

## Higher Education in Kenya: Strides and Trends

If higher education is seen as society's endeavour to 'produce high-level teaching and research, and to do so in the context of national development, of nation building, of leadership, of rigorous disciplined thinking, creativity and service to the community' (Dubbey 1991:8), then an overview of higher education must be provided within the framework of Kenya and its development agenda, as well as the aspirations and world view of its people. Traditionally, universities 'had served the community mainly by educating the youth, by introducing them to current knowledge and by expanding the stock of such knowledge' (Meeham 1993:90). This general characteristic has been the same story of universities in Kenya, the main focus of higher education discourse in the country.

The history of Kenya's higher education is linked to the history of the nation of Kenya. From a region of multiple nations, each with its social systems in place, 'Kenya' was consolidated as an externally ruled country going through various phases of colonial and other administrative arrangements before independence. Each of these constituent nations that made up the forty-two communities of present-day Kenya maintained its ways of empowering its youth towards gainful occupation. Ssekamwa and Lugumba (2001) confirm that African indigenous education maintained forms of higher education long before Western civilisation's format of what is today practised in Kenya as higher education. Even within this conceptual framework that defines higher education in close connection to Western civilisation-based schooling, provisions for higher education preceded independence in Kenya and the whole of east Africa. Even though 'universities are not indigenous institutions... transplanted by colonial powers at end of formal colonialism' (Oanda, Chege and Wesonga 2008:77) they are prominent in the education all landscape of the continent, having great effects on Kenya's development agenda.

The central place that the university, occupies invites closer scrutiny of its mandate and success in meeting the same. Universities have the three closely related functions of teaching, researching and rendering public or community

service. They were seen as 'places for intellectual discovery and excitement, places for adventure and discovery of new ideas and theories' (Oanda, Chege and Wesonga 2008:76). Therefore, 'at their inception, the African universities were characterised by structures dependent on and [in] submission to the academic models and specific institutions of the former colonial powers' (Assié-Lumumba 2006:31). But the need for development and the cries for relevance have seen efforts to change these perspectives. A 'redefined mission of the university as a problem-solving research institution' (Oanda, Chege and Wesonga 2008:78) has subsequently brought challenges for African universities to focus their missions on community problem solving that cater for the communities where they are based. This has brought with it the challenge of relevance in the global arena, where the university must survive as a global entity. The regional–global relevance dichotomy remains a factor that impacts the dynamics of higher education practice.

It is within this culturally conflicting context that this chapter traces the growth of the university as a component of higher education in Kenya is traced in this chapter. The chapter follows the development of formal education in Kenya during and after colonial rule, noting the effects of missionary and colonial philosophies (politics) in the face of government decisions and convictions. This is enriched by Africans' growing awareness and expectations of the role of education in political and economic emancipation, hence their pronounced quest for higher education. A neo-colonial thrust in the form of the structural adjustment programmes with their effects and impact on the progress of higher education are visited before the current status of more open access, equity and accountability that are slowly characterising higher education in Kenya is presented.

### **Early Days**

At the end of 1910, the missionaries in Kenya, with the support or collaboration of local leaders and chiefs and so on, had established a few schools. Local participation in the effort included providing land for the building of schools (Ssekamwa and Lugumba 2001:3), and encouraging (or sometimes permitting) children to attend. The colonial government's input followed the 1908 recommendation of Prof. J. Nelson Fraser to set up education departments and appoint directors for same. This led to the development of three racially distinct curricula in Kenya. The first one was for Europeans, the second for Asians, and the third for Africans. It was this third one that focused on industrial and agricultural education (Ssekamwa and Lugumba 2001:4).

By 1921, the colonial government opened a technical school on Makerere Hill in Kampala, Uganda, which became the seat of government in one of the three East African states under British rule at that time. A year later, it was renamed Makerere College, to be elevated in 1949 to University College status, and called the University College of East Africa (Otieno 2010:29). This regional centre for higher education

offered University of London degrees, a status maintained until 1956 when the Royal Technical College of East Africa was opened in Nairobi to offer diplomas in technical and commercial education (Otieno 2010). In 1963, the University of East Africa was inaugurated out of the Kampala-based institution, with Makerere being the core and offering qualifications in medicine and agriculture, while the Nairobi constituent College focused on engineering and veterinary medicine, and the Dar es Salaam College provided as scholarship in law. It was not until the independence of the three countries that, in 1970, the University of East Africa was dissolved to give way to three independent universities. And so, the University of Nairobi, Kenya's first university, was inaugurated on 25 March 1970 (Otieno 2010:30), with Kenyatta College, an institution offering a diploma in education becoming its first constituent College in 1972. In 1984, Moi University was established as Kenya's second public university, with Kenyatta University College becoming a fully-fledged, and Kenya's third public, university in 1985. Thereafter, the nation saw a rapid growth in the numbers of universities, both public and private.

This rapid expansion can be explained by historical facts. The British colonial policy authorised the different church missionaries to organise education in the colonies. However, due to some settler communities' recognition of the risks associated with granting Africans access to European education, risks identified as endangering the settler community's privileges, there was a fair amount of resistance to this move, resulting in limited expansion in some areas (Assié-Lumumba 2006:32–33). The British Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies and the 1924 Phelps-Stokes Commission played key roles in defining the future and development of education for Africans under British colonial rule. Whereas the colonialist played to the tune that the African's capacity to learn was limited, it was not easy to deny the fact that 'higher education could become a tool for liberation in the hands of the Africans' (Assié-Lumumba 2006:33). The fear was real, and its effects would soon be manifest when educated Africans led the quest for independence.

And so came the 1950s and early 1960s with successive granting of independence to the colonies. First, it was Tanzania in 1961, then Uganda in 1962, and finally Kenya in 1963. Each country there after acquired the right to self-determination, and hence regulation of its development agenda. Given the presence a 'few formally educated Africans, especially those with higher education degrees before independence, Africa's first generation of post-colonial Western-educated elite genuinely expressed the need to reform the inherited education systems to adjust these systems to the needs of the African societies (Assié-Lumumba 2006:104–5). With the newly established governments yearning for development, and attaching this to education, they decided to promote higher education, making it a vital item in the social agenda and development planning. Higher education was made a vital part of the education system, and in Kenya, constantly linked with research.

## Independence Days

Education has subsequently featured prominently in Kenya's development plans. Perceived as more of an economic than a social service, it is expected to relieve the shortage of skilled human resources needed for national development. It is also seen as the remedy for the equalisation of economic opportunities (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karugu 1992:131). Throughout the history of Kenya, the three constant themes in education planning have been access, quality and relevance, and cohesion and respect. They are briefly discussed as follows:

- a. Access – the expansion of opportunities for learning, opening up of space for the marginalised be it through gender, culture or geographic location. Nomadic communities had made it necessary for mobile schools to be initiated in Northern Kenya; the issue of education levies has been systematically reduced to enable the economically challenged to still access education etc.;
- b. Quality and relevance – the need to provide high-level labour-power for development. With the country's recognition that only Kenyans could develop Kenya, the desire to develop skills and competencies in crucial areas of national development has been reflected in successive development and education planning documents;
- c. Cohesion and respect – the need to promote national unity in a country of people differentiated by religion, language and culture as well as economic status. Education is seen as a catalyst that can institute a level of equality, thereby enabling people to see themselves and others differently.

These three objectives have elicited the articulation of several strategies. Three of these were salient in the early days of independence:

- a. Free Primary Education, as a component of Universal Primary Education targeted at dispersed, nomadic people, those who lacked funds, and the increase in the number of qualified teachers. The response to this saw a rise in school enrolment from 891,553 in 1963 to 1,676,000 in 1972 (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karugu 1992:131). The key obstacles reported remained access to facilities and parental attitudes;
- b. to increase the number of qualified teachers, the government expanded the training programmes for primary teachers. Both in-service and pre-service training were made available, with the former initiated to ensure that teachers in the classroom, employed as untrained teachers, but gradually acquired relevant skills for service. In terms of policy, the student–teacher ratio was fixed at 40:1 (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karugu 1992:131), but the rate of enrolment has continued to rise, and primary school education has continued to expand rapidly;
- c. the call for relevance has been in response to a growing number of unemployed and unemployable youth, whose training was perhaps seen to

be inadequate to fill existing job opportunities. It has also been an attempt to equip youths with skills for the technologically-oriented occupations, such as those of manufacturing and agricultural production. To this end, the number of polytechnics, technical institutes and institutes of technology has grown steadily, offering technical and vocational training to equip young school leavers with knowledge and skills for employment.

## **Educational Reforms**

As government questioned the role of higher education in the national project of socio-economic development, questions about the type of learning required arose. This led to various education commissions and taskforces. The earliest focused on relevance, recommending a move away from the colonial structure that had a segregated curriculum in 1964. Another way of linking education to economic emancipation at the national level included changes made to technical education. These would see the extension of the duration of craft and trade courses, the starting of new trade and technical schools and expansion of existing programmes to stretch beyond their original coverage, for example at the Kenya Polytechnic where provision for expansion of accommodation was made (Otiende Wamahiu and Karugu 1992). In this regard, Otiende, Wamahiu and Karugu (1992:142) report that:

the third development plan noted the need to study and change the secondary school process in Kenya. It was observe that the education system had managed to turn out academically-oriente[d] school leavers for middle – and high-level occupations. However, the manpower needs of the country were still not being met. The importance of direct linking of secondary and tertiary education to the nation's manpower requirements was thus reiterated.

This led to calls for curriculum re-appraisal, an evaluation of teaching procedures and student selection. The government recognised the need for technical training for the modernisation of the country, and thus moved to increase opportunities at secondary school level. This saw a rise in the number of vocational schools and technical secondary schools in the 1980s (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karugu 1992: 143) and calls for the two polytechnics to develop their curricula in close liaison with employers and policies, and in 'consultation with the relevant ministries' (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karugu 1992:144). One of the institutions in this study was previously a national polytechnic and continues the tradition of requiring stakeholder input during curriculum development, a move that ensured relevance of courses taught to the needs of the industry. The stakeholders are usually the relevant professional registration body, the recognised employers' consortium, or practitioners' board, as the case may be. This gave the graduating students the assurance of programme recognition, and the chance to have fulfilled relevant pre-registration criteria by the end of their training.

Changes in education provision for relevance have not been easy to initiate or sustain. It is one thing to desire change, yet quite another to know how to go about it. In one of the subject areas under study, it was long indicated that the curriculum at the university needed to reflect the cultural situation on the ground.<sup>1</sup> Such a struggle would arise because of an entrenched practice that resulted from the orientation of educators in the early years of the programme's development. Curriculum content and delivery change would require educators versed in the body of knowledge considered relevant to the day's needs.

The university is also a social space, where matters of governance and leadership play significantly in ways that affect knowledge transfer. It is a reflection of the dynamics in society, aggravated by the number of intellectuals therein contained. 'The type of university that prevails in Africa has been struggling between the actualisation of its European medieval roots and colonial foundations, and the African history and contemporary social structures' (Assié-Lumumba 2006:31). It is no wonder then, that there have been conflicts in university-government relationships. The 1980s and 1990s higher education in Kenya prevailed in a context of political unrest and relative instability, counting the 1982 failed political coup. The numerous student's protests and staff strikes that led to prolonged closures, the formation of the various staff unions and their militant approach to problem-solving did not make for peaceful co-existence between government and higher institutions. Nor did they lead to much achievement in the development of a suitable atmosphere for the advancement of higher education. Limitations of academic freedom, for example, have come from leaders' continuing tendency to define education in its 'economic instrumental terms as a means to secure jobs only, thus aiming to create new generations of careerist Africans who would... not have the critical insight to connect their internal situations to the global system or to the nature of the regime in place' (Assié-Lumumba 2006:80). This simplistic view of the role of education fails to acknowledge that learners are exposed to knowledge and skills, but there is no way of controlling what they do with it. Higher education might, therefore, be considered a risky business.

Yet in all this, the demand for higher education keeps rising on account of increase in access and enrolment at lower levels. This has resulted in the growing numbers of students qualifying for higher education. Their acceptance at university means crowding in students accommodation, and rapid expansion of bed-space that included the sub-division of rooms in the halls of residence, the introduction of double-decker beds and the putting up of pre-fabricated buildings to house students in the 1990s. The crowded lecture rooms and extension of the timetable were inevitable. With the teaching timetable stretching into the weekend in some cases, and running from 7.00 am to 9.00 pm, learning was bound to be affected as lecturers had large teaching loads. Double intakes (admission of two cohorts of students at a time, or twice the declared capacity in some cases) soon came to

mean no 'summer holiday' as the staggered entry of students led to year-round teaching. The extended timetable was not matched with staff recruitment, and so part-time lecturing became necessary. One would be employed at one university, and hold part-time contracts in another or others. Today, a number of personnel are 'permanent part-time staff' because they provide part-time services to a number of institutions, and hold no full-time position at all. These conditions have taken their toll on governance and leadership in the affected institutions, affecting the practice of higher education.

The volatile political atmosphere of the 1980s and 1990s saw the harassment of academics and students. Many were detained, and a large number forced to flee. The 'stock of human resources (got) depleted by the massive departure among the most highly educated segment of the population as a result of... political strife and severe downward economic trends...' (Assié-Lumumba 2006:155). The rapid expansion of higher education institutions, their numbers, their programmes and intake have subsequently faced the challenge of human resources. The brain drain of yesteryears is yet to be adequately reverted. Today, with the expanded number of higher education institutions, there is competition for qualified staff, one of the requirements of evaluation and award of licence to operate.

## Relevance

Changes in the national environment have included effects of funding where, for example, World Bank conditions led to minimal funding for higher education. Since the 1990s, many educational changes 'have been framed in reaction to the crises and as a response to recommendations and prescriptions of the regional and international organisations and industrial countries that provide grants or support the awarding of various forms of loans' (Assié-Lumumba 2006:105). This is a reflection of the perennial call for relevance in education. Dubbey (1991) commented on concerns about cultural development in the institution of higher education even while celebrating high achievements in university education. In Kenya, the question of relevance has been raised mostly in relation to national development, resulting in the already stated move towards technical education. The conflict raised by this redirection is because it is seen as a return to colonialism, when education for Africans was 'more technical or vocational, and the concern for relevance focused on adaptation to the local milieu for immediate use and benefit' (Assié-Lumumba 2006:42). Did independent Kenya eventually find the colonial government to be right, after years of faulting the institution?

The cultural relevance of education to Kenyans as a people, does not however appear to attract the kind of attention that this study would be comfortable handling. In the face of structural adjustment programmes from donors and government's response to the same, the question of who defines relevance in education is important. Whereas the goal of education at independence was for

achieving socio-economic independence (everything then was understandably tied to independence), formal education has since continued to be seen as an investment in development. The more years one spends in education, the better the imagined capacity to participate in the economy, as reflected in salary expectations of graduates. The notion of relevance is not shared between government and consumers of education, or its sponsors either. Whereas government wants technical ability to drive development, learners and their sponsors (parents) want high qualifications to earn well-paying white-collar jobs. At another level, 'what is taught at school should be of use locally but when dealing with the rest of the world it should equally be useful' (Ssekamwa and Lugumba 2001:138–9). There may not be a consensus on the meaning of relevance, but there is an agreement that something is amiss.

Kenya has tackled this through various education commissions with diverse effects. From a racially segregated curriculum at independence, the Ominde Report (1964) led to a unified curriculum in the interest of national unity, and recognition of the African's ability to excel in academics too. 'Between 1964 and 1985, the 7-4-2-3 system was adopted, leading to seven years of primary education, another four years at the lower secondary (forms 1–4), two years in the upper secondary (forms 5–6), and three years of university' (Wanjohi 2011:2), clearly reflecting the practice in the UK at the time. This was later faulted with encouraging elitism and individualism, and being too academic to lead to direct employment. Thus,

education, which Kenyans regarded as a medium for social mobility and national economic development failed to deliver as the number of unemployed school leavers continued to grow in the first years of independence. ILO also called for a change in the educational system in order to help reduce unemployment. The change consisted of increasing the technical and vocational aspects of the curriculum. The move by ILO towards vocationalising the education system won support from the World Bank (Wanjohi 2011: 4).

This call for relevance led to the change in the education system, following the Gachathi and Mackay reports of 1976 and 1981 respectively, to the 8-4-4 system in 1985. Now, Eight years of primary school education leads to four in secondary school, and a final four years for the basic bachelor's degree course at university. With this came the establishment of the second public university, whose emphasis was to be science and technology, appropriately located in a rural setting. Other government policy papers on education, including higher education, have led to the establishment of monitoring and regulatory mechanisms in a bid to ensure quality and relevance in education, as well as attempts to ensure access for all.

On the latter, affirmative action, including policies for under-represented groups have led to the adoption of lower university entry cut-off points. This started with women and extended to hardship areas of the country, where lower



qualifying grades are allowed for admission onto government sponsored courses. The latter is in recognition of the underdeveloped infrastructure in these areas, and the long history of poor provision for education that makes these learners unable to compete with others elsewhere in better equipped schools. Recent issues on equity have focused on female representation in science and maths, with their low numbers being questioned and measures sought to increase the number of women taking up science and technology-based courses in higher education. Whereas measures are put in place to correct effects in relation to the numbers, the question of quality as it relates to resources is a separate hurdle that government and other education providers interrogate.

## **Funding**

One of the key challenges to access, equity and relevance in Kenya's higher education, that is equally a challenge to higher education leadership and governance has been a matter of funding. Without adequate funding, resource mobilisation becomes an insurmountable hurdle, leading to poorly equipped institutions and inadequate numbers and cadres of personnel. The influence of donor agencies on Kenya's educational policies are reported to have been substantial at times (ColClough and Webb 2010; Assié-Lumumba 2006). Funding not only affects what is offered in the curriculum but also how it is offered, a factor of who teaches and the resources they utilise for teaching, as well as the teaching related support-activities that they engage in. Tasked with teaching and research, the university, for example, requires academic staff to engage in both activities, so that newly generated information, the outcome of research, can impact on teaching and the assimilation of that information.

With an increase in the number of learners, staff time is stretched, thus compromising their availability to conduct research. The same expansion stretches resources, limiting the funds available in universities to sponsor research. Besides, the large number of learners demands recruitment of more staff, stretching the budget of government such that most funding allocations go to staff remuneration. In teaching, the more technical subjects have often been targets for government and donor sponsorship, this being largely targeted at science and technology. The arts-based subjects, the main concern of this project, have not received the support that would have facilitated high levels of knowledge and skill development, and that would in return have led to high yield industry. In music, for examples, learners at university are often forced to study the available instruments, as opposed to what they may have the inclination to choose, or sometimes what they may have started learning at lower levels of education. This restricts the quality of learning, and the breadth of disciplinary coverage in higher education. It is known that most private secondary schools are better equipped than public universities in this regard. It is, therefore not foreseeable that a graduate

of such a school would find much motivation and satisfaction studying in a local public university. This limited access to resources limits students' development, and forces them to negotiate how to practice. In 2006, for example, one of the authors recalls hearing the one good piano at the music department in one institution being played at odd hours. It was later revealed that the more senior piano students divided the night-time into blocks of three hours, so that successive students used the room through the night. This is one more situation where the lights never go off, but students come and go as and when they have work to do, with day and night passing in a blur of constant creativity. The limited available resources are stretched to the limit.

The government has traditionally included education in its annual budget. This amount has grown annually as shown below:

**Table 1.1:** Government expenditure on education in Kenya – 1971 to 2010

Year	1971	1975	1980	1985	2000	2001	2003	2004	2010
% Expenditure	17.59	21.17	17.54	14.84	25.77	22.59	22.11	29.19	17.21
% of GDP	4.82	6.02	5.88	5.32	5.19	5.21	6.49	6.80	6.67

The highest public spending on education (as a total percentage of government expenditure) was 29.19 in 2004, while its lowest value was 14.84 in 1985. As a percentage of GDP, its highest value over the past thirty-nine years was 7.34 (in 2005), while its lowest value was 4.82 (in 1971). This consists of current and capital public expenditure on education, including government spending on educational institutions (both public and private), education administration as well as subsidies for private entities (students/households and other private entities). Of this, the higher education allocation includes staff remuneration, physical development and provision for research. There is often stiff competition for the latter, as it is spread among postgraduate students and staff research grants as well as allocations towards conference attendance once it reaches the university. Centrally, it is the same pool from which the government supported research institutions tap. Such high expenditures on education betray the country's continuing belief in the role of education in economic development, a theme that remains current in all government plans and projections for development.

For years, the government bore the burden of providing higher education. In the 1980s and 1990s, donor agency pressures based on concerns over accountability and integrity led to a reduction in aid to Kenya, adversely affecting what Kenya could invest in education. This is reflected in the low expenditures in Table 1.1. In Table 1.2, the trend is maintained, with education still taking a large share of government funding.

**Table 1.2:** Sector allocations and shares for 2013/14 and 2014/15

(Amount in Billions)	2013/2014			2014/2015			
	Total Gross Estimates	Sector Share of the Total Gross Estimates	Cumulative Share	Total Gross Estimates	Sector Share of the Total Gross Estimates	Cumulative Share	Difference in Sector Allocation Shares
Education	276	26.1%	308	26.1%		26.1%	0.1
Infrastructure + Energy	217	20.5%	46.6%	257	21.7%	47.8%	1.2
Security	182	17.2%	63.8%	191	16.1%	63.9%	1.1
State Administration	79	7.5%	71.3%	100	8.5%	72.4%	1.0
Planning and Devolution	78	7.4%	78.7%	76	6.4%	78.8%	-1.0
Water and Regional Development	56	5.3%	84.0%	49	4.1%	82.9%	-1.2
Parliament, AG, Judiciary and Constitutional Commission	53	5.0%	88.9%	61	5.2%	88.1%	0.2
Agriculture	37	3.5%	92.5%	37	3.1%	91.2%	-0.4
Health	36	3.4%	95.9%	47	4.0%	95.2%	0.6
International Relations and Commerce	24	2.3%	98.2%	31	2.6%	97.8%	0.3
Lands and Housing	16	1.5%	99.7%	22	1.8%	99.7%	0.3
Gender, Youth and Culture	3	0.3%	100%	4	0.3%	100%	0.0
Total	1,057	100%		1,182	100%		

Source: Controller of Budget Implementation Reports.

## Cost Sharing

At independence, higher education was highly subsidised, with government sending law students to Dar es Salaam and medical students to Makerere. In 1974, the government introduced a student loan programme. It was, however, characterised by 'high subsidies, poor administration, lack of legal framework and, consequently, low repayments' (Otieno 2010:32). In 1988, following the launch of the 8-4-4 system of education as a consequence of the Mackay report, the government introduced the cost sharing policy through Sessional Paper No. 6. In 1992 there was the introduction of direct tuition fees and the abolition of free meals, with the famous 'Pay-As-You-Eat' being implemented in places, alongside encouragement to universities to generate income to supplement public funding (Otieno 2010). With this came stringent rules on loan disbursement due to competition for the limited resources. This competition for resources led to the government raising the entry requirements for admission into the available courses at public university. In 1998, the Higher Education Loans Board, HELB, introduced loans to students in private universities (Thaver 2004:78). In 2009, this provision was extended to self-sponsored students in public universities, and in 2011 to students in other higher education institutions.

The university funding challenges came as a result of multiple factors including the effects of the World Bank's Educational Sector Lending for Policy Reform (ESLPR), when the World Bank really stood between Kenya's receipt, alongside other African countries, of nearly 75 per cent of their total capital flows and debt relief in 1995 (Assié-Lumumba 2006). At this time, donors were more amenable to investing in basic education, a move that resulted in drastic reductions in higher education funding. The severe limitations of resources affected teaching, research and learning conditions led to learner and lecturer apathy and demotivation. Lecturers and the art of university education underwent a period of decay, where teaching depended on old notes, as opposed to newly researched information, and if there was any innovation, it was limited and must have come at great costs to the innovator. This was a direct result of reduction of donor funding, a donor response to a national tendency to evade accountability and integrity.

In one way or another, the government still remains the chief financier of education, whether through direct support, bursaries or loans. For infrastructural development, government capitation traditionally and understandably favours new institutions. Kenyatta University has since established the Kenyatta University Foundation, to help sustain its physical development programme by soliciting support from friends and alumni abroad.

Universities have found it difficult to sustain programmes with diminishing government funding, because, for example, the amount set for tuition in 1995 is yet to be revised, despite the escalating cost in education delivery. Led by the University of Nairobi in the 1990s, public universities embarked on providing

higher education to self-sponsoring students, on Module II, Self-Sponsored Programmes, or Parallel Degree Programme, as it got to be named by different institutions. In this way, each institution makes fuller use of the facilities, such as the physical space that would otherwise lie idle in the evenings and at weekends when the regular programmes close, and over the holidays. This has helped to raise capital for support of learning programmes, including staff remuneration. Other income generation activities have been devised, some capitalising on the universities' niche areas of expertise. Egerton University, for example, has augmented its dairy facilities, aggressively generating products such as yoghurt.

Universities also attract funds through research grants from local, regional and international bodies. CODESRIA, OSSREA, the Ford Foundation, Rockefeller and others are among the institutions that support short- and long-term research projects, through competitive calls for proposals. Though this money would be directed to the universities for the said research, more and more calls for researcher accountability emerges through the instructions to awardees, where they take full responsibility for use and accounting for the funds allocated. The benefit of these funds is the expansion of the research capacity of the institutions, and development of the lecturers as researchers, with the added benefit of generating literature in the relevant disciplines.

Inter-governmental linkages, exchanges and agreements result in government procurement of resources that boost the resource capital in institutions of higher learning. The Technical University of Kenya, TUK, for example, has recently benefited as one of the institutions receiving equipment through a Kenya–China technical cooperation initiative. This has brought in large quantities of state-of-the-art equipment for its mechanical engineering workshops that will not only make learning possible, but will enable the unit to offer services to the industry in product design and fabrication. Other funding for higher education comes in the form of scholarships, mostly from philanthropists. The Rattansi Trust is a long standing supporter of higher education through the award of scholarships. The Aga Khan Foundation and Rotary Club are among the most consistent of the organisations offering tuition to learners in institutions of higher education, where selection is based on merit and need.

It is vital to note that universities spend little few resources on programmes and courses that reflect their missions and visions, which normally will not articulate the role of creative and cultural disciplines of the institutions.

## Note

1. See Denyer (1979) commenting on the music programme at Kenyatta College.

