

**Academic Staff Perceptions of and the Actual Working
Conditions in the University of Nairobi and their likely
influence on Brain Drain**

By

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the award of Master of Arts degree in Development Studies, Institute
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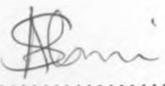
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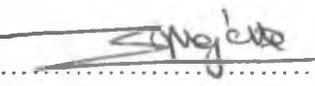
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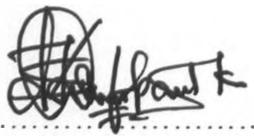
DECLARATION

This research paper is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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This project paper has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor

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DEDICATION

To my husband, Tom

And

Children, Bridgid and Sandra

For their patience, encouragement and understanding during the period of this research

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My appreciation also goes to my husband for his patience and encouragement during the long period of my study. Similar, appreciation goes to my children Bridgid and Sandra. They endured moments of poor care, as mummy was busy eking out a degree. Their place in this work can therefore not be certainly ignored.

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study was to look at the extent to which the academic staff perceptions of and the actual working conditions in the University of Nairobi are likely to influence brain drain from the university. The study explored the conditions in which the academic staff work in the University of Nairobi and their possible cause of brain drain. The study further reviewed the state of the other public Universities in Kenyan as well as in Africa.

The population of this study comprised of all academic staff in the University of Nairobi. All the six colleges in the university were covered. The faculties under each of the colleges were sampled through proportionate random sampling leading to the selection of 7 faculties and 1 institute. Using the same sampling technique departments were sampled from each of the faculties. The sample comprised 12 departments and one institute. Proportionate random sampling was again used to determine the number of staff to be sampled from each department as well as the institute. This process yielded a sample of 109 academic staff members. The study used purposive sampling to identify heads of department to be interviewed as key informants of the study. 100 academic staff members were finally interviewed representing a response rate of 92%.

The study found out that the University of Nairobi academic staff are generally dissatisfied with all aspects of their working conditions. The majority generally perceived the working conditions to be very poor.

Almost all the respondents (99%) are dissatisfied with the salaries and benefits offered by the UON. The majority also indicated that salary and benefits are a significant factor that can influence them to seek better opportunities elsewhere. The analysis equally showed that of all the aspects of compensation, salary is the most significant.

The study found out that research opportunities are generally limited. The number of research projects undertaken reflects some of the difficulties facing research in public universities in Kenya and in Africa. This can be deduced from the fact that only 3

respondents have carried out more than 6 research projects in 5 years, translating to 1 research project per a year. The key constraints to research identified include lack of funding for research, heavy workload and lack of access to information available on research. Research was identified as the second aspect after salaries and benefits that greatly influence the decision of university academic staff members to move and work outside the country.

The majority of the University of Nairobi academic staff members have been able to publish in the last five years. However, constraints such as heavy workload (43%) and inability to carry out research (57%) are the major factors hindering some of the academic staff from publishing.

Staff development opportunities were also found to be limited. The academic staff members are hardly sponsored for further training by the university. Most of the academic staff, however, would wish to undertake further training. The preferred institutions for further training for most staff are those in the developed world. The limited opportunity for sponsorship for further training was found to be a major factor pushing the academic staff out of the university.

The teaching facilities and support services within the UoN were found to be inadequate and insufficient. The library does not stock books and journals within six months of their publication. Workshops and laboratories do not have enough equipment and the existing ones are not up-to-date. There is a significant deficit of secretarial support in the University of Nairobi. Academic staff either does secretarial work on their own, hire someone to do it for them or engage the services of their departmental secretary. However, most academic staff rated the likelihood of the teaching facilities pushing them out of the university employment as average.

The majority of the academic staff members do not reside in university houses. Several reasons were advanced for this situation: some of the academic staff have their own houses, some do not prefer staying in university houses because they are poorly

maintained and others said that the houses are fully occupied and therefore not available to them. However, housing is of less significance as a push factor but assumes greater significance as motivating factor.

The promotion of academic staff is not always done on the basis of established criteria. There are some instances of favouritism in effecting promotion of academic staff. The majority of staff interviewed said that in most cases some academic staff members who they perceive not to have met the promotion criteria are promoted. The likelihood of being promoted is an important factor pushing University of Nairobi academic staff to look for employment elsewhere.

The majority of the academic staff members perceive their workload to be just about right. This is reflected by the fact that majority view their class sizes as average and teach for between 3 and 10 hours per week. Overall, the study established that workload is not a significant push factor and not a major problem to the majority of the academic staff. This was a surprise finding given the overall perception that the academic staff members are overworked.

The study found out that the majority of the respondents perceived that the overall administration of the UoN is inefficient and rigid. However, the majority of the academic staff indicated that the type of management style is an insignificant push factor in influencing their decision to move out of the university.

In conclusion, most academic staff members perceive the working conditions in the University of Nairobi as poor. This perception greatly influences the decision of the staff members to move to and to work outside the country. There is therefore need for the conditions of work for academic staff to be improved if this perception is to be changed to the positive.

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List of Abbreviations

UON	University of Nairobi
LDCs	Less Developed Countries
USA	United States of America
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
IGA	Income Generating Activity
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
BA	Bachelor of Arts
MA	Master of Arts
MSc	Master of Science
BSc	Bachelor of Science
FTSE	Full Time Staff Equivalent
USD	United States Dollars
CUEA	Catholic University of East Africa
USIU-A	United States International University – Africa
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture Technology
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
LLB	Bachelor of Law
LLM	Masters in Law

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This research paper looks at the extent to which the academic staff perceptions of and the actual working conditions in the University of Nairobi are likely to influence brain drain from the university. The paper describes conditions in which the academic staff work in the University of Nairobi and analyses the possible causes of brain drain. It also reviews the state of the other public universities in Kenya as well as Africa.

Universities play a key role in the development of human resources; they train the highest calibre and most skilled human resources. Human resources are of fundamental importance for the social and economic development of a nation. They are rated higher than physical resources because they drive the physical resources to achieve development goals. At the apex of a nation's human resources is the professional class. These are the people who, as a result of a long period of education and training, possess special skills and knowledge that are essential for socio-economic transformation (Boulding, 1968). The university academic staff themselves belong to this class of human resources.

At independence, Kenya prioritised the fight against poverty, disease and ignorance as key in achieving her development goals. Human resources development was regarded as key in this fight. However, there was an acute shortage of both skilled and unskilled human resources at that time (Sessional Paper No. 10, 1965). The Kenyan government therefore prioritised the development of human resources as one way of achieving socio-economic development of the country.

The Kenyan government's efforts to develop its human resources were faced with a number of constraints. Johnson (1990) identifies some of these constraints as a rapidly growing population, unemployment and underemployment in both modern and traditional sectors of the economy, lack of financial resources and other incentives in order to channel the critically needed manpower into productive activities and the problem of

brain drain. These constraints, coupled with the existing mismatch between wage and employment policies in Kenya have made it difficult for the country to train, attract and retain qualified human resources (Wanyande, 1999).

This paper specifically focuses on the problem of brain drain from the University of Nairobi as one of the problems facing human resources development in Kenya. Brain drain is manifested in the rapid migration of professionals to other countries. This movement of skilled personnel constitutes a loss of human resources to the country of origin and a gain for the recipient country (Kisero, 2000). Walter (1968) observes that between 1949 to 1961 about 43,000 scientists and engineers mainly from developing nations immigrated to the USA. Between 1964 and 1965, 11,000 interns and resident doctors in the USA hospitals were trained in foreign medical schools and more than 8,000 of these came from developing nations. Johnson (2000) also notes that between 1975 and 1984, the number of emigrants from Africa rose to 40,000 per year and reached 80,000 by 1987, levelling at about 20,000 per year since 1990.

Danso (1994) estimates that about 70,000 Africans who go for training in Europe remain there after the training. For example, there are some 10,000 trained Nigerians working in the USA. Further, 60% of Ghanaian doctors trained in the 1980s are working abroad leaving a critical personnel shortage in Ghana's health sector.

The movement of talented people is not a new phenomenon. It has been going on for several decades. The general flow is from developing to developed countries. In most cases it is the skilled and most wanted professionals that move to developed world. The African continent loses a large number of professionals every year to the developed countries. As McNamara (1990) observes, the African continent spends over \$4 billion on technical assistance from developed countries annually while the African expatriates working in the same developed countries could easily provide most of the expertise required by the African Countries. This is a manifestation of the crippling effect brain drain has on indigenous African capacities.

The migration of the African professionals, including those from public universities, to developed countries has been attributed to the working conditions prevailing in the African Countries among other factors. Edokat (2000), in his study of brain drain in public universities in Cameroon, observes that economic and financial factors are the major reasons for migration of academic staff from public universities. He argues that generally there is a wide gap between income of workers in developed and developing countries. As a result, people migrate to developed countries to take advantage of the perceived higher earnings.

Ojo (1990), while agreeing with the economic gain as one cause of brain drain, observes that economic factors go beyond the personal element of salary. The underlying factors causing brain drain can be explained within the context of the macroeconomic performance of the country and the extent to which it can provide the requisite infrastructure for trained experts to utilise their skills. Some of these underlying factors include lack of professional opportunities, lack of receptivity to change in the home country, technological gap, relevance of foreign training and lack of realistic manpower policies. It is within this context that this study was conceptualised to explore the factors pushing the academics from the University of Nairobi.

1.1 Statement of the problem

Human capital is a strategic resource in the growth of an economy. It is therefore important that every country develops adequate human resources to drive its economic growth (Todaro, 1985). The development of human capital is key to poverty alleviation and sustained economic growth. However, there is a continuing trend involving movement of trained human resources from developing countries to developed ones, thus reducing the supply of professional people available in the former. This impacts on the pace of economic growth since the development of any country heavily relies on the knowledge, skills, training and attitudes of its people.

The magnitude of the brain drain problem must be viewed in terms of the availability of the professional skills in the respective African countries from which the professionals

come, the quality of the skills that are being lost, and the need for the skills lost in the country of origin (Danso, 1990). Brain drain is abhorrent to most developing countries because those who migrate represent the most critical resource in these countries. Secondly, the education of these people has been time consuming, expensive and heavily subsidised by the state (Gills, 1987). This is compounded by the high cost of replacement of the lost skills by expatriates or by training other indigenous staff.

Kenya is no exception in this phenomenon. The country has suffered massive flight of human capital which are not easy to replace. Kenyan scientists, doctors, and engineers have in the last five years moved out to other countries (Kisero, 2000). The replacement of these professionals would require a heavy investment.

Several studies have been carried out on the issues of brain drain such as those by Degefe (1994), Edokat (2000) and Beine (2001). However, their conclusions are based on different countries and cannot be applied wholesome to the Kenyan case. Similarly, few if any studies have systematically focused on how university academic staff perceive their working conditions and the actual working conditions as factors contributing to brain drain. This study was designed to fill this gap. The study focuses on a university because it has been observed that migration of professionals from the universities has wider and long lasting effects relative to the loss emanating from the migration of professionals from the civil service (Degefe, 1994).

Therefore, there is need for a critical assessment of the extent to which the perceptions of the Kenyan public university academic staff towards their working conditions are likely to cause brain drain. The study focused on the University of Nairobi because it is the oldest and biggest university in Kenya. As the “mother” university, it is a good representative of the other public universities.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The main objective of this study was to establish the extent to which the perceptions of the academic staff towards the working conditions in the University of Nairobi and the

actual working conditions are likely to cause brain drain from the University. Specifically, this study sought to:

- i) Define the perceptions of academic staff towards working conditions prevailing in the University of Nairobi and the actual working conditions.
- ii) Establish the likely and, where possible, the actual brain drain trends in various departments of the University of Nairobi

1.3 Specific research questions

This study addressed the following specific questions

- i) What are the perceptions of academic staff towards the working conditions in the University of Nairobi?
- ii) What are the actual working conditions of the academic staff in the University of Nairobi?
- iii) What are the likely, and where possible, the actual trends in brain drain in various departments in the University of Nairobi?
- iv) Is staff likely to leave the University of Nairobi as a result of the existing working conditions?

1.4 Operationalisation of concepts

1.4.1 Brain drain

There are two types of brain drain: internal and external brain drain. Internal brain drain refers to those intellectuals, professionals and other talented people who have been adequately trained to apply their skills, knowledge, energies and talents in their relevant fields but who for lack of appropriate incentives and motivation, employ their skills and talents outside their areas of training (Edokat, 2000).

External brain drain is the flow of skilled and talented people from less developed to developed countries. Myint (1971) sees brain drain as the migration of scientists, academics, doctors, engineers and others with university training from one country to another. Aderinto (1978) defines brain drain as the form of natural transfer of resources in

the form of human capital that is not recorded in any official balance of payments statistics. He further observes that this movement involves the same cadre of professions as those identified by Myint (1971).

Todaro (1985) similarly defines brain drain as the migration of high level educated manpower especially from less developed to developed countries. He further observes that thousands of scientists, engineers, academics and doctors who have been trained in home country institutions at considerable social and economic costs end up contributing to the further economic growth of the already affluent nations.

Walter (1968) argues that brain drain is the loss of a vital resource without compensation for the countries supplying the emigrants. This implies that human capital as a strategic resource for economic growth, is flowing out of economies where it could make the greatest contribution to human welfare to economies already well supplied with trained personnel.

Brain drain is caused by a number of factors, which can be put into two categories: push and pull factors. Push factors are those conditions inherent in the country from where the professionals are migrating. These factors have a negative impact on the professionals and they push them to seek employment in other countries. The push factors, as outlined by several scholars, include poor salaries and benefits, inept managerial and administrative machinery, political repression and persecution, underutilisation of skills, poor physical facilities and general lack of motivation for the professionals (Edokat, 2000, Degefe, 1994; Ngome, 2003; Jazayery, 2002 and Apraku, 1991).

The pull factors refer to the conditions existing in the country where the professionals migrate to. These conditions are attractive in nature and have a beckoning effect on the professionals. The factors include high salaries and better benefits for professionals (whether perceived or real), better research and publishing opportunities, better physical facilities including library and teaching facilities, academic freedom and general possibility of high standard of living. On a balance, the pull factors need to outweigh the

push factors to cause the professionals to move out of their country of origin. Whereas the push factors trigger the decision to move, the pull factors determine the direction of the movement.

This study focuses on the external brain drain, which is generally regarded as the international movement of talented people from one country to another in search of employment opportunities. The study focuses on the push factors by examining the factors within the working environment of academic staff in the University of Nairobi that are likely to push them out of the university.

1.4.2 Working Conditions

Edokat (2000) observes that working conditions can be looked at in terms of economic and financial factors, including the salaries and professional growth opportunities provided to professionals. Other factors characterising the working conditions are the general political factors especially the lack of academic freedom in writing and speech and inadequate funding for public universities in developing countries, resulting in poor and insufficient facilities, low salaries paid to the academic staff, rigid administrative systems, poor library condition and lack of sufficient research and training opportunities.

In this study, working conditions comprised those aspects that constitute the terms of service of employees, the policies and guidelines governing the employee's working environment, and the overall management style of an institution. These are the aspects that define the environment within which the academic staff within the University of Nairobi work.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study contributes to the understanding of the extent to which the prevailing working conditions in the public universities in Kenya influence brain drain. This will enable policy makers to formulate relevant policies aimed at solving the problem. The findings of this study will contribute to the body of knowledge available on migrations generally and brain drain in particular for Kenya as well as the African region. Through this the

management of public universities will appreciate the working conditions of academic staff and strive to improve them.

1.6 Scope and limitations of the study

The study focuses on the University of Nairobi but also discusses the continental and the national university scenes as a background. The study is focused on a university because migration of professionals from the universities has wider and longer lasting effects relative to the loss emanating from the civil service (Degefe, 1994). Despite the fact that the absence of professionals from the central government is likely to reduce its efficiency, the lack of competent academic professionals in the universities would be more detrimental in terms of the quality of human resources a country produces.

The University of Nairobi was selected for this study because of its location and size. It is the largest of the six public universities and has almost all departments found in other universities. Thus, by narrowing the scope to one university, the analysis was rendered more manageable while not much was lost in terms of identifying the extent to which the prevailing working conditions in the Kenyan public universities explained the outflow of professionals.

The study faced some limitations especially during data collection. In some instances the academic staff picked using random sampling were either on sabbatical leave or were in most times absent from the university. The researcher was forced to replace them by re-sampling after dropping such cases from the population. Some of the academic staff were reluctant to be interviewed or fill the questionnaire on their own. The researcher had to visit such members of staff 3 to 5 times to secure an interview appointment. This led to a long period of data collection.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

As stated in chapter 1, the aim of this study was to find out the academic staff perceptions of and the actual working conditions in the University of Nairobi focusing on the likelihood of influencing brain drain. The study focused on those aspects that constitute the working conditions in which the academic staff in the University of Nairobi work, how they perceive these conditions and the extent to which their perception of the conditions influence their making of the decision to leave or remain in the university employment.

2.1 Site description

This study was carried out in the University of Nairobi. Currently, the University of Nairobi has 7 campuses namely, Main Campus, Chiromo, Upper Kabete, Kikuyu, Lower Kabete, Kenyatta National Hospital and Parklands campuses. The university has 6 colleges, 14 faculties, 9 institutes and 91 departments (University of Nairobi calendar, 2001-2003) The six university colleges are:

1. College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences
2. College of Architecture and Engineering
3. College of Biological and Physical Sciences
4. College of Education and External Studies
5. College of Health Sciences
6. College of Humanities and Social Sciences

The university campuses, colleges, institutes and departments are discussed in detail in chapter 5.

2.2 Population and sampling

The population of the study comprised of all the academic staff in the University of Nairobi.

The following steps were followed in establishing the study sample.

- i) The study covered all the six colleges in the University of Nairobi. These colleges are: Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences, Architecture and Engineering, Biological and Physical Sciences, Education and External Studies, Health Sciences and Humanities and Social Sciences. All the colleges were covered to ensure that respondents represent the diversity within the university.
- ii) The faculties under each of the colleges were then sampled. Through proportionate random sampling, 7 faculties and 1 institute were selected. Proportionate random sampling was used because the number of faculties in each college varies and this method ensured that each faculty is represented in the sample proportionate to its size.
- iii) From each of the sampled 7 faculties, departments were sampled using proportionate random sampling. The sample then comprised of 12 departments and 1 institute.
- iv) The next stage entailed sampling of the academic staff to be interviewed. Given that the number of academic staff in each sampled departments and institute varies, proportionate sampling was again used to determine the number of staff to be sampled from each department as well as the institute. The names of the academic staff in each sampled departments and institute were obtained, assigned numbers and a table of random digits was used to select respondents from each department and the sampled institute. This yielded 109 academic staff (see table 2).
- v) The study used purposeful sampling to identify heads of departments to be interviewed. These formed the key informants of this study. However most of them were reluctant to give information pertaining to the actual brain drain trends.

Therefore, their involvement did not yield much information. The sampling process described above is presented in the table below:

Table 1: Description of the sampling process

Level of sampling	Sampling methodology	Sample size		Reason(s) for using the methodology
		% of population	Actual Population sample	
Colleges	Census	100%	7	Ensured that all colleges are represented in the final sample of respondents
Faculties	Proportionate random sampling	33%	1 faculty from each college except for the CHHS gave two.	Ensured that each faculty was represented in the sample proportionate to its size
Departments	Proportionate random sampling	10%	13 departments	Ensured that each department in the sampled faculties is represented in the sample proportionate to its size
Academic staff (respondents)	Proportionate random sampling and simple random sampling	50% of the total number of academic staff in each department	100 members of academic staff	Proportionate random sampling determined the number of respondents from each sampled department. This ensured that the sample represents variations in the number of academic staff in each sampled department. Simple random sampling was used to pick actual respondents and this ensured that there was no bias in picking the respondents.

- vi) The sample for this study comprised of 109 academic staff members in the sampled departments of the University of Nairobi. However, only 100 respondents were interviewed. This was due to some cases of non response in the case of those who preferred to fill the questionnaire at their own convenient time. The sampled departments and staff are outlined in the table below:

Table 2: Sample size per department

Department	Total number of staff currently employed in the departments	Sample
Animal production	11	6
Institute for Clinical Studies	13	7
Housing and Building Research Institute (HABRI)	15	8
Administration and Planning	10	5
Educational Foundation	8	4
Chemistry Department	21	11
Management Science	11	6
Business Administration	16	8
Sociology	28	14
Economics	24	12
Clinical Pharmacology	13	7
Surgery	28	14
Religious Studies	11	7
Total	209	109

2.3 Data collection and analysis

A structured questionnaire was used for data collection. The questionnaire had three sections. The first section was on the general profile of respondents, section two was on the working conditions in the University of Nairobi (UoN) and section three had questions meant to indicate the actual brain drain trends from each of the sampled departments. The later section was meant to be answered by the chair of the sampled departments. The questions sought both qualitative and quantitative data.

The researcher pre-tested the questionnaire then revised it on the basis of the pre-test. Face to face interviews were conducted for data collection. However, in some cases respondents requested to be given time to fill the questionnaire on their own. In these instances, the drop and pick method was used.

In addition to the questionnaire, other methods of data collection were employed including analysis of documents on staffing records and observations. Staff records were particularly used to give the actual number of academic staff employed in each of the

departments. Secondary data was reviewed to compliment data gathered using the above mentioned methods of data collection. The data collected was edited for completeness, consistency and coherence. The statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) was used for data analysis.

2.4 Theoretical framework

This study was guided by a reversed version of Todaro's expected income model of migration (Harris Todaro, 1985). The model states that migration is a response to rural-urban differences in expected income. Migration is seen as a response to rural-urban differences in expected rather than actual earnings. The fundamental premise is that migrants consider the various labour market opportunities available to them in the rural and urban sectors and choose the one, which maximises their "expected" gains from migration. Expected gains are measured by the differences in real incomes between rural and urban work and the probability of a new migrant obtaining an urban job.

The reversed version of this model of migration explains the reasons for migration. It suggests that migrants are pushed by low-income gains in the sector or country in which they live and work forcing them to migrate in search of better returns to their effort. Therefore, the low salaries and other compensation aspects offered to the University of Nairobi academic staff, coupled with the generally poor working conditions are significant in explaining the reasons for migration. The academic staff expectations that there might be better working conditions in other countries may form a major impetus for their migration.

CHAPTER 3

CONTEXT: THE AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES

3.0 Introduction

Africa has no more than 300 institutions that can fit the definition of a university. By international standards, Africa is the least developed region in terms of higher education institutions and enrolments. A few countries have comprehensive academic systems while most have just a few academic institutions and others are yet to establish post-secondary systems. Nigeria, Sudan, South Africa and Egypt have forty five, twenty six and twenty one and twenty seven universities respectively. A few countries including Cape Verde, Djibouti, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Seychelles and Sao Tome and Principe have no universities. Others like Somalia, Angola and Democratic Republic of Congo have lost university level institutions as a result of political turmoil (Teferra and Albatch, 2003).

Given the above situation, it is difficult to generalise the context of the universities in a continent as large and diverse as Africa. Yet there are some common elements and challenges which can best explain the situation and character of the African university. Teferra and Albatch, (2003) observe that African universities function in very difficult circumstances, and the road to future success is not an easy one. This chapter explores the context in which the African universities operate and identifies the challenges facing the universities.

Albatch and Selevaratnam (1982) note that higher education in Africa is “as old as the pyramids of Egypt, the obelisks of Ethiopia and the Kingdom of Timbuktu”. They indicate that the oldest university in the world is Egypt’s Al-Azhar, founded on the Islamic model. However, they still argue that this fact put a side; Universities in Africa and the rest of the world have adopted the Western model of academic organisation. Africa is dominated by academic institutions shaped by colonialism and organised according to European model, making universities in Africa artifacts of colonial policies.

Teffera (2003) notes that a multitude of European colonisers – including Belgium, Britain, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, Portugal and Spain – shaped Africa's route to development. These legacies affect the contemporary African universities. Britain and France, the most important colonial powers in Africa, left by far the greatest lasting impact, not only in terms of organisation of academe and the continuing links to these countries but also in the language of instruction and communication.

The common elements of the colonial policies on universities include: limited access of African nationals to higher education because the colonial authorities feared widespread access of Africans to higher education and were only interested in training a few nationals to assist in administering the colonies; The language of the coloniser as the language of instructions in every case, limited academic freedom and the autonomy of academic institutions; restricted curricula of the universities with the colonial powers favouring disciplines such as law and related subjects which would assist in colonial administration while scientific subjects were rarely offered. The legacy of colonialism remains a central factor in African universities. The effects of the linkages of the African universities to their counterparts in Europe are still prevalent. Ideas and practices embraced by the Africa universities during the pre-independence era still shape the structure and substance of African universities (Saint, 1992).

After independence, the role of the African universities changed to that of facilitating the transition to independence and to broad socio-economic development in general. Therefore, most independent African governments emphasised the role of the university in national building and national development. The newly established African governments moved to assert their sovereign rights to own and control their universities. However, their interests were more on controlling the administrative side, especially in hiring and firing senior managers and less on influencing the curriculum and research activities of the universities (Ajayi et al 1996 and Aina 1994). Not surprisingly, many African universities have continued to turn to Europe for ideas on how to restructure higher education systems and institutions (Aina, 1994).

During the 1970s, African countries entered a phase of long drawn out economic decline, accompanied by drought, famine, political instability and wars and conflicts. This period also saw the beginning of the imposition of the structural adjustment programmes. These conditions seriously eroded whatever gains universities in Africa had made. This resulted in the economic crisis on African higher education leading to resource reduction, adjustments and deterioration of services, facilities and quality of university education (Aina, 1994).

The effect of the declining conditions that most African countries find themselves in, coupled with continued slippage of some countries into political instability, wars and general bad governance has continued to undermine the effectiveness of the African universities in pursuit of her goals. It is now generally accepted that universities in Africa are in a state of crisis (Ajayi et al, 1996). This crisis is characterised by diminishing financial resources, stagnation and deterioration of physical facilities, declining salaries and brain drain, the closure of many universities and poor quality teaching and research (Aina, 1994; Mwiria & Nge'the, 2002). This chapter describes these characteristics in more details.

3.1 Socio-Economic Environment of Higher Education

If the words certitude and confidence adequately describe the mood which prevailed in most developing countries just after independence, doubt and apprehension would be the right terms to characterise the present disposition. The environment in which higher education systems in Africa operate has indeed become increasingly unstable and unpredictable.

At the economic level, the performance of higher education is directly influenced by the availability of financial resources. Higher education is sensitive to changes in the overall size of the public budget and in priorities within the budget. The budget is in turn affected by the national and international economic and financial situation. Many African countries have in the recent years accumulated a large foreign debt financed by a growing

fiscal deficit. They are further faced with the need to implement SAPs including measures to reduce public expenditures.

On the other hand, the political environment of higher education has become highly explosive. For instance, while in industrialised countries the radical student movements of the late 1960s did not go beyond shaking the established order, in developing countries student revolts have been known to topple governments as happened in south Korea and Thailand. During the 1970s students created serious political upheavals in Argentina, Bolivia, Peru, Uruguay, Bangladesh, Burma, Indonesia, India, Turkey, Nigeria, Liberia, Ghana, Niger and Senegal (Altbach, 1989).

In 1989, student unrest prompted the closure of universities in Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe. The scenario is still endemic in most universities in Africa today. In March 1991 the Malian minister of education was lynched by an angry student mob. In 1992, all Kenyan public universities were closed due to student unrest because of the introduction of cost sharing measures.

In many African countries, students protest against social, economic, cultural, political and personal injustices and they are vocal in defending their interests and benefits. However self-interest seems to be the dominant force driving student unrest in Africa today. While students have been known to fight vigorously to ensure the continuation of their benefits or resist an increase in tuition and fees, they have not been much concerned about issues of academic quality or curriculum. Hundreds of students have been seriously hurt, imprisoned, persecuted, and even killed during protests in Africa. According to a study by Federici and Caffentzis (2000), there were more than 110 reported student protests in Africa between the years 1990 and 1998. This study demonstrates that government responses to student protests are often inhumane, brutal and excessively cruel.

The presence of many autonomous actors in higher education is also a complicating factor when it comes to implementing planned change. Unlike many other public

institutions which have a relatively simple organisational and power structure, universities have a multiplicity of vertical and horizontal levels of authority and professional competence which complicate any reform attempt. It is also important to recognize that besides the students, university administrators and professors are two major subgroups with their own agendas (World Bank, 1997).

Further, because of the in built training lag, higher academic systems respond slowly to rapid change in the environment. It takes several years to develop and implement reforms in higher education structures or programmes and several more years to evaluate the performance of the new graduates. Thus, there is a substantial risk of wrong orientation or obsolescence even before the reform or innovation introduced can bear fruit. The higher education system in Africa is caught between changing demands, which are difficult to foresee, and a rigid structure, which requires years to transform. Thus the increasingly complex and in many ways volatile nature of the environment in which higher education functions makes it impossible to ignore risk as a key variable.

On the other hand, from the social and political point of view, most governments in LDCs are committed to allowing many secondary school graduates to enter higher education. As a consequence higher education has become supply driven without reference to available resources, quality standards and labour market needs. The quality of education has therefore suffered due to diminishing budgetary resources. If this trend were to continue it is not unlikely that the unchecked expansion of higher education in response to demographic and social pressures would exacerbate the problems of limited financial resources, poor quality and limited access to employment.

The state of African universities, therefore, is considered within this general context. The main issues and challenges facing the African universities that we focus on this paper include the financing of the universities, access to university education (student enrolment), governance and management of the universities, and the problem of brain drain.

3.2 State of African universities

Throughout the world higher education has faced major economic and financial challenges in the recent decades; demand has increased dramatically while resources have become more constrained. These challenges are severe in Africa, where higher education institutions have faced stringent budget cuts and severe shortages of qualified staff despite rising public demand for access to higher education and improvements in the quality and equity of that education (Woodhall, 20003).

In many countries the quality of university teaching and research has declined as a result of overcrowding, inadequate staffing, deteriorating physical facilities, poor library resources and insufficient scientific equipment. Internal efficiency is often very low and there is a rising problem of graduate unemployment. Except for a few universities, most of them in South Africa, all the other sub-saharan universities now operate at the periphery of the international scientific community unable to engage in the generation and application of the advanced knowledge to address social and economic development problems.

Declining public funding of higher education in the 1990s triggered off an urgent demand for reform in the ways universities were financed and managed. The measures most frequently adopted by universities to counter the decreased availability of funds include strategies to reduce costs, measures to recover costs and efforts to mobilise new resources. The severe cutbacks on government disbursements have led to universities running on a shoe string budget. This has had repercussions on the provision of facilities for research, library resources, maintenance and renewal of physical plants, staff recruitment and training and running of postgraduate programmes.

The total annual expenditure for higher education in Africa does not come close to the endowments of some of the richest universities in the United States of America. The budgets of individual universities in many industrialised countries exceed the entire national budgets for higher education in many African countries. Governments in Africa bear the burden of financing of the universities. However, given the limited resources

available, the funding to universities is greatly constrained. For instance, in Ghana, its public universities requested US\$32 million in 2000 and the government only provided US\$18 million. In Uganda, the education sector received 33% of the national budget and tertiary education accounted for 18% of this total (Woodhall, 2003)

Further, by all measure and accounts, research and publishing activities in Africa are in a critical condition. The general state of research in Africa is extremely poor, and its research infrastructure is inadequate. Scarcity of laboratory equipment, chemicals and other scientific research paraphernalia, a small number of high level experts, poor and dilapidated libraries, alarmingly low and declining salaries of faculty and research staff, massive brain drain, the "expansion" of undergraduate education and non existent or unreliable sources of research funds all remain major hurdles to the development of research capacity across the continent.

Most countries in Africa have practically no funds allocated to research in university budgets. Expenditures on research and development in Ghana for example show a declining trend from around 0.7% of the GDP in the mid 1970s to 0.1% - 0.2 % of the GDP in 1983 to 1987. There is little to suggest that this trend has changed. In Uganda, the amount earmarked for research in Makerere University for the financial year 1999/2000 was a mere US\$ 80,000. As a consequence, research in the country has remained underdeveloped and heavily dependent on donor funding. In Malawi, only 0.7% of the University of Malawi budget was allocated to research and publications in 1999 (Teferra and Altbach, 2003).

In most of the African universities, journals, periodicals and databases are either lacking or are extremely scarce. The escalating cost of journals and ever dwindling library and university funds have exacerbated the problems. Local publishing infrastructure is weak and generally unreliable. The issue of local publications is complicated by many competing factors including the small number of researchers with the energy, time, funds and support needed to sustain journals; lack of qualified editors and editorial staff, shortage of publishable materials, restrictive environment that inhibits freedom of speech

and lack of commitment to and appreciation of journal production by university administrators. It is, therefore, a stark contradiction that African academics are expected to publish their work in an academic context that does not even provide them with access to the journals, databases and other publications that are vital in keeping abreast of international developments in science and scholarship (Teferra, 2002)

Most African governments are intolerant of dissent, criticism, non-conformity and free expression of controversial, new or unconventional ideals. Serious violations of freedom of speech and expression by security forces, opposition groups, and militant groups in Algeria have silenced not only scholars but also the citizens as a whole. In Kenya, Ngome (2003) writes that unwarranted government interference and abuses of academic freedom in the past eroded the autonomy and quality of the higher learning institutions. This was mainly true up to 2002 when a new political dispensation came into existence. The summary expulsion of over 40 university professors and lecturers from Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia, in the mid 1990s epitomises a gross violation of academic freedom and illustrates the intolerance of academic freedom that governments in many African countries have. In such an environment, the academic community is often careful not to overtly offend those in power. This contributes to a perpetuation of a culture of self-censorship. Those who courageously speak their mind and express their views often find themselves facing dictators capable of using terror, kidnapping, imprisonment, expulsion, torture and even death to silence dissident voices.

Efficient management and administrative systems are of paramount significance to the productivity and effectiveness of any enterprise; academic institutions are no exception. African universities suffer from poor, inefficient and highly bureaucratic management systems. Poorly trained personnel; inefficient, ineffective and out of date management and administrative infrastructures; poorly remunerated staff are the norm throughout the many system

3.3 The specific problems of brain drain in African Universities

One of the most serious challenges facing many African countries is the departure of their best scholars and scientists away from universities. The flow away from domestic university academic staff occurs with regard to both internal mobility (locally) and to regional and overseas migration.

Major public institutions in many countries have lost significant numbers of their key academic staff members to emerging private higher education institutions and other commercially oriented institutions, perhaps not only in terms of physical removal of those who leave but also in terms of the time, commitment and loyalty of remaining academic staff. In many countries, academic staff often hold more than one job outside the university to help make ends meet and as a consequence may spread themselves too thin to fulfil their university responsibilities of teaching and research.

The academic staff are also lured away by a variety of government agencies, where salaries are often better and the working environment more comfortable. In many cases the salaries and benefits in universities are lower than comparative positions in the private sector. For instance, a comparative salary analysis in Ghana in 1993 revealed that salary levels in sectors such as energy, finance, revenue collection and the media were all higher than those of the universities. In many of the emerging private institutions salaries and benefits are rather higher when compared to salaries and benefits for the academic staff. In Ethiopia, for instance, a private college is reported to be paying its academic staff a monthly salary as much as three times what a public university is paying. In Uganda the migration of senior staff from tertiary institutions especially from Makerere university was of paramount concern in the early 1990s. The relative improvement of employment conditions, salaries, the standard of living and fringe benefits for the academic staff has worked to halt this exodus and brain drain from Uganda. However, the growing and better-paid private sector and the higher level civil service continue to lure seasoned academicians away from tertiary institutions (Teferra and Albatch, 2003).

They further observe that, academic staff migration to overseas and South African countries has also brought about serious shortages of well-qualified professionals in some African countries. Many academic departments have lost their pre-eminent academic staff. For instance, several senior scholars from Addis Ababa University Ethiopia hold faculty positions at the University of Botswana. Zambian graduates and university academic staff have also been migrating to South Africa and Zimbabwe.

Civil strife, political persecutions and social upheavals instigated the exodus of highly trained personnel from countries such as Somalia, Liberia, Ethiopia, Togo, Sierra-Leone and Nigeria. Rwanda and Algeria have also seen systematic killings of academics and intellectuals because of their ethnicity and predilections. For example, in Rwanda skilled personnel and professionals have been either killed or have gone into exile leaving a huge vacuum in the intellectual labour force, a phenomenon that has greatly affected every domestic sector and curbed the process of national development. Even before 1994, when the infamous genocide took place, many sectors of the national economy suffered from a serious shortage of professionals and management staff. The war and genocide only aggravated this situation.

Some African countries' capacity to retain highly trained personnel is low. This makes them vulnerable to losing professionals to countries that have relatively better working conditions. For instance, the South African job market provides better salary packages thus attracting many professionals within the region. This can be demonstrated by the fact that students from Lesotho who study at South African institutions together with those who graduate from them seldom return home upon completion of their studies. They instead take positions in South Africa. In Switzerland, not only has the flight of school teachers created a negative climate for education but the university has also suffered from the exodus of professors seeking better positions to other countries, particularly South Africa.

Academics and other professionals in Nigeria have migrated to other countries, most notably, the USA, South Africa, Saudi Arabia and member countries of the European

union. It is estimated that there are at least 10000 Nigerian academics and 21000 Nigerian doctors in the United States alone. Many of the best and most experienced academics from South Africa are equally migrating to Australia, Britain, Canada, the United States and other developed countries. It is ironic that while several countries complain about the loss of their highly skilled labour to South Africa, South Africa itself experiences a great loss of its talent to other countries.

In a nutshell, social upheavals, political instability, economic uncertainty, real and perceived persecutions and poor working and living conditions are often the most common causes of brain drain. Most African countries are still unable to rid themselves of these economic, social and political hurdles that drive away many of their highly qualified and trained experts.

CHAPTER 4

THE KENYAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

4.0 Introduction

Kenya has six public and thirteen private universities. The public universities are University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Egerton University, Maseno University, Moi University and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. Of the thirteen private universities, only five are accredited – Daystar University, United States International University-Africa, Scott Theological College, Catholic University of East Africa (CUEA) and the University of East Africa – Baraton.

4.1 Historical Overview of the Kenyan Public Universities

Nairobi University is the oldest university in Kenya. Its historical overview is discussed in chapter five.

4.1.1 Kenyatta University

Kenyatta University (K.U) is situated about 16 kilometres from Nairobi along Nairobi Thika dual carriageway on 1,100 acres of land. The institution became a full-fledged university on August 23, 1985, when the Kenyatta University Act was given the presidential assent. The new university was inaugurated on 17th December 1985. Before then K.U used to be a constituent college of Nairobi University. It admitted its first batch of undergraduate students in 1972. In 1978, it became the only institution-training teachers at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels after the faculty of education formerly at the University of Nairobi was transferred to Kenyatta campus.

The university has grown over the years. Besides offering courses leading to the award of the bachelor of education in the various fields, Kenyatta University now offers various Bachelor of Arts and science degree programmes as well as postgraduate diplomas, masters and doctoral degrees.

4.1.2 Moi University

In 1981, the government appointed a seven man presidential working party to prepare detailed plans and recommendations on how the government's decision to establish a second University could be implemented. The decision was necessitated by the ever increasing demand for higher education, and the consequent pressure which this demand for higher education was exerting on the UoN which was the only institution of higher learning in the country at that time.

The working party reported overwhelming support in the country for the establishment of a university which is technical oriented, focusing on problems of rural development in its training and research programmes. The report further recommended that Moi University should develop linkages with non-degree awarding technical institutions. The technical perspective was to be blended with a social and cultural orientation. These recommendations form the backbone of Moi University and are the guiding principles of its present and future programmes.

The Moi university act was passed on 8th June 1984. The inauguration of the university council followed later on July 1984. The first group of 83 students were admitted on October 1984. They were all in the department of forestry, which had been transferred from UoN to form a nucleus of the first academic programme of Moi University. The department was expanded into a full-fledged faculty of forest resources and wildlife management. The University was finally inaugurated in December 1985.

Today, the University has two campuses: the Moi University Campus and the Chepkoilel Campus. Moi University Campus is located 35km South East of Eldoret town. Chepkoilel Campus is located in what was formerly Moi Teachers College. It was established in 1990 as a campus college of Moi University. It is situated 9km North of Eldoret municipality on the Eldoret-Ziwa road and 3km away from the Eldoret – Iten road.

4.1.3 Egerton University

Egerton University can be traced back to the colonial period in the 1950s when it was launched as a college of agriculture and veterinary sciences to cater for the needs of the agricultural settlers in what was then known as the “white highlands” of Kenya. The diploma, agriculture and Veterinary College had a “cultural shock” when it was made a constituent college of UoN in 1986 and within a very short time transformed into a full-fledged university (Bali and Mutunga, 1992). It had a special problem in staffing due to the short duration in its transformation. The college was an agricultural college with all the staff trained in agriculture and veterinary science. It therefore lacked staff in other fields as well as material resources in the established faculties. Amidst its constraints the university was able to establish a master’s postgraduate level training in 1989 and today it is fully developed with both masters and doctoral training programmes.

New degree programmes have replaced most diploma courses in the faculty of agriculture. Some faculties have also seen a lot of expansion. For example the faculty of education has expanded from two departments in 1990 to eight at present. New programmes include faculty of environmental science and natural resources established in 1999, which has two departments. The newest programme is the faculty of Health and Sciences which was established in response to demand by students in 2002 (Ng’ethe and Mwiria, 2002).

4.1.4 Maseno University

Maseno University was established by a government order in October 1990 with an enrolment of 1,600 students. The students were enrolled prior to recruitment of the academic and administrative staff. The university was formerly a constituent university college of Moi University.

The university has had staff and administrative constraints all along due to the mode of its initiation. During its early stages the college used to be the most congested campus among the Kenyan public universities. Bali and Mutunga (1992) argue that the

congestion greatly affect postgraduate research at the college. This is aggravated by the fact that the student staff ratios are very low. They further observe that in this university tutorial fellows who should be undertaking their research for academic development are full time lecturers overloaded with teaching assignments. It might also be difficult to release them for staff development overseas because of their teaching loads and financial constraints for scholarships.

4.1.5 Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) was upgraded into a full fledged university in 1994. Before then, it was a constituent college of Kenyatta University. It offers mainly technology based courses.

4.2 Student Enrolment in Kenyan Universities

There has been massive expansion of student enrolment in universities in the country. There are about 50,000 students enrolled in the Kenyan Universities. 80% of whom are enrolled in public universities. The student numbers have particularly swollen after the 1990's following the introduction of self-sponsored programmes and the establishment of several constituent colleges of public universities (Nge'the and Mwiria, 2002). Table 3 shows this scenario.

Table 3: The undergraduate enrolment in the public and private universities between 1996 and 2000.

Universities	1996-97		1997-98		1998-99		1999-2000	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Public	24,624	10,228	27,586	10,940	28,231	12,339	28,502	12,773
Private accredited	2,534	2,676	1,971	2,053	2,942	3,090	3,217	3,785
Other Private	558	196	671	275	667	292	746	377
Total	27,716	13,100	30,228	13,268	31,840	15,721	32,465	16,935

Source: Nge'the and Mwiria (2002).

Gender and regional imbalances have shaped and continue to shape the development of higher education in Kenya. The proportion of female enrolment declines as girls and women move up the educational ladder. As a result, female students make up only 30%

of total enrolments in public universities. Female students under-representation is high in Engineering and Technical based professional programmes. This situation is reflected in the table below:

Table 4: Undergraduate admissions in Engineering and Technical based degree programmes in Kenya's public universities by gender 1997-98

Universities	Male		Female		Total number
	Number	%	Number	%	
Architecture	44	88	6	12	50
Civil Engineering	86	93.5	6	6.5	92
Mechanical Engineering	72	96	3	4	75
Electrical Engineering	51	87.9	7	12.1	58
Computer Science	50	78.1	14	21.9	64
Total number	303	89.4	36	10.6	339

Source: Ngome 2003

Entry into higher education institutions is based on the performance in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE). This is in accordance with the 8-4-4 system of education. The minimum requirement for university admission is a mean grade of C+ in KCSE examination. MoEST indicates that about 150,000 students sit for KCSE examinations annually but public universities admit about 10,000 students. This means that not all students who attain C+ eventually get admitted to the public universities. This has forced some of the qualified students to seek university education in the private universities and universities outside Kenya.

The Kenyan public universities have started expanding their facilities to accommodate most of the students who would otherwise seek university education elsewhere. The universities have adopted a strategy of expanding facilities through signing co-operative agreements with other institutions through which they can reach out to more students. The table below shows the institutions co-operating with the public universities to offer university courses.

Table 5: Institutions co-operating with public universities and the courses they offer

Centres	Programmes
<p>JKUAT has 18 centres: JKUAT MMs Juja, Loreto Msongari, Nairobi; Kenya School of Professional Studies, Nairobi; Diamond Systems, Nairobi; Gitwe Technical College, Murang'a Nyandarua Adventist Technical College, Kisii; Lamu Polytechnic, Lamu; Kenya College of Accountancy, Nairobi & Kisumu Campus; Strathmore College of Accountancy, Nairobi; Jaffrey Institute of Professional Studies, Mombasa; Bandari College, Mombasa; Kenya Airforce Technical College, Nairobi; Kenya College of Communications Technology (KCCT), Nairobi; Holy Rosary, Tala, Machakos; Regional Centre for Mapping of Resources for Development, Nairobi; Institute for Advanced Technology (Symphony Ltd), Nairobi.</p>	<p>Bsc. Information Technology Diploma in IT Certificate in IT Bridging course in Mathematics Bachelor of Commerce Bachelor of Business Management BSC in Computer Technology MSC in Entrepreneurship BSC in Electrical and Electronic Engineering BSC in Telecommunications Engineering</p>
<p>Kenyatta University has 8 regional centres: St. Ann's Junior Academy, Nairobi; Nakuru High, Rift Valley Province; Kakamega High, Western Province; Kimathi Institute Nyeri, Central Province; Todor Day Secondary School, Mombasa, Coast Province; Kangaru High School, Embu, Eastern Province; and Kisumu Day Secondary School, Kisumu.</p>	<p>Certificate diploma and bachelor's Degree courses in: computing, Laboratory techniques, forest Management, disaster management, Participatory project planning, health and environment, foods and nutrition, HIV and family education. Early Childhood age and education, public Relations, tourism, commerce, human Resource development, marketing, IT Postgraduate diploma in: education, Journalism, distance education in school Management, Masters Phd programmes in the same disciplines.</p>
<p>University of Nairobi has 7 regional centres: Mombasa, Nairobi, Nakuru, Nyeri, Kisumu, Kakamega, Embu</p>	<p>Bed Arts, B.Ed (Science), Med</p>
<p>Moi University has 3 centres; Town campus Eldoret, Kenya Ports Authority Depot Eldoret and the third centre Mombasa.</p>	<p>Bed (Arts), Bed B.com (Science), Med, MBA, Bachelor of business management, MBA, IT, Bachelor of Medicine etc</p>
<p>Egerton University has one center in Nakuru town</p>	<p>B.com, Business management, IT, B.Ed (Arts), Bed (Science)</p>
<p>Maseno University has one centre in Kisumu</p>	<p>B.com and Business Management</p>

Source: Mwiria and Nge'he, 2002

4.3 Governance of public universities in Kenya

All the public universities were headed by the President as the Chancellor up to 2002. Beginning 2003, in the new political dispensation, the president appointed a Chancellor to each of the public universities. The President appoints Vice Chancellors and Principals of the universities and nominates most of the University Council members. The Council is composed of academic staff, students, the Minister for MoEST and the Permanent Secretaries of the Ministries of Education and Finance. University Councils are responsible for formulating policy, creating faculties and departments, and approving university staff appointment. The university senate is responsible to the Council for academic affairs and for the financial and administrative management of the universities. The senate is composed of the vice chancellors and heads of departments and student representatives.

In Kenya, the university administration has been the key means through which the government imposes its will on the university community. Bali and Mutunga (1992) argue that the government is over represented in the public universities' affairs. 60% of the council members are government nominees. Given this situation, members of the university community have no say in the appointment of the university administrators. Aware that their appointment is dependent on the government's goodwill, these administrators generally tend to be more accountable to the state as opposed to the communities which they are appointed to serve and have often exhibited some of the most anti-academic behaviour against their fellow colleagues. Administrators feel insecure because their tenure depends on the government's good will. In an attempt to fulfil the government expectations, senior administrators often resort to actions, which ignore the sentiments and even the needs of the university.

4.4 Financing and funding patterns

Until 1970s, university education in Kenya was free with the government meeting all the cost. In the mid 1970s, undergraduate students received a government loan to finance their education, covering tuition, accommodation, subsistence and books. During the 1991-92 academic year, the government introduced a cost-sharing scheme that required students to pay direct fees of US\$80 (Kshs6000) and a new student loan of about

USD280 (Kshs21,000) per annum. All students were eligible for the loan regardless of their economic status. A bursary system was introduced for the students who were unable to raise the direct charge. This financing system was revised in 1995 with the direct charge being raised to US\$107 and the loan increased to US\$560.

In a study carried out by Ng'ethe and Mwiria (2002) it is established that the current funding of the Kenyan public universities is based on a unit cost system. The unit cost is the amount of money a university spends on one student per year per degree programme. The current unit cost of US\$1,660 is comprised of tuition (US\$1,147) and catering, accommodation and other costs (US\$453). The government's capitation per university is computed by multiplying the total number of students in the university by US\$993, which is the government annual grant per student. The present unit cost which was computed in 1995 using figures from 1991-92 audited accounts of universities is grossly inadequate as a basis for funding the universities. Thus the public universities end up facing a huge deficit. Moreover, the system does not take into account the differential costs of the various degree programmes. It actually introduces inequity in the funding of universities with universities offering science and technology programmes being disadvantaged. Below are the statistics on the level of deficit experienced by the Kenyan public universities between 1991 and 1996.

Table: 6 Cumulative Recurrent Deficits for Kenyan Public Universities

Year	Deficits in Ksh	Deficits in US\$
1991	222,705,554	2,969,407
1992	310,858,544	4,144,781
1993	216,326,145	2,884,348
1994	147,715,640	1,969,542
1995	135,313,271	1,804,177
1996	503,280,783	6,710,410

Source: Nge'the and Mwiria, 2002

In developing the unit cost system, the post graduate students were not taken into account. Consequently, there is no direct government capitation for postgraduate programmes. This further puts pressure on the universities as they are still required to cater for the post graduate programmes inspite of the government grant not covering the programmes.

Kenya's public universities are therefore currently faced by a financial crisis that is characterised by shrinking revenues from the government, staff employment, escalating debts and deficits, limited alternative sources of funds, inefficient methods of collecting fees from students, low returns from full cost recovery units, poor fundraising and use of a defective unit cost as a basis for providing budgetary allocations. Faced with this deteriorating climate, the public universities are bridging this shortfall by mounting income-generating activities. These have primarily involved using university facilities and expertise to expand enrolment of self sponsored students, initiating business ventures and organising consultancy services. (Ngome, 2003).

Further, reduced disbursement of funds from the treasury is causing total frustration at work particularly for the academic staff (BERC, 1994). Those in science departments find themselves half of the time chasing non-existent chemicals and equipment, simply because there is no money. Even in Arts departments basic things such as printing papers are a luxury. Most lecturers have stopped preparing handouts because of this very reason. The depriving situation in Kenyan universities only breeds frustration in most lecturers who see themselves producing obviously mediocre and ill prepared students but can do nothing about it.

A survey carried out at Kenyatta University by Bali and Mutunga (1992) found out that academic staff salaries are at times not paid on time and nobody cares to explain why. Anyone who cannot countenance this situation either ends up shouting himself/herself hoarse to no avail or simply decides to go elsewhere where he/she can have job satisfaction.

Inadequate financing of the university education has led to consequent frustration of operations by insufficient funding at the University of Nairobi. As a result the university faces serious shortages of published materials such as books and journals, basic resources for teaching, the simple laboratory equipment and supplies such as chemicals to do research and teaching.

4.5 Income Generating Activities and Privately Sponsored Students

In an effort to bridge the financial shortfalls and enhance their missions, public universities have mounted innovative income generating activities (IGAs). The IGAs include privatisation of education in the universities and expansion of self sponsored students through the introduction of parallel and external degree programmes. The UoN for instance has about 3,000 self-supporting students while Kenyatta University has roughly 2,000. Maseno University which took the challenge of generating supplementary sources of income through its investments and economic enterprises programme in 1994, introduced farm, bookshop and photocopy, housing and transport services.

The various income generating activities, especially the parallel/self-sponsored programmes are succeeding in generating significant income for public universities. For example, during the 1998/1999 and part of 1999/2000 fiscal years, the University of Nairobi earned a total of Kshs.224 million (US\$ 2,986,667) and Kshs. 240 million (US\$3 2 million) respectively from parallel degree programmes (Mwiria and Nge'the, 2002). The table below illustrates the revenue from the IGAs.

Table 7: The IGAs Gross Wages Turnover for the Period 1996-1999 for Kenyatta University (Kshs '000s¹)

IGAs	Annual Revenue			Gross Wages	Gross wages turnover (times)		
	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99		1996/97	1997/98	1998/99
Games and Sports	16,000	10,000	16,000	2,468,160	0.006	0.004	0.006
Bookshop	750,000	750,000	1,714,590	1,214,640	0.62	0.62	1.41
Performing & Creative Arts	600,000	600,000	600,000	2,390,040	0.25	0.25	0.25
Child Care Unit	240,000	240,000	240,000	385,920	0.62	0.62	0.62
Transport	405,000	460,000	1,240,000	5,390,520	0.075	0.085	0.23
Tailoring	*	240,000	2,000,000	1,053,940	*	0.23	1.90
PGDE	14,5000	16,100,000	19,847,444	1,079,180	13.44	14.83	18.39

¹ Ksh = Kenya Shillings. For most of 2002, 1US\$ = Ksh 75.

Mugumo Restaurant	*	1,000,000	16,000,000	1,680,480	*	0.60	9.52
Out of Africa Restaurant	1,131,516	1,504,957	1,730,405	946,440	1.20	1.60	1.83
Mt. Kenya Restaurant	*	150,000	149,145	1,547,900	*	0.10	0.10
Computer Centre	*	102,000	239,395	1,355,660	*	0.08	0.18
BTC	1,956,665	1,710,783	684,228	198,600	1.15	1.01	0.40
Housing	2,009,386	2,500,000	1,671,669	1,299,900	1.55	1.92	1.29
AVUJ Project	*	4,000,000	65,000,000	1,640,260	*	2.44	39.63
MBA (part-time)	*	1,350,000	700,000	352,800		3.83	1.98

* Refers to the IGAs not in existence then

Source: Ng'ethe and Mwiria, (2002)

4.6 Staffing in Kenyan public universities

The number of academic staff in the Kenyan public universities stands at 3,536 while there are 10,217 non academic staff. Since government funding of public universities is based on the number of students and not the total number of staff, institutions that are overstaffed tend to spend most of their funds on emoluments and less on operations and maintenance. To avoid this situation, it is necessary to generate a model for determining optimal staff size. Towards this end, the GOK required public universities to downsize their staff during the 2000/2001 academic year. The first phase of this imposed reform was concluded in April 2001 and saw the retrenchment of 3,203 employees in the lower cadres. This cut the non-academic staff from a total of 13,420 to the current level of 10,217. The University of Nairobi had an excess of about 2,517 support staff, retrenched 1,838, followed by Egerton (502), Kenyatta (378), Maseno (243), Moi (200) and JKUAT (42) (Mwiria and Nge'the, 2002).

The case of the teaching staff in the public universities is somewhat better as shown in Table 3.1. However, academic establishments based on Full Time Staff Equivalent (FTSE) computed by the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) using staff-student ratios at an average of 1:12 (for academic staff) and 1:3 (for non-academic staff) was rather generous in comparison with industrialized countries where staff-student ratios are much lower than this (UoN 1999, Mwiria and Ng'ethe 2002, Ngome, 2003). The above authors further observe that applying a ratio of 1:18, which is the average in Commonwealth universities, reveals that public universities have been overstaffed. The University of Nairobi, for instance, had been overstaffed by approximately 740 teaching staff during the 1990s. The tendency for public universities to have student faculty ratios

that are too low is the negative side of offering a wide a range of programmes and courses in each institution some of which have very few subscribers and yet they must be taught by a full staff complement. (University of Nairobi, 1999).

Table 8: Staff to student ratios in public universities, Kenya 1994-1997

University	Ration of academic staff to students			Ration of support staff to students		
	1994-95	1995-96	1996-7	1994-95	1995-96	1996-7
Nairobi	1:9	1:9	1:9	1:3	1:3	1:3
JKUAT	1:9	1:9	1:9	1:3	1:3	1:3
Moi	1:12	1:6	1:6	1:4	1:3	1:3
Egerton	1:14	1:14	1:14	1:4	1:3	1:3
Kenyatta	1:16	1:14	1:14	1:4	1:5	1:5
Maseno	1:18	1:12	1:12	1:3	1:3	1:3
Average	1:13	1:12	1:12	1:3	1:3	1:3

Source: (University of Nairobi, 1999; Ngome, 2003; Ngéthe and Mwiria 2002)

The academic staff in Kenyan public universities increased from 450 in 1970s to current levels of 3,536. The composition of this staff is predominantly male. Women constitute a mere 22 percent of the total academic staff. Such a low male / female ratio is directly related to the ratios of female graduate output, as it is from this category that the universities academic staff is recruited. The table below shows the staffing position of academic staff in public universities during the 2001/2002 academic year by gender.

Table 9: Academic Staff by University, Rank and Gender in the Kenyan Public Universities, 2000/2001 Academic Year

University	Full Professor		Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer		Lecturer		Ass. Lecturer/Tutorial Fellow/ Graduate Asst		Totals	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Nairobi	88 (61)	4 (44.4)	141 (56.6)	26 (63.4)	234 (47.6)	55 (55.6)	488 (34.4)	151 (35.6)	120 (27.4)	38 (17.8)	1,071 (39)	274 (34.8)
Moi	17 (12)	1 (11.1)	39 (15.7)	2 (4.9)	63 (12.8)	6 (6.1)	329 (23.2)	67 (15.8)	79 (17.9)	41 (19.2)	528 (19.2)	115 (14.6)
Kenyatta	28 (14)	2 (6.7)	20 (8.8)	3 (2.4)	97 (19.7)	26 (26.2)	175 (12.7)	100 (23.6)	113 (25.6)	75 (35)	434 (15.8)	203 (25.8)
Egerton	5 (3.3)	2 (22.2)	22 (8.8)	7 (17.1)	34 (6.9)	4 (4)	194 (13.7)	50 (11.8)	71 (16)	40 (18.7)	325 (11.8)	103 (13.1)

Maseno	13 (9)	1 (11.1)	10 (4)	1 (2.4)	28 (5.7)	5 (5.1)	107 (7.5)	32 (7.5)	4(0.9)	13 (6)	164 (5.9)	52 (6.6)
JKUAT	1 (0.7)	1 (11.1)	15 (6)	4 (9.8)	36 (7.3)	3 (3)	121 (8.5)	24 (5.7)	54 (12.2)	7 (3.3)	227 (8.3)	40 (5.1)
Total	14 100	9 (100)	249 (100)	41 (100)	492 (100)	99 (100)	1420 (100)	424 (100)	44 (100)	214 (100)	2,749 (100)	787 (100)

Source: Mwiria and Nge'the, 2003

4.7 Relationship between public and private universities

Public and private universities in Kenya are influencing and complementing each other in several ways. The public universities have scheduled the classes for self-sponsored academic programmes in the evenings, during weekdays and on weekends and public holidays. This has made it possible for working people to pursue university education while continuing to undertake their regular responsibilities. This idea was borrowed from the private university sector. Private universities, in their part, have benefited from public universities by utilizing their academic staff on a part-time basis to supplement their shortfall. Both the private and public university (through the self-sponsored programme) are expanding access to university education at no extra cost to the public and are responding flexibly to market demands for specialist skills.

CHAPTER 5 UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI-QUESTIONNAIRE ANALYSIS

5.0 General description of the University of Nairobi

The University of Nairobi is central to the historical development of university education in Kenya. The University was established in 1970. Prior to this, it operated as the Royal Technical College established in 1951 under the Makerere College. The Royal Technical College offered technical and commercial education for the countries of East Africa.

In 1958, a working party chaired by Sir John Lockwood, Vice Chancellor of the University of London, recommended that the Royal Technical College be transformed into the second inter-territorial university college in East Africa. This recommendation was accepted by the East African governments and in 1961, the Royal Technical College was transformed into the second University College of East Africa and renamed the Royal College Nairobi. In 1963, the Royal College Nairobi became the University College Nairobi following the establishment of the University of East Africa with Makerere, Dar es Salaam and Nairobi as constituent colleges.

In 1970, the University of East Africa was dissolved with each of the three East African countries establishing their own national universities under the respective acts of parliament. The University College Nairobi was therefore renamed University of Nairobi. The University of Nairobi Act of 1970 also established Kenyatta University College as a constituent college of the University of Nairobi.

In accordance with the University of Nairobi Act of 1985, the organisational and management structure of the university comprises of the Chancellor, the University Council and the Senate. The following is a brief description of roles of these structures.

1. The Chancellor: By an Act of Parliament, the President of Kenya is automatically the Chancellor of the university. However, the Act allows for the president to delegate his duty as a chancellor to another person. This explains the current

situation whereby the president has appointed chancellors for each public university. The Chancellor is the head of the university and appoints the chair of the Council and its members and the Vice Chancellor of the university.

2. The University Council: The council has the ultimate authority of all university matters, except for academic matters, which are largely vested in the senate and other academic committees.
3. The Senate: This is the supreme academic body and it is responsible for all academic matters of the university.

Currently, the University of Nairobi has 7 campuses namely, Main Campus, Chiromo, Upper Kabete, Kikuyu, Lower Kabete, Kenyatta National Hospital and Parklands campuses. The university has 6 colleges, 14 faculties, 9 institutes and 91 departments (University of Nairobi calendar, 2001-2003).

The University of Nairobi campuses are described briefly below:

University of Nairobi - Main campus: The main campus is situated near the Nairobi City Centre and is bounded by the Harry Thuku road on the east, university way and Nyerere road to the south, Mamlaka road to the west and Msonga wai/ Nairobi rivers to the north. The Main Campus houses the following University Colleges, Faculties and Institutes:

- i) College of Architecture, Design and Development
- ii) Faculty of Engineering.
- iii) College of Humanities and Social Sciences
- iv) Faculty of Arts
- v) School of journalism
- vi) Institute for Development Studies (IDS)
- vii) Institute of Diplomacy and International Studies (IDIS),
- viii) Institute for Nuclear Science

The Main Campus also houses the Central University Administration Offices, Jomo Kenyatta Memorial Library and the University Bookshop

Chiromo Campus: The Chiromo campus is located along the Msonga Wai River, some two kilometres from the main campus off riverside drive. The campus accommodates the college of biological and physical sciences within which there is the faculty of science, the pre clinical medical and veterinary departments and the institute of computer science.

Upper Kabete campus: The Upper Kabete campus is situated close to the northwestern city boundary off Kapenguria road; some thirteen kilometres from the main campus. This campus houses the College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences, The Clinical Departments of the faculty of Veterinary Medicine and the Faculty of Agriculture. The Institute of Dry Land Research and Utilisation located about 250 kilometres from Nairobi at Kibwezi is affiliated to this campus.

Lower Kabete campus: The lower Kabete campus is located about 10 kilometres from the main campus along Lower Kabete Road and it houses the Faculty of Commerce.

Kikuyu Campus: The Kikuyu campus is located approximately 24 kilometres from the main campus. This is where the College of Education and External Studies is located.

Kenyatta National Hospital Campus: The Kenyatta National Hospital Campus is located about 5 kilometres from the main campus within Kenyatta National Hospital. The College of Health Sciences is located in this campus.

Parklands campus: The parklands campus is along Parklands Road, about 4 kilometres from the Main Campus. It houses the Faculty of Law.

Institute of African studies: The Institute of African Studies is located next to the National Museum, along Museum road, about one kilometre from the main campus.

The University of Nairobi comprises of the following colleges, faculties, Institutes and departments.

(A) College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences

Faculty	Departments
Agriculture	Food technology and nutrition
	Crop protection
	Crop science
	Soil science
	Agricultural economics
	Range management
	Agricultural engineering
Vet. Medicine	Vet. Anatomy
	Vet. Pathology
	Clinical studies
	Public health
	Animal physiology
	Animal production
Institute of Dry land Research, Development and Utilization	Research and development
	Extension

(B). College of Architecture and Engineering

Faculty	Departments
Architecture, Design and Development	Architecture
	Building economics and management
	Design
	Land development
	Urban and regional planning
	Agricultural engineering
	Civil engineering
	Mechanical engineering
	Electrical and electronic engineering
Surveying	
Housing and building research institute	
Institute of nuclear	

(C) College of Biological and Physical Sciences

Faculty	Departments
Faculty of science	Chemistry
	Physics
	Maths
	Geology
	Meteorology
	Zoology
	Botany
Pre-clinical departments	
Institute of computer science	

(D) College of Education and External Studies

Faculty	Departments
Faculty of social sciences	Business and economics
	Mathematics
	Geography
	History and government
	Kiswahili
	Linguistics and literature
	Philosophy and religious studies
	Psychology
Faculty of Education	Educational foundation
	Educational communication and technology
	Administration and planning
Faculty of External Studies	Educational studies
	Distance studies
	Extra-mural studies
	Economics and Business studies
	Legal studies

(E) College of Health Sciences

Faculty	Departments
Medicine	Human anatomy
	Medical physiology
	Medical biochemistry
	Medical microbiology
	Haematology and blood transfusion
	Human pathology
	Clinical pharmacology
	Clinical chemistry
	Diagnostic radiology
	Medicine
	Surgery
	Orthopaedic surgery
	Ophthalmology
	Obstetrics and gynaecology
	Psychiatry
	Paediatrics
Community health	
Nursing sciences	
Dental sciences	Peridontology and community Dentistry
	Conservative and prosthetic dentistry
	Oral surgery/maxillofacial /oral medicine and pathology
	Paediatric dentistry orthodontics
Pharmacy	Pharmaceutical chemistry
	Pharmacy and pharmacy practice
	Pharmacology and pharmacognosy

(F) College of Humanities and Social Sciences

Faculty/school	Departments	
Faculty of arts	Religious studies	
	Philosophy	
	Linguistics and African languages	
	Communication skills	
	French	
	Sociology	
	Geography	
	History	
	Literature	
	Government	
	Economics	
	Law	Private law
		Public law
Commercial Law		
Commerce	Accounting	
	Business Administration	
	Management Science	
Institute for Development studies		
School of Journalism		
Institute of African Studies		
Population Studies and Research Institute		
Institute of Diplomacy and International Studies		

This study involved interviewing of academic staff sampled from the 91 departments and 9 institutes in the University of Nairobi. The analysis of the data collected in presented the sections that follow.

5.1 Data presentation

This section presents the results of the analysis of the data collected from the academic staff in the University of Nairobi. The data was collected through interviewing of

sampled respondents, observation and review of secondary data. A total of 100 academic staff members were interviewed for this study. The data was analysed using frequencies and cross tabulations. The survey data is presented along with secondary data and general observations by the researcher.

5.2 Characteristics of Respondents

The profile of the academic staff members from whom data was collected is categorised on the basis of sex, age, marital status, number of years worked in the University of Nairobi, highest academic qualification and the academic staff members' current position. These aspects constitute part of the independent variables, which may determine the nature of perceptions of the academic staff towards the working conditions in the university and influence their decision to leave the university employment. These variables are summarised in this section.

5.2.1 Sex

Of the 100 academic staff interviewed during this study, 77 were male and 23 were female. Given that the study used a random sampling methodology, this indicates that there would be more male than female academic staff employed in the University of Nairobi hence the higher the probability of more male being in the sample. The table below summarises the sex of the respondents.

Table 10: Profile of Respondents According to Sex

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	77	77%
Female	23	23%
Total	100	100%

Source: Research Data

5.2.2 Age

Respondents were asked to indicate their age by selecting the age bracket within which their actual age falls. The age brackets that respondents were required to choose from

were 20-25 years, 26-35 years, 36-45 years, and 46 years and above. The analysis of the responses provided is summarised in the table below.

Table 11: Profile of Respondents According to Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20-25	1	1%
26-35	23	23%
36-45	40	40%
46 and above	36	36%
Total	100	100%

Source: Research Data

Most of the academic staff interviewed were within the ages 26 and 45, which comprises 63% of the respondents. According to the Institute of Economic Affairs (2001), these are the most productive ages. Most people within this age bracket are ambitious and strive to seek better opportunities to improve their economic and social status. 36% of the respondents were above 46 years while 1% was between 20 and 25 years age bracket.

5.2.3 Marital status

Respondents were asked to indicate their marital status by selecting one of the options from the categories provided. These categories were: married, single, divorced/separated and widow/widower. 15 respondents indicated that they are single, 79 are married, 1 is widow and 5 are divorced or separated. This shows that a large number of academic staff interviewed are married and therefore have family ties. The study found out that family ties are a significant factor in influencing the perceptions of the academic staff towards the working conditions in the University of Nairobi.

5.2.4 Number of years worked at the University of Nairobi

Respondents were asked to indicate the number of years they have worked in the University of Nairobi. These years were then grouped into various categories and analysed. These categories were 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years and 21 years and above. These responses are summarised in the table below.

Table 12: Profile of respondents according to the number of years worked in the University of Nairobi

No. of years worked	Frequency	Percentage
1-5	21	21%
6-10	20	20%
11-15	23	23%
16-20	22	22%
21 and above	14	14%
Total	100	100%

Source: Research Data

The number of years one has worked in the University of Nairobi is an important factor that would determine the perception of that academic staff member towards the working conditions in the University of Nairobi. For instance, this may mean that the member is satisfied with the working conditions, or has not found a better opportunity elsewhere or has other factors tying him or her to his or her current employment.

The study indicated that at least 38% of the academic staff members have sought job opportunities outside the country. In this category, 56% indicated that they had been looking for jobs in the developed countries, 13% indicated developing countries whilst 31% indicated both developing and developed countries. This finding shows that majority of the academic staff could prefer to work in the developed countries, if an opportunity arose. The study further found that the desire for an academic staff member to seek alternative employment increases with the number of years worked in the university but diminishes steadily as one approaches 20 years of service in the university

Academic staff members who have worked in the university for between 6 to 15 years expressed a higher desire for alternative employment opportunities. However, this desire appeared to be diminishing as one approaches 20 years of service in the university. The reasons for this are that, academic staff members stop searching for job opportunities outside the country as their age advances because the majority become more tied up to their family responsibilities.

The table below summarises this finding.

Table 13: Number of Years Worked Vs whether one is still Looking for a Job Outside the Country or not

Number of years worked	Looking for a job outside the country	
	Yes	No
1-5	50%	50%
6-10	67%	33%
11-15	80%	20%
16-20	38%	62%
21 and above	20%	80%

Source: Research data

5.2.5 Academic qualifications of the academic staff interviewed

Respondents were required to indicate their highest academic qualifications by choosing from the options provided. The options provided were: BA/B.SC/LLB, M.A/M.SC/LLM and PhD. 62 of the respondents indicated that their highest academic qualification is PhD while 38 indicated M.A/M.SC or LLM as their highest academic qualifications. No respondent has a B.A/B.SC or LLB as his or her highest qualification.

The qualification one has is important because it may be a key factor in determining the perception that member has to the working conditions in the University of Nairobi and it would also influence the decision to stay or leave the University of Nairobi. This is because the type of qualification might also determine whether it is easy for one to find alternative/better employment opportunities outside the university.

5.2.6 Position of the academic staff members interviewed

Respondents were required to indicate their current position by choosing from the options provided. 17 of the respondents indicated that they were assistant lecturers, 25 were lecturers, 34 senior lecturers, 11 associate professors and 7 professors.

This shows that the largest category of respondents were senior lecturers (34) followed by lecturers (25), assistant lecturers (17), associate professors (11) and lastly professors (7). One's current position may be an important factor in determining his or her perception towards such working conditions as promotion, opportunity to publish, salary and benefits and availability of training opportunities.

In relating the current position of the academic staff members to their highest academic qualification, the study found out that most of the Assistant Lecturers/Tutorial Fellows and Lecturers have an M.A/M.SC/LLM, while a majority of the Senior Lecturers have a PhD. All Associate and Full professors have a PhD.

Table 14: Current position versus academic qualification

Current Position	Academic Qualification		Total
	PhD	M.A/M.SC/LLM	
Assistant Lecturer/Tutorial Fellow	2	20	22
Lecturer	9	16	25
Senior Lecturer	33	2	35
Associate Professor	11	0	11
Professor	7	0	7
Total	62	38	100

Source: Research Data

5.3 The state of the University of Nairobi

This section discusses the situation at the University of Nairobi. The specific aspects discussed in this section are staffing levels and workload, physical facilities, research and publications, housing and promotion.

5.3.1 Staffing levels and workload

A skilled workforce plays a critical role in the productivity of any organisation. The University of Nairobi has two cadres of staff: the academic and support staff. An appropriate ratio of students to academic and support staff is essential in evaluating resource utilisation in the university. The ratio should be favourable to allow the university academic staff to have adequate contact hours with their students and the

support staff to offer necessary services to both lecturers and students as a means of enhancing high quality education.

As indicated in the previous chapter, the Kenyan universities are generally overstaffed. However, despite the apparent overstaffing even at the University of Nairobi, this study reported cases of heavy workload. This was for the simple reason that work is not fairly distributed among all academic staff. 76% of the respondents argued that work is not fairly distributed amongst the academic staff whilst 45% complained of heavy workload. 54% of the academic staff members said that they teach in the parallel programmes while 46% do not. Of those who teach in the parallel programmes, 59% indicated that their workload is too heavy while 41% said that their workload is just about right. On the other hand, 90% of the respondents said that the existing large class sizes often make it difficult for academic staff to teach effectively. Most of the departments reported large class sizes, but economics and sociology departments appeared to be the most affected.

Further analysis indicated that workload goes hand in hand with one's position at the university. For instance, it was revealed that assistant lecturers and lecturers have a heavier workload compared with senior lecturers and professors.

Table 15: Current position versus hours worked in a week

Current position	Hours worked in a week			Total
	3-6 hours	7-10 hours	11 hours and above	
Assistant lecturer	5	8	9	22
Lecturer	10	7	6	23
Senior lecturer	20	9	5	34
Associate professor	6	4	1	11
Professor	3	4		7
Total	44	32	21	97

Source: Research Data

5.3.2 Research and publishing

A major factor that distinguishes universities from other institutions of higher learning is the extent of work and research output, particularly in the form of published journal

articles. In the 1970s and early 80s, the volume of research carried out at the University of Nairobi was among the highest in Africa. Unfortunately, this is no longer the case. The state of research in the Kenyan public universities today is characterised by financial constraints, inadequate staffing, inadequate resource materials, poor utilisation and minimal dissemination of research findings.

One of the key factors that has stunted the growth of research in the Kenyan Public Universities is lack of adequate research funds. This is true for the University of Nairobi. This study found out that most of the respondents have carried out research projects in the last five years but with considerable funding problems. It was revealed that sometimes some academic staff members resort to funding their own research projects as indicated by 39% of the respondents. Others get funding from the civil society (25% of the respondents), the University of Nairobi (20% of the respondents) and from the private sector (16% of the respondents). The research projects funded by the civil society and private sectors would be those carried out with specific programmes such as situational analysis, baseline surveys and impact evaluations.

It was also revealed that the academic staff members have a problem in accessing research opportunities. This can be deduced from the fact that 55% of the respondents have carried out only 1 to 2 research projects in 5 years. The table below summarises this finding.

Table16: Number of research projects done in the last five years

Number of research projects done	Frequency	Percentage
None	3	3.8%
1-2	43	55.1%
3-5	29	37.2%
6 and above	3	3.8%
Total	78	100%

Source: Research data

This study found out that, in the UoN, information on research opportunities is not freely available to all academic staff members. For instance, one of the academic staff members in the animal production department argued that he normally receives information on research opportunities long after the bidding deadline. He blames this on the bureaucracy involved in information dissemination at the university. Before information finally gets to the individual academic staff at the department levels it passes through many offices where those concerned either deliberately or unknowingly underestimate its importance and urgency. Therefore, access to information on research opportunities available is a major determinant on the number of researches an academic staff member is engaged in.

Poor utilisation and dissemination of research findings also inhibit research. Because research has little direct influence in policy formulation in Kenya, the government has down played its importance. All the respondents agreed that they have been involved in various research projects in the last five years. However, of the 100 respondents, only 9 said that their findings have been adopted by the private sector whilst only 14 have had their research findings being adopted by the public sector.

This study found out that research dissemination is very low in the UON. The majority of the respondents argued that neither the public nor the private sector has ever adopted or used their research findings. The poor dissemination of research is partly due to the lack of research journals in Kenya and Africa.

These findings agree with Emeagwali's (2001) observation that support for research in less developed countries is very low. He argues that, only 0.2% of the LDCS' GNP goes to research compared to industrialised nations which invest more than 3% of their GDP in research. This is a major impediment in staff development because it limits the ability of most academic staff to publish given that in most cases research must precede publication.

The study found out that the position of an academic member of staff reflects the number of publications they have. As shown in the table below, senior lecturers, associate professors and professors have more publications than lecturers and assistant lecturers.

Table 17: Current position of academic staff and number of publications

Current position	Number of publications				Total
	1-3	4-6	7-10	11 and above	
Assistant Lecturer	11	1	0	0	12
Lecturer	18	2	0	0	20
Senior Lecturer	14	9	3	0	26
Associate Professor	4	4	2	1	11
Professor	1	1	1	3	6
Total	48	17	6	4	75

Source: Research data

However, it was equally established that these publications did not form the basis for their promotion from their previously junior positions. The above publications have been achieved in the last five years long after the majority of the senior lecturers had been promoted. This may therefore imply that the positions have only served as a stepping stone to more research opportunities.

The study similarly identified various reasons why some academic staff are not able to publish. This included heavy workload and not being able to research. The table below summarises this finding.

Table 18: Reasons why some academic staff members are unable to publish

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
Heavy workload	10	43.5
Not been able to research	13	66.5

Source: Research Data

5.3.3 Promotion

The study found out that sometimes the promotion of staff is done based on extra merit considerations. 70% of the respondents cited favouritism while 11% cited political interference as major causes for subjective application of the promotion criteria. However, the study did not focus on the underlying reasons why such a high percentage of respondents felt that favouritism is an important determinant of promotion. The table below shows the details of this analysis.

Table 19: Circumstances when promotion criteria are not applied

Circumstances when promotion criteria is not applied	Frequency	Percentage
Political interference	7	11.5%
Favouritism	43	70.5%
Shortage of qualified staff	4	6.6%
Fixed positions in the establishment	7	11.5%
Total	61	100%

Source: Research data

Generally, the subjective application of the promotion criteria demotivates the academics. UoN (1999) observes that modalities of appointing people to various managerial positions in the university do not always follow the laid down guidelines. For this reason, sometimes the best people are not appointed to the best positions. For instance, a case was cited where an academic staff member has risen to associate professorial position without a single publication, while his teacher is still a lecturer with a host of publications.

These findings agree with Danso's (1994) observation that in some developing countries people with much lower levels of education and knowledge sometimes supervise highly trained and specialised personnel. He further argues that in such cases, promotion is therefore based upon extra-professional criteria. Such professional and skilled personnel who have these experiences often fall into anomie situations. They then begin to look for other ways of reaching their goals especially by moving to other countries in search of better employment opportunities.

5.3.4 Physical facilities

“Although physical facilities are of decisive importance for any university to realise its mission, the facilities and the physical infrastructure of the public institutions of higher learning in Kenya are ranked last in planning priorities. The massive student enrolment in these institutions has over-stretched the capacities of existing libraries, lecture halls, science laboratories, dormitories and dining halls. Due to this unfavourable learning environment, teaching at Kenyan public universities is not the interactive affair that it should be. Rather it has largely become the boring repetition by most lecturers of notes from papers that have yellowed with age” (Ngome, 2003).

Lack of maintenance of the existing facilities has accelerated the decay. The state of science laboratories and engineering workshops at the UON is dismissal. They are dilapidated and lack chemicals and adequate and up to date equipment due to lack of funds and poor planning. In view of these circumstances, lecturers no longer attach much seriousness to laboratory practicals. Over 90% of the respondents in science oriented departments confirmed that their laboratories/workshops have inadequate and outdated equipment.

This study similarly found out that services in the University of Nairobi libraries have deteriorated. The books available are outdated and inadequate. Moreover, most of the UoN libraries have no holdings list for journals and the shelf holdings do not match. In addition to laxity of library staff, shelving is also poor because some selfish students mix up books of different disciplines so that they are only available to themselves. This is the case in the University of Nairobi’s main library.

Scarcity of the relevant reference materials for students has led to the rise of vandalism in the libraries. Unable to photocopy required chapters or pages from reference books, some students simply tear them off to survive the cut-throat competition for the few useful books. Although some departmental libraries such as the IDS library have tried to provide

free photocopying services to their students, the problem is far from being solved because the photocopier is often inoperational for reasons ranging from lack of photocopying papers, uncooperative library staff and general breakdown of the machine.

Books and journals are also not stocked within 6 months of publication. The recent books and journals reach academic staff late. This therefore means that the academic staff members have limited access to current developments in their fields unless they employ individual effort.

This finding concurs with Degefe's (1994) observation that in most African countries, books, journals, equipment and facilities are outdated. In his study in Addis Ababa University in Ethiopia, for example, he found out that available textbooks were published as far back as the early 1970s while journals were published as far back as the mid 1980s. This is the case in the University of Nairobi where most of the books were published as far back as the 1960's and 1970's.

These findings similarly concur with findings of a survey of libraries in Africa carried out by Rosenberg in 1997 (Ngome 2003). The survey revealed that lecturers at Moi and Kenyatta universities in Kenya use materials that were published as far back as 1950s meaning that the courses that they teach are outdated.

Further, the academic staff have no enough support staff to allow for effective working. UON academic staff have little or no secretarial support. The majority do their secretarial work on their own (53%), 19% engage the departmental secretary, 7% hire a secretary to do their work whilst 1% share a secretary with another department. The later was in a unique case where a chairman of a department neither has a secretary nor a computer in his office. In the Department of Educational Administration and Planning of Kikuyu campus, the chairman shares a secretary with the Department of Educational Foundation. This automatically means that he works to the convenience of the office where the secretary sits. This may often hinder his efficiency in meeting deadlines in his administrative duties and make it equally difficult for him to combine his role as an

administrator with that of being an efficient teacher. The idea of having academics doing secretarial work on their own claims much of their time hence derailing effective working. A senior lecturer in the chemistry department retorted that the “lack of secretarial support forces her to do all the typing and formatting of her documents leading to a great loss of crucial time that could be more meaningfully engaged elsewhere” Table 18 summarises these responses.

Table 20: Source of secretarial support to the University of Nairobi academic staff

Source of secretarial support	Number	Percentage
Does it alone	53	66.3%
Hires someone to do it	7	8.8%
Engages the departmental secretary	19	23.8%
Shares secretary with another department	1	1.3%
Total	80%	100%

Source: Research data

The analysis of the research data therefore reflects a significant deficit of secretarial support in the University of Nairobi. These findings agree with Degefe’s (1994) findings in Addis Ababa University in Ethiopia. Degefe found out that, about 21 academic staff members were relying on one secretary for their secretarial services. He argues that this was generally problematic resulting in a situation where most academic staff members resorted to doing all the secretarial work. This affects their working efficiency because time that could be more meaningfully invested in further research is spent on typing and formatting documents.

Some of the academic staff at the UoN share offices. This is an unhealthy situation given that it denies individual academic staff members their much-needed privacy. In this study, 65 respondents said that they have their own offices whilst 34 respondents said that they share their offices with someone. Out of the 61 PhD holders interviewed, only 5 were sharing an office with someone else. This may indicate that the higher the academic qualification (professors and senior lecturers) the higher the probability of not sharing an office with someone. This may equally imply seniority, given that the majority of professors and senior lecturers are older than the junior lecturers. Table 19 summarises this analysis.

Table 21: Academic qualification versus office space

Academic qualification	Office space		Total Number
	Number with own office	Number sharing with someone	
PhD	56	5	61
MA/MSC/LLM	9	29	38
Total	65	34	99

Source: Research data

Housing for the academic staff forms a major part of the benefits offered by the University. According to 1974-76 Development Plan, "a well planned housing of a reasonable standard when combined with essential services afford dignity, a sense of security and proper status in society for an individual". In recognition of this importance, the university has included housing as part of the remuneration package in the terms and conditions of services of its employees.

At the university of Nairobi, it is therefore expected that subsidised housing will be provided for those in academic grades whilst free housing, where possible, is given to those in unionisable grades. Staff members on middle grade are entitled to house allowance only. The following categories of housing stock are available:

Table 22: Type of housing for academic staff

Category	UoN Owned	Leased	Total	Remarks
Senior staff (Academic grade)	221	411	632	Mainly subsidised housing
Middle grades	39	6	45	Mainly duty houses
Junior quarters	178	-	178	Occupied free by unionisable grades
Guest units	6	-	6	Occupied by visiting lectures for up to 6 months
Total	444	417	861	

Source: Kiamba (1997)

Given the number of staff at the University of Nairobi, the housing stock is obviously inadequate. It was estimated that by 1997, there was a shortfall of 717 units. The deficit is

much higher now, given the general growth in both student enrolments and staffing levels in the university. Houses when available are allocated using a point system. The system gives weight to designation, family status and length of service in that order. Women members of staff are treated on equal basis with their male counterparts of the same grades.

However, there does not appear to be a well documented housing policy in the university that take into account shelter delivery, management, maintenance and cost recovery. The nearest the University came to having a policy was the Prof. Henry Wood report of 1978 and Dr Gikonyo Kiano report of 1985.

This study found out that 80% of the academic staff in the UoN do not stay in the university houses. The reasons for these are: 35.8% own their own houses while 33.3% who felt that the university houses are poorly maintained stay in rented accommodation elsewhere. 29.6% would like to stay in the University houses but all the houses are occupied. The table 21 summarises this analysis.

Table 23: Reasons for not staying in the University House

Reason for not staying in the university house	Frequency	Percentage
Has own house	29	35.8%
University houses poorly maintained	27	33.3%
University houses fully occupied	24	29.6%
Evicted from University House while on sabbatical leave	1	1.2%
Total	81	100%

Source: Research data

5.3.5 Management of the University of Nairobi

Proper management of resources of any organisations contributes greatly to the organisation's achievement of its goal. The management style and systems in any organisation plays a big role in ensuring efficient utilisation of its resources, the human resources included.

The study looked at the flexibility of the management of the University of Nairobi in dealing with issues affecting its academic staff, especially complaints and grievances. The study found that most academic staff perceive the University of Nairobi's administration to be rigid and inefficient. 69% of the respondents said that the system is rigid. Most academic staff members acknowledge that the UoN has an established channel for dealing with complaints but expressed the view that the complaints are not efficiently dealt with. 46% of the respondents indicated that the channel for dealing with complaints is inefficient while 31% of the respondents said that the channel is efficient.

These findings reflect Degefe's (1994) observation that a rigid administrative system renders universities inefficient, increases the cost of running the affairs of the university and drives out the most capable professionals.

5.3.6 Training and retention of human resources

The retention of qualified academic staff and senior administrative staff is a formidable task for Kenyan universities. The University of Nairobi is not an exception. The majority of the academic staff would wish to undertake further training whether for PhD, postdoctoral or a course different from their current line of training.

This study found out that the university hardly sponsors its academic staff for further training anymore. Thus out of the 100 respondents 93 of them said that they have never been sponsored by the University of Nairobi for any training. This means that those who wish to advance in their training need to look elsewhere for funding.

5.4 The problem of Brain Drain in the University of Nairobi

Ngome 2003 observes that Kenya, like most other African countries, has an inadequate pool of qualified professionals. The mass exodus of highly educated Kenyans from the country started in the mid 1980s and reached its peak in the 1990s. Most Kenyans emigrate to the USA, Canada, Australia Europe and southern African countries, namely Botswana, Leshoto, Swaziland, Namibia and South Africa. This loss of human resources

has seriously affected the quality of staff in the universities. A 1998 study by Carrington and Detragiache (Downes, 2000) showed that 6,912 Kenyans with tertiary level education immigrated to the USA in 1990.

A part from the loss of skilled workers from these institutions to other regions, universities are generally unable to attract high calibre professionals to their institutions or to retain them. Due to various factors, lecturers are poorly remunerated. Most lecturers' pre-tax earnings range from \$250 to \$300 a month. Such salaries do not provide lecturers with even the minimum requirements of food, education for their children, second hand clothes for the family and utility bills. Academic staff who have remained in Kenya's public universities try to supplement their university income by moonlighting. The practice of moonlighting takes many forms. Teaching on part-time basis, in private universities and consultancy work are favourites, but lecturers also engage in selling goods, operating food kiosks and other jobs. The evident consequence of moonlighting is that, lecturers are forced to neglect their professional duties.

Majority of the respondents (71%) indicated that teaching in the university is no longer a prestigious job. 76% of the respondents indicated that they continue working in the university due to lack of better opportunities elsewhere. However, there are other important factors holding the majority of academic staff from looking for a job elsewhere. Those who have never looked for a job outside the country cited factors such as; family ties (28%), hope that things will change-optimism (10%), patriotism-love for this country (40%), seeking to gain experience first before looking for different opportunities(20%) and lack of information on existing job opportunities outside the country (2%)

Similarly, it is indicated that the higher the position of a particular academic staff member, the higher the chances of having looked for a job outside Kenya. In relating the respondents' current position with the likelihood of having looked for a job outside Kenya, this study shows that of those academic staff who have looked for a job out of the

country, 66% are PhD holders while 34% are Masters degree holders. This shows that senior lecturers, associate professors and professors have looked for jobs outside Kenya more often compared to assistant lecturers/ tutorial fellows. This agrees with the earlier findings that the majority of the assistant lecturers do not look for jobs outside Kenya because they feel that they need to gain enough experience first.

Further, the university has been losing a steady number of academic staff members over the last five years. Most of the departments have lost between 1 and 5 academic staff members during the five year period. The most affected are the Department of Animal Production and the Housing and Building Research Institute which have lost 13 and 11 academic staff members respectively. However, the places where staff from the Housing and Building Research Institute moved to were not established. The table below shows the places or countries where the staff from the Animal Production Department moved to.

Table 24: Places where staff from Animal Production Department moved to

No.	Country/Place	Number of staff
1	South Africa	1
2	Botswana	2
3	Namibia	3
4	International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) – Kenya	3
5	International Centre for Insecticide Physiology and Ecology (ICIPE) – Kenya	2
6	United Kingdom	1
7	Australia	1

Source: Research data

Table 22 shows that the movement of academic staff from the UoN is both to other institutions in the country (internal brain drain) and to other countries (external brain drain).

CHAPTER 6

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI: PERCEIVED CAUSES OF BRAIN DRAIN

6.0 Introduction

Reasons why scholars migrate or decide to stay abroad are products of a complex blend of economic, political, social, cultural and physiological factors. The impact and chemistry of each factor varies from country to country and individual to individual and fluctuates with time even for the same individual (Teferra and Albatch, 2003). This section therefore presents the perceived causes of brain drain that are specific to the UON academic staff.

6.1 Salaries and benefits

Salaries and benefits are often taken as the most important force behind migration. Adepoju (1984) and Johnson (2000) argue that poor remuneration is a major impetus to migration. The UoN (1999) also agrees with this position by arguing that there is a general deterioration of staff morale due to relatively low remuneration. Staff terms and conditions of service, despite the 1989 and 1997 salary adjustments; have not undergone any fundamental change over the last twenty years. Indications are that they have declined in real terms. Emeagwali (2001) adds that the salaries earned by professionals in the developed countries are eight times higher than those earned in the less developed countries.

The study found out that salaries and benefits provided by the University of Nairobi play a significant role in shaping the perceptions of academic staff towards working conditions in the university. The salaries and benefits are perceived by a majority of the academic staff to be unsatisfactory and to a great extent they push the staff towards seeking better opportunities. Overall, academic staff members interviewed under this study were almost unanimously in agreement on the issue of salaries and benefits. They indicated that they were generally dissatisfied with them and can move to work in another country if they got an opportunity to. For instance, all the respondents argued that the medical cover provided by the university is insufficient to their families. This is summarised in table 23.

Table 25: Level of satisfaction with salary and benefits

Item	Highly satisfied	Satisfied	Not satisfied
Your current salary	0%	01%	99%
Your current house allowance	0%	12%	88%
Your current medical cover/scheme	0%	09%	91%
Your current leave allowance	1%	17%	82%
Your current leave days	6%	56%	38%

Source: Research Data

Given the above, it comes as no surprise that the academic staff went on strike in November 2003 over the salary issue. The study found out that salary and benefits play an important role in influencing the academe's decision to move from the University of Nairobi to work in other countries. This can be illustrated by the fact that the majority of the academic staff consider salary and benefits as significant push factors. Table 24 summarises this finding.

Table 26: Level of Influence of the salary and benefits on the decision to move

Type of benefits	Level of influence on the decision to move		
	High	Moderate	Low
Salary	77	6	11
House allowance	57	23	13
Medical cover	64	20	9
Leave allowance	46	31	16

Source: Research data

These findings agree with Edokat's (2000) findings in a similar study involving 76 teachers in Yaoundé University in Cameroon. He found out that all the 76 teachers considered their salary to be too low and 68 of them affirmed that they would move abroad if given an opportunity to.

The study also revealed that of all the aspects of compensation, salary is the most significant since it has the highest statistics for both the level of dissatisfaction and influence on the respondents' decision to move and work outside the country. The

findings concur with Degefe's (1994) observation that salaries and benefits are often taken as the most important force behind migration. However, it should be recognized that apart from salary, other aspects of compensation are generally important in boosting the staff morale and should therefore be given considerable attention.

6.2 Political repression and academic freedom

Jazayery (2002), Apraku, (1991) and Degefe (1994) observe that political repression and persecution are some of the factors causing human capital flight in developing countries. They argue that very few African governments are known to be tolerant to criticism and are willing to entertain constructive criticism and suggestions. The available alternative is for the professional to forsake his or her trade or migrate. Such professional dislocation is likely to be permanent since changes in governments have a strong substitution effect and little qualitative effect.

The University of Nairobi (1999) points out politicisation of the university as one of the major threats facing it. Review of the Kenyan contemporary history indicates that there was heavy repression on university academic staff during the 1980s and 1990s leading to migration of many professionals to foreign countries.

Kenya witnessed unprecedented political events in the early 1990s. This was characterised by the introduction of multi-party politics and the subsequent general elections. Some university lecturers were very active in these political events. Some even founded and led political parties while some belonged to the then ruling party. Those aligned to the ruling party were rewarded in terms of promotion and appointments to political positions with the attendant social prestige. Some of those in the opposition suffered in terms of victimisation and discrimination. Many in the later group left the country for fear of further victimisation and in search of academic freedom elsewhere.

Ngome (2003) observes that the practice of academic freedom promotes democratic principles in the sense that it allows for a free expression of ideas by individuals or groups of individuals who share different worldviews. Limitation on academic freedom

has been one of the major characteristics of public university education in Kenya. In addition to using the university administration to limit such freedom, the Kenyan government has in the recent past directly limited university academic freedom in several ways. The freedom to hold public lectures, seminars; the teaching of subjects perceived as sensitive; and the publication of “subversive” literature; the conducting of research and participation in learned conferences by academic staff members have all been greatly curtailed. In the recent past, before the 2002 change of government Students or staff could not invite speakers perceived by the government as representing the opposition without clearance from the government.

Bali and Mutunga (1992) add that seminars could be cancelled at a short notice. As an example, on April 28 1994, a lecturer in the department of Sociology University of Nairobi received calls from offices of the Vice Chancellor and the Principal of the College of Humanities and Social Sciences cancelling his seemingly harmless lecture on “the sociology of the voter behaviour”. Bali and Mutunga further observe that to be able to participate in learned conferences outside the country or to conduct any research, academics needed clearance from the office of the president. In the previous regime led by KANU, members of staff and students were lured into collaborating with the government making it easier for it to manipulate the affairs of the University. Thus the academic staff who seemed to be supportive of the ruling party were showered with material goods, a strategy that proved very effective in encouraging political quietism.

This study found out that some academic staff members leave the university because of political suppression. 52 respondents out of the 100 that were interviewed said that this is a common occurrence in the University of Nairobi. However, further qualitative interviews on the same subject revealed that this was true during the past (especially in the 1980’s and the early 1990’s) and in the advent of a new regime led by NARC, the academic staff are optimistic that things might be better than before.

6.3 Rigid administrative systems

Walter (1968) argues that a rigid administrative system, that is inflexible and inefficient, is a prime source of professional frustration and a strong push factor. Degefe (1994) adds that, a rigid hierarchical system rewards years rather than quality of service. This often leads to the administrators being rewarded for the number of years worked without necessarily considering their performance or academic qualifications. This makes the academic staff feel that the administrators often hijack the benefits. Thus, it is often forgotten that administrators are facilitative staff rather than an impregnable force in themselves. Further, a rigid administrative system promotes conservatism and makes receptivity to change a nightmare on the part of university academic staff. This therefore provides an impetus for academic staff to migrate to other countries in search of better opportunities.

This study found out that the University of Nairobi's administration is perceived to be rigid and inefficient. The study looked at the flexibility of the management of the University of Nairobi and especially on the system of dealing with complaints and grievances. When respondents were asked to describe the overall university administration, 69% said that the system is rigid.

Further, the respondents were asked to state whether the UON has an established channel for its academic staff to present their complaints to the university administration, 78 respondents answered yes whilst 21 respondents answered no. On being asked to state the efficiency of the channel, 31 respondents said that the channel is efficient, 46 respondents said that it is inefficient. When they were asked to rank the overall administration of the university as a possible factor that can influence their decision to move and work outside the country, 18 respondents said that its level of influence was high, 51 respondents said that it was moderate and 23 respondents said that it is low. Therefore, overall, administration is a moderate push factor.

6.4 State of physical facilities

According to the University of Nairobi (1999), physical facilities in the university are dilapidated and lack preventive maintenance. Equipment in critical areas have become

unserviceable with great loss to the quality of teaching. Vital aspects of the academic support system are wanting. Such areas as transport, document processing, library acquisitions suffered considerably over the last two decades. Housing and health facilities are a problem in the University of Nairobi. These facilities have been negatively affected by the deteriorating financial situation in the university.

The study found out that the state of physical facilities is perceived as an average cause of brain drain in the University of Nairobi. The respondents were asked to show the extent to which the teaching facilities offered by the University of Nairobi could influence their decision to move and work in another country. 35 of the respondents said that the influence was high, 31 of them said that the influence was moderate, whilst 27 respondents said that the influence was low.

6.5 Promotion

The perceived subjective application of the criteria for promotions could be one of the factors creating dissatisfaction amongst academic staff in the University of Nairobi. Modalities of appointing people to various managerial positions in the University are sometimes perceived as not following the set criteria all the time. For this reason, the best people are not always appointed to the best positions (UoN, 1999).

The academic staff interviewed identified circumstances under which the criteria are not objectively applied as ranging from political interference to favouritism. Evidence for subjective application of the criteria includes instances where some of the staff who meet the criteria fail to be promoted even when they have been recommended from their various departments. This leads to a situation where less qualified staff supervise qualified staff. This has led to apathy among academic staff members who feel that the university does not place emphasis on ability to carry out research and publishing. 51% of the respondents indicated that the subjective application of the promotion criteria has a high influence on their decision to move out of the university while 40% cited the same issue as one of the major factors likely to push them out of the university employment.

6.6 Staff development opportunities

There are limited staff training, research and publishing opportunities available to academic staff in the less developed countries. In most African countries the best individuals are not given an immediate opportunity for further training. For instance, in Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia, most prospective graduates are given an opportunity to pursue further studies between 2 to 9 years after graduation (Degefe, 1994).

This study found out that the University of Nairobi's capability to sponsor its academic staff for further training is very low. 93% of the respondents indicated that they have never been sponsored by the UoN for any training over the last five years. The respondents indicated that staff development opportunities could influence their decision to move and work in another country. 46 respondents said that the influence is high, 22 respondents said that the influence is moderate whilst 24 respondents argued that the influence is low. Table 26 summarises these responses.

Table 27: Level of influence of research opportunities on the decision to move

Level of influence	Number	Percentage
High	46	62.4%
Moderate	22	23.7%
Low	24	14%
Total	92	100%

Source: Research data

Overall, the analysis shows that staff development is a significant push factor and the majority (76%) of the respondents (should they get sponsored) would wish to undertake training in the developed world. This shows a high possibility of staff training opportunities pushing staff out of the University of Nairobi hence causing brain drain. Table 26 shows the analysis of the places where the academic would prefer to undertake further training.

Table 28: University where one would like to undertake further training

University	Number	Percentage
University of Nairobi	9	15.5%
Another university in Kenya	3	5.2%
A university in the developed world	44	75.9%
A university in the developing world Kenya excluded	2	3.4%
Total	58	100%

Source: Research data

6.7 Opportunity to conduct research

Research is a very important aspect in university academic staff's career development. Indeed it is a central priority to higher education. However, it is prudent to note that there are limited staff training, research and publishing opportunities available to academic staff in the less developed countries (Emeagwali, 2001). The key findings of this study with regard to this are that 51% of the academic staff do not have access to information on available research opportunities, 46% cited lack of funds as the reason why they have not been involved in research and 26% indicated that the heavy teaching work load does not allow them to conduct research.

58 respondents argued that the opportunity to conduct research is a potential factor that can influence their decision to move from the UoN. This means that, it is an important factor that needs to be addressed to curb brain drain in the university.

These findings agree with Emeagwali's (2001) observation that support for research and development in less developed countries is very low. He argues that, only 0.2% of the LDCs' GNP goes to research compared to industrialised nations which invest more than 3% of their GDP in research. This is a major impediment in staff development because it limits the ability of most academic staff to publish given that in most cases to be able to publish one should have carried out research.

6.8 Class sizes

The most salient feature of university education in Kenya has been the rapid growth in the number of institutions and enrolments, particularly during the 1980's and early 1990's. As indicated in chapter five, the number of public universities increased from one in 1970 to five in 1994, with the student population rising from 3,443 in 1970 to 9,044 in 1984 and rising to over 40,000 in the 1991/1992 academic year (UoN, 1999). This number has since increased to about 13,000 students per year.

The total undergraduate enrolment in the six public universities including privately sponsored students currently stands at 54,597 of which 36,736 are male and 18,054 are females). Most of this growth has taken place in the 1990s with the introduction of self-sponsored programmes and establishment of constituency colleges of public universities. There has been massive expansion of primary and secondary education in Kenya. For example, in 1963, primary and secondary schools had a total enrolment of 890,000 students and 31,000 students respectively. However, the figures had shot up to 5.9 million in 2002 (Nge'the and Mwiria, 2002).

The rapid increase in the student population has rendered the public universities too small to contain these populations. This has led to a critical accommodation problem and huge classes that are often unmanageable on the part of academic staff (UoN, 1999).

This study found out that most of the departments in the UoN have large class sizes that make it difficult for the lecturers to teach effectively; a factor that aggravates their dissatisfaction with working in the university and creates an impetus for them to move.

6.9 Inappropriate and under utilisation of skills

Danso (1994) observes that brain drain is a symptom of the disequilibrium between the typical pattern of expansion of the education system and its capacity to absorb its graduates. In support of this, Pellegrino (2001) argues that people migrate because of the inability of national labour markets to absorb the professionals and specialists. It is further observed that in a tight labour market, employment along the lines of one's training is a luxury. What is of crucial importance under such circumstances is being on

the pay roll rather than rational and proper use of skill. In Africa, where specialisation is more a preparation for a higher post than career development, skills acquired as a result of long years of training are sacrificed in exchange for material benefit. It is not unusual for top-notch and talented professionals to occupy positions that are far removed from their area of specialisation.

Universities are no exception in this phenomenon, having professionals teaching in areas that they are not qualified to teach is not an uncommon scenario. For example, although this study found out that 91% of the academic staff teach in courses that they are trained to teach, a few of them (9%) indicated that they teach in areas that are not in line with their area of specialisation. There was an instance where a lecturer trained in paediatrics is employed to teach Clinical Pharmacology.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

7.0 Summary of research findings

The study found out that the University of Nairobi academic staff are generally dissatisfied with all aspects of their working conditions. The majority generally perceived them to be very poor.

Almost all the respondents (99%) unanimously agreed that they are dissatisfied with the salaries and benefits offered by the UON. The majority also indicated that salary and benefits are a significant factor that can influence them to seek better opportunities elsewhere. The analysis equally showed that of all the aspects of compensation, salary is the most significant. It has the highest statistics for both the level of dissatisfaction and influence on the respondents' decision to move and work outside the country. However, it should be noted that apart from salary, other aspects of compensation are generally important in increasing staff satisfaction and should therefore be given considerable attention.

The study found out that most of the respondents and by implication the UON academic staff members have managed to carry out research in the last five years. However, the spread of the number of research projects undertaken reflects some difficulty as far as research is concerned. This can be deduced from the fact that only 3 respondents have carried out more than 6 research projects in 5 years, translating to 1 research per a year. A number of constraints to research were therefore identified and these include: Lack of funding for research, heavy workload and lack of access to information as reasons for not undertaking research. Research was therefore identified to be the second aspect after salaries and benefits that greatly influence the decision of university academic staff members to move and work outside the country.

The majority of the University of Nairobi academic staff members have been able to publish in the last five years. This study found out that the position of an academic staff

member somewhat determines his/her opportunity to publish. It was revealed that senior lecturers, associate professors and professors especially have more publications than lecturers and assistant lecturers. The study found out that opportunity to publish is a potential push factor to the University of Nairobi academic staff. Overall, the research found out that heavy workload and inability to do research are the major factors hindering some of the academic staff to publish.

Staff development opportunities within the UoN are limited. This study found out that hardly any staff is sponsored for further training by the university. Most of the academic staff, however, would wish to undertake further training. It is also observed that most of the academic staff would prefer to undertake their further training in a University in the developed world. This means that any academic staff wishing to undertake further training would look for sponsorship outside the university.

The limited opportunities for sponsorship for further training by the UoN was found to be a major factor pushing the academic staff out of the university. This is also reflected in the high preference shown towards undertaking training outside the UoN.

The teaching facilities within the UoN were found to be wanting. It was also established that the library does not stock books and journals within six months of their publication. Workshops and laboratories do not have enough equipment and the existing ones are not up-to-date. There is a significant deficit of secretarial support in the University of Nairobi. Academic staff either do secretarial work on their own, hire someone to do it for them or engage the services of their departmental secretary.

Most academic staff rated the likelihood of the teaching facilities pushing them out of the university employment as average. However, most academic staff indicated that the poor teaching facilities have greatly hindered their work and contributed to lowering the quality of their teaching and research activities.

The study found out that the majority of the academic staff do not reside in university houses. This is attributed to the fact that some of the academic staff have their own houses, some do not prefer staying in university houses because they are poorly maintained and others said that the houses are fully occupied and therefore not available to them. However, it was generally concluded that housing is not a significant push factor but it is certainly a motivator.

The University of Nairobi has promotion criteria. However, the criteria are often not followed. Favouritism seems to be the dominant factor explaining subjective application of promotion criteria. Majority of staff interviewed said that in most cases some academic staff whom they perceive not to have met the promotion criteria are promoted on grounds of favouritism. The study indicates that the likelihood of being promoted is an important factor that has a potential of pushing University of Nairobi academic staff to look for employment elsewhere.

The majority of the academic staff perceive their workload to be just about right. This is reflected by the fact that majority view their class sizes as average and teach for between 3 and 10 hours per week. Overall, the study established that workload is not a significant push factor and not a major problem to the majority of the academic staff. This was a surprise finding given the overall perception that the academic staff are overworked.

The study found out that the majority of the respondents perceived that the overall administration of the UoN is inefficient and rigid. However, the majority of the academic staff indicated that the type of management style is an insignificant push factor in influencing their decision to move out of the university.

7.1 The findings and the theoretical framework

This study looked at the problem of brain drain from a push perspective. As observed by Todaro (1985), migration, of which brain drain is part of, is a response to differences in expected income in the country of origin and the country receiving the migrants. The migrants consider the various opportunities available to them in their home country and

in the country they intend to move to and choose the one that maximises their “expected” gain. This study did not explore the working conditions prevailing in the receiving countries. It focused on the conditions in the UoN that influence the university academic staff to make a decision to move out of the university employment.

The study found out that brain drain in the UoN is a function of various push factors. The academic staff members are influenced to seek employment outside the university due to non-conducive working conditions. The working conditions that act as major push factors, include the economic factors, opportunity for professional growth and poor physical facilities. The economic factors are mainly characterised by the perceived low salaries and poor benefits offered to the academic staff by the university. It is worthy noting that in April 2004, the academic staff salaries and benefits were increased. However, it is still early to conclude whether this increase will influence the academic staff to change their perception. The limited opportunities for professional growth is demonstrated by limited opportunity to research and publish, limited likelihood of staff being promoted and under-utilisation of skills. The academic staff also perceives the physical conditions under which they work as poor; explained by the poor teaching facilities as well as lack of adequate secretarial support.

7.2 Policy implications

International brain drain has been a problem to LDCs as a whole and will continue to be so if measures are not taken to check the phenomenon. In this rather short and basically quantitative assessment, the researcher has attempted to identify some factors that are responsible for the possible migration of academic staff from the University of Nairobi. While economic factors have been identified as the main push factors, other social and political factors are responsible for intellectual flight. On the basis of these factors therefore the researcher recommends the following:

First, there is need for the government to increase budgetary allocations to university education in Kenya. This will not only assure the provision of basic infrastructure, but will also increase the capacity for research. There is therefore a need for a national

reallocation of university budgets to give teaching and research a priority. This will also ensure that the universities are able to afford enough and up-to-date teaching facilities.

Second, there is need to improve the working conditions of university academic staff with specific emphasis on salaries and benefits and the accompanied social prestige. At the national level there is need to establish some confidence in the future of the country in terms of political freedom and good governance. This will make some of the lecturers who felt insecure in Kenya in the 1980's and early 1990's to return home.

Third, the university management style should be streamlined to allow for an opportunity for the academic staff members to present their complaints and grievances to the administration more efficiently. The promotion criteria should also be clearly defined and followed to reduce cases of irregular promotions that are apparently rampant in the university.

The government should support the university's strategic planning process by recognising the urgent need for universities to rethink the roles and missions in light of contemporary circumstances, enabling university budget submissions to reflect the priorities of the strategic plan and asking donors to provide support in ways consistent with the plan. It should also encourage management autonomy and initiative on the part of the universities.

The government should encourage the UON and by extension all Kenyan universities to set annual performance goals, to publicly report their achievements and to have their accounts audited, ensure educational quality and relevance to the developmental goals of this country.

7.3 Relevance to development studies

Development has been defined by a variety of scholars. Development stripped to its bare minimum means the act or the process of developing. Chambers (1997) defines development as good change. This implies that development improves living standards,

health and well being for all. In support of this concept of development, Allen and Thomas (2000) observe that development is the achievement of whatever that is regarded as a general good for society. It is therefore a continuous process and not a state of being. It is not accidental or predetermined as in biological change but a deliberate change to an ideal society either through the market or a plan for that ideal society. Development is much more than economic change. Seers (1979), elaborates this by asserting that development is about people and not things. For instance, if the gross domestic product (GDP) is increasing without improving the standards of living of the people, then there is no development. Seers further argues that development entails improving human beings capacity to obtain physical necessities such as food, shelter and clothing, equality, participation in government, belonging to a nation that is truly independent, both economically and politically and adequate education levels among other factors.

Development is therefore not purely an economic phenomenon. In an ultimate sense, it must encompass more than the material and financial side of people's lives. It is therefore a multi-dimensional process involving the re-organisation and re-orientation of the entire economic and social systems (Todaro, 1985).

Development as an idea can apply to any field, from crop breeding and child psychology to aesthetics. Bearing this in mind, Allen and Thomas (2000) have distinguished three main meanings of the term development. First, development is seen as a vision, description or measure of the state of being of a desirable society. Second, as an historical process of social change in which societies are transformed over long periods of time. Third, as consisting of deliberate efforts aimed at improvement on the part of various agencies including governments, all kinds of organizations and social movements. The three senses in which they define development are of course related. The state of being of a desirable society is supposedly the result of a historical process of development and the vision of a desirable society may form an aim towards which to direct efforts of improvement. Development therefore describes a process of constant improvement or growth as part of what constitutes a desirable state. It therefore means a state where everyone's needs are met but one where conditions exist for all to develop themselves to

their full potential. Korten (1995) adds that development is guided by three basic principles, that is, justice, sustainability and inclusiveness. He argues that development is a state of affairs where priority is given to assuring a decent human existence for all people while ensuring that the earth's resources are used in ways that assure the well being of the future generations. Further, every person must have the opportunity to be recognised in the family, community and society.

Therefore, development is a state where people are able to restore and enhance basic human capacities and freedoms. This is often seen in terms of participation and empowerment. It is indeed a desired process by which individuals, typically including the "poorest of the poor" are to take control of their lives (Allen and Thomas, 2000).

Development studies can be said to be synonymous with a field of study that deals with general human improvement; a study that looks into the education, health and other aspects geared towards the promotion of general human improvement. This study is relevant to development studies because it touches on an area that is key in any country's social and economic progress.

First, this study is based on universities, which are the only national institutions with the skills, the equipment and mandate to generate new knowledge through research or to adapt knowledge for the solution of local problems. University roles in research, information transfer and technology development are critical to national social progress and economic growth. World Bank (1997) argues that universities are key actors in national development because they play a critical role in training human resources. They have a potential to upgrade skills and knowledge of the labour force and contribute towards producing and processing innovation through technology transfer. As stated in an earlier chapter in this paper, human resources are of fundamental importance for the social and economic development of any nation. Human resources are rated higher than physical capital because they are the ones that drive the physical capital to achieve development goals (Boulding, 1968).

Second, it is the human resources of a nation, not its capital nor its material resources that ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social development. Human resources constitute the ultimate basis of wealth of nations. Human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social economic and political organisations and carry forward national development. A country which is unable to develop and retain the skills and knowledge of its people and utilise them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else (Todaro, 1985). Brain drain therefore has a direct negative impact on any country's development efforts because it erodes the human resource base.

Third, education plays an important role in the betterment of life, recognition of drawbacks and hindrances in the actual process of development and in the formulation of possible remedies to development obstacles. Among educational centres, higher institutions of learning are seen by society as role models of change and are expected to play the critical role in promoting sustainable economic, social and cultural development (UNESCO, 1998).

This study focused on the possible brain drain of academic staff from the university is particularly relevant to development. This is due to the fact that these are the people who, as a result of a long period of education and training, possess special skills and knowledge that are essential for the socio-economic transformation of this country. Loosing them therefore means a lot in terms of the quality of labour force produced by the university.

7.4 Suggested areas for further research

There is need for future research to focus on areas that can build a comprehensive understanding of working conditions in the public universities and the issue of brain drain. Some of the areas that need further exploration include:

1. An in-depth study of the reasons behind the perception among academic staff that university teaching is not a prestigious job. The study would explain the psycho-

social effect of this perception among the academic staff and the extent to which it influences their motivation to work. The study will further seek to explain why university teaching has lost its prestige and what types of jobs the university academic staff now consider to be prestigious. The study can also try to find out what the policy makers can do to restore the apparent loss of prestige in the university teaching job.

2. An analysis of individual aspects of working conditions to provide a more clear understanding of the same. This study explored most of the working conditions, but not necessarily to the required detail because of scope and time constraints. Some of the crucial working conditions such as staff health and recreational facilities were not explored to the required detail. A follow up study would therefore give a more detailed exploration of all the working conditions, the staff perception of each one of them and where possible give the actual statistics of how each one of them has already influenced brain drain from the University of Nairobi as well as all the Kenyan public universities in general.
3. The replication of this study in other Kenyan public universities to allow for comparison of the findings. This study embraces an assumption that the UoN being the mother university is representative of the public universities in Kenya. However, some of the findings are specific to the University of Nairobi and can therefore not be generalized. A follow up study involving all the public universities in Kenya can therefore be crucial in order to generate findings that will allow for a clearer comparison between the Kenyan public universities in terms of all the aspects captured by this study.

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Annex A

**Academic staff perceptions and the actual working conditions in the University of
Nairobi and their likely influence on brain drain**

Study Questionnaire

Questionnaire

This questionnaire has been prepared in relation to the objectives of this study. All questions relate to perceptions of academic staff towards the prevailing working conditions in the university of Nairobi and the extent to which these perceptions are likely to cause brain drain.

For the Researcher's Use

Questionnaire No.	
Date of interview	
Name of respondent	
Name of department	

Part 1: Respondent's profile

1. Sex: (Circle as appropriate)
a. Male b. Female
2. Age (Circle as appropriate)
a. 20-25 b. 26-35
b. 36-45 c. 46 and above
3. Marital status (Circle as appropriate)
a. Single b. Married
c. Widow/widower d. Divorced/separated
4. For how many years have you worked in the University of Nairobi? _____
5. What is your highest academic qualification? (Circle as appropriate)
a. PhD b. M.A/M.Sc/LLM
c. BA/B.SC/LLB d. Others: Specify _____
6. What is your current position? (Circle as appropriate)
a. Assistant Lecturer b. Tutorial Fellow
c. Lecturer d. Senior lecturer
e. Associate professor f. Professor
g. Other (Specify) _____
7. Have you worked in other departments within the University of Nairobi in the past? (Circle as appropriate)
a. Yes b. No
[IF NO, GO TO Q10)
8. If yes, list the departments
a. _____ b. _____
b. _____ c. _____

9. Why did you move from the other department (s) to this department?
- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
10. Had you worked in another university/ establishment before joining the university of Nairobi?
- a. Yes b. No
11. If yes, list the most recent two places where you had worked?
- a. _____
- b. _____

Part 2: Working conditions

12. The University of Nairobi compensates its employees in several ways. What is your level of satisfaction with the following aspects of compensation? (Tick as appropriate)

#	Aspect of compensation	Level of satisfaction		
		Highly satisfied	Satisfied	Not satisfied
1	Your current salary			
2	Your current house allowance			
3	Your current medical cover/scheme			
4	Your current leave allowance			
5	Your current leave days			
6	Other benefits (Specify):			
	1. _____			
	2. _____			
	3. _____			

13. Are you housed in a university house?
- a. Yes b. No
14. If no, why? _____
15. Is the medical cover provided by the university sufficient for your family?
- a. Yes b. No
16. How would you rate your current workload? (Circle as appropriate)
- a. Too heavy b. Just about right c. Light
17. How many hours do you teach per week? _____
18. How do you consider your class size?
- a. Too big b. Average c. Too small
19. Have you ever been allocated to teach in a course you do not consider yourself fully qualified for?
- a. Yes b. No

20. Do you teach in the parallel programmes?
 a. Yes b. No
21. Can you use a computer?
 a. Yes b. No
22. If yes to 21 above, how?
 a. Word processing b. E-mail
 c. Internet d. Statistical and other analysis
 e. Others (specify)

23. Do you have a computer in your own office?
 a. Yes b. No

24. If yes to 23 above, is the computer yours or university provided? _____

25. Access to information and laboratory/workshop equipment (Tick as appropriate)

	Question	Yes	No	Not Applicable
1	Does the library stock academic journals in your area of interest? (IF NO GO TO Q3)			
2	If yes, are the journals stocked within 6 months of their publication?			
3	Does the library stock books in your area of interest? (IF NO, GO TO Q5)			
4	Are the books stocked within 6 months of their publications?			
5	Does the laboratory/workshop have enough equipment that you require?			
6	Does the laboratory/workshop have up to date equipment that you require?			

26. Is information on existing research opportunities available to you?

- a. Yes b. No

27. Have you been involved in carrying out any research in the last 5 years?

- a. Yes b. No

IF YES, GO TO Q28 TO 31; IF NO GO TO Q32

28. How many research projects have you undertaken in the last 5 years? _____

29. Who funded the research projects?

Funding organisation	Number of projects
University of Nairobi	
Others (Specify)	

30. Has any of your research findings ever been adopted by the private sector?

- a. Yes b. No

31. Has any of your research findings ever been adopted by the public sector?

- a. Yes b. No

32. Why have you not been able to carry out any research in the last 5 years?

33. Have you been able to publish in the last 5 years?

- a. Yes b. No

IF NO GO TO Q37

34. If yes, how many publications have you published in the last 5 years?

- a. 1-3 b. 4-6 c. 7-10 d. Over 10

35. Of the above publications, how many are:

- a. Journal Articles _____
- b. Book chapters _____
- c. Departmental seminar papers _____
- d. Research monographs _____
- e. Others (Specify) _____

36. Do you take government opinion into consideration when publishing?

- a. Yes b. No

37. If no, why have you not been able to publish in the last 5 years?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

38. Do you have secretarial support?

- a. Yes b. No

39. If no, how do you get secretarial support?

40. What is the status of your office space?

- a. Own office b. Sharing with someone
- c. Others (Specify) _____

41. When were you last promoted? _____

42. From which position to which position were you promoted? _____

43. How long did it take you to be promoted from your previous position? _____

44. Does the University of Nairobi have specific criteria for promoting academic staff from one position to another? (Tick as appropriate)

- a. Yes b. No

If yes, GO TO Q44 TO 46; IF NO ANSWER Q47

44. Do you know the criteria for promotion?

- a. Yes b. No

45. Does the university apply these criteria at all times at the following levels?

1. Departmental level a. Yes b. No
2. At senate level a. Yes b. No

46. Under what instances are the criteria not followed?

47. Would you like to undertake further training?

- a. Yes b. No

48. If yes, what type of training? _____

49. In which university would you like to undertake the training?

- a. University of Nairobi
b. Another university in Kenya
c. A university in the developed world
d. A University in the developing world (Kenya excluded)
e. Others (specify) _____

50. Have you ever been sponsored by the University of Nairobi for any training in the last 5 years?

- a. Yes b. No

51. If yes, how many trainings _____

52. Have you ever looked for employment opportunities outside Kenya?

- a. Yes b. No

IF YES GO TO Q53 TO 55; IF NO ANSWER Q57

53. In which country(ies) have you been looking for employment opportunities?

1. _____ 2. _____
3. _____ 4. _____

54. Why have you not moved?

- a. Did not find the job
b. Could not move with family
c. Job opportunity found was not attractive
d. Others (Specify) _____

55. Are you still looking for an employment opportunity outside Kenya?

- a. Yes b. No

56. If no to Q55 above, why have you stopped looking for an employment opportunity outside Kenya?

57. Why have you never looked for an employment opportunity outside Kenya?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

58. Would political suppression influence your decision to either stay or leave the university?
 a. Yes b. No

59. Is there an established channel for presenting your complaints to the university administration?
 a. Yes b. No

60. If yes, how efficient is this channel?
 a. Very efficient b. Just about right c. Inefficient

61. How would you describe the overall university administration?
 a. Very flexible b. Flexible c. Rigid

62. Do you consider teaching in the university a prestigious job?
 a. Yes b. No

63. Considering the prevailing working conditions in the University of Nairobi, rank the following as possible factors that might influence your decision to move to work in another country

#	Item	Level of influence		
		High	Moderate	Low
1	Your current salary			
2	Your current house allowance			
3	Your current medical allowance			
4	Your current leave allowance			
5	The number of teaching hours assigned to you			
6	The number of students per class			
7	Library condition			
8	The teaching facilities available to you			
9	The style of management at the department level			
10	Overall management style of the university			
11	Research opportunities available to you			
12	Staff development opportunities available to you			
13	Likelihood of being promoted			
14	Likelihood of being able to publish			
15	Opportunity to express your opinions and grievances			

64. How true or false are the following statements about the University of Nairobi? (Tick as appropriate)

	Statement	True	False
1	Work load is always fairly distributed among all academic staff		
2	Some academic staff members are promoted based on other criteria rather than merit		
3	Sometimes information on research opportunities is not freely available to all academic staff members		
4	Large class sizes often make it difficult for academic staff to teach effectively		
5	Sometimes academic staff members are allocated to teach courses that they are not qualified to teach		
6	Most academic staff members leave the university because of poor pay		
7	Some academic staff members leave the university because of political suppression		
8	Most academic staff members do not publish on areas considered sensitive by the Government for fear of being victimised		
9	More often than not, the latest academic publications and journals are not available in the university library		
10	Most academic staff continue working in the university of Nairobi because they have not found a better job elsewhere		
11	Teaching in the university still remains a prestigious job in Kenya		
12	All the university academic staff are housed in university houses		
13	The university provides sufficient medical insurance for its academic staff		

Part 3: Key Informant Guide – Heads of Departments

65. How many academic staff are currently employed in your department?

- a. Total _____
- b. Male _____
- c. Female _____

66. How many academic staff have left your department to take up employment in other countries over the last five years?

No. of Academic staff	Year				
	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Male					
Female					

67. Please indicate below the countries or places where the above staff went.

#	Country/Place	No of staff
1		
2		
3		

4		
5		

68. What reasons did the academic staff give for leaving the University of Nairobi?

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____

69. Have any academic staff who had left the departments in last 5 years returned to the department or the university?

- a. Yes
- b. No

70. If yes, how many? _____