Sports combined. These ministries received 434.23 million pounds. In 1999/2000, the same trend continued when the Ministry of Education received 2.308 billion pounds, while the other three ministries received a total of 673.67 million pounds (Kenya Economic Survey, 2000).

The government of Kenya has placed such high value on education even though health is a very serious issue facing Kenyans today. For example, the 2001 UNDP Report shows that 13.95% of adults age 15-49 in Kenya were living with HIV/AIDS in 1999. This percentage includes 1.1 million women age 15-49 and 78,000 children age 0-14 living with that dreadful disease in 1999. Although the Kenyan government through pressures from international organizations such as the World Bank and the IMF is gradually shifting the responsibility of funding university education to students and their parents, higher education still continues to receive the most funding among other levels of education. For example, in 1996/97 the recurrent expenditure for higher education was 223.72 million pounds. This amount more than doubled funding for all other levels
of education in Kenya, including pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education technical education, special education, teacher education, teacher training and polytechnic education. All these other levels of education received a combined estimated funding of 92.58 million pounds.

This trend continued in 1999/00, when the government recurrent expenditure for higher education was estimated at 272.49 million pounds, while all other levels of education received an estimated 126.9 million pounds (Kenyan Economic Survey, 2000). With this kind of high priority on education and particularly higher education, one might predict that the government of Kenya would continue to pay close attention and intervene in the affairs of the nation's public universities. Even though private universities tend to have more institutional autonomy than their public counterparts, they might still not have true academic freedom, due to fears of not losing their license to operate. For example, writing on the issue of student admissions to private institution, Akala (2001) stated that, “At private universities, the threat of withdrawing their charter has kept them on the right course in conducting admissions” (Akala, Dec. 10, Nation newspaper, 2001).

The government of Kenya needs to create an environment in which more Kenyans will have the needed resources to attain higher education. In 2000, enrollment in higher education was 4% of the relevant population (World Bank, Task Force. Feb, 2000). This will be a difficult task because currently there is not much money in the country. For a country of nearly 31 million people, the estimated Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2000 was $45.6 billion (CIA World Factbook, 2001). Furthermore, for a country where the majority of its citizens heavily depend on the government for many of their needs, the government has daunting future financial challenges. For example, in 2000, the
government's budget was just $2.91 billion and its total expenditure was $2.97 billion (CIA World Factbook, 2001). That amount is not sufficient for the country's total population. Nor has the private sector been developed enough to assist the government in providing jobs and other social services to Kenyans. For example, in 1999, there were just 57 listed domestic companies in Kenya, an increase of just three from 1990 (World Bank, World Development Report, 2000/2001). Fifty-seven domestic companies is a small number to generate the wealth needed to increase the living standard of ordinary Kenyans.

With all its challenges, however, Kenya has done relatively well in educating its citizens when compared to other African countries. For example, 81.5% of Kenyans ages 15 and above could read and write in 1999. The average percentage for Sub-Saharan Africans ages 15 and above that can read and write for that same year stood at 60.5 percent. The youth literacy rate is even better. In 1999, the percentage of Kenyans ages 15 to 24 who could read and write was 94.7%. The average rate for youths in Sub-Saharan Africa for that same year was 76.9% (UNDP Report, 2001).

All this leads to the fact that the upcoming presidential election in Kenya in 2002 is utterly important. That is because a democratically elected president and national government in Kenya may start the journey to economic development. A new and open government in Kenya may lead to the possibility of that nation playing a leading economic and political role not only in East Africa, but the entire continent as well.
Chapter Five
Curriculum and Quality Issues at Private Universities
Introduction

After World War II, African nations began gaining their independence from Western nations such as the United Kingdom, France and Belgium. One of the first and most important developments of the newly independent African nations was the establishment of universities to train the manpower needed to run the new nations. In 1964, the late scholar Sir Eric Ashby published a book entitled African Universities & Western Tradition. Among the issues Ashby discussed in this book was a well-documented debate among African leaders, intellectuals, journalists and citizens about the issues of quality and excellence of university education and the Western influence of the curriculum offered at the newly established universities. According to Ashby, the leaders of the newly independent African nations in the late 1950s and the early 1960s placed significant value in university education and vowed to make them no less inferior in quality to the prestigious universities in England. The idea of African universities imitating those in Europe, especially England and France created a debate among African leaders, intellectuals, journalists and concerned citizens as to whether such an idea was for the good of the masses of the newly independent nations.

Another scholar who has followed the issues of quality and curriculum in African universities in the past four decades is Ali Mazrui. Prof. Mazrui, who was born in Kenya and now teaches at a university in the United States, has written widely on African higher education. Mazrui also supports Ashby’s claim that Western nations, especially the United Kingdom, France and the United States, continue to influence significantly the issues of quality and curriculum in African universities.
This chapter will first examine some of the different points made in the debate about quality and curriculum at Africa's universities as presented by Ashby and Mazrui to provide a clear understanding of what was considered a quality university education. The chapter will study the trends in the types of subjects or majors offered by Kenyan universities, from the 1960s to present. This will help explain whether any significant changes have occurred in the selections of fields of study of Kenyan university students and what impact such academic choices have had in the development of the nation of Kenya in the nearly four decades since independence.

There have been many scholarly books written on the issue of quality and excellence in higher education. These books clearly point out that there are no set universal criteria in defining quality or excellence because higher education institutions in different countries define quality differently. In a book entitled *Reconsidering Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Perspectives on Program Assessment and Accreditation* (1999), edited by Fourie et al., research papers focusing on the issue of quality assurance in different countries were presented. These papers illustrate that higher education systems in countries around the world have different views or interpretations of quality or excellence. However, it has been a fact that some higher education systems, especially in the developed world such as the United States, Australia, Canada, Germany France and the United Kingdom have been considered to provide better quality education than their developing country counterparts due to their substantial financial resources and their substantial technological contributions and high number of research publications. In an introduction to part three of their book *Reconsidering Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Perspectives on Program Assessment and Accreditation*, Stetar makes the
point that scholars in developing countries have criticized leading American universities for assuming that they provide better models of quality assurance in higher education.

A similar situation is arising in the continent of Africa where according to Stetar, Kenyan academics stated that the South African Higher Education System believes that the South African quality assurance is the leading system in the continent of Africa (p.189). South Africa claims to produces better models of quality assurance in higher education because, when compared to other African countries, it spends more resources on education than the majority of other African nations. For example, according to UNDP World Development Reports, South Africa’s Gross National Product (GNP) in 1997 was $130.2 billion. South Africa’s education expenditure as percentage of its GNP in that year was 5.7%. This means that in actual dollars, South Africa spent an estimated $7.42 billion on education in 1997 alone.

When compared to other African nations, South Africa is far ahead of her African counterparts in terms of actual dollars spent on education. As a result, South Africa is in a better economic position to establish an internationally accepted or recognized quality assurance system. It is therefore no coincidence that South African professionals such as medical doctors have a better chance of qualifying to work in developed countries such as Canada and the United States, than other African professionals seeking jobs in developed nations. Furthermore, South African scholars publish more research papers than scholars from any other African nation. For instance, in 1992, South Africa accounted for about 60% of all Research and Development (R&D) expenditures and about 28% of all R&D scientists and engineers. South African university academics or professors also lead their African counterparts. For example, South African university academics publish
approximately 44% more articles in the sciences than Egypt which ranks second (Stetar, 2000).

Astin points out in *Assessment for Excellence: The Philosophy and Practice of Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, (1993) that there are two traditional conceptions of excellence that govern what is done in higher education. Astin labeled these conceptions as resources and reputation. According to Astin, the resources conception is based on the idea that excellence depends primarily on having a lot of resources. This means that the more resources an institution has, the more excellent that institution becomes. Astin divided resource into three categories: money, high quality faculty and high quality students. According to Astin, money could be measured in terms of an institution’s endowment, income from public and private sources, the things money can buy such as libraries, laboratories, physical plants, faculty and students. Astin points out that high quality faculty are those who are widely known for their research and writing and sought after to work at institutions with a lot of money. The high quality students according to Astin are those who receive high scores on college admissions examinations, who in most cases enrolled at institutions with money and high quality faculty.

The reputation view of excellence, according to Astin, is based on the idea that the most excellent higher education institutions are the ones that enjoy the most academic reputations. Astin points out that this definition is especially found in American higher education where there is a system of institutional hierarchy, where a few prestigious institutions such as Harvard, Yale, Berkeley, and Stanford occupy the top positions in the hierarchy, while two-year colleges occupy the bottom layers (Astin, 1998.pp.5-6).
Other scholarly works on quality assurance from an international perspective include the books *Enhancing Institutional Self-Evaluation and Quality in South African Higher Education: National and International Perspectives* (1997), edited by Lategan et al. and *Quality Assurance in Higher Education: An International Perspective* (1997), edited by Gerald H. Gaither. In both of these books, the various ways in which higher education systems around the world define quality and excellence within their systems are described.

This chapter will examine quality at both public and private universities in Kenya from a different perspective. It will specifically examine quality by describing the standards set by the Ministry of Education that every public and private university in Kenya must follow in order to be recognized by the Ministry as a fully-fledged accredited university. Quality will be examined first by the admissions or entrance requirements of both public and private universities and the number of academic majors or programs and specific subjects offered by public and private universities.

The chapter will examine whether private universities in Kenya attempted to emulate the curriculum of public universities when they were permitted to open campuses in Kenya or whether they offered new curricula. The fields of study of Kenyan students studying in the United Kingdom and the United States will be examined and compared to those of Kenyan students studying in Kenya to determine any differences or similarities.

**Debate on Quality and Curriculum Issues in Universities in Africa**

According to Ashby, African leaders in the early post independence period placed very high value on university education. For instance, the first post independence leader of the West African nation of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah, stated that, “the universities are
looked upon almost as if they were the heart of the nation, essential to its life and progress” (Ashby, p.42). On the issue of quality or standards, the higher education systems of the former colonial powers such as England, France and Belgium had significant influence on the newly established African universities. The debate among Africans of all sorts was whether to regard quality of university education by utilizing African centered standards or Western educational standards.

According to Ashby, college entrance standards for African students of the early institutions were unreasonably high. Ashby pointed out that degrees from the university colleges of Ibadan, Nigeria and Accra, Ghana were awarded by the University of London. Ashby continued that African graduates of these institutions came out with “prescribed and guaranteed certificate of achievement” (p.30). Furthermore, these institutions in West Africa and other parts of the continent required that African students meet the same high qualifications for entry to university degree courses that British students have to meet to enter Oxford, Cambridge or the University of London. Ashby claimed that even though the early African institutions had sufficient enrollment space for students, they could not be filled because the standards were so high that a portion of African students could not meet them. Ashby states that:

This has some unfortunate consequences. Many young Africans who find themselves unqualified to enter Makere or Ibadan are offered places in American universities and even scholarships to cover their travel and education. And this has happened while there have been vacant places in African university colleges (Ashby, p. 31).

Mazrui (1993) also points out a similar instance of the influence of European Universities by stating that African universities were created to be like universities of Europe. According to Mazrui, a former professor at Makere University, in Uganda, in
the 1960's, degrees for that institution were patented in England. Moreover, Mazrui writes that not only did the university's drafted examination questions have to be approved by the University of London, but also the grades of those examinations (p. 2).

The decision to maintain European universities standard of quality, especially British standards, was supported by most influential Africans, including the new leaders and national newspapers. According to Ashby, the cries of those Africans who complained of the "rigid method of selection of candidates" (p.44) for entrance to universities were not heard. Speaking after a ceremony that installed him as chancellor of the University of Ghana, President Kwame Nkrumah defended maintaining the high British university standards at his country's new university by stating that, "By the attainment of University status I trust that both the lecturers and the students of the college have accepted the challenge to maintain the high academic standards already set" (Ashby, 1964. pp.47-49). In East Africa, when discussions of the proposed federal University of East Africa were ongoing, an editorial declared, "It is particularly important that East Africa's own degrees shall have a standing at least comparable with the London University degrees that are now awarded" (Ashby, p.48).

On the issue of academic programs offered at the new African universities, Ashby points out that there were also concerns about the focus of European, especially British and French universities curriculum offered at African universities. According to Ashby, the curricula offered in the newly established African universities were concentrated in the Humanities and other Western traditions and paid little attention to providing an education that would meet the needs of Africans or an African centered education. For example, Ashby writes that, "Until comparatively recently no African language could be
studied at university level in West Africa, not even Arabic; but Latin, Greek, and the
history of the Greeks and Romans were put, as Europe had put them for centuries, at the
core of the Humanities” (p.38). In Ghana, Ashby points out that during the 1959-60
academic year, twelve undergraduate students devoted their full time to study Latin,
Greek, and Ancient History (p.38).

Mazrui (1992) also notes that the curricula of African universities ignored the
teaching of languages that would be beneficial to African students. He points out that
almost all African universities use Western languages such as English and French, as the
primary medium of instruction. In addition, Mazrui also points out that many African
Universities, “rely overwhelmingly on books and articles published by Westerners or in
the West to fill the shelves of their modest libraries. . . . Qualifications for student
admission and staff recruitment continue to put a high premium on prior assimilation into
Western culture among the candidates” (p.3). In addition, Mazrui notes that two
languages, Arabic and Kiswahili, that could be of great importance to African students
because they are spoken by tens or even hundreds of millions of Africans have not been
given the needed attention by African intellectuals in universities (p.38).

A particular cause for concern among African students and lecturers was the
method in which agriculture was taught in African universities. The concern stems from
the fact that since agricultural education was important during the period following
independence, universities in Africa did not provide agricultural education that would be
beneficial to Africans. Instead, agricultural education centered on the way it was done in
Europe, even though the climates of the two continents were different. In arguing in
support of teaching agriculture from an African perspective or standard, the head of the School of Agriculture at the Kumasi College of Technology in Ghana wrote in 1958 that:

I am convinced that since we in this country are not producing agriculturists for any other country there is very little point in basing our course on an imaginary universal or even British standard. The whole question of standard is relative. . . . A standard in education is high enough when it can adequately serve the needs of the community for which it is designed. As the problems become complex so the standard must grow to deal with them (Ashby, p.47).

Mazrui (1993) also shared his observation of agricultural education in post-colonial African Universities. He notes that universities in Africa during the earlier decades after independence did not provide the agricultural education needed to develop a productive African agricultural system. According to Mazrui, academic departments of agriculture in African universities pay less attention to the teaching of appropriate techniques that would improve agricultural production in the continent and that universities also did not show significant efforts to train African women about farming, even though they play a major role in agriculture (p.8).

Africa’s agricultural problems still continue today despite all the warnings in the past. According to K.Y. Amoako, Executive Secretary, of the Economic Commission for Africa at the University of Ghana, Legon, post independence agricultural production in African countries has declined from 40% of GDP in the 1960s to 21% at the end of the last century. However, according to Amoako, the decline in the share of agriculture “has not been accompanied by a commensurate increase in manufacturing, which rose from 9 to 15% of GDP over the same period” (Amoako, African Resource Center). Today, a substantial amount of African nations’ imports goes to food purchases. This is happening even though African nations have vast amounts of arable land and fertile soil. What’s
more, although the majority of the labor force of African nations is in agriculture, most
African countries, including Kenya continue to import food from abroad. An estimated
75%-80% of Kenya’s labor force alone is in agriculture (CIA World Factbook, 2001).
One primary reason for the lack of food production is that African governments and
universities have not yet been able to bring in the technological equipment needed to
produce more food. For example, one would expect that since the majority of the
continent’s work force is in agriculture, and that food continues to be scarce, large
numbers of farm machines, such as tractors and spare parts, could be imported annually
and that with the assistance of the universities, these machines could be put to use.

It is amazing, however, that the majority of African nations lack such machines.
In the 2000/2001 World Bank World Development Report, a section illustrating
agricultural workers that utilize agricultural machinery (tractors) per one thousand
agricultural workers from 1979-81 and 1995-97 reveals that the majority of African
countries severely lack this development. A close examination of that particular data
shows that most African countries have zero tractors per every one thousand agricultural
workers. In Kenya, the data reveals that from 1979-81 and 1995-97 there was one tractor
per every one thousand agricultural worker in the country in each of those two periods.
This means that even though the continent’s population is rapidly growing, most African
countries continue to implement agriculture policies that lead to starvation. Substantial
imports of food that would have otherwise been locally produced would save enormous
sums of hard currency that could be used for other important national priorities, such as
health and education.
Nor have universities in Africa been able to make good use of the enormous natural resources with which the continent is blessed. From up north in Morocco, all the way down south, to South Africa and many of the countries in between, there is variety of rich and important natural resources. Mazrui (April 22, 1999) adds that the continent's minerals contributes significantly to the development of Western countries and their technologies. He cites for example that, "Uranium from the Belgian Congo was part of the original Manhattan project, which produced the first atomic bombs. Other minerals, like cobalt, became indispensable for jet engines (p.1). However, Mazrui (1993) contends that African universities have done very little to create good ideas in order to properly utilize these resources. Mazrui emphasizes that African people and their universities must work hard to provide the necessary education in order to get the full benefits of their rich natural resources (p.8). A significant part of the problem of not studying the uses of Africa's natural resources is the low priority given to investments on research and development by African governments. According to Amoako, only 0.4% of African government resources are devoted to research and development.

Ashby points out that one primary reason for the focus on Western centered education in African universities was that most of the teachers at those universities during the early period were expatriates, with the majority of them coming from Europe. That meant that they were in favor of teaching Western education because that was the basis of their training. For example, during the 1960-61 academic year, there were 2,166 teachers at universities of Middle Africa. Out of this number there were 1,572 (73%) expatriates and 594 (27%) were local teachers. Most of the expatriate teachers during that period were from Europe and North America (Cowan et al). Even today there are significant
numbers of expatriates teaching at African higher education institutions. For instance, out of 29,481 teachers and lecturers working in Kenya in 2000, expatriate teachers and lectures comprised of 1,036 (3.6%) of that number (Kayabwe, World Bank/WTO, 2000)

**Quality Issues at Public and Private Universities in Kenya**

The government of Kenya through the Ministry of Education set up guidelines concerning the quality of university education that all universities in the country must follow. Secondary school students preparing for university education must meet academic standards, including taking a national examination and attaining a government accepted exam score. In addition, certain programs within the universities have their own academic admissions standards that secondary school students must meet in order to be accepted.

**Academic Entrance Requirements at Public Universities**

One of the first steps in studying the quality of an academic institution is examining the admission standards or requirements that graduating high school seniors must meet. At public universities in Kenya, the minimum average requirement for high school seniors seeking entrance is a C+ (plus) in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) in at least ten subjects.

However, each department in each school or college at public universities has its own requirements that high school seniors must meet. For example, students must pass the KCSE with a minimum grade of B+ (plus) in English or Kiswahili, Mathematics, Physics or Physical Science, Geography, Building Construction or Drawing, and Design, Economics Commerce or Accounting in order to be accepted in the University of
Nairobi’s College of Architecture, Design and Development’s Bachelor of Arts in Building Economics Program. To be considered for acceptance in the Bachelor of Science in Computer Science, in the Institute of Computer science, high school seniors must score C+ (plus) in Mathematics English or Geography or Physics, Chemistry or Physical Sciences and Biological Sciences (www.uonbi.ac.ke). Foreign Students who apply to public universities must have qualifications equivalent to the Cambridge High School Certificate, the General Certificate Exam (GCE) or the East African Certificate of Education. The GCE is an exam similar to the SAT given to high school seniors or beyond in mostly African countries once colonized by England. Special one-year courses are offered under the Mature Age Scheme to allow students over twenty five years old who do not take the KCSE to be admitted into public universities (IAU/UNESCO, 2000).

Academic Entrance Requirements at Private Universities

All five of Kenya’s accredited private universities require high school seniors to score the minimum average of C+ (plus) on the KCSE. In addition, some undergraduate programs require high school seniors to score higher grades in particular subjects. Foreign students who wish to attend private universities in Kenya must meet the university requirements in their country and those requirements must be equivalent to the KCSE.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic Entrance Requirements for the United States International University</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exam</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EACE/KCE/KACE/EAACE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGCSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** USIU Brochure ([www.usiu.ac.ke](http://www.usiu.ac.ke)).

**Note:**
- KCE—means Kenya Certificate of Education
- EACE—means East African Certificate of Education
- KACE—means Kenya Advance Certificate of Education
- IGCSE—International General Certificate of Secondary Education
- EAACE—means East African Advanced Certificate of Education.

**Number of Colleges or Schools at Public and Private Universities**

Public universities in Kenya offer more academic programs than do private universities. Therefore, students have more choices in selecting their majors at public universities than they do at private universities. For example, at the University of Nairobi alone in the 2000-2001 academic year, there were fifteen colleges or schools that offer twenty-six bachelors degree programs ([www.uonbi.ac.ke/acad](http://www.uonbi.ac.ke/acad)).

Private universities in Kenya on the other hand, do not offer a large number of undergraduate degree programs. Daystar University has a total of three colleges, which They are the College of Arts, College of Social Sciences, and the College of Science &
Technology. There are a total of five bachelor's degree programs at these three schools (Daystar University Brochure). The United States International University has only two colleges: the College of Arts and Science and the College of Business Administration. Both colleges have a total of eight bachelor's degree programs (www.usiu.ac.ke).

**Enrollment Trends in Academic Fields in Higher Education Institutions in Kenya**

One of Ashby's arguments when discussing the issue of curriculum in African higher education institutions is that a significant number of students from all over the continent are enrolled in the humanities and social sciences. The enrollment trend in academic field in Kenya from 1970 to 1990 tends to support Ashby's assertion. For example, Table 2 illustrates that there has been a rising frequency of student enrollment in education, humanities and the social sciences. In 1970, out of a total of 2,786 tertiary students in Kenya, there were a total of 1,484 students enrolled in education, humanities and the social sciences combined, representing 53.3% of all enrollments. The natural sciences, medical science and others made up the remaining 46.7%. In 1980, there was a sharp increase in the enrollment of students in education, humanities and the social science. In that year, of the 9,155 total enrollment, students enrolled in those fields made up 65% of all enrollments. The natural sciences and medical science made up the remaining 35%. The year 1990, witnessed an even more increase in the enrollment of students in education, humanities and the social sciences. During that year, out of the total 35,421 students enrolled, 73.4% (26,000) were studying education, humanities and the social sciences, while the remaining 26.6% of students were enrolled in the natural sciences and medical science programs. The field of education saw the highest increase in enrollment during this period. For example, in 1970, there were 29 students enrolled in education and by 1990, that figure jumped to 12,666 (UNESCO Statistics, Various
years). Table 2 indicates that in the twenty-year period (1970 to 1990), even though enrollment increased in all fields, the overall enrollments tend to support Ashby’s claim that more students enroll in the humanities and the social sciences than other academic fields.

Table 2
Tertiary Enrollment by field of study in Kenya (1970-1990)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Humanities</th>
<th>Social Science</th>
<th>Natural Science</th>
<th>Medical Science</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>2,786</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>870</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>975</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>6,327</td>
<td>2,284</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>1,367</td>
<td>1,219</td>
<td>988</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>9,155</td>
<td>2,520</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>2,297</td>
<td>3,100</td>
<td>942</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>35,421</td>
<td>12,666</td>
<td>7,217</td>
<td>6,117</td>
<td>7,963</td>
<td>1,458</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNESCO Statistics, Various Years

Orgot and Weidman (1993) provided data (Table 3) illustrating the enrollment of 10,189 first year public university students in Kenya by academic fields for the 1992/93 academic year. Orgot and Weidman listed data of only courses enrolling more than 85 students. According to the table provided by Orgot and Weidman, the fields of education, humanities and the social sciences received the most enrollments.

The data revealed that undergraduate students in public universities in Kenya tend to enroll in large numbers in the arts, education, and science. The fields of agriculture, engineering, and business management/commerce also attract first year undergraduate students. The total first year undergraduate enrollment in B.Ed. (Arts) was 27%, the highest enrollment for the academic year 1992/93. Female first year students made up 30.7% of the total enrollment and male first year students made up 28.8%. The Arts came in second with 19.9% total enrollment. Again female first year students made up
21.1% and male first year students made up 19.4%. The next highest first year total enrollment was Science with 12.2%. Here table 2 shows a reverse with male first year students accounting for 13.1% of the total enrollment and female first year students accounting for 9.9% of the total enrollment. The fields of B.Ed. (Science), Business Management/Commerce, Engineering and Agriculture had a total (male/female) enrollment of 5.5, 5.4, 4.1 and 3.5 percents respectively (Ogot & Weidman, 1993). Table 3 indicates that the trend of students’ enrollment in the humanities and social sciences continues as Ashby had claimed.
Table 3

Kenya First Year Undergraduate Enrolment in Public Universities, 1992/93 *

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selected Courses **</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture Education</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture ***</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horticulture</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>1440</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>2024</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Ed.(Arts)</td>
<td>1913</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>851</td>
<td>30.7%</td>
<td>2764</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Ed.(Science)</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Ed.(Home Economics/ Home Science Tech.)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Management/ Commerce</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>969</td>
<td>13.1%</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>1242</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering ****</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary Medicine</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Resources</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animal Production</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and Home Economics</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Studies</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Total Enrolment for All Courses)</td>
<td>(7418)</td>
<td>(2771)</td>
<td>(10,189)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ogot & Weidman, 1993

Notes: * All data for 1992/93 are "provisional," i.e., government estimates (in recent years, very close to final figures).
** Only those courses enrolling more than 85 students are listed, but the total in the bottom row is for all entering undergraduates.
*** Includes B.Sci.Agri., Food Science Tech., and Agri. Economics.
**** Includes civil, mechanical, electrical, agricultural, and building construction.

Faculty Student Ratios by Academic Programs at all Universities in Kenya, 2000

At all universities in Kenya, the Humanities and Social Sciences undergraduate programs have the largest faculty student ratio 1:15 (Table 4). These fields also have the
largest ratios in Masters and Ph. D. programs, with 1:5 and 1:3 respectively. In undergraduate programs, the Natural and Physical Sciences programs have the second largest staff student ratio of 1:12 in all universities in 2000. The field of Human Medicine has the smallest staff student undergraduate ratio of 1:6 (CHE, 2000).

Table 4
Staff Student Ratio by Academic Programs at all Universities in Kenya, 2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Undergraduate Programs</th>
<th>Staff Student Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Medicine</td>
<td>1:6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vet. Medicine</td>
<td>1:7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, Architecture &amp; Engineering</td>
<td>1:8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural &amp; Physical Sciences</td>
<td>1:12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities &amp; Social Sciences</td>
<td>1:15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Medicine</td>
<td>1:2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vet. Medicine</td>
<td>1:3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, Architecture &amp; Engineering</td>
<td>1:3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural &amp; Physical Sciences</td>
<td>1:4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities &amp; Social Sciences</td>
<td>1:5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D. Programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Medicine</td>
<td>1:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vet. Medicine</td>
<td>1:2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, Architecture &amp; Engineering</td>
<td>1:2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural &amp; Physical Sciences</td>
<td>1:3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities &amp; Social Sciences</td>
<td>1:3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Fields of Study by Kenyan Students Abroad

United Kingdom

Kenyan students who get the opportunity to attend colleges and universities in countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom have more options in terms of their selection of academic majors because institutions in those countries have sufficient funds to offer a diverse number of academic majors.
According to the British Council in Nairobi, there are no less than 6,000 Kenyan students studying in the United Kingdom, including 1,200 students taking postgraduate courses. Kenya, together with Nigeria, has the highest numbers of African students currently studying in the UK. The subject areas of those students are:

- Business & Finance
- Law
- Pharmacy
- Hotel & Tourism
- Art
- Architecture

Source: (www.britishcouncil.org).

**United States**

Kenyan students who apply to attend colleges and universities in the United States have a greater chance of being accepted and actually traveling there to study than African students in other African countries. Of the 26,222 African students enrolled in higher education institutions in the United States during the 1998/1999 academic year, 4,945 (19%) were Kenyans. In the 2000/2001 academic year the total number of African students in the United States jumped to 34,217 with Kenyan students comprising 6,229 (18.2%) of the total enrollment (Institute of International Education, 2000, 2001).

Kenyan students in the United States study in a variety of academic fields. According to table 5, 21.9% of Kenyan students studying in the United States during the 1997/98 academic year were enrolled in the field of Business. The fields of Mathematics and Computer Science had the next highest percentages of students enrolled, with 11.2%. The Health Sciences enrolled 8.9% of students. The fields of Physical and Life Sciences enrolled 8.7% of Kenyan students. The fields of Engineering, Social Sciences, Humanities, Education, Fine and Applied Arts and Agriculture enrolled 8.7%, 8.0%,
4.1%, 4.1%, 3.3% and 2.4% respectively, of Kenyan students. Academic fields classified as Other enrolled 10.7% of Kenyan Students (Institute of International Education, 2001). The fields of study of Kenyan students in the United Kingdom and the United States indicate a well balance selection of academic fields. This means that when provided with the opportunity to enroll in academic fields in institutions with more resources and the necessary scientific laboratories or equipment than institutions in Kenya, the majority of Kenyan students do not enroll in the Humanities and Social Sciences. In Table 5, only 12.1% of Kenyan students studying in the United States were enrolled in the Humanities and Social Sciences in the 1997/1998 academic year.

**Table 5**

*Selected Fields of Study of Kenyan students in the U.S. 1997/1998 (in percentages)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Field</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>21.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine &amp; Applied Arts</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math &amp; Computer Science</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical &amp; Life Science</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Academic Programs at Private Universities in Kenya**

Private universities in Kenya offer less variety of degree programs than their public counterparts. Apart from the United States International University, the other four accredited private universities in Kenya are religious institutions, but they all also
offer secular academic programs. When compared to the types of academic programs offered, private universities in Kenya are not very different from public universities.

University of Eastern Africa, Baraton

The University of Eastern Africa, Baraton offers undergraduate degree programs in Business Studies, Science and Technology and Humanities and Social Sciences. According to Table 6 almost half (49.7%) of the total 862 students at the University of Eastern Africa, Baraton are enrolled in the science and technology programs during the 1998/99 academic year. The humanities and social science programs enrolled 287 students and that figure represents 33.3% of all enrollments for the 1998/99 academic year. The remaining 147 students (17%) are enrolled in Business studies. Table 6 reveals that the University of Eastern Africa does not offer academic programs in medicine or the natural sciences.

Table 6

Students Enrollment at Baraton by program and Year of Study (1998/99 Academic Year)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science &amp; Technology</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>49.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities &amp; Social Science</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>862</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Individual University returns, to the CHE.

Catholic University of Eastern Africa

Catholic University offers a broad range of religious and secular academic undergraduate and graduate programs (appendix). According to (Table 7), of the total
students of 1211 enrolled in the various programs at Catholic university in the 1998/99 academic year, 979 (81%) are in the Bachelor of Communication and Education programs. Students enrolled in the Bachelor of Education program consist of 43.6% (528) of all enrollments. Students in the Bachelor of Communication Program made up 37.2% (451) of all students. According to Table 7, the academic programs at Catholic University focus on theology and the social sciences.

Table 7
Students Enrollment by Academic fields at Catholic University (1998/99 Academic Year)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theology</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.P.M.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.G.D.E.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. A. Social Science</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>0.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. A. Communication</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. A. Education</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. A. Philosophy</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. A. Philosophy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. A. Religious Studies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. A. Religious Studies</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Sc. Mathematics</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1211</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Individual university returns to the CHE.

Daystar University

Daystar University currently has three colleges or schools: The College of Arts, The College of Social Sciences and The College of Science & Technology (appendix).
The University also has a diploma and certificate program. According to Table 8 Students enrolled in Business Administration and Management made up 27.7% (322) of all students enrollment at Daystar University during the 1998/99 academic year. Students enrolled in the Communication Program make up 24.9% (289) of all enrollments. The Community Development Program enrolled 18.6% (216) of all students and the Accounting program enrolled 17.7% (205) of all students. The Bible and Education Programs enrolled a combined 0.6% (70) of all students that academic year. Table 8 reveals a balanced students' enrollment. However, Daystar University does not offer programs in the natural or physical sciences.

Table 8
Students Enrollment by Program at Daystar University (1998/99 Academic Year)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bible</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. A.</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>0.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration/Management</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Development</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1161</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Individual university returns to the CHE

United States International University (USIU)

The United States International University has two colleges or schools, which are the School of Arts and Sciences and the School of Business Administration (appendix).

During the 1998/99 academic year, undergraduate student enrollment at the United States International University (Table 9) was 1,574 (87.5%) of the total 1,799-student
enrollment and graduate students' enrollment was 225 (12.5%). In the undergraduate programs, International Business had the highest enrollment with 928 students. That figure was 51.6% of all enrollments (undergraduate and graduate) and 59% of all undergraduate enrollments. The Undergraduate Business Administration Program enrolled 355 (22.6%) of all undergraduate students. The Undergraduate International Relations program enrolled 174 (11%) of all undergraduate students. In the Graduate programs, the Masters program in Business Administration enrolled 131 (58.2%) of all graduate students. The Counseling Psychology Program enrolled 29 (12.9%) of all graduate students. The United States International University concentrates its academic programs in Business and International Relations programs, and like its other private university counterparts, it does not offer programs in the natural or physical science.
#### Table 9
Students Enrollment at USIU by program and Year of Study (1998/99 Academic year)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Year of Study</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>4th</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling Psychology</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters Business Administration</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters International</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management &amp; Organization Development</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Status</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Undergraduate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Year of Study</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>4th</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>77</td>
<td></td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Business</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>194</td>
<td></td>
<td>928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Relations</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage Information Systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>519</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>320</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Total</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>320</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,799</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Individual university returns to the CHE

**Scott Theological College**

Scott Theological College offers courses in Pastoral Theology. According to its mission, the college trains men and women to serve the African Inland Church through the ministry of Pastor, teacher, evangelist, missionary, chaplain and other forms of
Christian Ministry. During the 1998/99 academic year, Scott Theological College had a total enrollment of 78 students in its undergraduate classes (CHE, 2000).

There are no significant differences in terms of the trends in student enrollment in academic fields between public and private universities in Kenya. Like the public universities, the most popular programs at private universities are the humanities, liberal arts and social sciences. Among the five private universities in Kenya, the institution that could be cited for providing better quality academic programs at this current time would be the United International University. This is due to the fact that it currently possesses some of the variables, such as money and academic staff, which are necessary to provide a quality education. Based on academic data, especially curriculum data and other institutional information, one could argue that the quality of private universities in Kenya varies from program to program and from university to university.

However, one major problem with private universities in Kenya is that they do not offer any serious programs in the medical or natural sciences. In addition, Kenyan students studying in the United Kingdom and the United States tend to have a balance in their enrollment. It is useful to note that even though most students enroll in the Arts and Social Sciences programs in public universities, medical and natural sciences programs have continued to enroll and graduate significant numbers of students in the past three decades. For example, Table 2 shows that enrollment in the Natural and Medical Sciences increased significantly from 1970 to 1990. In 1970, there were 1,201 students enrolled in the Natural and Medical Sciences in universities. By 1990, that figure jumped to 9,421 (UNESCO Statistics, Various Years). Also, Table 4 Shows that in the year 2000, the average undergraduate faculty/student ratio in all universities for Human
Medicine, Veterinarian Medicine and Natural and Physical Sciences was 1:8, while the ratio for the Humanities and Social Sciences was 1:15 (CHE Standards of Curriculum Development, 2000). The evidence of this is seen in the statistics that show that as of the year 2000, there were 7,453 Doctors, Dentists, Pharmacists and Veterinarians in Kenya, 82 (1.1%) were non-citizens. During that same year, there were 28,454 Nurses and other paramedical staff in Kenya, of which 137 (0.5%) were non-citizens (Kayabwe, World Bank/WTO, 2000).

**Conclusion**

It is very complicated when it comes to deciding whether a nation’s higher education system provides quality education to its students is a very complicated task. This is due to the fact that quality consists of a variety of variables and also because many higher education systems around the world define quality of education differently. This is particularly the case in higher education systems in developing countries such as Kenya that do not have sufficient funding due to lack of national wealth. Even though money does not necessarily mean quality education, institutions with huge sums of money can purchase most of the necessary materials needed such as scientific instruments, build advanced laboratories, employ high quality faculty etc. This is the reason why Astin claims that an educational institution’s numerous resources usually result in creating the academic atmosphere where quality education is produced. Higher education systems in developing countries have to do a lot to prove that they offer quality education.

In the case of Kenya, three reasons could be provided to prove that its universities offer quality education. The first reason is that the GCE and KCSC exams are among the
best college entrance exams for secondary school students in countries where they are offered. These exams are part of the legacy of British education. The idea of these exams particularly the GCE was started by England. The GCE and the KCSC are very academically challenging and students must be extremely prepared to pass them. These examinations are similar to the same entrance exams that Ashby claims that African students had to pass to be qualified to enter universities, which only a small number could do and the rest had to travel to the United States or England to attend college.

Further proof that demonstrates the quality of Kenyan education is that estimated 12,000 Kenyan students are currently accepted in English and American colleges and universities. The estimated 6,000 Kenya students in British institutions and the over 6,000 students in American colleges and universities (chapter three) illustrate that the reason why these Kenyan students were accepted is because they met requirements of these institutions. These students are accepted in some of the best universities in these two developed countries. It shows that these Kenyan students must have been academically prepared by the Kenyan education system. This argument can be supported by the fact that of the estimated 34,000 students from over fifty African countries studying in colleges and universities in the United States in the 2000/2001 academic year over 18% of them were Kenyans (Institute of International Education, 2001).

Another indication that Kenyan universities are doing a good job of producing quality students is that there are an estimated 700 Kenyan doctors working in South Africa (Kayabwe, World Bank/WTO, 2000). South Africa understands quality issues in higher education. South Africa is among a selected number of developing countries to export a significant number of professionals, including medical doctors, to Europe and
North America. If South Africa can allow Kenyan doctors to practice in the country, one could assume that these expatriate doctors from Kenya have qualifications that are satisfactory to South African authorities.

The data on higher education curricula in Kenya in this chapter show that there have been substantially more students graduating with degrees in the arts, humanities and social sciences than natural and medical sciences and technology, thus supporting Ashby’s and Mazrui’s claim about this issue nearly four decades ago. One of the central factors responsible for the focus in arts and social sciences curriculum in Kenyan universities is the scarcity of financial resource. The scientific instruments, technological and logistical support needed to establish sustainable medical and natural science programs are highly expensive. The alternate option is to concentrate on academic programs that cost less to provide. However, as Table 5 shows, when Kenyan students find themselves in an academic institution with the resources and equipment for learning, they tend to enroll less in the humanities and social sciences.

Some of the implications of the trend in the high enrollment in the humanities and social sciences in private universities include an overproduction of graduates in these fields and the problem of educated unemployment in Kenya. Kayabwe (World Bank/WTO,2000) points out that there is “an overproduction of graduates in the arts in comparison with engineering and other practical science disciplines” (p.3). Kayabwe also notes that there is evidence to show that in the past twenty years, Kenya has been producing more skilled personnel in particular professional categories, such as liberal arts, teachers, veterinary doctors, agricultural scientists and food technologists, and there are more people than just the economy can absorb. This shows that currently, some of
the private universities in Kenya are offering degrees to their students that the public institutions are already conferring, resulting in more competition for the limited jobs in the country. In fact, an interview with Waweru also acknowledged that there is a general educated unemployment in Kenya. He said that private university students have to compete for the few available jobs with their counterparts from public universities.

Increase in trade, especially exports of technological goods, will be very vital in the rise of the Kenyan economy. One area among university academic programs where Kenya should attempt to invest substantially is computer and software technologies. There is great potential that this field, if given serious attention, could help improve the economy. In 1998, Kenya's high technology exports was just 4% percent of manufacturing goods (World Bank, World Development Report, 2000/2001). This is an area into which Kenyan universities should seriously consider putting substantial amount of investment resources. Apart from developed nations who make massive profits annually from the export of high technology, a number of Asian nations are dominant in the export of these goods. The Asian nations of South Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand make enormous profits from exporting high technology manufacturing goods. Each of them exported at least 27% of high technology goods of manufacturing goods exported in 1998 (appendix). For example, Malaysia, a nation of 22 million people and a former British colony, in 1998 exported an estimated $73.3 billion of merchandise goods and services. Out of this amount, $57.9 billion of exports went to manufacturing goods. Of the $57.9 billion of exported manufacturing goods, an estimated $31.23 billion (54%) was high technology goods (Source: calculated from World Bank, World Development Report, 2000/2001).
If Kenya could establish itself as a major trade partner with other nations through ideas created by its universities, there is a potential for increase in confidence for foreign investment into its economy. Foreign investment in Kenya is very small. For instance, according to the World Bank, in 1998, foreign direct investment in Kenya was $11 million dollars. In 1990, the foreign direct investment was $57 million. It is important to note that all of Africa continues to suffer from this lack of foreign investment.

According to Amoako, although the rate of return of Foreign Direct Investment to Africa is 29% per year, which is higher than any region in the world, only 4% of total investments going into developing countries goes to Africa. This problem, according to Amoako, is because Africans themselves, including political and business leaders, have no confidence in their own countries and rarely invest in them. For example, Amoako points out that “Africans have transferred a staggering 37% of their wealth abroad, as compared to 29% in the Middle East, 17% in Latin America, 4% in South Asia and 3% in East Asia” (Amoako, Africa Resource Center).

An explanation for the decline in confidence of local and foreign investments and its relevance to curriculum and quality issues in Kenya’s universities is two-fold. First, the universities have not adequately played their role to foster economic development that attracts foreign investments. Part of the reason for that is because as pointed out by Ashby and Mazrui, Kenya’s universities along with many African universities have limited their perception of quality of education and proper curriculum to only Western ones, without any real diversity. As Mazrui notes, it is quite appropriate and important to learn Western technological and organization skills, but it is also important to learn from universities in non-Western countries, especially those nations that had once been
colonies of Western countries themselves, but are today relatively successful. However, the focus on Western culture, rather than skills, will continue to hurt African universities, including Kenya's universities.

Second, the opposition of political dissent by those in power in Kenya and other African nations, and the pride to not seek advice or ideas from non-Western countries have also contributed significantly to the deterioration of African universities, including Kenya's universities. As pointed out, non-Western nations such as those in South East Asia, make huge profits from technology goods without totally trying to imitate the culture of the West. According to Mazrui (1999) both Japan and South Korea have been very successful in learning Western technology, yet do so without using the language of instruction in their education systems of a Western nation. Furthermore, Mazrui notes that "When two Japanese physicists meet to discuss a problem in physics, it is now possible to discuss it in Japanese language. When two African economists (let alone physicists) meet to discuss economics, even if they come from the same linguistic group in Africa, the chances are that they can only discuss advanced economics in a European language" (Mazrui, 1999. p.3-4). Mazrui believes that if African universities want to improve the quality of education and become important to their people, their dependency on the West alone must end. He writes that:

Africa should also swallow its pride and look more closely at countries like South Korea, Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore and others in Asia which had the same per capita as Ghana in 1957 and which have since left most of Africa far behind in per capita income and industrial growth. To what extent are the economic achievements of the Asian "Tigers" due to cultural factors? Can foreign cultures be studied for lessons which are relevant for others? (Mazrui, 1999. P.14).

Although one must be cautious when determining the quality of higher education systems in nations around the world and their relevance to the socio-economic needs of a
country, it is essential to note the fact that when compared to African nations, the economic success of the Asian “Tiger” that Mazrui points out is for the most part a result of the high quality of the higher education systems. These nations have developed very successful academic systems that directly lead to economic development. Indeed, Kenya’s universities can learn some lessons from their Asian counterparts.
Chapter Six
 Faculty and Student Profiles at Private Universities in Kenya
Introduction

This chapter is divided into three categories: student profiles, faculty profiles and data representing the total number and breakdown of the various professionals in Kenya. The first category looks at student profiles and it separately examines the backgrounds of students at Kenya’s public and private universities. It will examine the various types of opportunities available to local and international students at all universities in Kenya. The participation rate of students in the management or governance of universities will also be explored. It is important to look at student profiles because in Kenya, as in any other societies, there are always issues of inequality, such as who goes to college and the role that those college students believe they should play in their society. In addition, Kenya is a relatively stable society when compared to a number of East African countries such as Ethiopia, Somalia and Sudan, where conflicts have caused young people to flee their countries and seek a university education, in Kenya even though that country has the problem of limited space for its own citizens in its universities.

The second category examines faculty profiles at both public and private universities in Kenya. It separately examines faculty at public and private universities. Faculty participation in the governance of public universities, their salaries and benefits, the different types of faculty appointments and faculty hierarchy will be explored. The section on faculty at private universities will examine academic appointments, salaries and benefits. It is important to examine faculty profiles because the manner in which they are treated by administration (e.g. adequate salaries and benefits, adequate teaching materials, etc.) plays a big role in their effectiveness in terms of transmitting knowledge
to students. Also, examining the academic qualifications or training of university professors is very important in determining whether they are helpful to students. The section will also provide an in-depth explanation of the background and qualifications of the faculty of the United States International University because it is the only private university to provide such a list of its faculty. One of the complaints about the establishment of private colleges and universities in developing countries is that many of them lack teaching staffs with strong academic training or backgrounds. Taking an in-depth look at the faculty list of the United States International University could help explain or determine whether the faculty at this one particular institution lacks adequate academic training.

Finally, the third category provides an examination of the result of efforts by the Kenyan government and people in providing and attaining university education. This will be done by presenting and explaining data that represent the total number and the various types of professional occupations in Kenya in the year 2000. This category will also discuss the employment status of Kenyan University graduates. In the past four decades, the Kenyan government and people have invested substantial amounts of resources in university education. A closer look at the data of the number and the various professionals in Kenya could assist in determining the achievement of university education in the country. It will provide an understanding of the types of graduates and academic fields that Kenya’s universities have produced. The employment data is important because it indicates whether the attainment of a university degree has directly led to gainful employment.
Students Profile at Public Universities

There are three groups of students enrolled in Kenya’s six public universities: Kenyan regular students, privately sponsored students, and foreign students. The regular Kenyan students come from mostly poor economic backgrounds and have met public universities and departmental entrance requirements. They scored the minimum government requirement of C+ (plus) on the Kenyan Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) and they also met the minimum entrance for the individual academic departments which are usually scores ranging from B to A. Regular Kenyan students also had to wait for two years to gain admission into one of the nation’s six public universities because secondary school students take the KCSE exam when they are in the Fourth Form (this is the equivalent of a high school senior year) and there is limited enrollment space for qualified high school seniors or secondary school students entering universities.

Regular Kenyan public university students pay the lowest tuition and fees and they also qualified for the highest amount of student loans (Waithira Mirie). For the 2000/2001 academic year regular Kenyan students at the University of Nairobi paid an estimated Ksh. 120,000 in tuition and fees and other services (www.uonbi.ac.ke). In order to meet their university financial obligations, Kenyan regular students receive their tuition and fees from a variety of sources. They receive partial grants (Ksh. 70,000) from the government, student loans (Ksh. 42,000) from the country’s Higher Education Loans Board (HELB), bursary/scholarships (Ksh. 8,000) and parental or family contributions (Ksh. 50,000) (Chapter 4).
Privately sponsored students at Kenya’s public universities are also Kenyan nationals. However, they enrolled into the nation’s public universities under different circumstances than non-privately sponsored Kenyans. In recent years, in order to accommodate more students at public universities, the Ministry of Education through the Kenya’s Commission for Higher Education (CHE), created within public universities private parallel academic programs that accept Kenyan students who meet the qualifications of public universities and the individual departments. These students apply to public universities as private students and they have to meet the C+ Kenyan Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) minimum university requirement. They also have to meet the requirements of individual departments. These private students within public universities, however, could start their university education immediately after they find out their KCSE scores, unlike the regular students who have to wait for up to two years to start their university education.

One rationale for the creation of the private parallel programs within public universities is to provide immediate post secondary school education to students who have adequate financial resources, instead of putting them on hold for two years as it is done to regular students. This system also reduces the pressure on the government in finding scarce places for students who depend on it for some subsidies. By allowing Kenyan students to be enrolled in private academic (parallel) programs within public universities, but can also pay for their education, reduces the financial burden on the government and give the students the opportunity of going directly to college instead of waiting for the normal two years to be accepted, which are usually not guaranteed.

Another reason for the creation of the parallel program according to Akala (2001) is that
it was meant to accept those secondary school students who did not meet the university entrance requirements. However, with the public universities unable to even accept all the students who qualify, the parallel program instead accepts qualified students who are not accepted by the regular procedure, but must have the necessary tuition and fees to enroll in the program.

Another major difference between the privately sponsored students and the regular Kenyan students at public universities is that the privately sponsored students pay significantly higher tuition and fees than their counterparts. The privately sponsored students receive very little or no financial help from the government. However, they qualify for a certain amount of student loans. Privately sponsored students at the University of Nairobi pay an estimated Ksh.120, 000 in tuition and fees (chapter four) and other services. They normally had attended the nation’s private primary and secondary schools, while the regular students attended public primary and secondary schools. Privately sponsored students tend to come from good economic backgrounds, while regular students tend to come from poor backgrounds (Waithira Mirie).

One future implication of this trend (parallel) is that an increasing number of students with adequate financial resources will continue to be accepted in the public universities, while the number of poor qualified students accepted into the system, even after the two years wait, will decline. This will pose a serious equity issue in the future. It is important to note that compared to students enrolled in private universities, students in the private parallel programs within public institutions pay less in tuition and other fees than students enrolled in private universities. Also, according to interviews conducted by Mirie of students in both private and public universities, most students in general prefer
to be enrolled in the public universities, including the private parallel programs. Mirie asserts that this is because the students have the perception that overall, the public universities provide better quality education than the private universities.

The third group of students at public universities in Kenya consists of foreign students. In order for foreign students to be accepted at public universities in Kenya, they must meet all university and departmental requirements. In most cases, since the systems of education in other countries are different from that in Kenya, foreign students must meet the equivalent of Kenya’s university entrance requirements. Foreign students in Kenya’s public universities pay the highest cost of tuition and fees. The estimated average annual undergraduate tuition and fees that foreign students pay in 2000/2001 academic year at the University of Nairobi, for example, is $3,065 (www.uonbi.ac.ke). It is important to note that Kenya’s public universities do not provide a breakdown of the percentages of the three kinds of students enrolled in their universities. In fact, the United States International University, one of Kenya’s private universities is the only institution that currently compiles such data. However, the University of Nairobi claims on its website that it is currently in the process of compiling all information about its foreign students.

According to the Kenya Economic Survey (2000), of the 41,825 students enrolled in public universities in the 1999/2000 academic year, female students comprised of 30.9 percent. Also, according to the survey, the parallel degree programs, which enroll privately sponsored students, have continued to gain popularity in all public universities.
Students Participation in the Governance of Public Universities

In a research study entitled “Politics of Participatory Decision-Making: The case of Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi” done for the French Institute for Research in Africa (IFRA) located in Nairobi, Kenya, Andrew T. Obondo, interviewed administrators and students at Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi in order to get their opinion on the issue of governance at those two public universities. A total of 125 questionnaires were given out to undergraduate students. Seventy questionnaires were given to students at the University of Nairobi and 55 questionnaires were given to Kenyatta University students. Out of the 125 questionnaires, 58 (82%) were returned from students at the University of Nairobi and 42 (60%) were returned from students at Kenyatta University. In addition, after Obondo administered the interviews, 15 students (5 student leaders and 10 ordinary students) were selected as key interviewees. Thirty five percent of returned questionnaires from this was from female students while the remainder was from male students. The study focused organized discussions with emphasis on the following:

- Their involvement in policy formation and decision-making.
- Their view of existing management structures, or decision-making organs and their level of participation in them.
- How they rate the effectiveness of student unions in decision-making and general campus governance.
- Probable causes of unrest and riots.
- Mode of appointment of administrative officials.
  (Obondo, Feb. 2001).

It is important to note that in the 1999/2000 academic year, Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi had a combined enrollment of 19,125 (45.7%) of the 41,825 total public university enrollment.
Obondo’s research study found that 64% of students interviewed affirmed that they were totally not involved in formulating policies. Involvement in policy formulation is only through student unions and associations. Seventy five percent of the students interviewed claimed that they find decisions coming from management bodies non-responsive to their needs because:

- There is no proper and effective student participation as a result of low representation.
- University authorities are not interested in solving their problems.
- Most of the decisions made are never implemented. Those implemented are only as a result of pressure from students.
- Decisions usually don’t conform to their opinions or suggestions as they are often ignored.

According to the students, besides formal consultations through management organizations, the university management only addresses them when there is a looming crisis. The following factors were identified as hindering proper consultations:

- Lack of prompt and adequate information.
- Some administrators always complain of interference of external factors or higher authorities whenever there are problems.
- Administrators are keen and interested in individual and personal problems as opposed to group interests.
- Policy-makers do not always act unless forced by students to do so.
- Administrators lack autonomy in decision-making.
- Excessive bureaucracy.

According to Obendo, 80% of students interviewed admitted that not all constituencies or interest groups within their colleges are adequately represented in decision-making organs of their respective institutions. When asked to propose alternative policy options to improve decision-making, students identified the following for consideration:
• All interest groups like Christian unions and other professional groupings are involved in decision-making along with umbrella student bodies.
• Suggestion schemes to be introduced.
• Consultations or interactions are intensified before decisions are made.
• Level of student representation in policy organs be increased fundamentally.
  There should be a balance between the number of administrators and students.
• Frequent meetings between students, their leaders and campus authorities.
• Student unions be made more independent and their elections more meaningful with least interference from the administration

Finally, the student respondents identified the following as actual causes of riots:

1. Management and leadership styles by university authorities.
2. Lack of proper consultation and involvement in decision-making.
3. Financial cutbacks and living conditions.
4. Insensitive varsity and government policies.

Source: (Obondo, Feb. 21, 2001).

Students in Kenya’s public universities have student organizations that they utilize to advocate their interests. For example, at the University of Nairobi, there is a major student organization called Student Organization of Nairobi University (SONU) and other student organizations divided according to colleges or schools. This organization was established in 1998 and the primary objectives of SONU are:

• To establish an efficient, accountable and transparent student organization which seeks and undertakes representation and/or participation in organs of the University.
• To work in close solidarity with other students' organizations within the University and establish friendly relations and understanding with other relevant organizations.
• To seek, enhance and maintain freedom of conscience, expression, association, academic liberty and all rights accruing to students and to promote the enjoyment of the same.
• To promote student welfare, work hand in hand with University Administration and other bodies concerned with enhancement of students standard of living and undertake any, other activity which does not conflict with the constitution of S.O.N.U. '98 or any other law or regulation in force and which is beneficial to the members.
• To represent students to various administrative and academic organs of the University.
• Students can channel their input into the University Council, University Senate, Student Welfare Authority (S.W.A.); and College Academic Boards.

The College Students' Organizations are:
• College of Architecture and Engineering Students Organization
• Confederation of Medical Students Association
• Kabete Campus University Students Organization
• Nairobi University Arts Students Association
• Organization of Nairobi University Science I Students
• Students Organization of Lower Kabete

Source: (www.uonbi.ac.ke/cur_studs)

It is useful to point out that before the establishment of SONU in 1998, the types of student organizations that existed were broken up into colleges and schools. According to Mazrui, the reason for that was to reduce the power and influence of a bigger organization such as SONU. Mazrui (1991) stated that in Kenya, the regime of President Daniel Arap Moi has shown some success in limiting students political activism by decentralizing student organizations and “political cooptation of students' leadership.”, resulting in the breaking of student organizations academic fields or the geographic parts of the country from which students come (pp.1-2).

**Students Participation in the Governance of Private Universities**

According to Mirie, the governance of private universities is very different from public universities the reason is because the government of Kenya does not provide any financial assistant to private universities and students pay their own tuition and fees. Because of this, says Mirie, the government of Kenya does not interfere in the
administration of private universities. Mirie also notes that because students at private universities pay their own tuition, there are little or no complaints about the issue of governance because students are there primarily to learn. Therefore, they have very different experiences than their public counterparts. As a whole, activities at private universities are calm among all the stakeholders because of the fact that their purposes or objectives are very clear. Waweru also points out that, “Student activism is rare in private universities. In the United States International University, the student government is involved in most of the decisions affecting the students, e.g., increment. All student leaders are elected.” (Waweru, Interview ). According to Catholic University’s student organization, called Catholic University Students Organization (CUSO):

In accordance with Statute XXIV of the Catholic University, the Catholic University Students Organization CUSO exists to promote the welfare of the students, the development and encouragement of their social and academic life and the establishment of co-operation with students' organizations in other Universities. The Student Organization is guided by a Constitution approved by the University Council. Membership to the Organization is open to all students registered in the university upon payment of such fees as may be prescribed by the university administration. Students participate in the governance of the university through their elected representatives. There is gender equality in regard to duties and responsibilities (www.cuea.edu/ginfo.htm).

**Students Profile at Private Universities**

Kenya’s five accredited private universities have a diverse student population. They enroll students from African countries and other parts of the world. Students seeking entrance into private universities must meet the requirements set by the Commission for Higher Education. They must score an average minimum of C+ (plus) on the KCSE. Foreign students must show some equivalent university entrance documents from their countries.
Private universities in Kenya have gender parity in total enrollment when compared to public universities. According to the Kenya Economic Survey, in the 1999/2000 academic year, 54.5% of the total private university enrollment was made up of females. Daystar University had the highest female enrollment with 62.2%. In terms of academic ability, students entering private universities have the same credentials as those at public universities. That is because a significant number of students who qualify for entrance into public universities, but are not accepted or are unwilling to wait for two years to enter the public institutions, are the students who enroll in private universities. Compared to their public university counterparts, private university students come from families with good economic backgrounds. Also, because the majority of private universities are located in and around Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya, students from these urban areas have better opportunities of enrolling in those private institutions. The United Nations Development Program estimate that Kenya’s urban population as percent of its total population, has gone from 12.9% in 1975 to 32.1% of the country’s total population in 1999 (UNDP Report, 2001). Finally, even though about two-thirds of Kenyans are Christians and the majority of the private universities are Christian based institutions, Waweru points out that private universities do not discriminate based on gender, class or religion.

Daystar University’s undergraduate programs enroll students from twenty-five African countries. Every year the university hosts an estimated 60 students from Christian colleges in the United States. Daystar University is reported to have over 7,000 graduates in some 40 African countries who serve as members of parliament, business leaders, educators, communications specialists, and heads of Christian relief and
development (Carlson, Bethel Focus, Summer 2000). In its brochure, Catholic
University claims to have students from 12 African countries and other parts of the world
who study in a variety of academic fields. Among the five private universities, Scott
Theological College is the only institution with students whose education is primarily
focused on Theology.

The United States International University (USIU) reports that it enrolls students
from 42 countries worldwide. The university currently has a total of 242 international
students; most of who reside in campus hostels that have a capacity to host 256 students.
Of the 242 international students at United States International University, 123 (50.8%)
are male and 119 (49.2%) are female. According to table one, 171 (70%) international
students are from 22 African nations, 33 (13.7%) students are from seven Asian nations,
20 (8.3%) students are from ten European nations and 18 (7.5%) students are from three
countries in the Americas. Among the African students, Uganda and Tanzania have the
highest number with 39 and 30 students respectively. India has the highest number of
students among Asians, with a total of fifteen. The United States has the highest number
with 16 students in the group from the Americas. Finally, among the European students,
the United Kingdom has the highest number with 6 students.
Table 1

Breakdown by World Regions of International Students at the United States International University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th># of Countries</th>
<th># of Students</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Americas</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: USIU Campus Profile

In the 2000/2001 academic year, female students at the United States International University comprised 53% of the total enrollment and male students comprised 47%.

International students make up 12% of the undergraduate enrollment (Table 2) and 9% of graduate enrollment. Eighty three percent of undergraduate students and 91% of graduate students (Table 3) are in the Business Administration degree program (USIU Nairobi Campus Profile).

Table 2

United States International University Student Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Undergraduate</th>
<th>Graduate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Domestic</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Degree Programs</td>
<td>Percent of Students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Psychology and Family Studies</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Liberal and Interdisciplinary Studies</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graduate Programs</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling Psychology</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Relations</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: USIU Nairobi Campus Profile

Tables 1, 2 and 3 illustrate that not only does the United States International University enroll an internationally diverse student body, but that both domestic and international undergraduate and graduate students enroll in overwhelming numbers in the institution’s Business Administration programs. One might note that the reason why the United States International University offers a major Business Administration concentration, and why the majority of its students are enrolled in that program is that recent privatization of publicly owned utilities and companies in Kenya might have created the need for such graduates in the country’s job market and that other universities (both public and private) have not recognized that shift.

**Faculty Profile at Public Universities in Kenya**

Before academic appointments are made at public universities in Kenya, a job must be vacant in a particular department. Teaching positions are advertised in the nation’s newspaper and other media outlets. Faculty appointments are made only when
the need arises in a particular specialization. All major faculty and administrative appointments are influenced by the Kenyan government. That is because the President of Kenya is also the president of all universities (both private and public), which gives the government significant influence especially over public universities. Anyone seeking faculty appointment as a lecturer or a full professor is required to have a Masters or a Ph.D. degree (Waithira Mirie). Table four below shows that the average faculty/student ratio of the selected public universities dropped from 1:13 to 1:12 from the 1994/95 to the 19996/97 academic years. In the 1994/95 academic year, Maseno University had the largest faculty student ratio of 1:18, but that ratio dropped to 1:12 in the 1996/97 academic year. Egerton University maintains its faculty/student ratio of 1:9 from the 1994/95 academic year to the 1996/97 academic year. Table 4 shows that even though Kenya’s public universities have serious financial difficulties which have led to the small faculty/student ratio, the students have the opportunity of getting more attention from their professors. The small classes also give the faculty more time to concentrate on individual students who might need extra academic attention.

### Table 4

**Faculty/Student Ratios at selected Public Universities (1994/95 to 1996/97)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Faculty/Student Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1994/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenyatta</td>
<td>1:16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egerton</td>
<td>1:9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moi</td>
<td>1:12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JKUCAT</td>
<td>1:9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maseno</td>
<td>1:18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>1:13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Abagi, 1999.
Faculty Hierarchy at Public Universities

Faculty hierarchy at public universities begins with tutorial fellows as the lowest academic positions and full professors as the highest positions. Faculty promotions are based on training and publications in scientific journals and other academic activities. Even though the primary reason for faculty appointments is for teaching, lecturers and professors at Kenya’s public universities seeking promotions are expected and required to:

- Publish research articles in national and international journals
- Write books
- Write chapters in books
- Review articles and editorials
- Participate in university activities

Faculty members are also expected to join national and international academic professional organizations, and participate in conference workshops.

Table 5
Faculty Hierarchy and Required Academic Credentials at Public Universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Credentials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial Fellow</td>
<td>BA or BSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Lecturer</td>
<td>BA or BSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>MA, MSC, Ph.D., etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Waithira Mirie
Abagi (1999) wrote that there are three categories of full-time members of academic staff at public universities. They are those who are active within the university, those who are not very active in teaching and research, but are appointed in senior administrative positions within the university, and those who are active outside the universities offering professional services for their own gain. According to Abagi, those full-time academic staff members in the first category do little individual or university initiated research and consulting and fifty percent of the teaching staff at the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University falls in this category. Those in the second category are Directors, Principals and Chairpersons of various committees within the universities. Abagi reports that 10% of senior members of the academic staff (Senior Lecturers and Professors) belong to this category. Finally, Abagi wrote that those in the third category come to the public universities once in a while to carry out their university functions. Members of this group are engaged in serious research and have access to current information, which makes them popular among students, especially graduate students. According to Abagi 40% of academic staff fall under this category.

Table 6

Proportion of University Teaching Staff Active in University Related Activities when University is in Session* (Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi)

*Some Academic Staff are usually engaged in more than two activities concurrently both within and outside the universities
Source: Abagi, 1999.
Table 4 above illustrate that 50% of the teaching staff of Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi are active within their universities when it come to teaching and supervision. Fifty percent of them are active outside the university. Ten percent of the teaching staff is involved in administrative work within the universities. Twenty five percent of the teaching staff is involved in business activities outside their universities. Forty five percent of the teaching staff work as consultants outside their universities. Only 5% of the teaching staff are active in research within their universities, but 10% do so outside their universities.

Abagi’s survey findings in Table 6 reveals that faculty members at Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi spend significant time working on a variety of projects and businesses outside of their official university employment, thereby spending less time with their students. This is due to the fact that there is a lack of wealth in the country. Furthermore, because faculty members at public universities in Kenya are paid by the government and the government lacks sufficient revenues, whatever salaries these professors receive from the government will be inadequate for them to support themselves and their families. Therefore, they have no choice but to find ways to earn outside incomes. For example, faculty salaries at public universities in Kenya range from 8,409 to 11,433 pounds for Assistant Lecturers to 18,636 to 33,982 pounds for Full Professors annually. It is important to note that Kenyan pounds are actually British pounds and as of February 11, 2002, one United States dollar equals 0.702 British cents. Faculty members at public universities also receive some benefits. These benefits include:
- House Allowance
- Home or office travel allowance
- Medical—for wife/husband and children up to 21 years old (includes dental and eyes).  

Source: Waithira Mirie

**Faculty Profile at Private Universities in Kenya**

The recruitment of private university professors is conducted in a similar process as public universities recruit their faculty. To be qualified for employment at private universities, a Masters or a Ph.D. is required. Academic appointments at private universities begin with lecturers as the lowest appointments and professors as the highest appointments. The faculty appointments and promotions ladder at private universities in Kenya are:

- Lecturer
- Assistant Professor
- Associate Professor
- Professor

In order to be promoted, faculty members at private universities are required to conduct research and other academic contributions, along with the duration at their institutions. The requirements and expected academic activities that private universities faculty must meet are similar to those of the faculty at public universities. They include:

- Number of teaching years at university
- Publish research articles in national and international journals
- Write books
- Write chapters in books
- Review articles and editorials
- Participate in university activities
- Continuing education
- Participate in ones own discipline activities such as professional associations.
Benefits for Private University Faculty

Faculties in private universities receive some benefits from their institutions, just as their public university counterparts. Their salaries are higher than the public university lecturers and professors. Faculty salary data for this chapter, which is available only for the United States International University, shows that monthly salaries range from Ksh.75,000 to Ksh.105,000 for Lecturers and Ksh.128,000 to Ksh.180,000 for Full Professors. As of February 11, 2002, $1 US dollar equals 78 Kenyan Shillings.

However, according to Waweru, even though salaries for private university faculty are higher than those of public university faculty, “public universities have very hefty benefits like duty free cars and subsidized housing.”

Some of the kinds of benefits provided among private university faculty include:

- Subsidized medical benefits
- Pension scheme
- Research grants
- Tuition assistance for family members
- Sabbatical leave (9 months) and unpaid leave

One of the major concerns of the establishment of private universities in developing countries is the academic training or background of professors. The nation of Chile has a private higher education sector with a large student enrollment. However, Cobin (2000) notes that with the exception of a few traditional universities, Chile’s private university professors seldom earn masters or doctorate degrees. According to Cobin, because of the high number of private university professors in Chile with only bachelor’s degrees, the level of academic standard within those institutions is very low.
On its website, the United States International University, posted a list of names and academic credentials of its faculty members for the 2001/2002 academic year. The faculty listing for this particular university tends to present the opposite of Cobin’s claims about the academic credentials of Chilean private universities faculty. The United States International University faculty listing reveals that of the 33 names listed (Table 7), 20 (60%) of the faculty members have Ph.D. degrees and the remaining 13 (40%) have at least masters degrees. Twenty-eight of the faculty members earned at least one degree outside of Kenya. The majority of those who earned at least a degree outside of Kenya did so in Europe or the United States. Only five faculty members earned all of their degrees in Kenya. Among this group, one has a Ph.D. and four have master’s degrees. Table 8 illustrates that 17 of the 33 United States International University faculty are Assistant Professors, seven are Lecturers, six are Associate Professors, and three are Professors.

**Table 7**

United States International University Faculty Academic Credentials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Credential</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [www.usiu.ac.ke/web/facultylist.htm](http://www.usiu.ac.ke/web/facultylist.htm)

---

**Table 8**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th># of Faculty</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Professors</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professors</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [www.usiu.ac.ke/web/facultylist.htm](http://www.usiu.ac.ke/web/facultylist.htm)
Tables 7 and 8 show that the United States International University in Kenya provides its students with professors that have been trained at very good institutions in the United States and Europe. These institutions include the University of Illinois, University of Essex, Sussex University, Ohio University and the University of Cincinnati. The high number of foreign-trained professors at the United States International University might be one of the reasons for the attraction of the diverse international student enrollment at that institution. Another accredited private institution in Kenya, Daystar University, also claims to provide a trained faculty for it students. On its website, Daystar University claims that:

Our highly trained, international faculty are all committed Christians and come from several African, Asian and Western nations. The majority have Master’s degrees and many have earned doctorates. These included missionaries and volunteer faculty who bring specialized expertise as well as their own financial and prayer support (www.daystarus.org/people.htm).

**Employment and Professional Services in Kenya**

University education was given a high priority in post colonial Africa including Kenya, because it was supposed to train and prepare the professional support needed to administer the new governments. Kenya is among the African nations that have actually trained a significant number of its citizens for this purpose, especially when compared to other African nations. This section looks at the number of professionals in Kenya to get an understanding of the accomplishments of that nation in its nearly four decades of investing in higher education.

According to the 2000/2001 World Bank World Development Report, in 1999, the total labor force in Kenya was 15 million. However, this number does not constitute consistent wage employment. Female employment constituted 46 percent of the labor
force in that same year. According to Tradeport, an organization that provides economic information about countries and territories around the world, Kenya’s job market is divided into formal and informal sectors. According to Tradeport, economic activities in the formal sector include education, manufacturing, building and construction, trade, agriculture transport and services. The informal sector includes activities such as carpentry, motor vehicle repair, tailoring, and small-scale manufacture of spoons, cooking pans and ovens. In 1996, an estimated 1.2 million males and 430,000 females engaged in formal wage employment. In this sector, women worked primarily in the services and men worked in agriculture, education, manufacturing, building and construction, trade and transport. The highest percentage of females in the formal sector was in education, where they constituted about 40% of the total workforce. Women also constituted more than 25% of the workforce in finance insurance, and other business services and over 20 % in public administration and agriculture. In addition, some textile factories are staffed almost exclusively by women. The informal sector in Kenya employs approximately 70% of all workers (www.tradeport.org).

According to Table 9 below, in the year 2000, there were a total of 143,613 professionals of various fields in Kenya. Out of this number 4,969 (3.5%) were non-citizens. The largest group of professionals in this total was teachers and lecturers with university degrees constituting 29,481 (20.5%) people. Nurses and other paramedical staff had the second largest number with 28,454 (19.8%) professionals. Other qualified personnel constituted the third largest number with 25,096 (17.5%) professionals. The total number of doctors, dentists, pharmacists and veterinarians was 7,453 (0.05%) and the total number of chemists, physicians, biologists, zoologists and agronomists was
9,428 (0.06%). The total number of General managers and salaried directors was 13,854 (0.096%). Of all the professions listed on Table 9, aircraft and ship officers, general managers, and salaried directors constituted the highest percentages of non-citizens. Of the 349 total aircraft and ship officers listed, 110 (31.5%) were non-citizens and of the 13,854 General managers and salaried directors 1,574 (11.4%) were non-citizens. It is useful to note that the total number of professionals listed on table nine does not represent all of Kenya’s professionals. That is because even though there is no official number available, there is a significant number of Kenyan professionals working outside of the country. For example, there is an estimated 700 Kenyan doctors working in South Africa alone (Kayabwe, World Bank/WTO. 2000).

Table 9 illustrates that Kenya’s effort in providing students with higher education and university education in particular has produced a well balanced number of professionals that could help the nation deal with the economic, political and social issues of the next decades. The country is also in good position to replace these professionals with its more than 100,000 students enrolled in colleges and universities in Kenya and abroad.
### Table 9
**Number of Professionals in Kenya (2000)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Profession</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Citizens</th>
<th>Non-Citizens</th>
<th>% of non-citizens in total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Architects, Engineers and Surveyors</td>
<td>7,566</td>
<td>7,086</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctors, Dentists, Pharmacists and Veterinarians</td>
<td>7,453</td>
<td>7,371</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses and other paramedical staff</td>
<td>28,454</td>
<td>28,317</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemist, Physicists, Biologists, Zoologists &amp; Agronomists</td>
<td>9,428</td>
<td>9,395</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statisticians, Mathematicians, Systems analysts &amp; Economists</td>
<td>1,511</td>
<td>1,509</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft and ship officers</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawyers and Jurists</td>
<td>736</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and lecturers with University degrees</td>
<td>29,481</td>
<td>28,445</td>
<td>1,036</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curators and related scientists</td>
<td>2,671</td>
<td>2,658</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minister of religion and other social cultural workers</td>
<td>7,539</td>
<td>6,607</td>
<td>931</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General managers and salaried directors</td>
<td>13,854</td>
<td>12,280</td>
<td>1,574</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualified accountants and auditors</td>
<td>9,462</td>
<td>9,182</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other qualified personnel</td>
<td>25,096</td>
<td>24,810</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>143,613</strong></td>
<td><strong>138,644</strong></td>
<td><strong>4,969</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

With its limited resources, the government of Kenya and its people have made tremendous efforts to provide citizens with higher education and the faculty needed to train them. However, there is a significant problem that all Kenyans must do every thing within their power to try to solve immediately or else the nation stands to lose enormously from its nearly four decades of investing substantially in higher education. That problem is HIV/AIDS. Kenya is one of the countries in the world that is suffering enormously from the HIV/AIDS epidemic. According to the Nation newspaper, of Kenya, the chairman of the National AIDS Control Council of Kenya, Dr. M. S. Abdallah, notes that the disease is claiming the lives of 500 Kenyans daily. Dr. Abdallah notes that at least 2.2 million Kenyans were living with the HIV virus at the end of the year 2000 (Nation, Sept. 10, 2000). Furthermore, it is estimated that by the year 2005, AIDS treatment costs may account for more than half of total government spending and that from 1995-2005, economic output in Kenya will fall by 14.5 percent (Amoako, Africa Resource Center).

Institutions of higher education in the country are suffering from the HIV/AIDS epidemic. For example, an estimated 100 members of the University of Nairobi fraternity die of AIDS each year. Those deaths include either teaching or non-teaching staff or students. Furthermore, Dr. Abdallah projected that about 15 percent of the estimated 100,000 college students in Kenya and foreign colleges and universities could die before starting their jobs unless sexual trends are reversed (The Nation, Sept. 10, 2000). It is very important for the Kenyan government, the private sector and the people
of that nation to pour all of their energies to prevent the massive loss of lives that
HIV/AIDS is causing. Kenya has invested enormously in higher education, and all
Kenyans should do everything possible to save the lives of their most treasured resource:
the people.
Chapter Seven

Private Higher Education in Malaysia and South Africa
**Introduction**

In the mid-1980s the public higher education system of Malaysia began experiencing increasing enrollment demands. Its public higher education system could not absorb all the secondary school graduates who qualified to enter the public institutions. Malaysia began losing thousands of students who traveled abroad to attain higher education degrees. The government of Malaysia openly endorsed and encouraged the establishment of private higher education institutions in the country. It also passed higher education laws that called for the registration and establishment of private universities.

After the first democratic presidential elections in South Africa, which brought Nelson Mandela into the presidency in 1994, new higher education bills that in part call for the registration and establishment of private colleges and universities were passed. The call for the establishment of private universities in South Africa resulted in massive numbers of local and foreign private institutions that opened up campuses and created joint programs with some of the country’s public institutions. However, numerous profit making private institutions referred to as “fly-by-night” institutions (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb. 2001. 4.6) emerged and caused concern among public institutions and the South African Department of Education. As a result, the Department of Education called for a thorough registration process to make sure that any private institutions operating in the country is fully authorized by the government to do so.
Privatization and globalization are both playing a significant role in the significant establishment of private higher education institutions in South Africa. Privatization is defined as “the divestiture from the public to the private sector of ownership and/or control of productive assets or services, their allocation and pricing, and the entitlement to the residual profits flows generated by them” (Mathur and Torres, World Bank. 1995). Stetar (2000) defined globalization as the “increasing integration of world capital, knowledge and trade.”

This chapter will examine some of the causes for the establishment of private higher education institutions in Malaysia and South Africa. Parallels will be drawn from the private higher education system in Kenya with those in Malaysia and South Africa. This chapter will seek to explain some of the causes for the establishment of private institutions in Malaysia and South Africa. The chapter will also discuss the current impact and future implications of the creation of private institutions in these two countries. The importance of examining the private higher education systems of Malaysia and South Africa is that each of them is very important and plays a useful economic, political and social role in the region of the world where it is located. The primary reason for their important roles is the significant progress that each has made in higher education. Because of this reason, Kenya and many other developing nations could learn from both Malaysia and South Africa in terms of utilizing their educational systems to meet national development goals. The chapter will be divided into three categories:
• Higher education bills passed by the Malaysian and South African governments with rules and regulations of the establishment and monitoring of private institutions;
• Enrollment trends and types of private higher education institutions in each system; and
• Cost sharing or funding of private higher education in each system.

The higher education bills category of this chapter will explain the process of the creation of private institutions in each system and how those systems will be monitored by each country’s Ministry of Education. The category of the enrollment trends will examine the causes for the establishment of private institutions and the rate at which the expansion of those institutions has occurred in each system. This category will also examine the types of institutions that have been established. The cost-sharing or funding category will explore the questions of who pays for students enrolled in private higher education institutions in each system. Finally, the chapter will look at the relationship between the economy of each nation and private higher education. It will examine the impact of each country’s economic system on the need for private higher education and the impact of private institutions in the economic development of each country.

**Development Indicators and the Importance of Malaysia and South Africa in Their Regions.**

Before examining the private higher education sectors of Malaysia and South Africa, it would be useful to first present the development status of each country. This is particularly important because even though both countries might be called developing nations, they are far ahead of their counterparts in that group. In fact, as Altbach points out in chapter one, these two nations fall under a relatively new category called “Advanced Developing Countries” because they perform far better economically and politically than other developing nations.
The World Bank divides nations of the world by placing them in different economic categories. The World Bank divides economies according to the 2000 Gross National Income (GNI) per capita. The different economic groups are low income, lower middle income, upper middle income and high income. The countries belonging to the low-income group have a per capita GNI or GDP of $755 or less. The lower middle income countries have a GNI per capita ranging from $756-$2,995. The countries in the upper middle income group have a per capita GNI ranging from $2,996 to $9,265. Finally, countries in the high-income group have a GNI per capita of $9,266 or more.

According to the World Bank, countries in the low-income and middle-income categories are sometimes referred to as developing economies. In utilizing this World Bank method, the per capita GNI of Malaysia falls under the high income group and South Africa falls under the upper middle income group. In 1989, the World Bank established an explicit benchmark between middle-income and high-income countries at $6,000 per capita in 1987 prices (www.worldbank.org/data/databytopic/class.ht). The World Bank also notes that even though countries are grouped as developing nations, it does not mean that they are all in the process of developing and that those countries not in the group have necessarily reached an accepted final stage of development.

In July of 2001, the estimated populations of Malaysia and South Africa were 22.2 million and 43.5 million, respectively. The Gross Domestic Productive (GDP) of Malaysia in 2000 was $223.7 billion and $369 billion for South Africa. The per capita GDPs or GNIs for Malaysia and South Africa in 2000 were $10,300 and $8,500 respectively. The labor force in Malaysia in 2000 was estimated 9.6 million. In South Africa, the labor force in 2000 was estimated at 17 million. In Malaysia, the
unemployment rate in 2000 was estimated at 2.8%. During that same year South Africa had an unemployment rate estimated at 30%. For the year 2000, the estimated exports (a good indicator of a country’s economy) was $97.9 billions. During that same year the estimated exports (free on Board) for South Africa was $30.8 billions (CIA World factbook. 2001).

As the preceding development indicators illustrate, Malaysia and South Africa play very important roles in their respective regions of the world. For example, today, trade and investment are two important ways to develop any nation’s economy. In the past two decades, Malaysia’s total exports and investments have increased enormously. Due to this reason, Malaysia has become a very important nation not only in South East Asia, but also in the entire world. For example, Malaysia’s major trading partners include some the most powerful countries and territories in the world, such as Japan, the United States, Singapore and the territory, Hong Kong the Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China since July 1st, 1997. This means that Malaysia is such an important country that any serious economic or political problems there would have some type of effect not only to its immediate neighbors, but other countries around the world, including the United States.

South Africa is the leading political, economic, educational, and technological country in all of Africa. For example, on the continent of Africa, South African universities account for about 60 percent of all Research and Development (R&D) expenditure and about 28 percent of all R&D scientists and engineers. In addition, South African university faculty publish approximately 44 percent more articles in the sciences than their counter-parts in Egypt, which ranks second to South Africa (Stetar, 2000).
What is more, South Africa is playing a vital economic role in Africa. The six countries (Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, Swaziland and Zimbabwe, with a total population of more than 37 million people) bordering South Africa depend heavily on it for trade through the Southern African Development Community (SADC), a regional trade organization. It is estimated that the nation of Lesotho, for example, has roughly 35% of its active male wage earners working in South Africa and that in 1999, all of Lesotho’s electricity was supplied by South Africa (CIA World Factbook, 2001).

In addition, even though South Africa is not a member of the 20 member African regional trade organization called Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA, with over 385 million people), over half of them are involved in significant trade with South Africa. In fact, most of the members of COMESA conduct more trade with South Africa than they do with each other. However, South Africa’s top trading partners (exports/imports) include, the United Kingdom, the United States, Japan, Italy and Germany (CIA World Factbook, 2001). In a February 17, 2002, New York Times newspaper article about South Africa, Rachel L. Swarns writes that:

South African businesses are running the national railroad in Cameroon and will soon run Madagascar’s. They are managing power plants in Mali and Zambia. They are brewing local beers in Mozambique and Ghana. They are the leading providers of cellphone service in Nigeria, Uganda and Cameroon. They control banks and supermarkets in Tanzania, Mozambique and Kenya. . . . This explosion of trade and investment — exports have tripled in recent years — is one of the most vivid illustrations of South Africa’s metamorphosis since apartheid ended in 1994. Once a pariah state, South Africa now seems poised to dominate the continent that once shunned its products and leaders. The economic expansion has been accompanied by South Africa’s growing political influence. South Africa’s president, Thabo Mbeki, is an architect of a well-regarded plan to promote prosperity in sub-Saharan Africa. South Africa’s soldiers, who invaded neighboring countries during white rule, are now helping to keep the peace in Burundi, Congo, Ethiopia, Eritrea and the Comoro Islands (Swarns, NY Times. Feb. 17, 2002).
This shows that South Africa is a very important country in Africa and the world and its internationally respected higher education system has been the engine to this development.

**Higher Education Acts in Malaysia and South Africa**

**Malaysia**

Two main causes that contributed for the call for private higher education institutions in Malaysia in the 1980s were the limited number of space for Malaysian secondary school students seeking entrance into the nation’s public colleges and universities and the high number of Malaysians seeking education abroad. In Malaysia the number of places in public higher education institutions was limited to secondary school graduates because the government had democratized the secondary schools, due to insufficient funding. In 1992, the shortage of places for secondary school graduates was estimated to be 150,000. It is important to note that there are two groups of students in Malaysia according to ethnicity. They are Bumiputra and non-Bumiputra students. It was revealed that among the non-Bumiputra students, 15% of qualified students were accepted in local higher education institutions, another 15% went overseas to study, and the remaining 70% enrolled in local private colleges (Lee, 1999, P.3). According to Lee, qualified non-Bumiputra students have difficulty in gaining admission to the local public universities because of a government quota policy which is in favor of Bumiputra students.

The high number of Malaysian students who travel abroad to study in colleges and universities were critical in the decision to create more private institutions. This was very important because Malaysia lost significant amount of money that students studying
abroad had to pay for student tuition and fees and living expenses. Lee notes that in 1995, it was estimated that 50,600 Malaysian students were studying abroad. According to Lee, the cost of the Malaysian students studying abroad in that year was estimated at $1 billion in foreign exchange.

As a result of these problems, the government of Malaysia passed higher education bills that call for the establishment and monitoring of private colleges and universities. According Lee (1999) in 1996, the government of Malaysia passed three higher education bills that had significant impact on the establishment and development of private institutions. They bills are the National Council on Higher Education Bill, 1996, the Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEI) Bill, 1996 and the National Accreditation Board Bill, 1996. The first Bill provided for the establishment of a governing body to oversee both public and private higher education sectors to ensure better coordination of Malaysia’s higher education system. The primary function of the Council is to plan, formulate and determine national policies and strategies for the development of Malaysian education. According to Lee, one of the challenges of the Council on Higher Education is to create policies that which would provide incentives to the private institutions to offer more vocational and technical programs.

Lee notes that the Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEI) Bill, 1996, defines the Malaysian government’s regulatory control over all private education institutions. The Act provides that in order for a private institution to be established, the Malaysian Minister of Education must approve it and all the programs it offers. The Act also provides that foreign universities can set up branch campuses in Malaysia only with the invitation of the Minister of Education. In addition, all courses must be conducted in
the national language, Malay. However, with permission from the Minister of Education, some courses could be taught in English or Arabic. According Lee, all the causes that are currently taught in private colleges and universities are in English. The PHEI Bill also requires that all private colleges must teach the following subjects: Malaysian studies (including Islamic and Asian Civilizations); Islamic studies (for Muslim students) and Moral studies (for non-Muslim students). According to Lee, the rational for the introduction of those courses is to establish the country’s educational identity (Lee, 1999. P.15).

The National Accreditation Bill, 1996, “sets up an accreditation board to formulate policies on the standard and quality control of courses of study and certificates, diplomas and degrees awarded by private institutions” (Lee, 1999. P.15). According to Lee, the board’s task is to establish a program evaluation framework and to provide quality assurance for accredited programs.

South Africa

The call for the establishment of private education in the post-apartheid South Africa was included in the nation’s new constitution. Smith (1998) points out that South Africa’s new Constitution makes special reference to the creation of private institutions. According to Smit, Article 29 (3) of the South African Constitution states that:

Everyone has the right to establish and maintain, at their own expense, independent educational institutions that: (a) do not discriminate on the basis of race; (b) are registered with the state; and (c) maintain standards that are not inferior to standards at comparable institutions (Smit, 1998).

According to the Green Paper, the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE), “believes that private provision should be encouraged as part of a broader policy to increase participation rates in higher education” (Green Paper, 1996). The NCHE was
established by the Government of South Africa in 1995, with a responsibility to
"investigate all aspects of Higher Education and make appropriate policy
recommendations" (www.hsrc.ac.za/nche.html). In addition, according to the National
Plan for Education, which was published in February 2001, the Council on Higher
Education (CHE) said that, "Private institutions that contribute to the diversification of
the higher education system could be sources of innovation. However, they are presently
inadequately regulated in terms of registration, accreditation and quality assurance. This
raises concerns around quality, the effective protection of learners and possible adverse
effects on the public higher education system" (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb.
2001.4.6). Mapesela (2002) also provide reasons for the importance of establishing
private institutions in South Africa. According to Mapesela:

The original aim of the government was to encourage private higher education
provision as part of a broader policy for increased access for learners, as a way to
respond to the demands of the labor market and further to stimulate quality
improvement in higher education. The key reason for allowing the establishment
of private institutions, both local and foreign, was neither to let them take over
public education, nor to condone the springing up of fragile colleges which are
not sustainable and which produce credentials lacking in credibility. Rather it
was to respond to global and international demands and to create a vibrant private
higher education intended to be complementary to the country's public higher
education and to equip the youth and the adults of this country to meet the social
and economic needs of the 21st century (Mapesela, 2002. P.5-6).

South Africans, including the government believe that it is essential to established
private institutions to complement the public colleges and universities. The examples
also stress the importance of a thorough government regulatory system to protect the
public institutions and South Africans as a whole. However, even with passage of the
Higher Education Act 101 of 1997, that calls for the registration of private institutions,
many 'fly-by-night' private institutions continued to use loopholes in the higher
education laws to operate profit making and inadequate programs without proper
government regulation. It was estimated that at least 95 private higher education
institutions were not registered with the Department of Education at the beginning of
2000 (Mapesela, 2002. P.3). Hence, two more higher education bills were passed by the
South African Parliament that among other provisions, called for the proper registration
of all private institutions in the country by the Department of Education. The two bills
were the 1999 and 2000 Higher Education Acts.

The provisions of the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 include:

To regulate higher education; to provide for the establishment, composition and
functions of a Council on Higher Education; to provide for the establishment,
governance and funding of public higher education institutions; to provide for the
appointment and functions of an independent assessor; to provide for the
registration of private higher education institutions; to provide for quality
assurance and quality promotion in higher education; to provide for transitional
arrangements and the repeal of certain laws; and to provide for matters connected
therewith (Higher Education 101 of 1997).

The Higher Education Act (1997) provided the basis for the regulation and framework for
the registration of private institutions. According to the Department of Education, the
Higher Education Act (1997) linked the framework for the registration of private
institutions with three factors: "(1) the financial viability of institutions; (2) the quality of
program offerings; and (3) whether the provision is in the public interest" (National Plan

The 1999 and 2000 Higher Education Acts also, in part, called for the registration
of private institutions. Both Acts provided that the Director General of the Ministry of
Education must designate an employee of the ministry as registrar of private higher
education institutions. According to the 2000/2001 Council on Higher Education (CHE)
annual report, the amendments to the 2000 Higher Education Act strengthened the regulatory framework for private institutions by:

First, to remove ambiguities about who is a provider of HE, the Act states that:

'to provide higher education' means:

(a) the registering of students for:

(i) complete qualifications at or above level 5 of the National Qualifications Framework as contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Act, 1995 (Act 58 of 1995); or

(ii) such part of a qualification which meets the requirements of a unit standard as recognised by the South African Qualifications Authority at or above the level referred to in subparagraph (i);

(b) the taking of responsibility for the provision and delivery of the curricula;

(c) the assessment of students regarding their learning programmes; and

(d) the conferring of qualifications, in the name of the higher education institution concerned.

Second, private institutions must be registered or recognised as a juristic person in terms of the Companies Act. Third, to ensure that private institutions are also subject to the requirements of national planning towards a unified, co-ordinated and differentiated HE system, the Act empowers the Minister to 'prescribe the scope and range of operations, including the size and institutional configuration of private higher education institutions or individual private higher education institutions'. Finally, the Act stipulates that:

No private or independent education institution may call itself a university or technikon or confer a professorship of an honorary degree or use the titles of rector, vice-chancellor of chancellor, unless it is registered as a private university or a private technikon (CHE Annual Report 2000/2001).
The Council for Higher Education was given the authority to oversee the registration of all private universities, a responsibility it took over from the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) as of March 1st, 2001. It is important to note that the process of registering and monitoring all aspects of higher education institutions, including private institutions is carried out by the CHE and other educational bodies. Therefore, the role or function of the CHE and the various educational bodies will be described to provide an understanding of how the South African educational regulatory process works.

**Council on Higher Education (CHE)**

The Council on Higher Education is an independent statutory body established in May 1998 under terms of the Higher Education Act, No 101 of 1997, and the White Paper: A Program for the Transformation of Higher Education of 1997. The mission of the CHE is to contribute to the development of a higher education system characterized by quality, responsiveness, equity, and effective and efficient provision and management. The CHE seeks to make this contribution:

- by providing informed, considered, independent, strategic advice on higher education issues to the Minister of Education
- through the quality assurance activities of its Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC)
- through the publication and dissemination of information on developments in higher education, including an annual report to parliament on the state of higher education.

Source: (www.che.org.za/about/full_document.htm)

**The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)**

The South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) is a body of 29 members appointed by the Ministers of Education and Labor. Its members are nominated by
identified national stakeholders in education and training. The functions of the SAQA are essentially twofold:

- To oversee the development of the NQF, by formulating and publishing policies and criteria for the registration of bodies responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications and for the accreditation of bodies responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of such standards and qualifications;
- To oversee the implementation of the NQF by ensuring the registration, accreditation and assignment of functions to the bodies referred to above, as well as the registration of national standards and qualifications on the framework. It must also take steps to ensure that provisions for accreditation are complied with and where appropriate, that registered standards and qualifications are internationally comparable (http://www.saqa.org.za/)

**National Qualification Framework (NQF)**

The NQF is a framework i.e. it sets the boundaries - a set of principles and guidelines, which provide a vision, a philosophical base and an organizational structure - for construction, in this case, of a qualifications system. Detailed development and implementation is carried out within these boundaries. It is national because it is a national resource, representing a national effort at integrating education and training into a unified structure of recognized qualifications. It is a framework of qualifications i.e. records of learner achievement. In short, the NQF is the set of principles and guidelines by which records of learner achievement are registered to enable national recognition of acquired skills and knowledge, thereby ensuring an integrated system that encourages life-long learning. (http://www.saqa.org.za/html/nqf/nqfhome.htm)
**National Standards Board (NSB)**

The NSB is a body registered in terms of section 5 (1) (a) (ii) of the Act, responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications, and to which specific functions relating to the registration of national standards and qualifications have been assigned in terms of 5(1) (b) (i) of the Act. (http://www.saqa.org.za/html/nqf/nsb/nsbhome.htm.)

**Education & Training Quality Assurance Board (ETQA)**

The ETQA is an accredited body under terms of section 5 (1) (a) (ii) of the Act, responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of national standards and qualifications, and to which specific functions relating to monitoring and auditing of national standards and qualifications have been assigned in term of section 5 (1) (b) (i) of the Act. (http://www.saqa.org.za/html/nqf/etqa/etqhahome.htm).

**Standards Generating Bodies (SGB)**

The SGB is a body registered in terms of section 5(1) (a) (ii) of the Act, responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications, and to which specific functions relating to the establishing of national standards and qualifications have been assigned in terms of section 5 (1) (b) (i) of the Act. (http://www.saqa.org.za/html/nqf/sgb/sgbhome.htm)

One of the reasons for the passages of the 1999 and 2000 Higher Education Acts was that although the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 called for the registration of private institutions, the government did not expect the rush of significant number of private institutions in such a short time period. However, while private institutions were opening up campuses, the public sector still had significant number of enrollment space for secondary school students planning to enter higher education. In fact, the NCHE had
predicted an increase in enrollment in public institutions. This decline in enrollment in public institutions caused concern among members of the public institutions and the Department of Education. This was due to the fact that although higher education enrollment in the country was increasing, it was primarily occurring in private institutions, many of which provided “mediocre” programs, while some of the public institutions were actually losing enrollments during this same period.

The NCHE had predicted that the number of secondary school graduates would increase from 89,000 in 1994 to 130,000 in 1998. Instead, the predicted figure dropped from 89,000 in 1994 to 69,000 in 1998 (Gilleland & Merisotis, 2000. P.36).

**Table 1**
Number of High School Graduates Enrolling in South Africa Higher Education 1994-1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School-leavers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obtaining</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full matriculation</td>
<td>89,000</td>
<td>79,000</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>69,000</td>
<td>69,000</td>
<td>-22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCHE projection</td>
<td>89,000</td>
<td>98,000</td>
<td>118,000</td>
<td>130,000</td>
<td>130,000</td>
<td>46.07%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In 1995, the total enrollment in universities and technikons was 569,000. By June 1999 that figure had declined to 564,000. That was a negative 6.78% decline (Table 2).

**Table 2**
Tertiary Enrollment in South Africa 1995 to 1999

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>384,000</td>
<td>394,000</td>
<td>397,000</td>
<td>372,000</td>
<td>-6.30%</td>
<td>-3.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technikons</td>
<td>185,000</td>
<td>202,000</td>
<td>208,000</td>
<td>192,000</td>
<td>-7.69%</td>
<td>3.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>569,000</td>
<td>596,000</td>
<td>605,000</td>
<td>564,000</td>
<td>-6.78%</td>
<td>-0.88%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>252,000</td>
<td>261,000</td>
<td>260,000</td>
<td>245,000</td>
<td>-5.77%</td>
<td>-2.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technikons</td>
<td>126,000</td>
<td>153,000</td>
<td>152,000</td>
<td>141,000</td>
<td>-7.24%</td>
<td>-11.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>378,000</td>
<td>414,000</td>
<td>412,000</td>
<td>386,000</td>
<td>-6.31%</td>
<td>2.12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Gilleland & Merisotis, 2000

Two factors cited for the decline in public higher education enrollment in South Africa are the drop in enrollment of white student in universities and the rise in the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the country. Merten (2000) notes that research findings of two South African professors, Dr. George Subotzky, acting Director of the Education Policy Unit at the University of the Western Cape (UWC), and Professor David Cooper, Research Associate of the Education Policy Unit and of the University of Cape Town’s Department of Sociology, show that some 30,000 white students have left the university system, which has led an overall drop in white student enrollment at universities from around 150,000 in 1988 to around 125,000 in 1998. Another account estimated that the number of white students enrolled in the public system has declined from 229,000 in 1993 to a projected 186,000 in 2001 (Vergnani, 1999). Vergani reports that there are concerns in the public system as to where the white students are going. Vergnani notes that many white students seem to be convinced by perceptions of an increase in instability and decline in standards in public higher education system and as a result, are enrolling in private colleges and universities. The Institute for Higher Education Policy also reports that it is possible that private colleges and universities are attracting a disproportionate number of white students and other students who are able to pay the higher tuition fees charged at the private institutions. Vergnani cited a report that
claimed that the drop in number of white students in the public system had, "implications for the financial stability of higher education system, as white students represent a stable core of fee-paying students" (Vergnani, 1999. P.3).

However, it is important to be very cautious in making assertions that the white students who have left the public system in South Africa have transferred to the private sector because no complete or conclusive study has yet emerged to confirm these assumptions. Furthermore, the Department of Education has commissioned a research staff of the Education Policy Unit at the University of the Western Cape, headed by Prof. George Subotzky, to conduct a full study of the private higher education sector in South Africa. Also, Professors Subotzky and Cooper's research findings did not assume or conclude that white students have transferred to private institutions. They instead hypothesized that the decline in white student enrollments might be due to the following:

Impact of emigration, especially of English-speaking families. Other suggested reasons include the greater difficulty of securing a place of study with a low matric pass; the perception among many from conservative backgrounds that Africanization has caused a drop in standards; more flexible timetables and lower fees at private colleges; and the attitude of "work now, perhaps study later" (Merten, The Mail & Guardian, March 22, 2000).

In fact, findings of a small research study of 145 private higher education institutions in South Africa presented in November 2000, by Subotzky et al, of the Education Policy Unit of UWC, for a discussion document prepared for the CHE Annual Consultative Conference, titled *The Emergence of Private Higher Education in South Africa: Key Issues and Challenges*, has also been useful in warning those observing the development of private institutions to not rush in making any assumptions about not only whether white students are enrolling in private institutions rather than in the public system, but also many other assumptions or presumptions about the role or function and
the characteristics of private institutions. For example, in regards to whether white
students are enrolling in private institutions instead of in the public system, Subotzky et
al., point out that, based solely on those 145 private institutions (Table 4), their findings
reveal that of the estimated 108,700 enrolled from 1998-2000, there are actually more
African students (39%) enrolled in those institutions than any other group. The white
student enrollment in those 145 private institutions sampled is 16%. It is useful to note
that 37% of students enrolled in private institutions in that sample are classified as
unknown (Subotzky et al. 2000. P.4-5). That means that the students in that particular
group could be of any race.

Table 4

Percentages of Reported Student Full-time Equivalent (FTE) Enrollments in Private
Institutions, South Africa (1998-2000) (n=145)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>African</th>
<th>Colored</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Unknown</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39%</td>
<td></td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: Subotzky et al. warns “Source for this and all subsequent tables and figures
unless otherwise indicated: EPU database compiled from Department of
Education records of data submitted as part of application for registration. Notes:
(1) It should constantly be borne in mind that, clearly, FTEs were not accurately
calculated in all cases. (2) These data do not relate to a single year but ranged
from 1998 to 2000, with no date provided at all in a substantial number of cases.
For this reason, no date is provided in the tables and figures which follow.
The second factor cited for the decline in enrollment in public institutions in South Africa is the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The number of people in South Africa between the ages 15 to 49 living with HIV/AIDS at the end of 1999 was estimated at 4.1 million. Also during 1999, it was estimated that 250,000 South Africans had died of AIDS (World Health Organization, Statistics, 2001). These HIV/AIDS figures in South Africa mean that secondary school students projected to be enrolled in public universities might have either died of AIDS or are too sick to attain an education. In addition, the Shape and Size Task Team of the CHE supported this claim when it was quoted as saying that, “The HIV and AIDS pandemic which has started to show its devastating effects by claiming large numbers of students who are only in their most productive years and in good academic standing (prospective students and those already in the system) (Mapesela, 2002. P.12).

In July 1999, private institutions accused the South African Department of Education of bowing to pressure from public universities and technikons, which they say feel threatened by private institutions. The accusations were made after the Department of Education refused the request of five private institutions that wanted to be recognized as universities until an investigation is completed (Pretorius, 1999). Pretorius reported that the South African Department of Education claims to have the responsibility to make certain that the status of universities and technikons do not lose their value. Pretorius quoted the Chief Executive Officer of the NCHE, Professor Saleem Badat as saying, “The registration of private institutions created a new ballgame which the legislators didn’t think about before.”

Privatization and globalization are part of the reason for the rush of foreign institutions to South Africa. Some of the foreign institutions are reported to be rushing to
South Africa to respond to new markets. Speaking about the new partnerships between foreign universities using local infrastructure, the South African Minister of Education, said that:

To put it bluntly, higher education has been commodified and transform into a service to be bought and sold. ... These relationships contribute little to the development of the teaching or research capacity of the local partner...These collaborations often result in a compromise of quality, the students who are often short-changed in such arrangements are in the main black and poor. If global engagement not guided by national objectives it risks the danger of entrenching the unequal power relations that have characterized the relationship between the developed and the developing worlds for far too long. (Jones, 2000).

The South African Deputy Director-General of higher education, Professor Nasima Badsha, also asserted that:

Foreign institutions posed a particular threat to public universities. They mostly operate in a narrow range of areas, especially IT, business and commerce, 'cherry picking' financially lucrative courses without the obligation of offering the full range of disciplines. Public universities found themselves losing income-earning courses they use to cross subsidize expensive disciplines such as music and art, medicine and economic development (The Futures Project, 2000).

South Africa is currently experiencing both the benefits and challenges of privatization and globalization. It has political and economic systems that attract both privatization and globalization, but these systems usually come into conflict with issues of national objectives or nationalism. This is an especially sensitive issue for many developing nations that were once colonized by Western countries. They encourage foreign investments in their countries but have to balance the serious issues that come with such invitations with national interests.

Scholars studying South African higher education in the post-apartheid era have pointed out the potential problems caused by privatization and globalization and efforts by nations to protect national interests. Stetar discusses the issues of globalization and
nationalism, in regards to quality assurance efforts in South African higher education. He defined nationalism as the “promotion of the culture, economy and national interests of one nation as opposed to subordinate areas of other nations or supranational groups or organizations”. Stetar points out that “these forces are also impacting in subtle and not so subtle ways upon the deliberations regarding national policies, legislation and development of a South African quality assurance system for higher education.” The concerns expressed by South Africans who are critical of the establishment of private institutions in their country confirm the problem that Stetar points out. For example, to South African public education officials, quality in higher education does not mean “cherry picking” of programs as the South African Deputy Director-General of higher education, Professor Nasima Badsha, expressed. To her quality should include providing diverse academic programs. In addition, if the claim that white students and well off black students are enrolling in private institutions were true, it would be a difficult challenge for South African universities to become major research institutions since they are losing tuition revenues because of the reduction in enrollment, and they might also be losing students with high academic potential. This makes it more important for public universities and the South African Department of Education to develop an adequate regulatory system for the establishment of private institutions. Subotzky et al., provided an excellent analysis of the privatization and globalization issues as they pertain to South African Higher system by noting that:
South Africa's post-apartheid re-entry into the global arena coincided with the intensification of globalization in the early 1990s and with it the increasing deregulation of world markets as part of the neo-liberal world order. The demise of apartheid led to the consequent lifting of sanctions and relaxation of trade controls. International linkages, which had previously been precluded on moral grounds, became possible. As indicated, this led to the internationalization of higher education, accompanied by rapid advances in information and communications technologies under these conditions, many foreign institutions sought international markets for the export of their educational services directly or through inter-institutional linkages. As part of this trend, public institutions in South Africa entered into a complex range of collaborative agreements and partnerships with both local and foreign private institutions. The absence of an adequate regulatory and legislative framework opened the way to South Africa becoming one of the freest markets for the internationalization of HE (Subotzky et al., Nov. 2000. P.14).

One might ask that if the establishment of private institutions is undermining the public sector in South Africa as it has been claimed, why then does the government not prevent them from opening campuses in the country? The answer to this question may be found in the emergence of the privatization and globalization of developing countries. Before explaining this in detail, it will be important to first provide examples of privatization and globalization activities that have taken place in South Africa since 1994. Louw (1999) reports that the government of South Africa has privatized several publicly operated utilities. For example, the former South African Railway & Harbors Administration (SAR&H), the country's biggest organization next to the national government, was divided into seven major and few lesser subsidiaries. Some of the activities of SAR&H, such as airport buses, porters and catering shifted to private control. In addition, some railway tracks and rolling stock (trains), such as the Banana Express and Apple Express near Port Elizabeth, were fully privatized. According Louw, even local governments are privatizing. For example, the city of Welkom privatized over 30 municipal functions.
South Africa has the potential to become a major player in globalization within this decade. Sullivan (2000) describes globalization as the increasing integration of the economy, based on five interrelated drivers of change. These drivers of change are:

- International trade (lower trade barriers and more competition)
- Financial flows (foreign direct investment, technology transfers/licensing, portfolio investment, and debt)
- Communications (traditional media and the Internet)
- Technological advances in transportation, electronics, bioengineering, and related fields
- Population mobility, especially of labor

Today’s South Africa possesses all of the above drivers of globalization. In 1999, the total foreign direct investments (inward) in South Africa was $1.4 billion. It is useful to note that in 1997, the total foreign investments (inward) in South Africa was substantially higher than the 1999 figures. In 1997, foreign direct investment (inward) in South Africa was $3.8 billion (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 2000). This means that even though foreign investors have confidence in South Africa’s market economy and its political stability to invest that amount of money in the country, they have reduced their investments while international organizations, such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Trade Organization (WTO) continue to encourage the country to participate in globalization and privatization.

The answer to the question of why the government of South Africa could not prevent foreign private higher education institutions from opening in the country might also be in the drivers of globalization provided by Sullivan. South Africa, like Malaysia became a member of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995. There are more than 141 members of the WTO, a trade organization that promotes trade and various trade benefits and privileges to its members (www.wto.org, 2001). However, in order to join
the WTO, a nation must be willing to give up some of its autonomy or sovereignty. The laws of the WTO make it a challenge for the South African government to prevent the massive establishment of private institutions from opening in the country. It is even more difficult to stop these foreign institutions if the countries from which they originated are members of the WTO. Furthermore, South Africa’s constitution prohibits discrimination against foreign institutions and some foreign institutions seeking university status have threatened to take the conflict with the Education Ministry to a WTO court (MacGregor, 2000).

Another reason that might be provided to answer the question of why the South African government is having problems with controlling the establishment of private institutions is that, according to Mapesela, in an International Association of Universities conference in Durban, South Africa, in 2000, “...allegations were made that the current legislation regarding registration and control of private colleges was not tight enough and did not protect the education system from outside competitors” (Mapesela, 2000. P.3). If this allegation is true, it might be because the government of South Africa is trying to reduce its government funding of education, particularly higher education. The government of South Africa spends huge sums of money in education. For example, Smit (1998) points out that:

Spending on education (R46.8 billion for 1997/98) already represents 22.8% of total government spending. In comparison it is of the highest in the world and, in view of the needs for social and health services, it will be difficult to increase it at a higher rate than economic growth (below 2% in 1997), while learner numbers increase at a rate of more than 4% per annum. Consequently it is clear that private education will have to play a bigger role, lessening the load on the shoulders of government, to prepare the great number of learners for a knowledge-driven and knowledge-dependent world, should South Africa want to remain competitive with the rest of the world (Smit, 1998. P.1).
This brings us to the concerns of officials of public institutions about the role of private institutions in South Africa. As pointed out, South Africa has opened up to both privatization and globalization, including allowing foreign private higher education institutions to establish their campuses in the country. In fact, Smit (1998) points out that private higher education institutions in South Africa fall under the category of companies or corporations and that some of them are listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE). That is part of the reason why MacGregor (2000) points out that some of the private institutions have threatened to sue the South African Department of Education in a WTO court. This makes it even more important for officials of the Department of Education to thoroughly investigate any private institution seeking to establish in the country. That is because unlike other types of businesses, education, especially tertiary education, plays a very essential role in any country and those in charge of overseeing it must make sure that the rules that apply to other businesses do not apply to the provision of private higher education.

Mapesela (2002) notes that it is important that South Africa or any other African country to embrace globalization, but must do so with caution. He points out that in South Africa, globalization might cause some problems for its higher education system. According to Mapesela:

One of the obvious but serious catches is the fact that globalization and internationalization may be placing pressure on the country and its education system, especially on public higher education institutions. The notable loss of popularity of our public higher education denotes just one of the irregularities, which are gradually becoming the norm for this country. Unfortunately this happens at the time when outcries for globalization and internationalization cannot stop echoing in everyone's ears and when the calls for countries to join in global ventures are intensifying. Public higher education institutions, particularly Historically Disadvantaged Institutions (HDIs), are grappling for sustainable numbers of students and are consequently losing out on government subsidy and
funding, while private colleges—some of which are a product of this open boundary system (foreign ones) continue to encroach upon higher education, claiming large numbers of students and seemingly reshaping public higher education (Mapesela, 2002. P.1-2).

According to Mapesela, the HDIs which depend heavily on the government for subsidy based on students enrollment numbers are hit hardest by the proliferation of private institutions and the decline in their enrollment numbers. For example, “Government grants for teachers have also decreased, as they are determined on the basis of teacher-student ratio. Many teachers have been retrenched from their jobs well and fees for students have been increased, thereby making it difficult for the few students that choose to remain in public institutions to do so” (Mapesela, 2000. P.11). This issue is very important because South Africa is not only a multi-ethnic and multi-racial society, but it was just in 1994 that it had its first democratic election and it should be taken into account that public universities are working hard to help unite the country by introducing academic programs that emphasize diversity. Private institutions must also be required to incorporate these types of programs in their curricula to continue these nation-building programs.

Another reason for concern pertaining to the public higher education sector in South Africa is a point made by Smit that, “Subsection (3) [of the South African Constitution] does not preclude state subsidies for private institutions.” It is quite possible that in the future, private institutions with influence that are accredited and authorized by the South African Department of Education to operate in the country, might utilize that constitutional loophole to seek government grants for the operation of their institutions. In fact, this scenario is reported to be occurring in a small scale in the public-private partnerships, one of the types of privatization (which will be discuss in the
types of private institutions section of this chapter) of higher education currently practiced in South Africa. According to the South African Department of Education, with regards to this public-private partnership issue, “The staff of the public institutions often have personal financial interests in the private provider or act as advisors or even work for the provider. The state subsidy is either shared with the private provider or, in some cases, accrues to the public institution, with additional royalties payable by the private provider based on turnover. In such cases, therefore, it would appear that the public institution claims a subsidy when essentially all it does is to register students and issue certificates (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb. 2001. 4.6). This should be an issue that both stakeholders in public institutions and the government, through the Department of Education must quickly try to address or else in the decades to come, only the most influential public and private institutions might be able to receive government subsidies.

_Private Higher Education Enrollment and Types of Institutions in Malaysia and South Africa._

**Malaysia**

Malaysian private higher education has experienced rapid enrollment growth since the 1980’s. The increase is due largely to the establishment of numerous private institutions by local and international organizations due to the limited number of space for secondary school graduates. It is important to note that there are two groups of students in Malaysia according to ethnicity. They are Bumiputra and non-Bumiputra students. For example, as pointed out in earlier in this chapter, in 1992, the shortage of places for secondary school graduates was estimated to be 150,000. It was revealed that
among the non-Bumiputra students, 15% of qualified students were accepted in local higher education institutions, another 15% went overseas to study, and the remaining 70% enrolled in local private colleges (Lee, 1999, p.3). According to Lee, qualified non-Bumiputra students have difficulties in gaining admission to the local public universities because of a government quota policy, which is in favor of Bumiputra students.

Private higher education enrollment in Malaysia increased from 15,000 students (9.1%) in 1985 to 127,594 (34.7%) students in 1995. According to Lee, out of a total 367,214 students enrolled in higher education in 1995 (Table 5), 34% were enrolled in private institutions, 13.8% were studying overseas, and the remaining 51.5% were enrolled in local public institutions. The government of Kenya experienced a similar situation with its higher education system. Like Malaysia, Kenya passed higher education laws that call for the establishment of private institution (chapters 3 & 4).

**Table 5**

**Estimates of total numbers of students at the tertiary level, 1985-1995**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>1985</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Institutions</td>
<td>86,000</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>122,340</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>189,020</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overseas Institutions</td>
<td>63,000</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>73,000</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>50,600</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Institutions</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>35,600</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>127,594</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>164,000</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>230,940</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>367,214</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


By 1999, there were 591 private colleges, 6 local private universities and 3 branch campuses of foreign universities in operation in Malaysia (New Sunday Times, Sep. 26, 1999). According to Lee, out of the 591 private colleges, 17 of them offered “3+0” programs. The types of institutions and programs in the Malaysian private higher education sector is very diverse. There are two categories of private institutions in
Malaysia: profit making institutions and non-profit private institutions. The profit-making institutions are set up by:

- an individual proprietor
- a private company
- a consortium of companies
- a publicly listed company
- government corporations

Non-profit private institutions are setup by foundations and community support organizations. According to Lee, a 1994 survey of 227 private institutions in Malaysia showed that 136 institutions were multi-discipline, 29 were engineering institutes, 27 were business institutes, 10 were arts and design institute, and 10 computer studies institutes and the remaining 15 were either hotel catering and management institute, language centers, law institutes or medical colleges (Lee, 1999. P.4-7).

A significant number of Malaysian private institutions are linked with foreign institutions. According to Lee, the foreign-linked programs are divided into the following categories:

- Twinning degree program
- Credit transfer degree program
- Advanced standing program (validation)
- External degree program
- Distance learning program
- Joint program
Within these programs, local private institutions establish agreements with foreign institutions to confer degrees to students. For example, the twinning degree program involves an agreement between a local private college and one foreign institution or a consortium to run a split-site program beginning in the college in Malaysia and then transferring to the overseas institution for the completion of the program. The foreign institutions provide the curriculum, testing, and the institutional standards of the program. The curriculum taught in the local college in Malaysia in the initial stage of the program is exactly the same as that taught in the foreign institution. After completion of both segments of the program, students would receive their degrees from the foreign institution.

**South Africa**

At the present moment, there are no accurate estimates of the size and shape of the private higher education sector in South Africa. The Ministry of Education in South Africa is currently registering private institutions and as pointed out has commissioned a team of scholars to study the entire private higher education sector. A variety of estimates, however, have been provided pertaining to the total enrollment in private institutions. According to the NCHE, in 1996, there were approximately 200,000 students enrolled in private institutions (NCHE. Discussion Document Framework for Transformation, April 9, 1996). Smit (1998) estimates that about 500,000 students were enrolled in private institutions and it grows at more than 30% annually. Another account claims that there are more than 20,000 full-time students enrolled in private institutions with hundreds of thousands of part-time students (MacGregor, 2000). However, according to the Department of Education, "An initial assessment of the data at hand
suggest that the private higher education sector may not be as large as is commonly thought. Apart from the fact that there is duplication in the enrollment data as many of the students are in practice enrolled formally with public institutions as part of public-private agreements,...” (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb., 2001. 4.6). Subotzky et al. also reiterated this point in their study. Of the 145 private institutions studied, Subotzky et al. estimate that the total number of students enrolled in private institutions from 1998 to 2000 in that sample is 108,700 (Subotzky et al., Nov. 2000).

Although a complete or conclusive study of the types of private institutions in South Africa is not yet available, findings of preliminary studies have provided a glimpse of the kinds of private institutions which are operating in the country. According to Subotzky et al., there was an estimated 350 institutions operating in the private sector from 1998 to 2000. These private institutions included public institutions in collaborative partnerships with private providers. During that same period, according to Subotzky et al., the estimated total number of private institutions without the public-private partnership institutions was 323. It is useful to note that as of November 30th, 2001, the Department of Education has fully registered 97 private institutions (www.education.pwv.gov.za/DoE_Sites/Higher_Education).

According to the Department of Education, a growing number of foreign or overseas universities, mainly from Australia and the United Kingdom have shown interest in opening campuses in South Africa. The Department claims that four private foreign higher education institutions have been registered. However, the Department notes that it is:
concerned that the rapid expansion of foreign institutions, especially in fields of study that are already well provided for by public and local private institutions, may adversely impact on the public higher education system at a time when the latter is undergoing fundamental restructuring. The Ministry will continue to monitor the impact of overseas institutions on the sustainability of the higher education system as a whole, and, if necessary, make appropriate policy adjustments (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb. 2001. 4.6).

Examples of foreign institutions operating in South Africa are Monash University from Australia and the London School of Business, South Africa. Academic degrees of the London School of Business in South Africa are awarded by the University of London, located in the United Kingdom.

According to Subotzky et al., the 145 private institutions studied show that private institutions in South Africa consist of for-profit and non-profit and corporate ownership: "The available information shows that approximately 43 of the 145 institutions examined are owned by five JSE-listed companies and that their share of the private HE market in terms of reported FTE enrolments amounts to 65 352 or 60% of the total reported. It should also be noted that not all for-profit institutions are listed on the JSE" (Subotzky et al., 2000. P.11). Describing the public-private partnership, Subotzky et al. note that the market environment in South Africa has witnessed a complex array of partnership and collaborative relations that have proliferated between local and international private and public institutions. According to Subotzky et al.:

In large part, the recent rapid growth of the private sector in terms of expanding enrolments and the conspicuous increase in the number of PHE institutions have arisen through inter-institutional collaboration. It is estimated that almost half of the reported FTE enrolments in the sector are in institutions which are involved in collaborative agreements. Participating institutions in these partnerships perform different aspects of the range of academic and administrative functions in the education process: program development and curriculum design; program provision or delivery (tuition or tuition support); program dissemination (the administrative circulation of program materials); the accreditation of institutions
and programs; student assessment; certification; and membership of accrediting bodies or professional institutes. Programs are either delivered by the owner/developers themselves or by others acting as agents for them. In the latter case, the owner/developers operate as franchisers of programs. Public, as well as local or transnational private institutions function as such. Agents therefore act as franchises of these programs. In many cases, this occurs in tuition centers (Subotzky et al. Nov. 2000. P.11).

The South African Department of Education has expressed concerns about the role of both the single-purpose and public-private partnerships of the private higher education sector. According to the Department, "... it appears that in many cases private providers who purport to be offering higher education programs are, in effect, providing further education and training programs or a mix of higher and further education programs" (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb. 2001. 4.6). Data provided by Subotzky et al. for the 145 private institutions studied support the Department of Education’s assumption. Reported FTE enrollments by NQF level show that 78% of enrollments (of the estimated 108,700 student) were in Level 5, which is the diploma and certificate level. Fourteen percent of enrollment was in Level 6, the first degree level, Six percent in Level 7, the masters degree level, less than 1% in Level 8, and two percent of enrollment were unknown. In addition it was revealed that the majority of the level 5 enrollments, 42% (45,270), were at the certificate level, while the remaining enrollments, 37% (39,773) in this category were in the diploma level (Subotzky et al., Nov. 2000. p.8).

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reported FTE Enrollments by NQF Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 5: Diploma &amp; Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Addressing the issue of public-private partnerships of higher education, especially in their delivery of distance education programs, the South African Department of Education notes that it is concerned about the quality and relevance of those programs. Furthermore, included in the Department's investigation it had commissioned regarding this issues are the following:

- Although the public institution registers the students and provides the course materials, the private providers provide the tuition and administrative support with little or no quality control by the public institution.
- The rights and claims of the students on the public institution are often limited despite the fact that the public institution receives a State subsidy for the enrolled students. Thus, for example, in some cases, the students do not have access to the facilities, including libraries and laboratories, of the public institution.
- The public institution is often absolved of any financial obligations for the students it registers. Thus in some instances, the private provider determines the fee structure for the students and also provides loans through subsidiary financial institutions.
- There appears to be very little protection afforded to students in the event that the partnership agreement is terminated or revoked (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb. 2001. 4.6.1.)

As a result, the Department concluded that:

The partnership agreements between public institutions and private providers clearly requires regulating. The Ministry will therefore not fund student places from 2002 in existing new contact or distance programs that are offered as part of public-private partnerships unless the programs have been approved as part of the institution's three-year “rolling” plans. Institutions will also have to seek approval for the introduction of programs for which State subsidies are not required. The approval of programs will depend on the fit between the program and the institution's mission, including institutional capacity, whether it addresses regional and/or national needs, whether it meets the quality assurance criteria of the HEQC and whether the public institution concerned takes full academic responsibility for the program and students enjoy all the benefits that come with registration at the public higher education institution (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb. 2001. 4.6.1.)

It is also becoming clear that private institutions in South Africa are not offering diverse curricula that meet national needs. According to the Department of Education, the large numbers of private institutions only provide academic programs with high
economic returns. Some of those programs include technology, business and commerce, beauty therapy, and hospitality. Those programs, claims the Department, are provided primarily at the pre-higher education level, meaning either at the grade 12 or first year-diploma levels (National Plan for Higher Education, Feb., 2001. 4.6). For example, utilizing the data of the 145 private institutions studied by Subotzky et al., the reported FTE enrollments by predominant SAQA field revealed that 48% of the estimated 108,700 students were enrolled in Business, Commerce & Management studies programs, followed by 24% enrollment in Education, Training and Development, and 9% were enrolled in Physical, Mathematical, Computer & Life Sciences. The remaining 19% were enrolled across other fields, with each totaling 4% or less (Subotzky et al. Nov. 2000. P.7)

**Table 7**


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business, Commerce &amp; Management Studies</th>
<th>Education, Training &amp; Development</th>
<th>Physical, Mathematical, Computer &amp; Life Sciences</th>
<th>All other fields (each &lt;4%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: Estimated number of students = 108,700

In addition, explaining the distinction between the single and multi-focus institutions,

Subotzky et al. report that:
out of the 145 private institutions studied, approximately 98 (68%) of them offer academic programs in only one field. "Several more offer predominantly one field (with enrolments of 80% or above in one field) – most cases business. However, these include the transnational, which are multifunctional in their country of origin, but offer only one field in their operations in this country. Almost half (51 342 or 47%) of reported FTE enrolments appeared to be in multi-purpose 'colleges' and a further quarter of the total (27 307 or 25%) are enrolled in single-focus institutions (Subotzky et al., Nov. 2000. P.6).

Even though Subotzky et al. warned that one must be careful about making quick generalizations or assumptions about the characteristics of private institutions in South Africa until a complete study is done, their study illustrates that the Department of Education and especially stakeholders in public institutions, have reasons to be concerned. That is due to the fact that for the most part the study shows that private institutions are providing academic programs that the public institutions already offer on their campuses. Furthermore, it appears as the Department points out that if strict measures are not taken immediately, there is potential that South African higher education might lose its international reputation.

**Financing Private Higher Education in Malaysia and South Africa**

One of the primary reasons for the encouragement of private higher education by many governments in developing countries is because it is through the establishment of private institutions that the responsibility of funding tends to shift from government to parents and students and the organizations that establish the private institutions. According to higher education laws, the private higher education sectors of Malaysia and South Africa do not receive funding from their governments. The only legal form of government support to private institutions in these countries is through loans to students who are citizens. Some students also qualify for some types of financial aid and Work-Study programs at their institutions. The private institutions themselves rarely receive any
financial help from the governments in these countries. Since many of the private
institutions in these three countries have links with overseas institutions, part of their
requirements is to show proof of financially sustaining themselves.

Malaysia

Before the introduction of twinning or split programs where students will attend
private institutions in Malaysia that were set up by foreign colleges and universities and
later attend those institutions in the home countries to finish their programs, the cost of
financing one student's higher education for one year was very expensive. As pointed out
by Lee, in 1995, it was estimated that the cost of the 50,600 Malaysian students studying
abroad was estimated at $1 billion in foreign exchange. According to Lee, Malaysian
students studying in the foreign-linked programs such as the twinning programs save
about $4,000 to $10,000 annually. For example, the cost of tuition and living expenses
for one academic year for a Malaysian student majoring in Business in an Australia
institution is estimated at $7,903. If that same student enrolls in the twinning program
the costs reduces significantly to $3,840. The average annual living expenses for
twinning programs in Malaysia (table 9) is $4,800. The average annual living expenses
for an overseas program in any field is over $6,700 (Lee, p.14). The countries involved
in the twinning programs with Malaysian institutions include Canada, the United States,
Australia and New Zealand.
### Table 8
Comparisons of average cost per year of first degree between twinning programs and overseas programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Fields of Study</th>
<th>Average tuition fees (US$)</th>
<th>Average Living cost (US$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Per year</td>
<td>Twinning</td>
<td>Overseas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>US$</td>
<td>US$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>3,840</td>
<td>7,903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>11,504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Computer Sc.</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>5,462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.Z.</td>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>2,800</td>
<td>7,578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>2,760</td>
<td>8,843</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Students in private universities can obtain student loans provided by the Malaysian government. Furthermore, private institutions provide scholarships to students enrolled in their institutions. For example, the Malaysian Association of Private Colleges (MAPCO) has a scholarship program that aims to help academically deserving and needy students (www.studymalaysia.com/mapco/scholarship/index.htm).

**South Africa**

As noted in previous sections of this chapter, there has not yet been a formal estimate of the average student tuition costs at private institutions in South Africa. The South African Department of Education is compiling a variety of statistics about private colleges and universities, including student tuition and fees, that will be available in the near future. However, according to an official of Monash University, an Australian private institution that was allowed to operate in South Africa in 2000, full-time students on its Johannesburg campus pay an estimated $4,775 annually (Maslen, 2000). Another
account claims that tuition fees for private institutions in South Africa tend to be 30 to 50 percent higher than those for state or public institutions (MacGregor, 2000).

Unlike public institutions, private institutions do not receive any funding from the South African government. A strict requirement that must be fulfilled by any private institution that wishes to open a campus in the country is that it must show proof that it is financially able to support itself through tuition and other means. However, South African students enrolled in private institutions that are recognized by the government qualify for loans from the National Student Financial Aid System (NSFAS) (Green Papers, 1996). As pointed out in this chapter, the South African Department of Education quickly put a hold on public-private partnerships when an investigation revealed that the private providers in the agreements were indirectly receiving public funding at the expense of students and the public system as a whole.

The economic systems of Malaysia and South Africa are strong enough to allow students and parents to pay for private higher education. Even though South Africa showed an unemployment rate of 30% in 2000, its economy is in a position to provide opportunities to students who wish to attend private institutions to come up with the tuition. Malaysia’s unemployment rate of less than three percent and its per capita GDP of more than $10,000 have made it possible for Malaysians to be able to pay for their private higher education. In addition, Malaysia’s economic system is so vibrant that large corporations are allowed by the government to establish their own private institutions to train their own engineers and technologists. These corporations in the past had to send potential employees overseas to study in higher education institutions (Ayob and Yaakub, 1999). Kenya on the other hand currently does not have the necessary
economic base that Malaysia and South Africa have to open opportunities for its people to attain private higher education. For a country with over 30 million people with just over $45.6 billion GDP in 2000 and a per capita GDP of $1,500 (CIA World Factbook, 2001) means that access to private higher education is primarily limited to the rich. However, Kenyans have shown extraordinary efforts with all the economic difficulties they confront to pursue higher education. It is important that the Kenyan government and its entire higher education system pay close attention to private higher education activities currently occurring in Malaysia and South Africa for future lessons.

**Conclusion**

The nation of Malaysia has made considerable efforts to encourage the establishment of private higher education institutions. Malaysia is benefiting enormously from the establishment of private institutions because it has created the political and economic atmosphere that produce significant benefits to students enrolled in private institutions because they are readily provided with jobs after graduation. Malaysia's unemployment rate of 2.8% is proof of that sound educational policy. Moreover, the government benefits from the establishment of private institutions in several ways. First, it shifts the responsibility of funding some of its citizens' education by introducing private institutions where students and their institutions provide most of the funding. Second, the government benefits from creating a system in which Malaysian students through twinning degree programs could travel overseas to study and come back home with a different cultural perspectives. It is useful to note that this is very important because Malaysian students who study in foreign countries that have corporations that operate in
Malaysia could easily work for those corporations because the students are familiar with both cultures.

In South Africa, the government and many stakeholders in public institutions have all called for the establishment of private institutions. However, their concern of the rapid massive establishment of "mediocre" and unregulated private institutions must be immediately addressed. This chapter has shown that South Africa has made considerable efforts to become part of the globalization process and privatization, including higher education. It is very important that international organizations such as the WTO and the World Bank do not undermine the South African higher educational system. The threat of suing the South African Department of Education in a WTO court, by some private institutions because they want to have a university status as reported by MacGregor (2000), is one example, in which such international organizations must be careful in dealing with certain countries. South Africa has not only created a world class political and economic system, it is also a very important country not only to its neighbors in the Southern African region, but to the entire continent. South Africa today plays far more vital economic and political roles in many African countries than the European nations (United Kingdom, France, Belgium, and Portugal) that colonized them.

As pointed out in this chapter, many African Countries depend heavily on South Africa for trade and in other political issues. Most of these economic and political strengths of South Africa are primarily as a result of the solid education system it has built. A minor economic and political problem in South Africa could directly result to major problems in many African countries. It is because of these factors that
international organizations such as the WTO and the World Bank must be very careful in applying their rules and regulations to particular countries. As pointed out by Mapesela:

there is substantial commonality in the forces for change in Africa, although the relative importance of each varies from one country to the next. In many respects, the pressures and demands for change in Africa are not unlike those in the rest of the world, but there are important differences of history as well as economic, social and political conditions”, which demand to be given careful consideration (Mapesela, 2002. P.7).

In this situation, South African has many reasons to be given significant considerations when it comes to international laws, especially dealing with higher education that might undermine the higher education system of that country. This is true especially with the establishment of poor academic private institutions in the country registered as companies or corporations, while protected by WTO or other international privatization laws. It has only been seven years since South Africa joined the International Community, and as a multi-ethnic and multi-racial society, its entire higher education system must play a vital role in building unity among these different groups in the country. What is more, the entire International Community must realize and never forget that hundreds of millions of Africans directly or indirectly depend on the well being or success of South Africa.
Chapter Eight

Conclusion
Introduction

Private higher education has played a significant role in developed and developing nations. Among the developed or advanced nations, Japan and the United States have established the leading private higher education sectors in the world. In developing nations, the Post World War II era has witnessed the growth in the establishment of significant private higher education sectors. The nation state of Kenya is among a large number of developing nations that have encouraged the establishment of private higher education institutions.

The research question of this study was to determine the function or role that the private higher education sector plays in Kenya. The study reveals that private universities in Kenya are making significant contributions in that society. They have made and continue to make a positive impact on the development of the country. In chapter two, a list of five variables (Access/Enrollment, Autonomy, Curriculum, Financing and Quality) provided by Geiger and Levy were utilized to examine private higher education sectors around the world including Kenya's private higher education sector. It is highly impossible to study private higher education without examining these variables. The subsidiary questions of this study comprised of these variables. The study reveals that Kenya's private higher education sector shows similarities and contrasts with private higher education sectors around the world. To present a clear understanding of the research and subsidiary questions of private universities in Kenya and their similarities and contrasts with other private higher education sectors across the globe, a summary of the five variables above and their functions were provided.
Access/Enrollment

The establishment of private universities in Kenya was to provide more enrollment access to the increase number of secondary school graduates seeking post secondary education. In utilizing Geiger’s classification of private higher education sectors, Kenya’s private higher education sector is currently in the comprehensive public and peripheral private sector in terms of enrollments.

The function or role of private universities in Kenya was not only limited to meet increased demands for enrollments. Unlike the types of private higher education institutions in Malaysia and South Africa, the types of institutions established in Kenya shows that another significant reason for establishment of private universities was to maintain the Christian faith in that country. Christians make up almost two-thirds of Kenya’s population and that is the reason why four of the five accredited private universities are religiously operated institutions. Moreover, it is not surprising that the newly established Kabarak University, owned by the president of Kenya is also said to emphasize strong Christian values. Kenya’s private universities’ emphasis on maintaining religious values is very similar to one of the three reasons for the creation of private universities in Latin American countries. In fact, as presented in chapter three, all eight private universities currently awaiting full accreditation in Kenya are Christian institutions. As Levy points out, private universities were established in Latin America to maintain Catholic tradition, to provide quality education for the sons and daughters of the “secular elite” and to provide secular education to non-elite students. It useful to note that even though Kenya has shown success in enrolling thousands of students in its four
private religious universities and its only private secular university, the United States International University, only students who come from elite or well-to-do families with some form of wealth can afford to attend those private institutions. Kenya has currently not been able to provide private higher education to poor students.

Chapter three reveals that the total number of Kenyans enrolled in its higher education institutions has increased significantly in the past four decades. However, due to the high increase in the nation’s population during that same period and the decline in the economy, especially in the past two decades, the proportion of students enrolled in higher education is a very small fraction (under 5%) of the total number of college aged students. In addition, the establishment of the American model of education increased the pressure to enroll more students due to the fact that secondary school students graduate and qualify a year earlier for university education. The estimated 20,000 Kenyans enrolled in foreign colleges and universities is also an indication that even though the declining economy is preventing college enrollments, Kenyans continue to make extraordinary efforts to attain higher education. Chapter one shows that private higher education sectors in many developing nations around the world have experienced similar increases in enrollments in recent decades. For example, chapter one reveals that the private higher education sectors in South East Asian nations, Latin America, India, and Jordan have substantially increased their enrollments. In Africa, Chapter Seven shows that the private higher education sectors in Malaysia and South Africa currently enrolls hundreds of thousands of students, creating future potential opportunities for those students in those nations.
**Financing**

One of the primary factors for the Kenyan government's call for the establishment of private universities was lack of money. The study showed that the government of Kenya could not afford to continue to construct more public universities to meet rapid enrollment demands. The higher education laws of Kenya clearly state that the government would not fund private universities. The only source of government funding for private universities in Kenya is that Kenyan citizens enrolled in private universities are eligible for student loans provided by a government agency.

The funding method of private universities in Kenya is similar to that in other countries such as Malaysia, South Africa or the United States. For example, in Malaysia, South Africa and the United States, private universities are not funded by the government. However, students enrolled in private universities are eligible for financial aid, including loans. It is useful to note that even though private universities in the United States are not funded by the government, many, however, do qualify for huge sums of government research grants. Will Kenya follow a similar trend in the decades to come? In Malaysia and South Africa, private universities do not receive funding from the government. However, as in Kenya and the United States students who are citizens that are enrolled in private universities in those nations are eligible for student loans. As the Malaysian and South African private higher education sectors develop and begin to conduct major research, will they start receiving government research grants as it is done the United States? It is important to note that there are private universities around the world that receive government funding. For example, in Japan where an estimated 80%
of students are enrolled in private universities the government provides funding for private universities. In India, both public and private institutions receive funding from the government.

Chapter four reveals that most of the funding for private universities in Kenya come from student tuition and fees. This shows that many poor secondary school students who are not accepted in public institutions but qualify academically to enroll in private universities could not afford to attend those private institutions due to their high tuition and fees. Kenya is not the only country where funding for private universities come primarily from students. For example, chapter one shows that funding for the operation of Indonesian private institutions comes primarily from students. Also chapter one reveals that in South Korea, where 75 percent of higher education students are enrolled in private institutions, students tuition and fees make up on average about 63.2 percent of all finances. In the Middle Eastern nation of Jordan, which is experiencing a rapid increase in enrollments in the private higher education sector, student tuition and fees make up most of the revenues needed for the operation of those institutions.

Curriculum and Quality

The issues of curriculum and quality in higher education institutions as discussed in Chapter Five indicate that Kenya has debated those issues in the past four decades. The chapter reveals that on the issue of curriculum, Kenyan private and public universities have followed the trend of producing significantly more graduates in the humanities, social sciences and religion than the medical and natural sciences. Eshiwani (1999) wrote that one of two problems of private universities when it comes to the issue
of curriculum is that they contribute “to the imbalance between science-and arts-based programs. Whereas public universities have reduced this imbalance to a ratio of 45:55, private universities are reversing this trend by concentrating their course offerings on art-based courses.” (p.34). Like the South African higher education system, the curricula of public institutions in Kenya are more diverse and meet more needs of students than the private institutions.

Ashby’s account of the heavy concentration in student enrollments in these areas in the early 1960’s could still be seen today in both private and public universities in Kenya. As noted in Chapter Five, Kenyan universities in the past four decades have also been able to produce a sizable number of graduates in the fields of medical and natural sciences. However, all of the accredited private universities in Kenya do not offer any curriculum in the medical and natural sciences. Also, the area of computer science is not given significant attention among academic programs at private universities in Kenya. The government of Kenya must encourage private universities to do more in providing academic programs in these areas. The diverse academic programs in the Private higher education sector in Malaysia could be seen as a model for Kenyan private institutions. The academic programs at private institutions in Malaysia are highly diverse. The academic majors and enrollment of students in the various academic fields are well balanced. What’s more, students enrolled in the twining programs in some of those private institutions have the opportunity to travel to branch institutions in countries such as New Zealand and Australia to finish the second part of their college education. This gives students the opportunity to utilize the more advanced laboratories and other resources in those institutions.
The decades long trend of producing more graduates in the humanities, social sciences and religion than the natural and medical sciences in African universities may continues to have current serious and future implications. For example, compared to other developing nations, African countries, including Kenya, have significantly very low ratios of medical doctors or nurses for every one hundred thousand people. For example, according to the 2001 UNDP Report, from 1992-95, the ratios of doctors and nurses per every one hundred thousand people in Kenya alone were 15 and 23, respectively. This severe lack of doctors and nurses in African countries has directly culminated in the death of millions of Africans from curable diseases such as measles, malaria and tuberculosis. Some might argue that the reason for the lack of trained doctors and nurses in African nations is due largely to wealth. However, it is important to note that there are nations around the world that lack wealth but have universities that produce significantly high numbers of doctors and nurses. A good example of such a nation is Cuba. According to the CIA World Factbook, Cuba’s per capita GDP of $1,700 in the year 2000 is very similar to those of many African countries. However, in Cuba the ratios of doctors and nurses per every one hundred thousand people from 1992-95 were 518 and 752, respectively. One direct benefit of this significant numbers of doctors and nurses is that even though Cuba is a developing nation, its estimated 7.39 infant mortality rate for the year 2001 is comparable to those in many developed countries of the world. Universities in Africa, and especially those in Kenya could learn from Cuban universities. Furthermore, a substantial number of gifted African university students in the natural and medical sciences fields continue to miss the opportunity of becoming the continent’s future scientists in these areas. These students have not been able to utilize their full
potential in order to have the opportunity to make significant medical contributions to help save the lives of millions of their own people.

As Prof. Mazrui points out in chapter five, it is important that African universities increase the teaching of languages such as Kiswahili and Arabic since hundreds of millions of Africans speak these languages. In addition to the teaching of those two languages, it is also very important that African political and university leaders establish a well developed framework to teach French to a substantial number of students in English speaking African countries, and teach English to students in French speaking African countries. It would be difficult for any true development in Africa if this objective is not met. Today, there are 19 countries in Africa that are former British colonies and 20 countries that are former French colonies, with the Southern African Island nation of Reunion (more than 700,000 people) still remaining the only African country under France without independence. Even though the Democratic Republic of Congo (former Zaire), is a former Belgian colony, and Africa’s fourth populous nation with over 53 million people, most of its citizens speak French. This language barrier has been one of the major obstacles that confront the continent in post-independence Africa.

As African nations continue to realize that only Africans themselves can develop Africa, its universities must begin to find ways to make sure that as many Africans as possible are taught to speak both English and French along with any other languages deem necessary. Economic and political corporation among African nations is utterly needed, but there can never be any major success if the language barriers are not broken. The universities of Africa, including Kenya’s universities must lead the way for this development.
On the issue of quality, private institutions in general in developing countries, including those in Kenya have been reported to provide inferior education when compared to public institutions. According to Eshiwani (1999), one problem of Kenya's private institutions is that they tend to encourage "moonlighting by professors and lecturers from the public universities" (p.34). As noted in chapter one, the quality of the private higher education sectors in Jordan, Indonesia and South Korea is not as good as that of the public institutions. Also, as Cobin notes in chapter six, most professors in Chilean private colleges and universities do not have academic credentials beyond undergraduate degrees. Other reasons provided for the lack of quality in the private higher education sectors in the aforementioned nations include lack of adequate facilities, teaching materials and qualified professors. It is useful to note that not all private universities are inferior in academic quality to public universities in developing nations. For example, as Gonzalez points out in chapter one, in the Philippines, apart from the University of the Philippines, one of the country's public universities, private colleges and universities provide the best higher education in that country.

In the case of private universities in Kenya, interviews conducted by Mirie of students enrolled in both private and public universities indicate that overall, public universities offer better quality programs than private universities. This is due to the fact that presently Kenyan public universities offer substantially more and diverse academic programs than private universities. In addition, even though public university students in Kenya pay for a portion of their education, the government still continues to provide funding to public universities. However, Chapter Six reveals that if a criterion for quality was based solely on the academic credentials of the faculty of private universities, one
could claim that the United States International University, one of Kenya’s accredited private universities, provides quality education to its students. The reason is because an examination of the faculty of that institution shows that at least 60 percent of them have Ph.D. degrees. Moreover, the majority of the professors with doctorate degrees were trained in universities in Europe and the United States. As presented in Chapter Six also, without providing the actual data as the United States International University, Daystar University also claims to have a “highly trained” faculty. It is important, however, to note that academic qualifications of faculty is only one of the many variables for quality of education. Quality of education could be viewed from a variety of institutional activities. This point must especially be stressed because as noted many of the faculty members were trained in Europe or North America and as Mazrui points out, what constitutes quality of education must not be based on Western type academic training or perception of quality alone.

Governance/Autonomy

The issue of governance of private higher education in developing nations includes significant involvement by the governments in those countries, especially in the establishment phase. That is because as chapters four and seven reveal for example, the encouragement and establishment of private higher education institutions in developing countries means that foreign institutions are allowed to open new campuses or branches of their institutions in developing nations. As the chapters show, the concerns of academic quality and national objectives play major roles in the determination of what kinds of foreign universities are allow to be established in these developing nations. For example, in chapter four, the Parliament of Kenya passed higher education laws that call
for the establishment of foreign private universities. The higher education laws provided specific requirements that foreign institutions with intentions to establish campuses in Kenya must meet. However, these laws gave final authority to the President of Kenya to determine which foreign institutions must be granted charters to open their universities in the country. In Malaysia and South Africa, the Ministries of Education are given the full authority to register private institutions.

Chapter Seven shows that the governments of Malaysia and South Africa passed laws calling for the establishment of private colleges and universities. These higher education laws stated the requirements that must be met before a foreign institution is qualified to open its campus in each of those countries. Here also, authority was given to the Ministry of Education of each nation to determine what foreign universities meet the necessary requirements to be eligible to establish their institutions in those countries. As Ashby points out in chapter four, another reason for the visible government involvement in higher education institutions in many developing nations was due to the legacy of colonialism. This is especially the case when it is a fact that many of the private higher education institutions that are established in developing nations are from Western nations. Many of the leaders in these developing nations, including Kenya, that encourage the establishment of foreign private universities are also concerned about the influence of these institutions on their citizens.

Another part of governance examined in this study is the level of autonomy of institutions and the role that the stakeholders of those institutions play. The study shows that institutions that receive direct funding from the government tend to have less autonomy than those institutions that receive little or no financial assistance from the
government. For example, because private universities in Kenya do not receive financial assistance from the government, they tend to enjoy far more institutional autonomy than the public universities that receive most of their funding from the government. Private universities in Kenya as a result, tend to operate more smoothly than public universities. It was also noted in chapter one that private higher education institutions in South Korea have enormous institutional autonomy from the government and that they have apprehensions about accepting aid from the government because of fear of losing their autonomy. As for the public universities in Kenya, the study reveals a long history of government interventions of all sorts. This trend is not limited to institutions in Kenya alone. Chapter one shows that in India, where private colleges and universities receive public funding, the government has significant influence in the operations of those institutions.

In general, the establishment of private universities in Kenya tends to have followed the main trends of private higher education in other developing countries. As in many of these developing countries, the call for the establishment of a significant private higher education sector in Kenya was due to the rapid increase in the nation’s total population causing more secondary school graduates’ demand for enrollment and the financial challenge for the government to meet that demand in difficult economic conditions. However, it is important to note that like other developing countries in the same situation, Kenya has showed significant success in creating a framework for the establishment of private universities without any serious obligation on the government to financially support these institutions. The fact that an estimated 7,000 students could be enrolled in accredited private universities in Kenya at their own expense is a significant
development. It is hard to predict what would have happened to those students if there were no private universities in the country.

One primary problem that now confronts the Kenyan government and Kenyans is the HIV/AIDS epidemic. Kenyans and their government have invested substantially in education in general and university education in particular in the past four decades. Their investment in higher education has shown tangible results. As chapter six reveals, Kenyan higher education has produced a wide variety of graduates that are not only contributing to the development of the country, but Kenyan professionals are also scattered in Africa and the world contributing significantly in the countries where they work. The problem of HIV/AIDS has the potential to seriously destabilize that country. As pointed out in chapter six, the universities alone in Kenya are losing their students, faculty and administrators to HIV/AIDS at a very high rate. This could seriously undermine all the essential entities in that country, thereby causing a destruction of that nation’s most important resource: its people.

As noted in previous chapters, when Kenya is compared to other African nations, one finds that its higher education system is among the best, which are South Africa, Egypt and Ghana. Apart from South Africa that elected its first democratic president in 1994, one could claim that the significantly high number of college graduates in Kenya, Ghana and Egypt, might have been the primary factor responsible for the relative political stability in those countries. In the past two decades, many African nations have been destroyed by civil wars due to political and tribal conflicts. The nations of Kenya, Ghana and Egypt have not experienced such problems even though countries around them have continued to have serious civil conflicts that have seen the destruction of millions of lives
and billions of dollars worth of property. One could then assume that the reason why Kenya, along with Ghana and Egypt has not experienced such bloody conflicts is because it has a sizable college educated middle class that has been prudent in preventing the types of bloody internal wars that they have witnessed in neighboring countries. Due to this one factor, the establishment of private universities in Kenya is highly important because in the future, graduates of these institutions have the potential to join the number of middle class Kenyans, thereby contributing to maintaining the fragile political stability that already exists in the country.

What is even more important for the future of higher education in Kenya is the upcoming presidential election in 2002. The 2002 presidential election in Kenya is important in many ways. One particular issue that is of great importance is that a free and fair election with a democratically elected president in Kenya could result in the possibility of a resumption of foreign investments in that country. In the past decade alone, foreign direct investment in Kenya has declined substantially due in part to that country’s fragile political stability. The total number of private companies have also dropped significantly. The decline in these economic activities has directly contributed to the insufficient funding of higher education in that country. It is never a guarantee that a democratically elected government open to dissenting views from opposition parties would directly lead to an improvement of a country’s economic conditions. However, in countries where such political activities exist, enrollment in higher education is significantly high enough to produce the skilled manpower needed to work in the various areas that produce the economic success that those countries enjoy.
For example, one could argue that because of the free market economy and an open and transparent government in South Africa, hundreds of foreign colleges and universities rushed to open campuses in that country from the moment that the government passed a higher education law encouraging the establishment of private institutions. As pointed out in chapter seven, even the South African Department of Education authorities did not expect the significant number of foreign institutions who applied for permission to open campuses in the country. As a result, a substantial number of South Africans have the option to attend private colleges and universities. Kenya, like South Africa is a very beautiful country that attracts foreigners annually from many parts of the world, even with its current fragile political stability. If the 2002 presidential election results in a democratically elected government and a peaceful transfer of power, Kenya could send an important message to the International Community, especially the international business community that investing in that country would be a good business decision. This in return will create an environment in which a potential substantial increase in university enrollments in that nation, including the establishment of more foreign private universities can exist. The issue of governance of private universities in Kenya is similar to a situation in Malaysia. Lee (1999) reasons that in Malaysia, the government finds itself in a situation in which it is seeking the liberalization of private higher education institutions, yet shows the need to control them. Lee concludes that the government should create a system that, “facilitates the development of a sound private education sector” in the country by focusing, “on co-ordination, regulation, accreditation, and provision of guidance and incentives for both public and private higher education institutions to meet national training, research and service needs in a complimentary
manner (p.17). The Kenyan government is experiencing a similar situation. It has encouraged the establishment of private higher education institutions, but yet remains unsure whether to provide them with all the privileges and rights such as true academic freedom and institutional autonomy to operate without threat of losing their license.

Future studies of Kenya’s private higher education system are needed as it develops in the next several years. Particular areas of concentration for future studies as data becomes available may be an in-depth examination of students and faculty in private universities, quality issues and autonomy and academic freedom in private universities.
References
Chapter One


Uboeri, N. K. (Spring 1995). Some current developments in India's higher education. *International Higher Education*, 1, 14-15


Chapter Two


Chapter Three


Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA). (www.cuea.edu/brief.htm).


History of the University of Nairobi (1922-1967). (www.uonbi.ac.ke/ge_info/gen_infodetails.php3?briefhistpart1)
Indian High Commission in Kenya. India Kenya relations: Education.


Obengo, T. J. Registrar, Scott Theological College. Kenya


United States International University (USIU). (www.usiu.ac.ke)


University of Nairobi. The University of Nairobi is born. (www.uonbi.ac.ke/ge_info/gen_infodetails.php3?briefhistpart2)


Chapter Four


Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA) (www.cuea.edu/finic.htm).


Associated Press.

Higher Education Loans Board (Kenya). (www.bhelb.co.ke/background.html).

IMF (2000, July 28). IMF approves poverty reduction and growth facility (1) Loan for
(wysiwyg://169http://www.africapolicy.org/dpcs008i.htm)

March 2-3.

The Chronicle of Higher Education

Kigotho, W. (2001, April 6). Kenya's universities eliminate more than 5,000 nonteaching 
jobs. The Chronicle of Higher Education.

Education. International Higher Education, 10, 7-8.

Private Enterprise.

Matshikiza, J. (2001, June 1). There's hope for the dark continent. Daily Mail &
Guardian, South Africa.

Mazrui, A. A. (1990). The impact of global changes on academic freedom in Africa: 
A preliminary assessment. Paper presented at a symposium on "Academic 

for distribution at the 1999 meeting of the International Studies Association, 
Feb. 18-19.

Commissioned by the World Bank, Washington, D.C.

National report from Kenya. Presented at the International Conference on 
Education, forty-fifth Session. Geneva, Switzerland. September 30th to October
5th.


United States International University (USIU). (www.usiu.ac.ke)


Chapter Five


Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA) (www.cuea.edu/brief.htm).


Institute of International Education. Foreign students by academic level and place of origin 1999/00. (www.opendoorsweb.org/lead%20stori...0students%by%20place%20origin.txt).


United states International University (USIU). (www.usiu.ac.ke)


CHAPTER SIX


Cobin, J. (2000). Faculty and universities in a free market (Chile): Comment by a fallen free market academic. (www.policyofliberty.net/ChileanEducation.html)


United States International University. Faculty Listing. (www.usiu.ac.ke/web/facultylist.ht.)
Chapter Seven


Chapter Eight


### Appendixes

#### Chapter Three

#### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development Indicator</th>
<th>Kenya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>30,765,916 (July 2001 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>$45.6 billion (2000 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP Per Capita</td>
<td>$1,500 (2000 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP-composition by sector:</td>
<td>Agriculture: 25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industry: 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service: 62% (1999 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor Force</td>
<td>9.2 million (1998 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor Force by occupation</td>
<td>Agriculture: 75%-80% (1998 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (1998 est.)</td>
<td>50% (1998 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget Revenues</td>
<td>(2000 est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditures</td>
<td>$2.91 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$2.97 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Export (f.o.b. 2000 est.)</td>
<td>$1.7 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imports</td>
<td>$3 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$457 million (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Service Providers (ISPs)</td>
<td>5 (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Expenditure</td>
<td>$197 million (FY98/99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military Expenditures-percent of GDP</td>
<td>1.9% (FY98/99)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Summary Publication & Citation Statistics on Research in Sciences & Social Sciences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of Papers</th>
<th># of Citations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>362 (1981)</td>
<td>2,963 (1981-95)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CIA World Factbook, 2000

*World Bank, 2000
Chapter Five
Academic Programs at Daystar University

DIPLOMA AND CERTIFICATE
- Communication Arts
- Christian Ministries in Counseling
- Christian Ministries in Missions
- Christian Music Communication
- Research and Consultation

FACULTY OF ARTS
- Biblical and Religious Studies
- Bachelor of Arts
- Communication
- English
- Music

Master of Arts
- Christian Ministries
- Communication

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
- Bachelor of Commerce
- Accounting
- Business Administration and Management
- Marketing
Bachelor of Science
- Economics
- Bachelor of Arts
- Community Development
- Psychology
Bachelor of Education
- Accounting
- Biblical and Religious Studies
- Business Administration and Management
- Economics
- English
- Marketing
- Music

FACULTY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
Pre-university
To be launched soon
- Bachelor of Science
- Applied Computer Science
- Electronic Engineering
Source: Daystar University Brochure.
Academic Programs at Catholic University

Religious Programs

Canonical / Ecclesiastical Degrees
Ecclesiastical Degree of Baccalaureate in Theology
The Degree of Licentiate/ Masters in Theology
Postgraduate Diploma in forming Small Christian Communities (SCCs)

Certificate in Theological Studies
Bachelor of Arts (BA) in Theology
Diploma in Theological Studies
Postgraduate Diploma in Spiritual Direction
Master of Arts (MA) in Theology
Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Theology

Undergraduate Secular Degree Programs
Commerce
Education
English
Geography
History
Mathematics
Philosophy
Social Education & Ethic Social Science
Masters Programs
Philosophy
Education

High Technology Exports as percentage of manufacturing for Selected Asian Countries, 1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>High Technology Exports % of manufacturing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled from World Bank World Development Report, 2000/2001