Abstract

This thesis presents a case study of a new and emerging university in the Global South. It seeks to understand the university’s practices and how globalisation has impacted on staff, students and management of the university. The institution is located in East Africa and aspires to be a leading research-led university, both in the region and internationally. My research aims to contribute to the debate and growing concerns about the impact of globalisation on higher education and to understand these processes in the context of the Global South, in particular, East Africa.

There are estimated to be somewhere between 18,400 and 28,000 universities worldwide depending on how ‘university’ is defined. An extremely small proportion are elite research-led institutions and these are nearly all located in the Global North, particularly in countries that have a long history of Western liberal democracy. These institutions are usually old, if not ancient, typically have English as a language of instruction, and occupy a hegemonic position with respect to university type, ranking and privilege in the world order. Newer institutions in developing nations that wish to adopt this same model of education find it near impossible to compete, and experience difficulty in embarking on a journey of development towards such a goal. In particular, problems arise from the effects of globalisation, and it is the consequences of globalisation that the present study examines.

Globalisation itself is a vast and complex topic that is multidisciplinary and used in different contexts and in both metaphorical and abstract ways. It has economic, political, cultural and ideological traditions and it can be difficult to know the precise meaning of the term when it is used. In this thesis I have adopted Steger’s historical treatment of globalisation and focused on
what he calls the ‘modern period’ (Steger, 2017), which seems pertinent to a study about a contemporary university. This modern period has been characterised by two main forces. The first is the ideology of the free market and neoliberalism, and the second, the revolution in information and communication technology. It is these two aspects that are central to the thesis and the focus of this research. By adopting this theory, I aim to provide important insights that will partly explain how and why an emerging university faces challenges in realising its goals. Here I am interested in the exercise of power, and my ontological position and contribution to practice is one of seeking a more equal world, hence the data tend to be interpreted through a critical theory lens.

The data were collected in the field at an institution in East Africa that I have called University of Mokono. I have chosen to use this fictional name to ensure some anonymity for those who kindly shared their experiences with me. The case study is based on in-depth semi-structured interviews with staff, documentary analysis and my observations in the field. I interviewed senior administrators \( n = 6 \), and academic staff \( n = 6 \) with specific questions about how globalisation has impacted on policy, management and the academic practices in the university.

The study showed that stakeholder needs, conforming to expected international standards, and digital technologies were the key impacts of globalisation. These presented both opportunities and challenges that influenced decision-making and practices in the university. The university spent much time and effort to reach out to stakeholders, in particular aid donors, and it competed for grants and student tuition fees. To access these, it was forced to adopt international standards, including English as a language of instruction for both teaching and research. There was a clear digital divide between the established universities in the Global North and Mokono that the university actively sought to change through seeking opportunities for what it saw as a
digital dividend. The best example was using technology to create digital heritage to enhance the Kiswahili language and ensure its presence in the digital world.

However, the university was faced with challenges from global forces. For instance, aid donors gave grants conditionally and could dictate the university’s direction. There was limited teaching and research capacity in a largely junior workforce that found it challenging to work to expected international standards. There were problems with a considerable lack of access to the internet, technologically skilled professionals, computers and even a reliable electricity supply. Importantly, there were tensions between prioritising the university’s strategies to meet local objectives and global expectations. Local needs were sacrificed and, although Mokono wanted to meet global expectations and local objectives, more priority needed to be given to serve national development and strengthen the institution’s domestic identity. It was unclear if both strategies were possible. Overall, the university had little choice but to embrace globalisation while experiencing limited options for what this could actually provide. If these outcomes are representative of the full forces of modern globalisation, then it seems likely that it will take many years for Mokono to achieve its aspirations to be a world class institution.

The thesis may have practical significance for higher education policy and practice in Tanzania, East Africa, or similarly positioned countries with universities that are trying to develop. The insights it provides into the process of globalisation highlight the type of complex decisions that need to be made. When these deepen inequality and inequity for the Global South, alternatives should be found. The findings may also inform other stakeholders in debates about how they might act towards a developing university and, in particular, the sensitivity and conditions around aid donation.
Importantly, opportunities for efficient resource use requires a competent, skilled and highly educated workforce and this is where globalisation can potentially make the biggest impact. Educating and upskilling the academic workforce improves capacity for change and development and without this, all other efforts may serve little purpose and simply highlight the pernicious effects of globalisation. Any higher education institution that would like to improve needs to educate and upskill its staff. This is a very-long term strategy for a university in the Global South, but this is where the main support should be targeted to reduce the gap between these institutions and those more established in the Global North.

Finally, this study offers new insights and perspectives on the modern period of globalisation and how both neoliberalism and digital technologies seem to influence all aspects of university life.
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Presentations from this research


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Tan, R.S.E. (2015, November). Data collection of the research project. Verbal presentation at the Higher Education Development Centre Postgraduate Symposium, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.

Tan, R.S.E. (2015, May). A comparison study of the impact of globalisation on an emerging university and old university. Verbal presentation at the Higher Education
Table of contents

Abstract ........................................................................................................................................... ii

Acknowledgements ................................................................................................................ vi

Presentations from this research ............................................................................................. ix

List of figures ............................................................................................................................ xvii

List of tables ............................................................................................................................. xviii

List of abbreviations ................................................................................................................ xix

1 Introduction ............................................................................................................................... 1
  1.1 Overview ................................................................................................................................. 1
  1.2 My motivations ......................................................................................................................... 1
  1.3 The problem background ....................................................................................................... 3
  1.4 The research purpose and questions .................................................................................... 7
  1.5 How I conducted the study ..................................................................................................... 11
  1.6 Significance of the study ........................................................................................................ 12
  1.7 Thesis structure ..................................................................................................................... 13

2 Literature Review ..................................................................................................................... 16
  2.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................................. 16
  2.2 Conceptualising globalisation ............................................................................................... 20
    2.2.1 Globalisation in the modern period .................................................................................. 23
    2.2.2 Neoliberalism and globalisation ...................................................................................... 24

xii
2.2.3 Digital technologies and globalisation..........................................................26

2.3 The impacts of globalisation on the university ..............................................27

2.3.1 Privatisation of teaching and research operations.................................29

2.3.2 Compliance with academic performance standards..................................31

2.3.3 The advancement of digital technologies ..................................................33

2.4 Emerging universities in the Global South ..................................................36

2.4.1 Academic talent, financial investments and modern governance ...............39

2.4.2 Strategies of academic excellence ..............................................................39

2.5 The responses of Tanzanian universities to the impacts of globalisation .......41

2.5.1 Implementing English as the language of instruction...............................41

2.5.2 Securing private funding from aid donors and students .........................42

2.5.3 Recruiting international students ..............................................................45

2.5.4 Acquiring digital technologies .................................................................46

2.6 Identifying the Inter University Council of East Africa’s (IUCEA) rationales behind globalisation.........................................................................................47

2.6.1 IUCEA’s economic rationale.......................................................................50

2.6.2 IUCEA’s political rationale .......................................................................51

2.6.3 IUCEA’s social rationale ...........................................................................53

2.6.4 IUCEA’s academic rationale ....................................................................54

2.6.5 IUCEA’s technological rationale...............................................................56
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>Reporting</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Influences of globalisation on university decision-making</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>The government</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>The aid donors</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>The students</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The impact of globalisation on teaching and research</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>English for teaching and research</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.1</td>
<td>The stakeholders’ expectations</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2</td>
<td>Initiatives</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Teaching standards</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3.1</td>
<td>The stakeholders’ expectations</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3.2</td>
<td>Initiatives</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>Research intensive</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.1</td>
<td>The stakeholders’ expectations</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.2</td>
<td>Initiatives</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The influence of digital globalisation ................................................................. 143

6.1 Introduction .................................................................................................. 143

6.2 Globalisation and digital technologies in higher education ...................... 144

6.2.1 Social media technologies, OERs and MOOCs ........................................ 144

6.2.2 Digital divide, digital dividend, digital heritage .................................... 146

6.3 Results .......................................................................................................... 149

6.3.1 The Kiswahili MOOC (KMOOC) for global branding and digital heritage ... 149

6.3.2 OERs for knowledge networks ................................................................. 152

6.3.3 Digital divide and digital dividend ......................................................... 155

6.4 Summary ...................................................................................................... 157

7 Summary and Conclusion .............................................................................. 160

7.1 Introduction ................................................................................................. 160

7.2 Discussion of key findings .......................................................................... 161

7.2.1 Key finding 1: External stakeholder financing an emerging university influenced the decisions around strategy and development in response to globalisation .......... 162

7.2.2 Key finding 2: International standards of teaching and research strongly influences an emerging university ................................................................. 164

7.2.3 Key finding 3: Digital heritage and digital dividend are the intended impacts while the digital dividend is the unintended impact of digital technologies with regard to globalisation in the Global South ................................................................. 167

7.3 Conclusion and contributions of the study .................................................. 170
7.4 Implications and suggestions for emerging universities in the least developed countries of the Global South ................................................................. 174

7.4.1 Internal and external support .................................................................. 175

7.4.2 Capacity building .................................................................................... 176

7.4.3 Digital technology ................................................................................... 178

7.5 Limitations ................................................................................................. 180

7.6 Further research ........................................................................................ 182

7.7 Coda .......................................................................................................... 184

References ........................................................................................................ 186

Appendix: Questionnaire for participants ...................................................... 227
List of figures

Figure 1 Map of Tanzania in East Africa. Retrieved from http://www.freeworldmaps.net/africa/tanzania/location.gif .................................67

Figure 2 Map of Tanzania. Retrieved from http://www.freeworldmaps.net/africa/tanzania/tanzania-map-physical.jpg .........................68

Figure 3 A coding example (stage one). ..................................................................................................................84

Figure 4 A clustering example on codes relevant to ‘international students’ (stage two). ......86

Figure 5 Deriving key themes by considering the theoretical stance of project. ...............87

Figure 6 An example of three coding levels in relations to one theme (stage three). ........88
List of tables

Table 1 Summary structure of literature review ................................................................. 16
Table 2 Pseudonyms and description of participants \( (n = 12) \) ........................................ 75
Table 3 Documents from Mokono \( (n = 6) \) .................................................................. 81
Table 4 Stages in the process of thematic analysis (adopted from King & Horrocks, 2010, p.153). .................................................................................................................. 83
Table 5 Documents applied according to thematic analysis .............................................. 90
List of abbreviations

BRICS Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa

IUCEA Inter University Community of East Africa

WTO World Trade Organization

IMF International Monetary Fund

ASEAN Association of South East Asian Nations

SADC Southern African Development Community

GATS General Agreement on Trades in Services

PBRF Performance Based Research Fund

OERs open education resources

MOOCs massive open online courses

MIT Massachusetts Institute of Technology

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>DANIDA</td>
<td>Danish International Development Agency</td>
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<td>EAC</td>
<td>East African Community</td>
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<td>AAS</td>
<td>Association of African Universities</td>
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<td>SARUA</td>
<td>South African Regional Universities Association</td>
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<td>DAAD</td>
<td>Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst</td>
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<td>AJOL</td>
<td>African Journals OnLine</td>
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<tr>
<td>QS</td>
<td>Quacquarelli Symonds Limited</td>
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<tr>
<td>MBA</td>
<td>Master’s in Business Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>International English Language Testing System</td>
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<td>ACIE</td>
<td>American Council for International Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMTs</td>
<td>social media technologies</td>
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<td>KMOOC</td>
<td>Kiswahili MOOC</td>
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<td>SaaS</td>
<td>software as a service</td>
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PaaS  platform as a service
1 Introduction

1.1 Overview

Despite what seems to be the appealing benefits of globalisation around the world, many challenges remain unresolved for the Global South (see Section 2.4 for definition and further discussion). Globalisation is complex with regards to how universities operate to meet their local objectives whilst also responding to global expectations. It is difficult to understand because it provides different opportunities and challenges to universities globally. This qualitative study focusses on the impact of globalisation on an emerging university in the Global South, in particular East Africa. Throughout the thesis, I argue that globalisation creates challenges more than opportunities for an emerging university to achieve its goals, and demonstrate how this widens the gap with universities of the Global North.

This chapter provides the background to the research. I commence by stating my motivations for undertaking this inquiry. I then outline the research purpose and research questions. Next, I briefly present how I conducted the study followed by the significance of the study. Finally, I outline the thesis structure.

1.2 My motivations

I illustrate my motivations for this study through outlining my experiences of education in Malaysia, which I associated with globalisation. These concerned 1) language of instruction and 2) the dominant education content. The language of instruction of the Malaysian education system has changed between Bahasa Melayu and English three times since 1983. English was
the language of instruction of universities in Malaysia during the colonial era and then, in 1983, 26 years after Malaysia’s independence, institutions fully switched to Bahasa Melayu as the language of instruction, including the sciences (Gill, 2004). Then, in 2003, English was the language of instruction of science and mathematics (Gill, 2005); again, in 2009, Bahasa Melayu replaced English in teaching science and mathematics in primary and secondary schools, but this decision affected students’ language competency when they entered universities (Gooch, 2009). The conversion of English to Bahasa Melayu is problematic because many English words are not available in Bahasa Melayu, and so, most Bahasa Melayu words were loanwords. In other words, English was influencing Bahasa Melayu. As a student, I experienced how academic staff struggled to master English and to teach in the language, and how this affected students’ learning process. In addition, the issue of English as a language of instruction affected my admission to postgraduate courses. I was required to take a test to measure my English language ability for the enrolment in one of the English-speaking universities abroad. I had to make a choice amongst the plethora of international English tests (e.g., TOEFL). Therefore, I associated English with being a necessary choice of language instruction due to its dominance in politics, economics, scholarship and research.

Then, education content was an issue while I was studying for my master’s in tourism. I observed that the educational content being taught drew on the Global North, particularly the Western ideals and case studies that had little relevance to the Malaysian context. Similarly, in the literature, both Breidlid (2013) and Forman (2014) argue that the context of the Global

1 TOEFL is the acronym for Test of English as a Foreign Language.
North overshadowed the Global South in the textbook content of science, maths and English language, even though these textbooks are meant to apply in the Global South. If it is true that most of the educational content concentrates on the knowledge systems of the Global North, we cannot fully understand globalisation without also looking at ideas from the Global South. For instance, some complex ideas from the Global South are Western-colonised countries, the industrial growth in Asia, the influence of the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa) group, and the culturally different belief systems of the Africa, Asia and Latin America (Breidlid, 2013; Dados & Connell, 2012).

1.3 The problem background

This section contextualizes the thesis topic by indicating the gap addressed by the study without detailing the evidence because a comprehensive review of the relevant academic literature appears in Chapter 2.

As I delved into the literature on globalisation, I find that it is a highly debated concept despite being widely studied because most authors perceive that globalisation is a phenomenon of social processes integrating but each author has a different definition. For some, it involves the compression of time and space, the effects on local events or the formation of global organisations. For others, its definition must be situated in a specific social dimension (i.e. political, economic, cultural, ecological, religion and technological). However, few could convince me why I should prioritise a specific social dimension over the others and what characterises the modern globalisation.

Similarly, despite being a pervasive topic, I find that globalisation is perceived differently in
higher education. A commonly presented discussion is the neoliberal approaches in globalisation that impact on the university with competition for private funding and compliance with performance-based efficiencies (Marginson, 2014). The World Trade Organisation (WTO) is one of the dominant global organisations that perpetuates the notion of the university as a commodity for global trade. With this notion, the organisation encourages governments to implement tuition fee because education is regarded as a private good that benefits one's qualification for a better job and higher income (Altbach, 2002; Saunders, 2007). Another discussion of globalisation is competition between universities around the world. This can be competition for international students as a source of income or benchmarking on university ranking for research quality and output to attract international grants (Altbach, 2004). A further focus on globalisation is universities’ engagement with digital technologies for a competitive edge in online teaching and access the latest empirical research findings (Daniel, Kanwar, & Uvalić-Trumbić, 2006). While the literature shows that globalisation has both advantages and disadvantages for universities around the world, I realise there is a lack of in-depth discussion on why and how a university response to the phenomenon, in particular emerging universities in the Global South. I perceive that the differing views are due to the lack of clarity to theorise globalisation in the modern period.

Owen Hick’s (2014) qualitative study entitled “Globalization and learning across the higher education sector - at the other extreme” connects with my interest examining the impact of globalisation. His work enlightens me to focus my research on universities that are emerging as elite universities but severely under-resourced in the Global South. Hicks argues that there is a global divide between 18,400 and 28,000 universities in the Global South and the Global North, but most studies focus on the performance of small proportion of elite research-led universities, which are typically ranked as the Top 500 internationally. The majority of elite
universities are located in the Global North, particularly in countries that have a long history of Western liberal democracy. These institutions are usually centuries old, typically have English as a language of instruction, and have adequate infrastructure and highly experienced academic staff. In other words, their hegemonic positions are seen as excellent quality benchmarks that are expected to be achieved by most universities. Yet, Hicks observes that newer institutions operating in the Global South, particularly in resource-restricted circumstances, would find it near impossible to adopt the same model of education of elite universities, and experience difficulty in embarking on a journey of development towards such a goal. Hicks has compared his experience working in universities in the Global North and in universities in the Global South (i.e. Timor Leste, China, Vietnam), and notes that the scarcities of resources limit the teaching and research development of the universities. Based on Hicks findings, I apply the term ‘under-resourced’ to characterise universities that are:

a) lack of infrastructure such as stable electricity, poor internet speed and up-to-date computers;

b) limited in finance from the government to the extent that academics are underpaid and they needed multiple jobs to support their income;

c) lack of academic staff with PhD qualifications but have a bachelor or master’s degree.

d) the library has insufficient teaching material and limited access to online literature.

I also apply the term ‘under-resourced’ to acknowledge the poor availability of financial resources, academic capacity and institutional infrastructure of the emerging university in this case study.

I investigate the available literature on emerging universities in the Global South with regard to globalisation but there are few literatures. Salmi (2009, 2013) is one exception who examines the success of four universities below a century old in India, Singapore, South Korea and Hong
Kong. His findings indicated that these universities have emerged as elite universities because they adopted the same model of education as the elite universities. But more importantly, he states that these emerging universities have found ways to acquire similar levels of resources with elite universities in terms of high investment, highly qualified academic staff, niche subjects and strategic and autonomous leadership. However, I realise that Salmi’s criteria to be successful emerging universities are difficult to attain for universities working with extreme resource scarcities, which Hicks highlighted in his study. Nevertheless, based on Salmi’s findings, this study defines emerging universities as new institutions, below a century old, which aims to be among the best universities in the world. They adopted English as a language of instruction and seek to establish their teaching and research capacities.

I continue to read broadly about universities in the Global South and soon find that the issue of the global divide is perhaps even more severe for many new African universities that are not only under-resourced but also seem to have little autonomy. After the gradual independence across the African continent in the 1960s, many new universities were established for national development. However, Teffera’s (2008) statement, intrigue me, that the African higher education systems are perhaps the most marginalized in the world, despite having the most internationalized systems inherited from colonialization. Teffera and Greijn (2010) explain that colonisation continued in the form of international aid donors, who influenced the decisions of universities’ management. Consequently, issues of decision-making affect these universities’ directions for national needs while at the same time institutional capacities are often inadequately met. However, I discover a raft of in-depth studies exploring issues of power beleaguering these universities. Many studies have looked into the issues of universities heavily supported by international aid donors who often provide aid with the condition but these studies are conducted on a few universities across several countries in the African region (e.g. Hayward
& Ncayiyana, 2014; Jowi, 2009; Shizha, 2010; Teferra, 2014). These studies seem to assume that African countries are all the same and neglect the variation in culture, resources, and historical maturity. Additionally, most studies also focus on prestigious African national universities that still have challenges in resources but privileged than most counterparts in terms of teaching and research capacities and funding by their respective governments (e.g. Baryamureeba, 2007; Ishengoma, 2017; Provini, 2019).

I find the neglect of the newer institutions that still need various resources for their operation needed to be addressed when many when African countries have been establishing many new universities in addition to their national universities. Moreover, the literature has shown that problems arise from the effects of globalisation on emerging universities’ development. As such, my study is taking the next step to examine the consequences of globalisation in the context of an emerging university in the Global South, in particular Africa, as discussed in the following section.

1.4 The research purpose and questions

The purpose of the study is to examine how globalisation has influenced an emerging university in Tanzania and make an original contribution to the knowledge of the impact of globalisation on higher education. The first aim is to theorised globalisation in order to understand how it impacts on universities’ policy and practice. The second aim is to investigate the impact of globalisation in the context of an emerging university, which is under-represented in the literature, particularly on the management and academic staff. The third aim is to foreground globalisation in higher education from the Global South, in particular Tanzania.
In this study, the use of ‘the Global South’ and ‘the Global North’ does not equate to the geographical positions of countries in the world. Rather, I use the terms to capture the different political-economic statuses of countries in the world. The Global South refers to the financially less advantaged and technologically less advanced nations of the world and the Global North refers to the economically prosperous and industrialised states (Chan & Costa, 2005). The terms are chosen instead of ‘developed countries’ and ‘developing countries’ to avoid the vague meaning of ‘developing,’ and the strong association to past colonised countries that may not apply for countries such as Nepal, Thailand and Ethiopia (Huggett, 2013). Therefore, the study applies the Global North and the Global South to provide some distance from the negative connotations of ‘developing,’ a term that is largely considered archaic and inappropriate in the international development literature.

In order to understand how globalisation impacts on universities policy and practice, the study has to theorise globalisation. Here, the study applies Steger’s (2017) work that is particularly helpful in thinking and working through the multi-faceted ideas of globalisation. He suggests a historical treatment to frame complex social processes in the phenomenon for examination. However, Steger implies that the time frame would require identifying the key dimensions of global social processes. Like many authors of globalisation, he acknowledges that, one of the key dimensions is the political and economic processes because they are the main driver of social integration in the world. Another key dimension is technology advancement because it is the tool enabling global interconnectivity. By identifying the two key dimensions and applying his historical treatment, he suggests that globalisation in the contemporary period started from 1980s to the current time. His suggestion is linked to the introduction and increasing neoliberal approaches, that began in 1980s, in the global political and economic governance and, in the same period of time, the advancement of digital technologies in
connecting the world with the start of the world-wide web. In other words, Steger’s theory of
globalisation, framed in the contemporary period, subsumes the political and economic
processes as neoliberalism and technology advancement as digital technologies advancement.
More importantly, the theory validates the focus on neoliberalism and digital technologies as
the two key dimensions affecting the case study of a university that was established in 2001,
only 21 years after the beginning of the contemporary period of globalisation.

To further strengthen the theory, the study delves more into political and economic globalisation
in the contemporary period, in particular, Harvey’s work to understand how neoliberal
approaches affect other social processes (e.g. cultural, ecological, religion). The study also finds
Castells’ (2015) and Baldwin’s (2016) work on the role of digital technologies as
interconnectivity tool enabling globalisation useful to approach the research question from
some interestingly different angles (i.e. the third research question).

In this case study, globalisation is a framing theory for examining how the university forms its
institutional policy and practices in response to these forces. It applies Steger’s theoretical
framework to provide important insights of globalisation and explains how and why an
emerging university in the Global South faces challenges in realising its goals and competing
with its counterparts in the Global North. The study assumes power relations with the local and
global stakeholders affect decisions made in response to globalisation. For instance, if
globalisation is seen as the imposition of international teaching and research standards, it could
increase the quality of the university, but it could also create tension with local cultural
imperatives in this situation. In this context, the decisions of the management and academic
staff on the university’s purpose and its journey of development could discern to what extent a
local institution’s management, teaching and research have been shaped by globalisation. As
such the study examines the effects and consequences on academic staff and management of the university to understand globalisation in the context of higher education. Specifically, it seeks to answer the following three principal questions:

1. What influences the decisions made around strategy and development within an emerging university in response to globalisation?
2. How does globalisation affect decision-making about how to organise teaching and research in an emerging university?
3. What are the intended and unintended impacts of digital technologies with regard to globalisation?

The research questions are designed based on Steger’s theory of globalisation and the concepts of an emerging university in the Global South. The area of questioning seeks to understand the influences of globalisation on decision-making processes. For example, in the first research question, Steger’s theory of neoliberal approaches of politic and economic globalisation is applied to look into the strategy and development of the emerging university. Hence, the question explores the measures taken by the university’s leadership to be inclusive or exclusive of global higher education. Then, in research question two, Steger’s theory on neoliberal compliance measures of politic and economic globalisation guided the investigation of how an emerging university that has yet to establish its teaching and research culture, strategise its pathway of operations; does the emerging university comply or resist, and what are the potential internal debates over the strategies adopted. The final research question links to Steger’s view that digital technologies are vital to enable globalisation. As such, the question explores the role of digital technologies to understand globalisation because they appear to have different impacts, in particular financially poor countries in the Global South. For instance, if digital
technologies are open access, the Global South would benefit from access and participation in
global higher education, but the benefit is not possible if digital technologies require fee-based
access.

1.5 How I conducted the study

My approach to the topic on globalisation is based on Steger’s historical treatment in the
modern period (Steger, 2017). This perspective of globalisation, characterised by neoliberalism
and the revolution of digital technologies, guided my reading in the academic literature and data
collection. This qualitative study involved a field trip funded by the University of Otago (New
Zealand) to the University of Mokono (hereafter referred as Mokono) in Tanzania, East Africa.
The name of the university investigated is fictional to maintain the anonymity of the participants
and protect the institution’s reputation. Mokono is a new university, not more than 20 years old,
and aspires to be a leading research-intensive university. It was established to lead the national
developments in accessing global benefits such as resource provision, quality recognition and
national prestige. However, it had to meet global expectations such as increasing its academic
competence and international competitiveness. To understand how global expectations shaped
the emerging university, the study examined the strategies and rationales of senior
administrators’ policy-making and academic teaching and research practices. Although this is
a single case study, many of the circumstances of this university are similar to the description
of other universities in East Africa. In this sense, it could provide an in-depth understanding of
the challenges for institutions in the region as they respond to globalisation.

In-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with senior administrators (n = 6) and
academic staff \((n = 6)\). Also, some documents from the university’s website were reviewed. The main line of questioning involved exploration of how globalisation manifests itself within the higher education sector. In order to answer the research questions, in this thesis, I also consider the exercise of power and the issue of equality on an emerging university in the Global South. A thematic, content and critical theoretical approaches were used to analyse the data. The analysis of data took account of ensuring rigour, “thoroughness, precision and accuracy as fundamental conditions for trust in the research outcomes” (Daniel & Harland, 2018, p. 112).

1.6 Significance of the study

The study contributes to the theory of globalisation in higher education. It provides justified arguments about the nature and reality of the phenomenon from the perspective of a university that has just begun its operation in the contemporary period. It expands the research scope of globalisation in the context of countries in the Global South that have severely limited financial and teaching resources.

I am aware that my case study in Tanzania only allows me to make tentative conclusions about the Global South because this is a case study of a particular context. As such, I was careful of overgeneralising (discussed in Section 3.9.1). So, where I mention the Global South in this thesis, I am only suggesting tentative claims about countries that have similar socio-economic with Tanzania.

Much of the research into globalisation is in the Global North with well-established or well-resourced universities. Therefore, this study may broaden awareness and understanding of how globalisation affects the shape of a university in a financially and resource-scarce country,
particularly a country seeking to position itself in the global arena. The study contributes to the scant literature representing Tanzania, and more broadly East Africa. In addition, through interviews with the academic staff working in the university, it provides a perspective of globalisation from the ground. The study highlights the circumstances of academics working in a public university with severely under-resourced conditions located in the Global South and the tensions they felt due to the process of globalisation. Finally, the study may have practical significance for education policy and practice in Tanzania, the East African countries or in similarly positioned countries. It provides recommendations to the institution and its funders by highlighting decisions that could reduce or widen equality and equity issues, barriers to international participation and tensions in institutional priorities.

1.7 Thesis structure

This thesis is organised into seven chapters which are compiled in the following order. Following this chapter, I present the literature review and draw from it the theoretical framework. The framework guides my research approach and views of the impacts of globalisation on an emerging university in Tanzania, East Africa, which is in the context of Global South. I outline debates around the definitions of the theory of globalisation, and prioritise attention to the theory in the modern period framed by neoliberalism and digital technologies that guided my research approach. I then review the literature pertaining to the specific changes on the university, such as privatisation and applications of digital technologies. I also provide important background information on the case selected for this study. This includes an overview of national strategic responses and regional rationale to respond to the impacts of globalisation. Together, the literature on the theoretical framework and context on
the impacts of globalisation on an emerging university set the scene for exploring the impact of globalisation in Tanzania, which is in the context of the Global South.

Chapter 3 presents the research design in detail. It outlines the key elements of a critical theory approach and explains the rationale for choosing this approach with reference to the research purpose and questions. I also provide detailed information on how participants were identified and recruited, how data were collected and an account of the analytical decisions made when interpreting the data.

The following three chapters (4 to 6) present the findings that emerged from this study. Chapter 4 addresses research question one and links with the literature on privatisation in relation to shrinking public funding and seeking for external resources students and aid donors. The chapter explores the process of privatisation from three key stakeholder perspectives, the government, aid donors and students. Moko is forced to engage with privatisation and is often challenged by the competing demands of these stakeholders. Chapter 5 addresses research question two, and presents the decisions made in relation to teaching and research operations. As such, Chapter 5 sits at the heart of this study. Chapter 6 addresses research question three, offering a summative overview of the intended and unintended impacts of globalisation in the context of the impacts of digital technologies. The chapter presents differing levels of motivation to engage with digital technologies that emerged among senior administrators and academic staff members and provides a clear picture that the university is inadequately equipped for the modern digital age.

Finally, I reflect on the findings of this study and how I have answered the research questions. Next, I discuss the conclusion of the study and contributions made by this thesis in relation to
emerging universities, in the context of Tanzania, more broadly the Global South, and discuss the contribution to the theory of globalisation in the modern period. I then present the implications and suggestions from this study. I continue by highlighting the research limitations, and recommendations for future research. I conclude with thoughts on what can be learned from the insights resulting from this study.
2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the literature review to provide a context for the exploration of the impacts of globalisation on an emerging university in Tanzania, East Africa. The literature provided better insights on how to answer the research questions and identify possible contributions by this study. I summarise the structure of my literature review in Table 1 and I then elaborate on why I have used this structure.

*Table 1* Summary structure of literature review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main section</th>
<th>Sub-section</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Conceptualising globalisation</td>
<td>a) Globalisation in the modern period</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) Neoliberalism and globalisation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c) Digital technologies and globalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) The impacts of globalisation on the university</td>
<td>a) Privatisation of teaching and research operations</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b) Compliance with academic performance standards</td>
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<td>c) The advancement of digital technologies</td>
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<tr>
<td>3) Emerging universities in the Global South</td>
<td>a) Academic talent, financial investments and modern governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) The formula of academic excellence</td>
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<tr>
<td>4) The responses of Tanzania universities to the impacts of globalisation</td>
<td>a) Implementing English as the language of instruction</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b) Securing private funding from aid donors</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c) Recruiting international students</td>
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<td></td>
<td>d) Acquiring digital technologies</td>
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<tr>
<td>5) Identifying the Inter University Community of East Africa’s (IUCEA) rationales behind globalisation</td>
<td>a) IUCEA’s economic rationale</td>
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<td></td>
<td>b) IUCEA’s political rationale</td>
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<td>c) IUCEA’s social rationale</td>
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<td></td>
<td>d) IUCEA’s academic rationale</td>
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<td></td>
<td>e) IUCEA’s technological rationale</td>
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I structured the literature into the background of concepts and contexts that will provide an important link to the research questions. I illustrated the background of concepts in section one and two.

I start with conceptualising globalisation to provide better understanding of the phenomenon being investigated. I look into the contestation of current definitions in terms of its dimensions, processes and outcomes. I eventually decide to draw on Steger’s (2017) suggestion of investigating the phenomenon in the modern period, according to a historical timeline. I then discuss globalisation characterised by neoliberalism and the advancement of digital technologies.

Next, in the second section, I introduce the impacts of globalisation on the university. I start with exploring the role of the university in teaching and research, and its responsibility to serve the interest of local society and the wider international society. I then continue to discuss the key impacts of globalisation on the university in the contemporary period. I searched for the impacts of globalisation in higher education and narrowed the focus to ‘the university,’ but there are numerous research publications. Consequently, I frame my literature review on neoliberalism, free market and digital technologies. Within this frame, I narrowed the subject to the frequently highlighted impacts as eligible articles for inclusion. These are privatisation of teaching and research operations, compliance with academic performance standards, and the advancement of digital technologies. In the digital technologies’ literature, I added search filters of articles from 2014 to 2018 because of the quick changes and developments in this field. Next, I contextualised the concepts to set the research setting in section three, four and five. The purpose is to identify the relationship between universities and globalisation, national
regional and global. I pay particular attention to international initiatives of universities because the literature indicated internationalisation was a strategy to respond to globalisation (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Jowi, Knight, & Sehoole, 2013). For instance, international initiatives were reaching out to aid donors and education partners, adopting international courses and using digital technology to access international teaching materials.

In the third section, I highlight emerging universities in the Global South context, in particular Africa. I briefly explain the definition of the Global South and then discuss its position with respect to the processes of globalisation. Next, I draw on Salmi’s (2013) analysis of four new universities in order to understand the concept of emerging universities and the success factors and strategies that enable them to gain world-class stature. Like any other universities, emerging universities need high levels of 1) academic talent, 2) financial investment and 3) modern governance. On top of these resources, Salmi noted, these emerging universities’ success strategies include 1) securing contributions from the diaspora, who are citizens that have migrated and have successful careers, 2) adopting English as a language of instruction, 3) establishing specialised areas of study, 4) upgrading the university according to reputable international ranking benchmarks, and 5) introducing innovative curricula and pedagogy. Yet, these strategies are impacts of globalisation that can be both advantageous and disadvantageous to the Global South. I then examine the literature on emerging universities in the context of Africa. Overall, African emerging universities have insufficient academic talent, poor financial investment and low levels of modern governance.

In the fourth section, I set the scene of the case study context namely, Tanzania. I locate literature examining the responses of contemporary universities in Tanzania that can be
associated with globalisation (Ishengoma, 2004; Provini, 2019; Shuyler & Vavrus, 2010; Tedre, Ngumbuke, & Kemppainen, 2010). These responses include adopting English as a language of instruction, securing private funding from aid donors and students, recruiting international students and acquiring digital technologies.

Finally, I examine the policy and practice of the Inter University Council of East Africa (IUCEA) because it has strong influences on Tanzania universities’ strategic responses. The regional higher education network has five rationales of responding to potential opportunities or challenges of globalisation. These are economic, political, social, academic and technological (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014; Teferra & Knight, 2008).

Before proceeding into the chapter, it is pertinent for me to explain why I did not discuss the theory of postcolonialism, which is frequently applied in the examination of African higher education. Postcolonialism refers to the political, economic and cultural ramifications on the colonised countries during and after the Western occupation (McEwan, 2009). An example of the ramifications is the entrenched European-model of university in African universities: even after gaining independence, African universities adopt their former coloniser’s language of instruction, institutional governing structure, programmes and curricula (Heleta, 2016). As such, a study applying the postcolonial theory would usually scrutinise the behaviour of the formers colonising and colonised countries. This could lead to the critique of the dependency of formerly colonised countries on their former colonisers for training academic staff, supplying teaching and learning material and providing technological infrastructures (Johnson & Hirt, 2014). At the same time, the critique is also on the former colonising countries for continuing their imperialistic behaviour when they exert influences and thus affecting the
autonomy of African universities (Teferra, 2013). While the theory of postcolonialism was relevant to this study, I did not apply it in this study for two reasons. First, this study is focusing on the theory of globalisation, framed in the contemporary period, and thus, the discussion is on the current political and economic processes in the world that affect Africa. Second, I wanted to avoid narrowing the investigation to just questioning the Western dominance in Africa while losing sight of other global forces. Nevertheless, the study acknowledges that the history of colonialization in Africa has implications on universities’ development, and the continuity of colonial occupation is discussed through the direct involvement of aid donors.

2.2 Conceptualising globalisation

Globalisation is a widely contested term due to differential views of its social dimensions. It has many definitions because authors treat globalisation as a distinct phenomenon, and examine it in different contexts including the economic, the political, the cultural and the technological. The political dimension highlights governments diffusing uniformity in institutional policies (Fukuyama, 1992; Giddens, 1990; Huntington, 1991); the economic dimension highlights reducing trade barriers for market exchanges (Nash, 2010; Ritzer, 2009; Stiglitz, 2002); the cultural dimension highlights new cultural understanding and assimilation of society’s behaviour and social relations, in particular religion, ethnicity and language (Appadurai, 1996; Barber, 2002); and the technological dimension highlights technology advancement that facilitates and expands the movements of people, products and information (Archibugi & Pietrobelli, 2003; Castells, 2015). A notable similarity in these authors’ analyses of globalisation is their common view that the economic and political dimensions manifest globalisation most strongly, but they also note that all these dimensions are interrelated.
Held (1999), in contrast to those who treat globalisation as a phenomenon, suggests that globalisation is a process. According to him, globalisation is a process (or set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organization of social relations and transactions - assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact - generating transcontinental or interregional flows and networks of activity, interaction, and the exercise of power. (Held, 1999, p. 16)

Held’s highly cited definition highlights the depth of a wide-scale transformation such as integrating an international system between countries (e.g., European Union, the World Bank, the United Nations (UN)). However, the process of globalisation could also segregate or hybridise the global influences into local practices (Robinson, 2008). For instance, the UK segregating itself from the European Union through Brexit.

Alternatively, globalisation is viewed as a world structure that links the local and global sphere. Giddens (2003) has suggested that globalisation is “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (p. 60). Gidden’s definition, which is also highly cited, focusses on the increasing integration of people from the local to the global. This study understands the local as within a country and the global as across national borders. Gidden’s focal point was national boundaries and how social relations, people, goods, capital, values and ideas were formed or changed within and outside the country. In other words, Held’s definition encourages a deeper analysis of global exchange that encourages interdependency yet possibly with different scales of effects; Gidden’s definition urges a focus on how collective social networks have a phenomenal impact on a local sphere.
Steger’s (2017) definition of globalisation is one of the most comprehensive definitions of globalisation. His definition can be seen as a combination of the processes identified by Held (1999) and Giddens (2003). He considered the varying degree of social integration that transforms the present social condition locally and across borders. He also considered Robertson’s (1992) assertion that the concept includes the compression and increased awareness of global connectivity. As such, Steger (2017) defines globalisation as “the expansion and intensification of social relations and consciousness across world-time and world-space” (p. 17).

Additionally, Steger (2017) highlights that the debate on globalisation is due to the lack of agreement “on what kinds of social processes constitute its essence” (p. 13). He acknowledges that the political and economic processes are the core of globalisation but reminds readers that the development of other social processes (e.g. cultural, religion, ecological) should not be ignored.

This leads to his proposed dimensions of political and economic processes and technological tool that drives global connectivity to examine globalisation. He also suggests a historical treatment to identify the dominant political and economic ideology, and thus, he conceives that globalisation in the contemporary period is characterised by neoliberalism and digital technologies (further discussed in Section 2.2.1). The identification of neoliberalism agrees with the view of several globalisation authors that, as discussed earlier, the economic and political dimensions manifest globalisation most strongly (Ritzer, 2009; Friedman, 2005; Harvey, 2005). Steger adds that the advancement of digital technologies is also vital to understand globalisation because they act as a tool that sustained global connectivity. His view
aligns with theorists who examined how digital technologies support a near-infinite scale of financial and trade exchanges around the world (Castell, 2015; Mishra & Deichmann, 2016; Archibugi & Pietrobelli, 2003). As such, neoliberalism and digital technologies the two key global forces that this study applies to frame and examine the complexity of globalisation in the contemporary period.

### 2.2.1 Globalisation in the modern period

The theory of globalisation is focused on the modern period that began in 1979 to the current time, mainly characterised by neoliberalism and digital technologies (Steger, 2017). Neoliberalism is an economic theory mainly conceptualised by Milton Friedman, Friedrich Hayek and other economists from the University of Chicago (Harvey, 2005). The economists advocate the ‘free market’ to take the centre stage to encourage economic competition. They rationalise that economic competition would increase efficiency in resource allocation and create employment. The theory views competition could provide better commodities and services, avoid inefficient allocation of public resources, and possibly contribute to business start-ups that create jobs (Bassett & Salmi, 2014; Marginson & Rhoades, 2002). At the same time, more employment could be created with entrepreneurial freedom because individuals have the ability to control their resources, explore innovative ideas and compete for rewards (Harvey, 2005). The theorised outcomes justified neoliberalism as an economically efficient governance ideology for governments and businesses and, as a result, the theory underpins most of the thinking within the globalisation phenomenon. Finally, Steger explains that digital technologies enable the competitive and complex neoliberal measures to disseminate in governance and economic management around the world.
2.2.2 Neoliberalism and globalisation

Neoliberal ideas are for political use: the government would control the economy with free market rules and privatisation. The government then acts like a free market regulator. It privatises public resources, endorses private property rights and reduces its trade interference (e.g., imposing unnecessary taxes) (Harvey, 2005; Steger, 2005, 2017). Public services are privatised and this increases the number of facilities such as private education institutions, water services and health care services (Boden & Epstein, 2006). With respect to regulation, governments create new markets for commercialisation, form bureaus to legalise privatisation and distribute contractual work to deregulate its social welfare commitments (Olssen & Peters, 2005; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004).

According to Harvey (2005), the UK and the US are the key countries that have enforced the neoliberal governance that has influenced the world. In 1979, Margaret Thatcher, then Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, and Ronald Reagan, then President of the United States of America, adopted neoliberalism to restructure society. As both countries were the world’s dominant economic-political power of that era, neoliberalism had a significant impact on global governance. Believing that an economic model based on supply and demand can manage resources efficiently, governments world-wide endorsed the free market on both national and international levels. The aim was to create a ‘flat world’ with similar market regulations for an efficient economy (Friedman 1999, 2005).

Governments play a key role in enforcing the neoliberal ideal of competition in the
international market. They build political-economic alliances to ease trade barriers that would extend its market networks (Connell, 2013). For instance, former colonial powers, namely the United States, Germany, France and the United Kingdom formed financial institutional blocs such as the World Trade Organization (WTO), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. They established an interdependent monetary system, and similar economic policies and practices. The political-economic alliances allowed the creation of new markets internationally.

The WTO has 164 nations as its members. They represent more than three-quarters of the countries of the world who accept free market economic policy (WTO, 2016). The financial blocs imposed free market conditionality on the poorer countries of the South through investments and loans (Emeagwali, 2011; Olssen & Peters, 2005). Conditionality included loosening trade and financial barriers for exchange. Often this required the removal of government protection for local industries, such as import restrictions or taxes, which disadvantaged foreign competition with local products (Emeagwali, 2011; Foskett, 2010). According to Choudry (2011), free market conditions ignore the unequal competition between poor countries of the South and rich countries of the North. He argues that, in the free market competition, cheaper industrialised commodities from the North can outcompete products from the South. Consequently, the shift of local consumption to the North can trigger huge capital outflow and threaten local economies and the labour market.

In the context of culture, neoliberalism is depicted as a Western hegemonic governing system. It is an economic theory introduced by an American university and enforced globally by former colonial powers. Western nations, historically, have accumulated economic, political, cultural
and technological capital such as financial resources, industrialised quality and cheap commodities, military strength, English as the international language, and advanced scientific and technological knowledge. In other words, the West has better odds when competing with lesser capital-advantaged nations in the free market. Nonetheless, measures to combat Western hegemony include the formation of non-Western economic and political alliances such as the BRICS, the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), the Southern African Development Community (SADC), Mercosur and the like.

2.2.3 Digital technologies and globalisation

The development of digital technologies has created a highly interactive world that has enhanced and enabled globalisation. Digital technologies consist of electronic devices with the internet functions “to communicate and to create, disseminate, store and manage information” (Toro & Joshi, 2012, p. 20). They are a vital tool for lifting the barriers of time and distance that enables instantaneous connectivity across borders. As a communication tool with the capacity to transmit mass information, technology dramatically transforms cross-border connectivity and increasingly integrates countries around the world, while enabling more diverse international interactions (Marginson, 2014). These key attributes shape globalisation in the modern period.

In addition, digital technologies’ revolution timeline, especially in global social development, coincides with the 1979 neoliberal implementation. For example, the revolution began with the personal use of computers in the 1970s, followed by the publicly accessible internet in the
1980s and then business web transactions in the 1990s (Boyer, 2012). As such, the growing importance of digital technologies in the daily life of many societies in various part of the world is co-constructing the global enforcement of neoliberalism (Brey, 2004; Gandini, 2012).

Instantaneous and synchronous communications intensify trading between countries and increase economic and political interdependence (Arnowe, Torres, & Franz, 2012; Torres & Schugurensky, 2002). The implementation of technology has been necessary to liberalise financial transactions and to enable open market participation of the Global South. However, technology infrastructure projects in the Global South have not been optimised to allow global free market participation. The World Bank has been active promoting digital technologies in Africa “with the objective of opening markets to private investment and competition, thus fostering innovation, efficiency, and improved services” (World Bank, 2002, p. 3).

Digital technology will also be the subject of the next section and I will say more in the introduction to Chapter 6.

2.3 The impacts of globalisation on the university

Globalisation has impacts on higher education. A key function of the university in the contemporary period is to compete for economic advantage and produce knowledge that has “the application and productive use of information” (Roberts, 2009, p. 287). An institution's ability to train a workforce with higher thinking skills and knowledge is seen as essential for global wealth creation (Gumport, 2005; Roberts, 2009). The university can contribute to economically competitive science and technology innovations, knowledge capacity
development and knowledge exchange (Cantwell & Maldonado-Maldonado, 2009; Powell & Snellman, 2004). In addition, the university is instrumental in knowledge collaborations between nations (Olsen, 2007). This has increased the need for each country to have at least one university that is also active in research.

The university has two principal functions: contributing to national development and participating in the global higher education community. According to Altbach (2013a), the university is built primarily for national development. The institution teaches and trains professionals and conducts research with the priority of local interests. However, the university does not only rely on local knowledge, but it also operates with an international knowledge base. Altbach (2007) elaborates that the university contributes to an inclusive global higher education community. Since its early establishment, foreign academics and learning materials translated from Greek and Arab were part of the teaching programme (Altbach & Teichler, 2001; Nguyen, 2011; Sabour, 2015). In the 19th century, Germany included research to generate empirical findings for intellectual argument; and in the 20th century, the American university included a service mission, where the research university’s work has a stronger emphasis on relevance to wider society (Scott, 2006). In other words, in the 21st-century university research, teaching and service functions have been developed by different nations at different periods of history.

Globalisation impacts on the university with pressures of privatisation and compliance with performance-based efficiencies, all aided by the advancement of digital technologies. In privatisation, the neoliberal government steers the university to gain more resources from private funding (Altbach, 2002; Marginson, 2014). Neoliberal governance sees education as a
private good because it enhances the individual’s qualification for a better job and higher income (Saunders, 2007). Furthermore, the WTO enforced the notion of the university as a commodity for global trade, and the organisation has listed higher education as a service and product on the General Agreement on Trades in Services (GATS) (Altbach, 2004). The neoliberal government implements austerity and performance-based financial policies to push university competitiveness. As a result, the university as a public institution begins to incorporate ideas from the private sector and compliance mechanisms (Harland, Tidswell, Everett, Hale, & Pickering, 2010; Harvey, 2005; Olssen & Peters, 2005).

The following subsections discussed three key impacts of globalisation on the university. They stem from Steger’s (2017) theory of globalisation in the contemporary period, characterised by neoliberalism and digital technologies. The first and second subsections present privatisation of teaching and research operations and compliance with academic performance standards that are attributed to neoliberal economic and politic processes. The last subsection on the advancement of digital technologies refers to the role of digital technologies impacting universities globally.

### 2.3.1 Privatisation of teaching and research operations

Neoliberal governments implement austerity for universities and declining budgets mean that funding has become an issue for those institutions. For instance, budgets generally have not risen with increasing student enrolment, resulting in insufficient student subsidy (Johnstone, 2002). In addition, national economic challenges affect government’s revenue distribution leading universities to start to commodify their services. For instance, economic hardship and
setbacks in Uganda, Kenya, the United Kingdom and Australia have resulted in the introduction of tuition fees to partially replace older subsidies (Marek, 2013; Marginson, 2006; Wangenge-Ouma, 2008). Consequently, a global practice to finance universities is to require parents and students now pay more for access to the university (Marginson, 2013). In other words, austerity has allowed privatisation practices in public-funded universities.

The university, as a private good, has developed several activities to make up for the insufficient government revenue and to commercialise higher education (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009; Mok, 2008). In teaching, tuition fees have been introduced in systems where tuition had been free (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2012). In addition, the university introduces revenue-generating programmes such as executive programmes in business schools and recruits part-time students (Cribb & Gewirtz, 2013). Consequently, a large portion of the cost of education shifts from the government to students (Marginson, 2014). In research, privatisation involves academics sourcing external research grants (Stromquist, 2007). The university now expands its income in teaching by developing educational products with copyright protection and consultancy services (Jongbloed, Enders, & Salerno, 2008; Rhoads, Berdan, & Toven-Lindsey, 2013). These are often dependent on the awardee’s interests for profitable findings, often preferring science and technology research due to their entrepreneurial value (Connell, 2013). Consequently, privatising of research affects the growth of disciplines with lower financial return such as humanities, philosophy and history.

However, Marginson (2007) contends that the hybrid public and private funding structure does not fully emphasise institution profit-based functions. Nonetheless, privatisation challenges the commitment to provide a service for the public good. In teaching, higher student fees affect
equity access for poorer students (Paton, 2013); class massification increases the student-teacher ratio and challenges education for critical and independent thinking (Coate, 2009; Schendel & McCowan, 2016); and in research, financially unattractive topics cannot proceed (Pasque & Carducci, 2015). These examples of the effects of partial privatisation reflect fragmented societal values due to the need to generate revenue in the university (Rizvi, 2011). However, the government cannot fully enforce privatisation that diminishes the nature of public good and subsidies are still necessary for certain research projects and for citizens’ rights of access to higher education (Coburn, 2000; Varghese, 2009).

2.3.2 Compliance with academic performance standards

Neoliberal governments have implemented performance-based measures for teaching and research that require the university to comply and be accountable for public funds (Harland, 2017). Governments exercise power with specific goals of creating a pseudo-free market for the university to compete in and so determine public fund allocation (Lorenz, 2012). For instance, teaching quality can be measured by credit hours in Taiwan, dropout rates in Germany and student satisfaction in Africa (Chang, Nyeu, & Chang, 2015; Eggins, 2014; Orr, Jaeger, & Schwarzenberger, 2007); and research is measured by the number of citations and a journal’s impact factor (Findlay, King, Smith, Geddes, & Skeldon, 2012; Huggett, 2013). As a result, each university focusses on teaching to produce the required measures and on research, which has been labelled as a culture of ‘publish or perish’, to produce a targeted number of journal article publications (Jongbloed & Vossensteyn, 2001; Lee, 2012).

Unfortunately, neoliberal governments enforce compliance with standardised goals that have
little consideration of the different circumstances of each university in the system. For instance, the governments give rewards such as tenures and opportunities of promotion to well-performed academics (Bedeian, Taylor, & Miller, 2011). However, the difficulties in attracting students and publication opportunities across a variety of disciplines are neglected (Billot, 2010). In other words, although each university will have a different background and capabilities, each is pushed to behave in a similar way in order to achieve the specific teaching and research output. Consequently, even if universities are public institutions with similar objectives and serve the same society, they end up competing between one another (Kelsey, 1998).

At the institutional level, a university may implement a performance-based system as a neoliberal mechanism to drive the quantity of research and student recruitment (Hazelkorn, 2011; Perry, 1994). Performance-based systems for research and teaching are tied to academic careers and implemented in the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand and Hong Kong, to name a few, and have been reported to reward academics with pay increments if they perform well, or potentially lose their career if they do not perform (Hicks, 2012; Marginson, 2003). For instance, Shore (2010) notes that the performance based research fund (PBRF) in New Zealand made academics feel it necessary to shift their research interest and de-emphasis their teaching so they could increase the research quantity to meet the measured performance in order to protect their careers. He indicates that the PBRF sets compliance and economic rationales that limits the freedom of academics to research. In other words, the performance-based system limits academics from performing ‘uneconomic’ research, such as critical social science research, which in turn limits the critique of neoliberal reforms to the detriment of an open society (Giroux, 2014).
2.3.3 The advancement of digital technologies

The third impact of globalisation on the university is the advancement of digital technologies that have been changing the teaching and research operations (Kirkup & Kirkwood, 2005). Since the year 2000, the internet has enabled telecommunication and information networks. Research and educational embedded technologies and digitally skilled professionals are part of the required institutional infrastructure (World Bank, 2002). Digital technologies reduce the cost of communication and the library repository in terms of book space. The flexible connectivity enables online research publications and online course delivery, reaching out to numerous students, nationally if not internationally (Lea & Nicoll, 2002). While digital technologies have profoundly disrupted the university, they have improved the delivery of higher education because they enable inexpensive connectivity anytime and anywhere (Boyer, 2012).

Nevertheless, there are conflicting views of digital technologies image as a neutral tool. For those in favour of digital technologies, they argue that they are a constructive tool because they have the capacity to ensure equity in the society (Warkentin & Mingst, 2000). Technology can distribute resources more easily to the less privileged communities, provided that they have the technology in the first place. Others, such as Barnett (2008) and Marginson (2008), argue that digital technologies are pervasive with the free market agenda in the current social paradigm. Barnett (2008) argues that digital technologies support ‘performativity’ by computing measurable research and teaching outputs. In terms of culture, it has reinforced English language dominance as most technology is developed by the West (Marginson, 2008).
Digital technologies impact teaching and research operations because they disrupt teaching and research from previously common social practice (Christensen, 2013). For example, in the 21st century, various digital technologies have re-innovated the traditional concept of a brick and mortar university (Meyer, 2010). The status quo of face-to-face teaching, assessing, and communicating between teachers and students, and students and their peers, has changed with more computer-interfaced engagement (Johnson, Adams Becker, Estrada, & Freeman, 2015). For instance, popular online courses have changed teaching and learning from a classroom setting into education delivered to distant students (Christensen, Aaron, & Clark, 2003). An analysis of the literature shows that the key digital technologies that have transformed teaching and research are online courses, open education resources (OERs) and social media.

OERs are financially and legally free-to-use public repositories of education materials (UNESCO, 2016c). The repositories provide centralised access to digital content in the form of “full courses, course materials, modules, textbooks, streaming videos, tests, software, and any other tools, materials, or techniques used to support access to knowledge” (The Hewlett Foundation, 2016, para. 2). OERs provide a flexible space to share best practices in higher education, assisting and encouraging the growth of knowledge. For instance, OERs’ flexibility can supplement student learning and reduce the cost of print-based materials.

Online courses, in the context of higher education access, have been developed to resolve the issues of time and distance for those students who cannot enrol in on-campus studies (Fleming & Hiple, 2004). The off-campus courses give the opportunity for working adults and those who live far from the campus to have an opportunity for a university-level education (Meyer, 2010). An additional benefit is to incorporate online courses with a campus-based course where, for
example, a live lecture can be conducted in several campuses, or in another district or country (Lea & Nicoll, 2002). Online courses can reach out to many students across various social and cultural environments and the current popular development is massive open online courses (MOOCs). These free courses allow large enrolments and are open to any learners (Patru & Balaji, 2016). MOOCs are initiated by well-known institutions such as Harvard and Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) who are responding to the issue of university online outreach (van Dijck & Poell, 2015). The open course has minimum or no requirements on a learner’s competencies and courses are free, or with minimal charges. Although MOOCs do not provide fully fledged degree courses, the university creates a universal learning opportunity to ensure learning is manageable by a broad-base of students (Chen, 2014). At the same time, as MOOCs are accessible by a global student market with the internet access, the university may also see it as a tool to increase institutional visibility (Ebben & Murphy, 2014). However, MOOCs as a single learning platform require various universities to offer different courses and curricula to attract registrations. As such, universities have to create a niche course to increase visibility.

Social media is a tool to share and publish information with society. The university and its academics apply various forms of social media, such as blogs, Twitter, YouTube and Facebook, to support various academic collaborations and engagements. An institution can establish research collaborations and student learning engagement in an inexpensive way, and share content with partners, peers and students (Bertot, Jaeger, & Grimes, 2010; Johnson et al., 2015; Rennie & Morrison, 2013). As a result, social media increases the university visibility and improves its international outreach to intended partners and audience.
The following section will discuss about the meaning of emerging universities and how emerging universities in the Global South, situated in under-resourced circumstances, respond to the impacts of globalisation on universities. It also examines the ways these institutions source for academic talent, attract financial investments and choose their governing model due to the global pressure of privatisation and compliance measures, and the advancement of digital technologies affect. Finally, the section presents some strategies that emerging universities can apply to achieve academic excellence despite its circumstances and global challenges.

2.4 Emerging universities in the Global South

The term Global South is to reflect the political-economic division with countries in the Global North (Dados & Connell, 2012). The Global South indicates countries that are financially less advantaged and technologically less advanced likely due to inefficiency in allocating their natural, agricultural and human resources for facilities and infrastructure development (Doane, 2014). Countries in the Global South are generally found in the southern hemisphere with the exception of Australia and New Zealand, which have the political-economic stature of the Global North (UNDP, 2004). Another popular term of the countries in the Global South is ‘developing countries’ but this study avoided the term due to the ambiguous meaning of ‘developing’ (Chan & Costa, 2005; Dados & Connell, 2012). Some of the ambiguities are the description of wealth as poor when some countries have an abundance of natural, agricultural and human resources that might be poorly managed (Doane, 2014); and the depiction of these countries as having a long history of colonialization when that may not be necessarily be true for all countries (Magallanes, 2015). As such, the term Global South is seen as a move forward
for these countries as the term “marks a shift from a central focus on financial or cultural differences toward an emphasis on geopolitical relations of power” (Dados & Connell, 2012, p. 12). In other words, the study applies Global South to focus on the positive aspects that could potentially empower countries and have more of a fair share of progress in the world. For instance, the Global South may shift the focus on sharing resources to solve the dire issue of inadequate health and education facilities and infrastructure such as water and electricity for all households (Eriksen, 2015).

Universities in the Global South have a different position from universities in the Global North in the process of globalisation. One example is the unequal financial provisions where universities with extremely low income in the Global South have to receive grants from aid donors in the Global North (Daun, 2015; Kapoor, 2011b; Teferra & Greijn, 2010). However, the aid recipients generally have to comply with imposed conditions (Cook & Sachs, 1999). Countries from the Global South can draw lessons from aid recipients that have been acquiescing to aid donors’ conditionality that has caused interference with their decision-making (Kapoor, 2011a; Tarrós, 2011; Teferra, 2009).

The emerging university is a term that is rarely used in the literature. One exception is Salmi (2013), who characterized a university as a ‘young’ university if it did not have hundreds of years of experience but aimed to be among the best in the world. According to the author, universities wish to develop world-class status to signify the quality of learning and research and to compete in the global higher education market. Salmi argues that the success factors of emerging universities are having talented academics, financial investments and modern governance. Additionally, these universities have strategies that include securing financial
contributions, adopting English as a language of instruction, establishing niche areas of study, upgrading the university according to reputable international ranking benchmarks, and introducing innovative curriculum and pedagogy. He explains that the factors and strategies of success have led to four emerging universities that are now established outside the Western countries. These are all in Asia and include the Indian Institutes of Technology established in 1951; the National University of Singapore established in 1980; Hong Kong University of Science and Technology established in 1991; and the Pohang University of Science and Technology, South Korea, established in 1986. Salmi argues that the formula for academic excellence has elevated the stature of these emerging universities and they are now comparable to peer institutions that have over a hundred of years of experience.

In the context of a severely under-resourced emerging university situated in the Global South, few have conducted studies that explore how these institutions respond to globalisation. The exception is Owen Hicks (2014) who conducted a comparative-study on universities in Timor Leste, Vietnam and China, but his study focused on Asia. Moreover, in the context of Africa, there are many emerging universities and Shanyanana and Ndofirepi (2015) state that the majority are less than a hundred years old. The authors explain that 30 out of the 48 countries of sub-Saharan Africa only started to establish universities after their independence from colonial powers in the 1960s. These new universities are expected to play a major part in leading national development that primarily aims at reducing poverty. The expectation means that institutions need to have high quality teaching and research, even if they do not have the ambition for world-class stature (Ncayiyana, 2010). As such, this study differs from Hicks’ (2014), as the study site is in the East African context—Tanzania—and because it is focussed on a new and emerging university.
2.4.1 Academic talent, financial investments and modern governance

Emerging universities in Africa have challenges because they do not have adequate academic talent, financial investments and modern governance (Mohamedbhai, 2011; Ncayiyana, 2010). Mohamedbhai (2011) notes that Africa established new universities rapidly. Insufficient financial investment could only allow these universities to attract local staff from existing local universities, which are also still considered new. He was implying that the consequences of rapidly establishing new universities caused problems for both new and existing universities in attaining academic excellence. Existing universities have not had enough time to establish their academic excellence, while the newly established universities cannot attract highly experienced academics. As Salmi (2013) noted, the academic and financial investments are crucial to enable these universities to gain “highly sought graduates, leading-edge research, and dynamic technology transfer” (p. 2). In addition, Ncayiyana (2010) shared that emerging universities in Africa lack autonomy or “the authority of institutional self-government” (p. 107). His statement is based on his study of eight African universities located in different countries and established between 1961 and 1996. The lack of freedom in governance restricted the ability to plan for institutional development and he attributed this to government control of the university’s senior administrators, which happens in almost all African universities, except those in South Africa.

2.4.2 Strategies of academic excellence

Emerging universities in Africa initiated three key strategies that are relevant to enhancing
universities’ academic excellence (Salmi, 2013). These are acquiring the contribution of the migrant academic diaspora, implementing English as a language of instruction, and introducing innovative curricula and pedagogy (Hayward & Ncayiyana, 2014; Teferra, 2013). The contribution of the diaspora is regarded as the main element of achieving academic excellence. Diaspora, in this study, refers to those academics who have migrated to other countries, and who can potentially return or contribute their knowledge and bring international cooperation and investment to their home country (Salmi, 2009). In Africa, at continental (e.g., the African Scientific Institute and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)), regional (e.g., the Western Hemisphere African Diaspora Network) and national levels (e.g., the Kenya Diaspora Network), there have been efforts to enable the professional African diaspora to engage with their native countries (Teferra, 2013). Next, English is dominant in Africa’s academic discourses, international partnerships and research dissemination, and the language has become essential, especially with the availability of English knowledge resources on digital technologies (Brock-Utne, 2007; Jowi, 2009; Teferra & Altbach, 2004). Third, international collaborations and networks are encouraging emerging universities to adopt innovative curricula (Jowi, 2009; Shabani, 2008).

One of the neglected elements for emerging institutions is, according to Ncayiyana (2010), the lack of focus on developing their niche. This author noted that there were difficulties in differentiating the numerous universities in Africa due to the lack of specificity of disciplines and lack of focus on the society they serve. Another neglected element is most emerging universities have unspecified steps for achieving quality assurance (Ncayiyana, 2010). However, Sehoole and de Wit (2014) note that African emerging universities are likely to benchmark in accordance with regional benchmarking standards. Despite limitations, emerging
institutions have implemented three of the five strategies to achieve their national objectives. However, few are known as successful or leading in quality teaching and research, which is the benchmark of a global university.

2.5 The responses of Tanzanian universities to the impacts of globalisation

In this section, I present the responses of Tanzania to the impacts of globalisation on universities. These responses often involve incorporating and extending international capacity (Knight, 2003). In my study, I have tried to avoid the term ‘internationalisation’ because it is often confused and even used interchangeably with globalisation (Maringe, Foskett, & Woodfield, 2013). Additionally, I see internationalisation as part of globalisation and often a strategic response to the challenges that universities face (see de Witt, 1999). As such, I have identified four responses of Tanzania to improve its teaching and research operations, and to respond to the impacts of globalisation on universities. These are a) implementing English as the language of instruction, b) securing private funding from aid donors, c) recruiting international students, and d) acquiring digital technologies.

2.5.1 Implementing English as the language of instruction

English is a globally preferred language for research publications and knowledge exchange (Byun et al., 2011; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012b; Mauranen, Hynninen, & Ranta, 2010). The global status of English is likely to have driven Tanzanian universities to prefer it over Kiswahili as their main language of instruction, even though both are national languages (Brock-Utne, 2003). Some notable benefits of implementing English as the language of
Instruction for these universities are the ease of acquiring learning material, such as books and journals, and of communicating with external partners (Brock-Utne, 2007; Mngomezulu, 2017).

However, Tanzanian universities struggle with enforcing this because English is a foreign language for many students (Babaci-Wilhite, 2014; Brock-Utne, 2003). Shuyler and Vavrus (2010) find that Tanzania’s undergraduates’ struggle with English leads to word memorisation instead of constructive learning. The struggle is likely due to the challenge to convert from their mother tongues, which is a situation that also occurs in many other non-English speaking countries (Hamid, 2016; Harle, 2010; Sert, 2008; Tollefson & Tsui, 2014). Additionally, educators with low English proficiency could potentially inhibit smooth teaching for rich knowledge transition (Hussain, Mamat, Salleh, Saat, & Harland, 2007; Yumei, 2010). As such, English as a global language has not eased Tanzanian universities’ development (Ismail, 2014).

2.5.2 Securing private funding from aid donors and students

Tanzania public universities are funded by the state and private resources (Ishengoma, 2004). Seeking private income is an institutional economic response to increase financial incentives, revenue streams and financial independence (Maringe et al., 2013). Ishengoma (2017) notes that although the government still contributes to universities, it is no longer the sole financial contributor. Universities are expected to sustain operations and offset dwindling government revenue from two key private resources (Marcucci, Johnstone, & Ngolovoi, 2008). These are tuition fees from students and grants from aid donors. Consequently, universities are likely to increase their competitiveness by recruiting students and attracting aid donors (Nganga, 2010).
However, private funding resources in Tanzania are mainly from external funders, in particular aid donors. Aid donors give grants that are fundamental for developing universities in the Global South especially the Africa region (Teferra, 2014). The aid donors are usually international governmental agencies, non-governmental agencies and private foundations, such as the World Bank, the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) and Ford Foundations (Provini, 2019; Teferra, 2009). They give provisions such as education facilities, academic training, and research equipment that improves the quality of higher education. The support can be seen as enhancing diplomatic relations with aid donors who are past colonisers, such as the United Kingdom, France, and USA (Lulat, 2003); but it also comes from emerging economies such as China, Brazil and India (Liu, 2010; Tarrósy, 2011).

The purpose of aid donors is generally seen as positive to development, but there are notable negative impacts in the context of local autonomy and agency. Dodworth (2014) finds that an aid donor may have the capacity to act as a political strategist in policymaking and a number have positioned themselves vis-à-vis Tanzania's government. For instance, according to Teferra (2014), aid donors who give support in establishing courses and scholarships have the potential to ‘indoctrinate’ African academics with the donors’ culture and ideology. This indicates that the purpose of aid could be a form of ‘soft power’ being exercised (Liu, 2010; Teferra, 2014). As Tarrósy (2011) pointed out, aid donors prioritise their national interest instead of recipients’ interest, and their aid for Africa often helps them to enter its markets for economic gain.

Aid donors have also been distributing grants in two main ways, attaching conditions or in exchange for something in return. Montinola (2010) calls aid donors’ attached conditions
‘conditionality’: “the setting of policy goals in exchange for access to aid” (p. 358). Such conditions can decide on how the grant is applied (Knack, 2004). In other words, the donors could control the university development pathway and compliance could have either positive or adverse effects. For example, an improvement might be that aid donors expect accountability from the recipients for the aid to improve education. Although aid donors attach conditions, they need to make sure they are not wasting their grants on poor academic practices when there are internationally recognised standards and guidelines.

At present, China (a non-colonial power) is the most significant donor because it seems to offer aid without attached conditions. Stewart and Li (2013) suggest that China provides bargaining positions with other donors, a potential counterbalance of aid autonomy for the aid recipients. However, Liu (2010) cautions that the aid is not entirely condition-free, because its condition is that the recipient recognises the One-China policy (China as the sole legitimate government of Taiwan). In other words, China may not control the usage of their given grant, but it expects aid recipients’ political support in its interest to secure Taiwan. Countries that accept this condition are favouring the market advantage of those with financial power over a political stance that it might otherwise not accept.

Aid donors might attach conditions to ensure improvement in the intended development (Alenuma-Nimoh & Gerstbauer, 2011). However, conditions are based on donors’ perspectives (as an outsider) of the recipients’ needs and circumstances. As such, expectations for compliance may not be viable to the recipients (Shizha, 2011). Most studies have shown that aid recipients have little option but to comply with the attached conditions. Studies have reported detrimental effects, such as dependency on international curricula, learning materials
with irrelevant local context, and learning science without indigenous perspectives (Brock-Utne, 2015; Shizha, 2010; Teferra, 2014). Few studies have reported that the aid recipients have the agency to negotiate the required conditions.

Another form of aid is exchanging something in return. Cuba is mainly known to provide this form of aid (Asante, Negin, Hall, Dewdney, & Zwi, 2012) and it provides medical doctors as teachers in exchange for cash and the economic gains. Although, this aid may be seen as trade, the university receives expertise at a lower price. This form of aid indicates a positive benefit for universities.

2.5.3 Recruiting international students

Tanzania universities have not been highly successful in attracting international students as a source of income (Jowi, 2016). They may have international students who are from collaborations in student exchange programmes but they are not a source of income for Tanzania (Ishengoma, 2017). In contrast, international students as a revenue stream are mainly viable for some countries in the Global North, such as Australia, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada (Bolsmann & Miller, 2008). Nevertheless, hosting international students that have diverse academic backgrounds, skills and competencies can benefit these institutions with knowledge sharing (Bedenlier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015; Johanson & Vahlne, 2006, 2009; Maringe et al., 2013). In other words, universities can create a vibrant international community that enhances learning and intercultural skills of local students (Sawir, Marginson, Deumert, Nyland, & Ramia, 2008). Additionally, these universities can benefit from well-trained international students participating in research collaborations and so can increase
research quality and publications (Bedenlier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015; Johanson & Vahlne, 2006, 2009). The recruitment of international students would require these universities to improve teaching standards and implement international curricular classes (Maringe et al., 2013). Consequently, local students could enhance their learning and research skills as well as expand their cultural knowledge, worldview and global competency (Deardorff, 2006; Leask, 2009).

2.5.4 Acquiring digital technologies

Digital technologies are advantaging Tanzania in overcoming issues of massification and access to educational resources. One of the key digital technologies is online courses that overcome Tanzania’s problems of distance and can increase student numbers (Fleming & Hiple, 2004). Online learning has been implemented by the Open University of Tanzania and the University of Dar es Salaam since the 1990s to increase the number of students accessing university (Ishengoma, 2017; Mnyanyi, Bakari, & Mbwette, 2010) and engaging those who cannot enrol in on-campus studies. It has also enabled those already in the workforce to enrol in online learning outside of their working hours.

The advancement of digital technologies in ubiquitous forms such as a mobile phone with computer capacity is increasingly important for universities in Tanzania. The affordable mobile phone is likely to change the digital divide as these devices facilitate access to the internet and educational resources. For instance, Daniel et al. (2016) noted that academics and students in the State University of Zanzibar had high access to social media technologies through their mobile phones. The digital technologies were used as a tool for learning due to their interactive
features in sharing relevant contents such as pictures and videos. Furthermore, they fostered new networks for collaborative research.

2.6 Identifying the Inter University Council of East Africa’s (IUCEA) rationales behind globalisation

Regional collaborations play a vital role within the national context of developing strategies to respond to globalisation. Universities in East Africa collaborate under the (IUCEA) Inter University Community of East Africa to support one another in overcoming national challenges. The higher education network’s strategic responses are relevant Steger’s conception of globalisation.

The East African Community (EAC) is a regional-political group that includes Tanzania (discussed in section 3.4.1). Countries in the group are considered as part of the Global South due to their economic stature as some of the least developed in the world, except for Kenya (UNCTAD, 2018). They have few industrial activities and are technologically disadvantaged in competing in the global economy (UNCTAD, 2018). They are also extremely vulnerable to global economic, health and environmental changes. This means that the majority of the population lives in high poverty. Sehoole and de Wit (2014) note that governments in the region have strong economic cooperation and integration, and have been implementing free-trade conditions. For instance, the EAC has free trade deals with other countries in Africa, the European Union and the United States (EAC, 2017). Nevertheless, the EAC has policies and practices to guide regional universities to respond to the impacts of globalisation.
The IUCEA is the regional higher education body that receives organisational, political, and financial support from the EAC (IUCEA, 2016a). The organisation has 116 members that are mainly government-supported universities that meet the expected standards of IUCEA (IUCEA, 2016b). The reason for having less than half of the over 300 universities in the region as members could be the high number of private higher education institutions of differing quality. Nevertheless, the regional higher education network strongly represents universities in East Africa and it provides a standardised higher education network for shared quality assurance and degree recognition (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014). The expected key outcome of higher education standardisation is having a unified higher education system, such as compatible credit transfer and curricula that would enhance regional student and staff mobility (Nganga, 2010). Other expectations are pooling educational and research materials, and developing compatible disciplines such as medicine and engineering (Ogachi, 2009). The IUCEA also leads collaborations with other regional networks to augment the region’s higher education development. For instance, it is part of the African continent research network and African Academy of Sciences. Benefits include equitable access to vital research on topics such as environment, energy, urbanisation and health services (AAS, 2016).

The IUCEA (2016b) strategic plan outlines five key processes of globalisation that it has to respond to. The processes are:

1) the rapid changes of digital technologies to attain, manage and disperse information;
2) the expectations of the United Nations (UN) in providing access to lifelong learning opportunities;
3) the international expectation for a regional university quality assurance framework;
4) the expectations of cross-border collaborations within Africa such as inter-regional and continental collaborations. These include collaborating with the African Union, the Association of African Universities (AAS), the South African Regional Universities Association (SARUA), and organisations outside Africa such as the World Bank, Sida, the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD, or Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst);

5) the competitive higher education market due to the private institutions within the region and non-regional universities.

These processes have challenges and opportunities for the EAC. For instance, issues such as the brain drain and competing international reputation, but they also deliver opportunities for partnerships within and outside of Africa (Ogachi, 2009). As such, the IUCEA’s effort to respond to these processes can guide universities in the region in two main ways. One is instigating teaching initiatives to meet current and future labour market needs, and another is prompting research that would sustain the region’s socio-economic development and integration (IUCEA, 2016a).

Identifying rationales of responses to the impacts globalisation are vital because they are the ‘whys’ and expected outcomes for choosing a specific policy and practice (de Wit, 1999). They signify how universities maintain their commitments to local interests and respond to global expectations (Knight, 2006). Some of the notable rationales are economic, political, academic, sociocultural, technological and educational (de Wit, 1999; Maringe, 2010; Maringe et al., 2013). These rationales change in importance and influence, and differ between countries, and even between universities within a country due to their different circumstances (Knight, 2004).
For instance, Australia and China have different rationales for their approaches in international student recruitment. Universities in Australia, according to Altbach and Welch (2011), have an economic interest in recruiting international students for generating foreign income unlike domestic students who are subsidized by the government. More importantly, they have the strong reputation to attract international students and so, could require these students to pay full-fees. In contrast, the priority for universities in China is academic improvement and increasing research outputs, yet they do not have a strong reputation to attract talented academics or students (Yang, 2015). Notably, China has the financial means, and hence its strategy is to offer an attractive salary to attract highly experienced academics and to distribute scholarships to attract quality international students.

In the context of the IUCEA, there are five key rationales that correspond to the opportunities and challenges of globalisation and serve as a guideline of strategic responses (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014; Teferra & Knight, 2008). These are economic, political, social, academic and technological. Each is outlined in turn below.

2.6.1 IUCEA’s economic rationale

The IUCEA’s economic rationale is mainly to drive universities to contribute knowledge in favour of economic purposes, such as producing graduates for the regional labour (Knight & Sehoole, 2013). However, universities have not been highly successful in producing a high level of professional workforce. For instance, Oanda and Sall (2017) point out that skills mismatch and education quality have resulted in more than half of East African graduates lacking the skills for employability (e.g., 61 per cent of graduates lack employable skills in
Tanzania). The authors note that the unemployable graduates “represent a lost investment in terms of time and family resources” (p. 65). Consequently, the region has insufficient professionals, which affects its economic development.

Increasing regional student mobility is an opportunity of economic gain afforded by globalisation. It is one strategy to overcome the issue of the unemployable graduate because it aims to share talented workforce within the region (de Wit, 2011). The IUCEA as a regional network sets the curricular guideline to support students crossing borders (Jowi, 2009). The framework allows universities to collaborate and widen course options for students because it overcome issues of international relevance, quality and credit transfer modalities (Shabani, 2008). In addition, the IUCEA expands student mobility by collaborating with the SADC. The collaboration allows students in both regions to study in partner universities while paying the same fees as local students of the host countries (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014).

2.6.2 IUCEA’s political rationale

Sehoole and de Wit (2014) claim that the political rationale of IUCEA is to strengthen regional identity for international representation. However, the IUCEA has challenges in achieving this as most universities have a low preference for indigenous studies but have a strong preference for Western curricula. The international curriculum that is not contextualised into the local context creates problems because students struggle to learn the knowledge that has little relevance to their everyday activities (Shizha, 2010). Also, Kanyangoga (2010) notes that even though regional-migration policy has contributed to the progress of professional labour mobility across the EAC countries, there is low support for the policy in the region’s wider
There is a challenge to develop the identities of the East African countries even though they generally have commonalities in geographical location, history of colonisation and challenges of economic development (Semela & Ayalew, 2008). These commonalities are challenging countries to develop their regional identities where the university model of the region is seen as mirroring that of the former colonisers and few establishments have a truly indigenous institutional identity (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014). For example, the issue of identity is strongly reflected in the language tensions. As Brock-Utne (2015) criticises, “Even languages with millions of speakers like Kiswahili (131 million speakers) and Hausa (53 million speakers) are not used as languages of instruction at higher levels of education” (p. 7). She disapproves of universities in East Africa that still prefer to use English as the language of instruction and reminds us that the EAC recognises Kiswahili as an official language (Brock-Utne, 2003). In addition, in the contemporary period, the Western model of universities is widely considered as practical for connecting with an international partner. Under this model, institutions with same attributes or characteristics are potentially attracted to each other due to their similar teaching and research structure. As such, Shizha (2011) suggests combining global and local education models, such as incorporating indigenous scientific education. For instance, Ethiopia, which has never been colonised, went beyond adopting the Western model and established their own university model (Trines, 2018). Yet, most countries still prefer the European model (Shizha, 2011). In other words, the history of colonisation and the current force of the West in higher education seems to deeply impact identity formation of the East African universities.
With respect to higher education, the IUCEA could improve these issues because it can initiate standards of quality assurance that are relative to regional identity (Altbach & Knight, 2007). It has the political power to push universities to adopt more regional standards in place of national standards (Teichler, 2014). One of the possible outcomes could be to reduce intercultural differences and prejudice of people and so, to increase support for the regional-migration policy.

2.6.3 IUCEA’s social rationale

IUCEA’s social rationale is to increase a sense of identity and form social cohesion amongst regional universities. Sehoole and de Wit (2014) explain that a social rationale consists of social responsibility and civic engagement. They argue that this is necessary to counter the competitive and economic-oriented notions of many universities that discourage collaborations and integrations. The social rationale can encourage cultural integration and develop “an understanding among people and cultures not accustomed to communicating at ease and thereby contributing to world peace” (Altbach & Teichler, 2001, p. 9). It also can encourage the understanding that social responsibility helps to eliminate prejudice, discrimination and assumption, and these are fundamental to cultural integration and successful communications in an internationally diverse working environment (Cleary, Horsfall, & Walter, 2013). A social rationale may include strategies of teaching global worldviews, societal and environmental issues, and enhancing teaching and research collaborations within and beyond regional boundaries (Maringe et al., 2013). As such, universities, as the central distributor of knowledge and information, could be a good social example of cultural integration if they have a vibrant international working atmosphere. In turn, academics from abroad are likely to be attracted to
work in an environment that promotes respect and appreciation of diversity, and enhances their intercultural competency and sensitivity (Nieto & Zoller, 2010).

However, unlike the Global North, the majority of students and academic staff in East Africa have fewer opportunities to travel abroad, nor could the institutions easily increase their population of international staff (Jowi, 2009). The ‘one-way traffic’ of international mobility suppresses equal cultural participation of the Global South and is one of the processes of globalisation (Breidlid, 2013). A possible strategy for the Global South is to implement “internationalisation at home” (Knight & Sehoole, 2013, p. 6). Such a strategy includes inviting international academics as guest lectures who will bring their international and intercultural experiences as they run seminars and workshops on the campus; albeit the time that the guest lecturers spend is shorter compared to hired staff, these universities could still engage with some international peers (Marginson, 2010).

2.6.4 IUCEA’s academic rationale

The IUCEA and many African universities prioritises the academic because there are many challenges with poor teaching, research capacity, and limited institutional infrastructure and knowledge resources (Jowi, 2009; Teferra & Knight, 2008). One of the key reasons for poor teaching and research capacity is the brain drain (Teferra & Knight, 2008). The brain drain refers to the loss of talented academics and professionals to another country (Ilon, 2010). Africa, in general, has been facing this issue because of low salaries, poor working conditions and low standard of living (Ogot & Weidman, 1993; Teferra & Altbach, 2004). The issue is made more severe when there are opportunities for better employment and environment abroad.
to attract the graduates (Forest, 2014). For instance, countries such as North America, Singapore and Australia have been easing immigration policies and offering high salaries to attract bright students for their labour market (Enders, 2007). Consequently, the brain drain is a challenge of globalisation that has becomes a crisis for East Africa’s development of education, engineering and healthcare sectors (Firsing, 2016). For instance, the healthcare sector of Uganda has only 0.09 doctors per 1000 population. In comparison, New Zealand has 2.85 doctors per 1000 population (Firsing, 2016; WHO, 2018). Also, Teferra and Altbach (2004) argue that the brain drain is growing internally and affecting higher education in Africa due to the “the growing and better-paid private sector and the higher-level civil service continue to lure seasoned academicians away from tertiary institutions” (p. 42). Ishengoma (2008) and Fussy (2019) found that this issue affected Tanzanian universities as senior academics with vast research and teaching experience were attracted to higher remunerations, promotions and leadership positions offered by newly-established public universities and political parties. The authors perceived that Tanzanian universities would have difficulties in growing if experienced academics were not retained in these institutions.

Universities have inadequate institutional infrastructure due to lack of financial means (Jowi, 2009; Weeks, 2008). In Tanzania, massive enrolments have not been sustained with an adequate expansion of lecture theatres, classrooms, laboratories and libraries (Ishengoma, 2004). It has been suggested that strategies will be necessary to improve disciplinary, institutional and pedagogical issues (Maringe et al., 2013; Shabani, 2010). Sehoole and de Wit (2014) observe that the IUCEA can improve teaching and research capacity by addressing the issue of limited resources and setting regional standards. The authors also note that the organisation supports academic mobility and student exchange within the region. To do this, it
provides a governing framework for accreditation of standards and a merit system for credit transferability. The IUCEA also encourages universities to consolidate and harness shared resources. The authors point out that there are positive results from these strategies including a growing number of PhD candidates and academic programmes.

2.6.5 IUCEA’s technological rationale

The IUCEA wishes to overcome the lack of digital infrastructure, applications and technology-skilled human capacity (Internet Society, 2017; Mishra & Deichmann, 2016). It would like to increase institutional access and share knowledge resources (Kirkup & Kirkwood, 2005). Like many regions in Africa, East Africa is digitally divided where it faces “inequality in accessing information and communication” (UNESCO, 2016b, para 2). Universities in this region have difficulty in acquiring high-speed internet, technologically skilled professionals and digital libraries (Harle, 2010). This results in poor information literacy and includes students’ limited exposure to online learning materials and academics’ limited familiarity with online research skills (Lan, 2014; Spooner, 2016). The inadequately trained technological skills inhibit the production of digitised materials, in the format of texts, graphics, audio and others, challenges most East African universities’ digital participation (Baldwin, 2016; M’kadem & Nieuwenhuysen, 2010). Indeed, these issues marginalise universities in the region and prevent them from advancing in digital higher education (Harle, 2013).

The East African universities have been trying to develop advanced digital competency for global knowledge connectivity as governments try to overcome the digital challenges of infrastructure and capacity by expanding regional partnerships and collaborations (Bon, 2010).
For instance, Tanzania, is part of the larger Africa continental network, the UbuntuNet Alliance, which is an African network that aims to strengthen connectivity within and outside of the African continent (Harle, 2010; UbuntuNet Alliance, 2018). The purpose of the network is to improve the continent’s internet services that would then improve the access and delivery of education (Internet Society, 2017). An expected outcome of such a network is the ability to pool teaching and research resources that are more relevant to the local context and to increase the African digital content (Nafukho & Muyia, 2013).

Open educational resources (OERs) are a motivation for the IUCEA to overcome barriers of fee-based teaching and lack of research resources (IUCEA, 2016b). Although open access journals are available, quality peer-reviewed journals are typically fee-based (Adams, 2012; Harle, 2011). Private publishers own key journals and they require high subscription fees that prohibit many under-resourced research universities from accessing research and educational materials.

In support of East Africa research development, the Research4Life, a public-private partnership OER, gives IUCEA access to quality journals. Access is free or through low-subscription fees to leading journals (Research4life, 2016). By lifting the fee barriers to quality journals, there are better opportunities for research to grow and this would perhaps have a flow-on effect and support national developments, such as health sciences, engineering, agriculture and information and technology sciences. At the same time, IUCEA is part of the African-owned OER, African Journals OnLine (AJOL). The African OER encourages research growth in the African context and provides a digital platform for African-published journals and indigenous knowledge (AJOL, 2016). Academics can access the largely free AJOL journal and so raise
global awareness of African research. Yet, the availability of the journal resources might not be fully utilised due to the lack of training for research digital technology research skills (Moodie, 2010).

2.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented my investigation of the literature relevant to my study of the impacts of globalisation on an emerging university in Tanzania. I drew on a range of definitions on globalisation to inform my overall approach to this investigation. I framed globalisation in the modern period that is characterised by neoliberalism and digital technologies. This framework narrows the focus of the vast literature on globalisation. To appreciate the complexity of the impacts of globalisation on an emerging university in Tanzania, I presented my understanding of the Global South and of globalisation in East Africa. I then provided a contextual understanding of responses to globalisation, particularly through the IUCEA’s role as the region’s higher education network. Although this contextual understanding highlights the rationale and circumstances of universities, de Wit (2011) argues that each university may have different strategic responses to globalisation. However, there has been little improvement in the expected outcomes of the emerging universities. For example, the reliance on funding from aid donors is unsustainable and has led to unpredictable funding that challenges the universities’ development (Ishengoma, 2004, 2017). Other strategic responses seem to contradict the universities’ own goals, such as the implementation of English rather than using the native language (Brock-Utne, 2003, 2007).

My review of the literature has highlighted three gaps in research on the impacts of
globalisation on an emerging university in Tanzania, which is in the context of the Global South. First, there has been a hiatus in the research on the impacts of globalisation in higher education from the perspective of an emerging university. Given that the impacts of globalisation are felt differently by universities in different circumstances, it is important to understand the context for the current impacts on the development. Second, Hicks (2014) identified the paucity of research on universities operating with extremely limited resources, in his findings on the universities in East Asia also considered as part of the Global South. Third, the literature on the impacts of globalisation on universities has focused primarily on the Global North and the rising economies in the Global South. However, the views of the severely under-resourced universities in the Global South that have challenges in responding to globalisation are largely missing.

Overall, the chapter noted that emerging universities in Tanzania and East Africa, which are largely part of the Global South, are impacted by globalisation. However, local circumstances are challenging these universities to successfully attain opportunities for funding and knowledge resources. My study was developed in response to the two main gaps in the existing literature on the impacts of globalisation on universities: the lack of attention to the impacts of globalisation on emerging universities that have extremely limited resources, and the lack of research of institutions in the Global South, in particular Tanzania. My aim was to explore the impacts of globalisation on the development of an emerging university in this context. Specifically, I hoped to provide a nuanced understanding of the available choices in the university’s responses due to its circumstances in a severely limited environment, and to do this from the perspective of university management and academic staff.
3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I present the research methodology used in the thesis. I link the methodological decisions I made with the literature of globalisation in the higher education of the Global South that I discussed in Chapter 2. I begin with a description of the motivation to undertake this project, the ontology that underpinned the pursuit of the research and the epistemological choices used to guide the study. I then explain how I employed critical theory as the research lens. Next, I present the research context in which the study was undertaken followed by research questions and the research design used. Then, I present an outline of the sampling and participants’ recruitment and continue with data collection. Then, I explain how I analysed the data that identified the main themes. I end the chapter with the rationale of how the data are reported.

3.2 Researcher’s ontology and epistemology

In this section, I will discuss my ontology and epistemology. My ontology is based on the view that “reality is socially constructed and interested” (Daniel & Harland, 2018, p. 25). My perceived reality for this study was based on the policy and practices of a university. The policy was the decisions and university direction made by the administrators and the practice was the teaching and research work by the academic staff. As such, I interviewed the administrators and academic staff because they could provide details about how they socially constructed the university. I also included documentary data to support the reality they illustrated. Therefore, my ontology to understand the forces of globalisation was based on the policy and practice of
In order to understand the impact of globalisation on universities, I needed to understand how a university strategized its responses to globalisation. I framed the concept of globalisation in the modern period based on Steger’s (2017) definition that draws on neoliberalism and the revolution of digital technologies as the drivers of global economic and political processes (see section 2.2). I perceived that universities represent the direction and development of higher education of a country because they lead national knowledge advancement that has a potential global contribution (Altbach, 2013a). I assumed that all universities have strategies or responses to globalisation; and actions would have positive and negative effects on the institution, academics, students and wider society (Barnett, 2008; Enders, 2005). However, I anticipated that the preferred strategies of universities in the Global South would not necessarily enable them to respond to the forces of globalisation. These universities would likely have strategic policies to gain development opportunities, such as enhancing academic quality and using digital educational technologies. However, my assumption was that initiatives would also face challenges because of the lack of financial resources, poor infrastructure and different sociological aspects, such as language, culture and identity differences (Oanda & Sall, 2017).

Epistemology, according to Grix (2002), is what and how can we know about the phenomenon investigated. In other words, what university would be suitable for my study and how could participants help me to understand globalisation and its impacts? My epistemological approach was interpretative research and I wanted to explore the impacts of globalisation on an emerging university situated in the Global South. The approach was inspired by a study by Owen Hicks
(2014). He argued that there were an estimated 26,000 universities in the world but the media and research on globalisation and its impacts have been primarily focusing on the top 500 elite research-oriented universities.

Hick’s claim is likely to be true even if there is uncertainty in the total number of universities in the world. Up until 2018, the International Association of Universities estimates that there are more than 18,400 universities, while the Webometrics estimated over 28,000 (IAU, 2018; Webometrics, 2018). Even the QS (Quacquarelli Symonds Limited) World University Rankings does not provide a specific figure despite its popularity and claims in ranking universities every year (Sowter, 2018). The disparity in the numbers is possibly due to the different definitions of universities in each nation, the lack of consistent effort from each nation to list their universities, and universities that may not be internationally known (IAU, 2018; Sowter, 2018; Webometrics, 2018). Despite the uncertain number of universities in the world, what is certain is 500 of the 18,400 or 28,000 universities has the highest focus in exploring globalisation (Altbach, 2012). The 500 is the usually the elite universities identified through the world university rankings such as the QS World University Rankings, the Academic Ranking of World Universities, the QS World University Rankings, and the Times Higher Education World University Rankings (Altbach, 2012). The popularity of these universities overshadows our understanding of globalisation and its impacts on over 90 per cent of universities world-wide. As such, globalisation has not been fully understood.

I employed a single case study that provided examples of how globalisation might impact certain universities in East Africa; the lessons learnt might be transferable to similar contexts. For instance, on a broader scale, this study could provide some suggestions of how the larger
number of universities in the world have been impacted by globalisation. I used semi-structured interviews to enable me to have a critical discussion with participants on the perceived benefits and disadvantages of globalisation. I wanted to explore the phenomenon of globalisation in terms of how a university has the freedom to develop with respect to serving the society that supports them, as well as being considered as having an international focus. In the next section, I will discuss in more detail the ways I applied critical theory as my research lens.

3.3 Critical theory as the research lens

I applied critical theory as the research lens to frame questions and analyse data. I drew my ideas of from a range of critical approaches that include education, culture, society, poverty and colonialism (Ball, 2012; Dewey, 1995; Freire, 1970, 1985; Giroux, 2002, 2005; Kellner, 2003). I did not apply one specific critical theory because I wanted to examine issues of power in the decision-makings of an emerging university with severely limited-resources situated in the Global South. This lens allowed me to frame issues of dominations and freedom in the university, and to conduct an in-depth exploration of decision making influenced by perceived opportunities and challenges of globalisation (Bohman, 2005). In other words, it guided my framing of the university’s level of autonomy to respond to the impacts of globalisation.

I applied a critical lens in two ways: 1) to critique the impacts of globalisation that displaces traditional ideology and culture, and 2) to recommend emancipatory measures. The analytical lens to guided my critique on the ideology and culture of society in the context of globalisation (Giroux, 2002; Weber, 2002). Critical theory understands ideology as a set of beliefs and values that shapes social structures and institutional governing systems; while culture refers to the
social relationships, practices and technology used within the examined society (Mason, 2014). The critique of ideology and culture takes into account historical context as underpinning social reality (Fierke, 2017). Historical context has generational effects on society and its ways of thinking that perpetuate the past system of governance, such as the British colonialization in India, which reinforced India’s social class segregation (Langdon, 2011; Little & Green, 2009).

I examined how globalisation as an ideology emancipates or marginalises the university and academics in the Global South, and their situation of being severely limited-resources (Steinberg & Kincheloe, 2010). The lens framed my questions and analysis by asking how a decision come about: Who is in power here? Who is complying? Who is resisting? For instance, studies have critiqued how the English language has power in globalisation because universities that do not employ the language can be marginalised from research and teaching collaborations (Ha, 2013; Smala, Paz, & Lingard, 2012). Other studies have examined how Western ideals in the pedagogy of postcolonial countries undermine universities as they struggle to establish a curriculum in the local context (Ndofirepi & Cross, 2017) with respect to how digital technologies create a development gap, because universities without the Internet are unable to access and share educational resources (McPherson, Budge, & Lemon, 2015). In particular, I believe that a critical lens could help me to identify the negative impacts of globalisation (but also the positive). Subsequently, the research lens could show how some decisions could cause local and global tensions, or create benefits or disadvantages for an emerging university in the Global South.

Next, the theory guided my recommendation of emancipatory measures that centred on challenging and improving equality in society (Shields, 2012). The concept of emancipation
addresses is regarded as a universally accepted rights of all within a society (Ball, 2014). I referred emancipation here, in a sociological sense, to challenge inequities in the status quo of institutional policy and practice. I made recommendations with the objective of emancipating those who are voiceless and oppressed, in hope of forming a more-equal global society. For example, I tried to make recommendations to aid donors to support the acquisition of modern digital technologies, in hope of improving the current status quo of the digital divide in the emerging university.

A critical theory lens aligns well with the chosen framework for globalisation, namely the modern period characterised by neoliberalism and the digital age. The lens guided my analysis to identify the dominant and oppressed groups and critique the status quo in relation to globalisation (Giroux, 2012; Weber, 2002). The purpose was to analyse the power relationships and to empower the vulnerable group. For example, I presented the tensions between decisions made and choices available to the Global South in light of globalisation such as receiving funding, applying international standards of a university and implementing digital technologies. In other words, critical theory as an analytical lens could fulfil my aim to contribute to the theories of globalisation, to university development and to help those who read the thesis understand the nature of their own experiences, and perhaps come to understand the phenomenon in a different way.

3.4 Research context

3.4.1 Tanzania, East Africa

The research context is Tanzania, which is situated in East Africa. Tanzania and its regional
countries are part of the Global South. Tanzania is also part of the EAC that consists of six countries: Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi and South Sudan. The World Bank (2018) and the UN (2018) reported that East Africa is a low-income region and with high levels of poverty. The region has few industrial activities and is largely technologically disadvantaged with respect to competing in the global economy. Nevertheless, the EAC has a strong focus on enhancing higher education to improve regional socio-economic challenges (Jowi et al., 2013). The region has produced quality universities on the Africa continent, such as Makerere University in Uganda that was ranked 4th in Africa, and the University of Nairobi in Kenya that was among the top 30 (THE World University Rankings, 2018).

This study focusses on one emerging university Tanzania in order to have a deeper understanding of this type of institution’s responses to globalisation. Tanzania, also known as the United Republic of Tanzania, is located in East Africa (Figure 1). Tanzania was formed in 1964 after the mainland, Tanganyika, merged with the islands of Zanzibar (Figure 2). Tanzania had a history of foreign intervention that started with the Portuguese in the early 16th Century, followed by the Omanis in the late 18th Century, then the Germans and British in the late 19th Century (Otiso, 2013; Sheikh, 2015). The country has a population of nearly 56 million and more than 80% of the population works in agriculture (Wedgwood, 2010).
Figure 1 Map of Tanzania in East Africa. Retrieved from http://www.freeworldmaps.net/africa/tanzania/location.gif
According to the report by the Economic Commission for Africa (2016), Tanzania’s economy has made little progress since its independence in the 1960s. It is a low-income country where the economic growth is insufficient to overcome inflation and to be financially independent. The country is dependent on imported goods but has difficulty in offsetting financial outflow. Its main source of foreign income is tourism. It has high poverty with 15.6 million of the population living below basic needs, which may be linked to issues of low literacy. The country relies on aid from international donors to improve its education, health and urbanization issues such as unstable power supply and infrastructure deficits such as water supply, irrigation and road systems.

*Figure 2* Map of Tanzania. Retrieved from http://www.freeworldmaps.net/africa/tanzania/tanzania-map-physical.jpg
According to Otiso (2013), Tanzania is a multicultural country with 99% of the population Africans who together have over 120 ethnicities. The main religions are Christianity and Islam. The official languages are Kiswahili and English, the latter mainly used for official documents, commerce and higher education. Tanzania is the birthplace of Kiswahili, a lingua franca of eastern and central Africa, and less than 5% of the population speaks English (Brock-Utne, 2015). In terms of education, the population has low literacy, especially in rural districts, and high secondary school dropout, which is likely due to leaving to work in agriculture (Economic Commission for Africa, 2016; MoEVT, 2014).

Tanzania had its first higher education institution in 1961, the University of Dar es Salaam, which was initially a college of the University of London (Wedgwood, 2010). Then, in 1970, it became a national university. Subsequently, Tanzania now has 12 public universities and 21 private universities (Tanzania Commission for Universities, 2018). The following section will introduce the University of Mokono to provide a background to where this study was conducted.

3.4.2 The University of Mokono

The name University of Mokono is a pseudonym for the researched university to maintain the anonymity of participants and protect the university’s reputation. References that use the real name not mentioned to maintain anonymity. Mokono is a public institution established in the late 1990s. Its languages of instruction are English and Kiswahili. The Constitution of University of Mokono states that the public institution’s main priority is national development. As such, its focus of research and teaching would be best to prioritise Tanzania’s socio-
economic development. However, while being expected to improve local higher education levels, Mokono also has an international mission to be one of the best universities in the East African region.

According to the 2015 newsletter of Mokono, the emerging university faces challenges in meeting national and global expectations due to limitations in resources. The government provides limited financial support, as is the case for many universities in the Global South. In terms of human capacity, the emerging university has few PhD-qualified academic staff, with only 19 of its 141 holding doctoral degrees. A university would typically employ academic staff with a PhD because it is an international benchmark and a qualification that represents the eligibility of academic staff to teach and research. Additionally, at the time of the research, the university was deficient in teaching facilities, research equipment and digital technology infrastructure. This multitude of challenges is one reason why Mokono actively reaches out for resources and opportunities for development.

Mokono relies on opportunities for resources from globalisation, including aid donors and research and teaching collaborations, for its capacity building. The institution attracts support from outside of Tanzania for contributions to its development, such as the construction of buildings, procurement of furniture and equipment, teaching and learning materials, and scholarships for academics’ professional development. For instance, a South American country has supplied academic staff to help Mokono Medical school while a Middle Eastern country
has provided scholarships for its staff\(^2\). However, not all grants from aid donors met the institution’s needs and it continuously reached out to different donors but with little success.

### 3.4.3 Why choose this university?

The University of Mokono was selected on both practical and theoretical grounds. In terms of practical grounds, Mokono had a memorandum of understanding with my institution in New Zealand. At the same time, the senior administrators of Mokono worked closely with my department, which allowed unprecedented access to them.

Mokono also fitted well into the framework of globalisation theory for three reasons. One was that it was an emerging university was built in 2001, which is within the modern period of globalisation. Another was the university was operating in the Global South in a severely under-resourced environment, addressing issues of national agenda and globalisation. Third, the emerging university was actively involved in reaching out for cross-border relationships. In other words, this severely under-resourced university was known to be strategic with its responses to the impacts of globalisation. For instance, it had successfully attracted international aid donors from the United Kingdom, World Bank, the United States, China and the Middle East. It also had over 30 Memoranda of Understanding with universities across the world for research and teaching partnerships. These initiatives suggested its determination to

\(^2\) I was informed that the scholarship from the Middle Eastern government has now been discontinued.
respond to some of the opportunities and challenges of globalisation.

3.5 Research questions

The phenomenon investigated in this research is globalisation in the context of higher education in the Global South. The inquiry sought to answer three principal questions:

1. What influences the decisions made around strategy and development within an emerging university in response to globalisation?

2. How does globalisation affect decision-making about how to organise teaching and research in an emerging university?

3. What are the intended and unintended impacts of digital technologies with regard to globalisation?

3.6 Research design

The research design was a descriptive case study using narrative inquiry. The case study was the preferred strategy for in-depth research that takes on a critical look at the issues because it asked ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions (Creswell, 2007). As a single case, the research questions set the boundaries for an in-depth investigation (Yin, 2014). This case investigated a specific phenomenon to highlight differences in human experiences, however, I understood that what was discovered could lead to knowledge applicable for universities facing similar conditions.
I employed a general inductive approach in my analysis (Thomas, 2006). General inductive approaches “primarily use detailed readings of raw-data to derive concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw-data by an evaluator or researcher” (Thomas, 2006, p. 238). Thomas (2006) noted that it is a “straightforward approach for deriving findings in the context of focused evaluation questions” (p. 237). However, I found that the straightforward approach involved multiple procedures to interpret the data. In my analysis, I incorporated familiarising myself with the data, linking data logically, and comparing the data with the literature review. These systematic procedures allowed thematic codes to emerge gradually, but the procedures were repetitive as thematic codes shifted a number of times in order to achieve major overreaching themes. In my interpretation of the data, which applied the critical theory lens, I connected participants’ accounts to themes to make meaning of actions and add strength to what is already known through earlier studies (Morrow & Brown, 1994). I perceived that the general inductive approach represented the views and concerns of the administrators and academic staff, who were most affected by the phenomenon investigated. As such, the inquiry allowed a rich interpretation, and so provided a detailed description of a complex phenomenon. The unit of analysis was the policy and practice affecting teaching and research. These represented the university’s response to globalisation.

3.7 Sampling and participant recruitment

Qualitative research applies sampling within a context to provide a good illustration of the phenomenon investigated (Mason, 2002). My sampling were academics, which I placed into
two groups: senior administrators and academic staff. I anticipated the former would provide an overview of the administrative strategic policies while the latter would provide an understanding of institutional teaching and research practices. I considered interviewing students and policy makers because students could provide insights on globalisation particularly due to their engagement with digital technologies for learning, while policy makers could give broader viewpoints of the university development pathway within globalisation. Nevertheless, I prioritised interviewing the management and academic staff because I wanted to focus on the effects of globalisation on staff practices. There was also a concern with my limited time at the field to interview an extensive number of participants (see section 7.8 Limitations).

My choice of participants and area of study had been scrutinised in three ways before I started participant recruitment. First, I defended my research proposal in my department, the Higher Education Development Centre, University of Otago, New Zealand. Then, I applied for Research Ethics Approval, and received consent, from the University of Otago Human Ethics Committee. Third, my contact with Mokono was initiated with the help of my co-supervisor. The senior administrator provided a support letter for my application for a Research Permit in Tanzania.

The recruitment technique of participants was convenience sampling because I depended on the willingness to participate when approaching potential participants (Braun & Clarke, 2013). My co-supervisor and Mokono colleagues helped to build the networks with potential participants and they broke the ice between potential participants and me. As a result, I recruited 12 participants as shown in Table 2.
Table 2 Pseudonyms and description of participants ($n = 12$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Highest Degree</th>
<th>Role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Senior administrator</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Mzuzi</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>PhD from Malaysia</td>
<td>Dean, School of Professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Hamidi</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>PhD from Tanzania</td>
<td>Deputy Vice Chancellor of Academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tia</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Graduate Research School</td>
<td>Masters from India</td>
<td>Senior Coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mune</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Digital Technology</td>
<td>PhD from Paris</td>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Hawa</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>PhD from the United Kingdom</td>
<td>Deputy Vice Chancellor of Finance and Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rukiya</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>PhD from Australia</td>
<td>Dean, School of Language and Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic staff</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Zahra</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
<td>Undertaking PhD at Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Kito</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Foreign Language</td>
<td>Masters from Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Safiri</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Education and Educational Technology</td>
<td>Masters from Malaysia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Badru</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Education and Educational Technology</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Duma</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Language Education and Education</td>
<td>Masters from Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Siti</td>
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<td>Masters from Tanzania</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
I had six senior administrators that consisted three females and three males, and six academic staff that consisted four females and two males. The senior administrators were the Vice Chancellor, two Deputy Vice Chancellors, two Deans and a Senior Coordinator of the Graduate School. They were from different departments that include Natural Science, the Graduate Research School, Digital Technology and Education. As for their academic background, all had a doctorate except one, who had a master’s degree. Their degrees were from universities elsewhere in Asia or Europe, except for one participant who had a local PhD degree. These participants valued their international academic experience, either through studying or working abroad. As for the academic staff, four of them were females and two were males. They were from the department of Foreign Language, Education, Educational Technology and Language. All had a master’s degree while one was undertaking her PhD in Tanzania. Only two academic staff had international experience from their studies abroad in Asia, while others gained their degrees from universities in Tanzania.

I ensured confidentiality for the participants by using pseudonyms in the thesis for quotes, descriptions and analysis. The consent forms were kept in a locked filing cabinet at the Higher Education Development Centre at the University of Otago while digitised recordings, electronic transcripts and data analysis documents were kept on a password-protected laptop.

3.8 Data collection

Interviews and document reviews were the data collected because they were purposeful in providing explanatory answers for a case study (Yin, 2014). On one hand, the rationale of choosing interview data was to elicit the participants’ perspectives and conceptions of
globalisation with regard to the research questions. Interviews also provided a rich discussion for an in-depth understanding, which the study had intended to achieve. On the other hand, the rationale of reviewing documents was to provide the background context to the research inquiry. These documents provided examples for interviews to elicit participants’ perspectives as to how globalisation had affected them. More importantly, the combination of both data substantiated my analysis of the interview data, which was also a form of internal validity (Yin, 2014). The following sub-sections explained the process of interviews and documents reviews.

3.8.1 Interviews

The semi-structured interview technique allowed me to compare and contrast the views between the senior administrators and academic staff in terms of policies and practices. Their views also enabled me to ascertain if the impacts of globalisation were understood and shared similarly or differently. The interview started with asking participants to define their understanding of globalisation to overcome the concern about the confusion between globalisation and internationalisation. Participants were able to define globalisation and signifying that they understand the phenomenon. Then, I questioned the impact of globalisation on participants’ occupational situation based on the literature review, but the discussions also developed alongside both the researcher’s and participant’s thinking about the topic (Holstein & Gubrium, 2016; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The interview shifted and changed according to participants’ elaborations that introduced new insights. The open-ended questioning also encouraged participants to describe examples of his or her practices, elaborating to the fullest extent possible. In other words, participants mostly steered the discussion and diverge into new topics with follow up questions for further explorations.
As noted in Section 3.7, I recruited six senior administrators and six academics, and conducted nine interviews. In the six individual interviews, four of these were senior administrators and two were academic staff; and in the three focus group interviews, which were conducted in pairs, one group consisted a pair of senior administrators while two groups consisted two pairs of academic staff. The issue of power hierarchy did not occur because there was no combination of a senior administrator with an academic staff. Each interview ranged in duration from 20 to 60 minutes that were recorded using a digital recorder. I considered the research ethics when conducting the interviews and made sure participants who were interviewed in pairs were comfortable with one another. I paid attention on participants’ body gestures and verbal cues during the interview to take note if participants were apprehensive and so I needed to stop questioning. However, this did not happen because participants seemed engaged and relaxed. Additionally, participants choose comfortable and convenient locations, which were at their offices except for one at a restaurant, and so enabled the interviews to proceed smoothly (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

I conducted the field research over 12 days in Tanzania, from 21 Jan to 1 Feb 2016. The preparation involved developing a calendar to set out blocks of time for interviews and other tasks such as background research in preparation for interviews, downloading and transcribing recordings. A notebook for field notes included keeping a log of interviews and reflecting on my observations that were useful for providing contextual information for my analysis (Creswell, 2007).

During the interview sessions, I took steps to ensure participants were happy to give consent and informed them about the ethical considerations. Before I began the questioning, they were
given information sheets about the project (Appendix: Questionnaire for participants) and all gave ethics consent. Then, I briefly introduced the purpose and questions of study, with the aim of focusing the participant on the topic. All participants were reminded that they were free to withdraw at any time during the process.

In addition, I made some measures to build rapport and trust and to overcome the assumption of my position as holding the ‘power’ of an interviewer (Skelton, 2001). First, to create a mutually constructive and respectful atmosphere for interviews, I exercised caution in cultural sensitivity in a Muslim community such as wearing appropriate attire as a sign of respect. Next, I introduced myself as an emerging academic with little experiences of working in the university to create a more relaxed discussion. For instance, I portrayed myself like a ‘junior’ wanting to learn from a ‘senior’ about their roles, responsibilities and challenges of being an academic. Parts of my educational and multi-cultural background were openly discussed to enhance discussions and construct the ideas and meaning with them. As a result, I was a partially active participant in the construction of knowledge in this research. Recognizing these details and responding accordingly might have ‘levelled’ my communication position with those being interviewed to allow a fuller conceptualization during data analysis (Miller & Glassner, 2016). Finally, to thank the participants for their time, I gave them a souvenir at the end of the interview (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

Challenges in the field

Two notable challenges were the process of obtaining a Tanzanian research permit and making appointments with the academics. I was fortunate to overcome these challenges by assistance
from those who have an in-depth understanding of the local organisational culture, in this case colleagues in Mokono and my co-supervisor, who was also at Mokono for his work. First, my co-supervisor introduced me to the academic staff at Mokono, which eased the interactions with my potential participants. Second, unexpectedly our colleagues at Mokono could not get the research permit on my behalf. The unanticipated event delayed my plan by two days (and possibly at the cost of interviewing four individuals).

I was able to begin scheduling interviews on the afternoon of my second day, after I obtained the research permit from the relevant government departments. Fortunately, colleagues at Mokono were accommodating to my requests. Those who were approached were welcoming and willing to contribute. When requesting an interview, I explained to each potential participant what I was doing in Tanzania and why I had a particular interest in speaking with them. I was made aware of the importance of having a flexible schedule because interviews might be cancelled and re-scheduled. I managed to conduct an average of two interviews for five weekdays except for the day I was flying out on 2 February 2016.

3.8.2 Document review

I reviewed documents that were accessible from Mokono’s online repository. The documents provided in-depth view of the university’s policy with regard to the stakeholders and the performance of the university in terms of teaching and research. These documents were chosen because they were relevant to the thematic analysis (see Section 3.9.2.1). I refrained from using a direct quote of documentary data to avoid the data trailing back to Mokono via web search and renamed the documents in the following table.
Table 3 Documents from Mokono ($n = 6$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Name of documents</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Constitution of University of Mokono</td>
<td>About the objective of the university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The 2013 Newsletter of Mokono</td>
<td>About the expansion of Mokono’s school, in particulars the medical school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The 2014 Newsletter of Mokono</td>
<td>About the various teaching and research initiatives to respond to globalisation and national development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The 2015 Newsletter of Mokono</td>
<td>About the university’s performance and achievement three years after the new administration was on-board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mokono’s Prospectus 2017</td>
<td>About the courses offered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The University of Mokono’s Research Partnerships 2017</td>
<td>About the various partnerships of the university</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The selected documents provided insight of the position and role of the emerging university. During data analysis, the participants’ descriptions of their experiences in relation to globalisation were triangulated with the selected documents which added context to the interview data (see Section 3.9.2).

3.9 Data analysis

The study applied a general inductive analysis that “refers to approaches that primarily use detailed readings of raw data to derive concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw data” (Thomas, 2006, p. 238). I chose the general inductive approach
because I needed to develop my ideas about the theory of globalisation in higher education even though I have conceptualised globalisation using Steger’s (2017) definition (discussed in section 2.2). My approach of general inductive analysis took account of ensuring rigour that considered “thoroughness, precision and accuracy as fundamental conditions for trust in the research outcomes” (Daniel & Harland, 2018, p. 112). I would like to elaborate my claims judged on the following four criteria, which were based on the work of Daniel and Harland (2018). These are 1) auditability, where I explain how I identified themes and made decisions to group them; 2) trustworthiness, where I elaborate on how I transcribed my primary data and expanded my secondary data to support my primary data; 3) credibility, where I report the verification of data validity; and 4) transferability, where I address the applicability and limitations of the findings being applied to other contexts.

3.9.1 Auditability

Auditability refers to clarity in describing the process of the entire research, and particularly in the analysis. The aim is to interpret the meaning beyond reported experiences instead of merely describing interviewees’ own words and stories. The processes of data analysis in this study involved thematic analysis, content analysis and critical theory analysis. The thematic analysis aimed at interpreting participants’ interviews and generated the key themes of the study. Then, the content analysis aimed at interpreting the documents but guided by the themes from thematic analysis. Lastly, the critical analysis was applied to critique on the full data set. The following subsections elaborates how the analysis were conducted.
3.9.1.1 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79). The analysis focus on the recurring features within the participants’ perceptions and/or experiences (Braun & Clarke, 2006; King & Horrocks, 2010). As I aimed to understand the participants’ perceptions of the impact of globalisation, I categorised their interpretation of opportunities and challenges that affect the university and their work due to globalisation into ‘themes’. My thematic analysis was guided by King and Horrocks’ (2010) process of thematic analysis. This involves three stages outlined in Table 4.

Table 4 Stages in the process of thematic analysis (adopted from King & Horrocks, 2010, p.153).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage one: descriptive coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Read through transcript</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highlight relevant material and attach brief comments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define descriptive codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refined codes based on participants definition of globalisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage two: interpretive coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cluster descriptive codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpret meaning of clusters in relation to research question and disciplinary position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply interpretive codes to full data set</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage three: overarching themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Derive key themes for data set as a whole, by considering interpretive themes from theoretical stance of project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construct diagram to represent relationships between levels of coding in the analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Quality checks occur at any stage in the process |

Next, I illustrate how I developed my themes based on the three stages by King and Horrocks.
(2010) and arrived at my final thematic structure. Stage one is to perform descriptive coding and I started with familiarising with transcripts while assigning corresponding codes (Duncan, 2001). I also included highly relevant material such as documentary reviews.

In order to code my interview data, I used the Microsoft Word’s in-built reviewing features to mark and comment on relevant sections of text. In the initial stage, I defined the descriptive codes such as ‘Challenges: Competition for staff with the government’, ‘Challenges: Insufficient English lecturers’, ‘Opportunities: Scholarship but for science only’ and ‘Opportunities: Aid donor give scholarship but don’t necessarily need’. I repeated this process with all transcripts that generated a diverse descriptive code. Figure 3 is an example of coding in stage one.

Figure 3 A coding example (stage one).
Then, I drew on participants’ definitions of globalisation that helped to redefine the descriptive codes. A universal opinion is that universities become “more interdependent” especially for knowledge sharing between institutions. Duma, an academic staff in education and language department, elaborated the notion, stating that, “if you are just stuck at your locality, I don’t think you can go far.” All participant agree that universities no longer work in isolation, in particular, digital technologies enable academic staff and students to “have accessibility to information” (Tia, senior administrator). The participants perceived that information was vital to “open our mind and our eyes to know what to do” (Siti, academic staff) especially because “The world is running, you also have to run. You should not walk” (Duma, academic staff). They wanted to make informed decisions and benchmark with others to improve the university’s operations. Furthermore, I identified when globalisation began to impact Mokono. A few participants (e.g. Badru, Hamidi, Mune, Mzuzi) highlighted that globalisation only impacted the university when new senior administrators took over the management in 2011 and prior to that Mokono was not actively responding to globalisation and its impacts. The university has then been active in “international collaborations” to enable various development opportunities (Badru, academic staff); and in increasing the role of digital technologies such as attracting potential international students with emails (Zahra, academic staff) and collaborating in international research through video conference (Mzuzi, senior administrator). By understanding the definition and changes in the institution with regard to globalisation, I paid attention to provide more specific description of international collaborations, knowledge exchange and engaging with digital technologies. The redefined descriptive codes focus on differentiating the motivation, initiatives, outcomes and challenges of the preliminary codes.

Next, I worked through the preliminary list of codes and I clustered the codes from the
transcript according to the repetitive terms in the codes. Then, using a cut and paste approach, I began moving sections of transcripts into relevant theme categories (Figure 2). Example of codes that I clustered were “recruiting international students”, “commodifying courses for international students”, “attracting international students”, “commodifying Kiswahili for international students” as international students. Sometimes I found that a piece of narrative could occupy more than one category and as such, copied it into various themes. For example, Zahra (academic staff) said, “Sometimes we can use different video from the YouTube” for some students to “read, do some research about Tanzania.” This excerpt was clustered in the “international teaching materials” and “online education resources”. Subsequently, I interpreted the meaning of the clusters in relation to research questions. I linked the variety of stakeholders that have influences on Mokono to research question one; the ways of organising teaching and research to research question two; and the engagement with digital technologies to research question three. Then, I also apply interpretative codes to full dataset.

**Figure 4** A clustering example on codes relevant to ‘international students’ (stage two).
In the final stage, I derived the key themes for my data set as a whole. This involved exploring the narratives over and over to ensure the meanings of stories had indeed emerged out of the participants' stories and not out of my need to categorise data. Then, I considered the interpretative themes in relation to the theoretical stance of project. As shown in Figure 5, the first, second and third tiers in the figure represent the process of understanding Steger’s theoretical framework of globalisation and its key concepts in the context of higher education as described in Chapter 2.

![Diagram](image)

*Figure 5 Deriving key themes by considering the theoretical stance of project.*

In addition, the notion of neoliberalism and digital technologies in Steger’s theory of globalisation provided a lens that linked all the themes to one another. The first theme (see
Chapter 4) focused on competitive approaches of funding from stakeholders that affected Mokono’s decision making; the second theme (see Chapter 5) discussed the organisation of teaching and research to meet international standards and stakeholders’ expectations; and the third theme (see Chapter 6) presented the role of digital technologies enabling Mokono to reach out to international stakeholders (linking it to the first theme), to access information of international teaching and research standards for benchmarking (linking it to the second theme) and to establish its digital presence in the world. Lastly, I construct a diagram to represent relationships between levels of coding, Figure 6 presents an example of the relationship between levels of coding in the second theme.

![Diagram](image)

*Figure 6* An example of three coding levels in relations to one theme (stage three).
3.9.1.2 Content analysis

The study applied content analysis to analyse text data and the specific approach was directed content analysis. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) define directed content analysis as an approach “to validate or extend conceptually a theoretical framework or theory” (p. 1281). Rather than using quantitative content analysis procedure to count the codes in the text, this study opted to employ an inductive approach to identify patterns and meaning within the text of Mokono’s written material and official documents guided by the themes from thematic analysis (Bagley & Portnoi, 2016). This approach could also build an in-depth understanding and provide further description of the themes developed (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). The analysis found text with meanings that were interpretative to the themes about stakeholders’ influences on decision-making in Chapter 4 and on international standards influences on teaching and research operations in Chapter 5, but not for the themes about the influences of digital technologies in Chapter 6. The lack of official documents from the institution about its engagement with digital technologies might be due to its plan to engage with digital technologies, in particular MOOCs, had only begun at the time of interview in 2016.
Table 5 Documents applied according to thematic analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Name of documents</th>
<th>Thematic analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Constitution of University of Mokono</td>
<td>Identified the theme about the government and its influences in the context of ‘the objective and functions of the university’ and ‘the selection of senior administrators’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>the 2014 Newsletter of Mokono</td>
<td>Identified the theme about international aid donors in the context of Mokono approaching the donors to achieve its goals and respond to globalisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono</td>
<td>Identified the theme about the government and the student in the context of Mokono’s achievements to meet national development from 2011 to 2014.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>the 2013 Newsletter of Mokono</td>
<td>Identified the theme about English as a language of instruction in the context of adopting the Cuban medical course to establish quality teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono</td>
<td>Identified the theme about teaching standards and intensive research in the context of Mokono’s achievements and initiatives from 2011 to 2014.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mokono’s Prospectus 2017</td>
<td>Identified the theme about English as a language of instruction in the context of the student’s enrolment criteria in the courses offered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The University of Mokono’s Research Partnerships 2017</td>
<td>Identified the theme about research in the context of Mokono’s partnership with universities that were building its research culture.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 illustrates that the themes on stakeholders as the influence of globalisation on Mokono’s decision makings (see Chapter 4) were found in the Constitution of University of Mokono, the 2014 Newsletter of Mokono and the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono. The theme on initiatives and expectations of teaching and research (see Chapter 5) were found in the 2013
Newsletter of Mokono, the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono, Mokono’s Prospectus 2017 and the University of Mokono’s Research Partnerships 2017. The content analysis of these documents affirmed the themes from the interview data and in some ways provided some deeper insights. For instance, the analysis of the Constitution of University of Mokono found that the government influenced Mokono’s strategies in responding to globalisation because it determines the appointment of the university’s Vice Chancellor and Deputy Vice Chancellors, and also supervises many aspects of the institution’s operations. As such, the content analysis provided more substance for the thematic analysis of the study.

3.9.1.3 Critical analysis

Critical theory provided the lens to draw out issues of power domination and emancipation (see Section 3.3). I applied the lens in terms of answering who controls the decision-making and to what extent the university complies or resists influences of globalisation (Giroux, 2002; Pasque & Carducci, 2015; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). In the first theme, the critique was on issues of governance in particular the extent to which stakeholders could coerce and shape the nature of decision-makings of the emerging university (Ball, 2012; Foucault, 1997). The application of critical theory explored the autonomy of Mokono with the government, international donors and students. The analysis of the following theme found that participants felt subjected to stakeholders’ expectations and wanted to comply with international standards in operating their teaching and research (Freire, 1970; Kellner, 2003). The lens pointed out that Mokono’s decision in homogenising its teaching and research operations with international standards were mainly dependent on fulfilling stakeholders’ expectations. Finally, the lens examined the
role of digital technologies in delivering opportunities for Mokono’s development (Giroux, 2002; Kellner, 1995). It found that Mokono was not resisting its engagement with digital technologies, but it also critiqued on the highly inadequate access digital technologies.

The critical lens also analysed what are the shared and contrasting views of senior administrators and academic staff? Although academic staff were not involved in decision makings, they were aware of the policies made and shared their views. In general, both groups share similar views in the first and third themes. However, some had different views about the second theme. For instance, Rukiya, a senior administrator spoke about the importance of English for teaching and noted that it was not possible to agree with some academic staff who wanted to only teach in Kiswahili. Yet, Safiri an academic staff stated that students have difficulties learning in English and speaking in Kiswahili was unavoidable. As such, the lens mainly discussed the tensions between the senior administrators and academic staff in the second theme.

3.9.2 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness refers to the dependability of data, and in this thesis, I ensured trustworthiness in ways proposed by Daniel and Harland (2018). The primary data was interview transcriptions. I transcribed the audio-recordings verbatim. I also exercised caution such as discussing with my supervisors when making grammatical corrections to maintain the meaning of each interview. I read the transcriptions while recalling the context and environment of the interview using my field notes of my observations and interactions with academic staff of Mokono.
Secondary data consist of documents reflecting the university’s goals and mission, news reports on the university’s relationships with the international community and the state, and a review of the literature on globalisation and internationalisation in higher education. The amount of secondary data expanded as I analysed the primary data. I carried out considerable background research to provide a detailed description of the case. I also used snowball searches as my search strategy. For instance, after I read a relevant article, I searched the papers cited by the article and new papers citing the article. I mainly used library books and scholarly search engines such as Google Scholar, Scopus, EBSCO and ProQuest for the literature review searches of journal articles and electronic books. I also used the general search engine Google to find information on websites such as news reports, university information and institutional documents.

3.9.3 Credibility

Credibility is the internal validity of the data that shows the findings are “credible, relevant and congruent” (Daniel & Harland, 2017, p. 116). One way of establishing credibility is triangulation, which involves a record-checking procedure to verify the reliability of data obtained and analysed (Mathison, 1988). The case study design gave me the opportunity to triangulate the data during analysis using multiple sources, and hence ensured the credibility when interpreting and drawing logical associations between the data sets (Yin, 2014).

I undertook the following measures for triangulation. In my thematic analysis, I triangulated the interview data between the narratives of senior administrators and academic staff to accurately reflect reliable evidence and the interests of research participants (Bishop, 1998;
Bishop and Glynn, 1999). For instance, Rukiya (senior administrator) related about the issue of lack of computers in the school and amongst students. This was crosschecked with Mzuzu, (senior administrator) who noted the lack of computer ownership amongst his students and Badru (academi staff) who highlighted the issue of insufficient computers for students that prohibited him to teach efficiently. I also frequently referred to my field notes that had capture pertinent details to verify my analysis. For instance, my field notes showed my observations of students having to share computers and the issue of unstable power supply that supported the participants’ views of the limited digital technologies infrastructure.

I also cross-checked the first and second thematic findings (i.e. Chapter 4 and 5) about the local and international stakeholders with online resources such the website of Tanzanian Ministry of Education and Vocational, Tanzanian online news about the university and the websites of the international partners. Prior to my field trip, I read about Mokono from the university’s website to have a contextual understanding to conduct my interviews; and during my content analysis, six documents were selected because these texts added deeper understanding to the thematic analysis from the interview data. For the third thematic findings (i.e. Chapter 6), I applied an additional triangulation strategy and informal document checking, which is Mokono’s Facebook page. For instance, The Facebook page allowed me to triangulate my data about the universities’ technology progress through its posts about acquiring digital technologies equipment for the university’s Technology and Media Centre that were donated from Huawei, a Chinese company.

For my critical analysis, I mainly applied the literature review to guide my analysis. Lastly, in my analytical decision-makings, I frequently engaged in discussions with colleagues and my
supervisors to gain feedback. I also presented at departmental seminars and national and international conferences that provided valuable feedback on my findings. I found that each of the triangulation processes corroborated my findings and noted contradictions, inconsistencies, and similarities that build a stronger consensus of the themes established (Mathison, 1988).

### 3.9.4 Transferability

The transferability of findings, in the context of qualitative research, refers to “the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations” (Merriam, 2015, p. 253). In general, the study is transferable in the sense that if I have done my job well enough, anyone reading this thesis would be likely to learn something new about the phenomenon being investigated (Daniel & Harland, 2018). Although in a strict sense, the study is mainly applicable to one university, it is also applicable to those interested in understanding Tanzania, and then East Africa, as well as the emerging universities in the Global South. In other words, the study can have direct and wide relevance to geographical, cultural and possibly social contributions across the world.

However, I was cautious that this study cannot fully guarantee that similar findings can be achieved or be seen as entirely generalizable to other universities in East Africa or the Global South. There were the limitations of outsider-bias as a researcher and of a single case study that could restrict transferability (Bedenlier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015). The outsider-bias refers to my relationship as a foreign researcher who does not share with my participants in-depth cultural understanding, such as local customs and language (Skelton, 2001; Smith, 2010). Additionally, a bias towards participants with English language proficiency exists and this
inevitably excludes the perception of academics who are not proficient in English. English is a second language for me and for my participants. There might be less of a language barrier if the study had employed translators from the host country. Yet, a translator’s language ability and interpretative skills would add another layer of complexity to consider.

Coming from a different culture is not entirely a drawback for understanding participants’ talk. Participants might choose to withhold information instead of revealing their totality if they share close relationships with whom they are interacting (Charmaz, 1995). My participants seemed to freely voice their opinions and disagreements about their university as they might perceive that my ‘outsider' status has little threat to their views. While the interviews went well, I presumed there will be things ‘lost in translation’ (McWilliam, Dooley, McArdle, & Pei-Ling, 2008). However, I also acknowledge that the meaning-making process of “translation is a practice of intercultural communication in which we [I] understand other cultures as far as possible in their own terms but in our [my] language” (Twyman, Morrison, & Sporton, 1999, p. 320). A strategy to better understand the participants was connecting with them, and then, establishing the interpretative frames for evaluating the information obtained (Riessman, 2016). As such, my interpretation as an ‘outsider’ is contingent on paying particular attention to the individualistic, fragmented, and heterogeneous natures of understanding participants’ viewpoints (Creswell, 2007).

Another transferability limitation is this study only represents a single country in East Africa, Tanzania, and a single emerging university. The study focussed on an in-depth analysis of a single emerging university. It would have a broader view of the phenomenon if one or more other emerging universities had been included, and so the findings have limitations in
encompassing all experiences of Tanzanian universities. Yet, while universities in other African countries have much in common with Tanzania, they also exhibit differences in national challenges, resource scarcity, international advocacies, the size of their population, and the policies and structure of their education systems.

3.10 Reporting

In writing the report, I carefully considered the contributions to theory of globalisation, higher educational research and policymakers, the University of Mokono and its academics, and the public research universities of the Global South. I reported the findings in a logical sequence following the three orientations of analysis: thoroughness, precision and accuracy. The discussion examines findings in relation to existing literature and theory, and the implications of the findings. As congruent with narrative inquiry, I integrated lengthy excerpts from the interviews to maintain participants’ meaning and to guide the discussion.

I did not undertake formal data verification with participants although I gave them opportunities to do so through formal invitations to review transcripts (given on the Ethics Consent Form and Information Form for Participants). I developed the themes and sub-themes by myself, before I received the final verification from my primary and co-supervisors.

3.11 Summary

In this chapter, I have outlined my research methodology: how my ontology and epistemology, and critical theory as research lens have informed my research methods. I introduced the
location of the study and my participants, and explained the interview process. I stated the research questions and the methodological process of the general inductive inquiry as the research design. I outlined how I examined and reported the data while attending to the trustworthiness and ethical considerations.

In the following chapters, I consider the perspectives and experiences of the impacts of globalisation on the policy and practice of the university that the senior administrators and academic staff shared with me. I pay particular attention to opportunities and challenges the participants drew on in their accounts. In Chapter 4, I present an overview of the stakeholders who were influencing the university’s policy and practices (Research Question One). In Chapter 5, I explore the expectations to achieve international standards in teaching and research (Research Question Two). In Chapter 6, I examine educational digital technology that participants drew on as the intended and unintended impacts of globalisation on higher education (Research Question Three). In the final chapter I draw together the literature, and my analysis of the phenomenon of globalisation. I conclude by offering some suggestions as to how we might move forward in developing more benefits from globalisation and reduce its unintended impacts for emerging universities, in particular those in the Global South.
4 Influences of globalisation on university decision-making

4.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to answer the first research question:

What influences the decisions made around strategy and development within an emerging university in response to globalisation?

My findings indicate that financial resources from stakeholders strongly influence the decisions made around strategy and development within this emerging university. The university sustained itself mainly with resources from three stakeholders: the government gave subventions\(^3\), aid donors gave grants, and students gave tuition fees. These stakeholders could influence or pressure the institution into making decisions about the university and education policies that might not otherwise have been made under different circumstances. The participants perceived that Mokono’s three main financial stakeholders influenced the institution to practice privatisation in exchange for financial resources. The participants understood that these stakeholders gave conditions and demands to exert their influences in exchange for funding. However, with regard to aid donors, Mokono was not entirely powerless because it had some agency to negotiate the conditions that it deemed disadvantageous.

The three stakeholders influenced Mokono’s decision-making in the following ways. First, the government established Mokono as a public good for the purpose of national agendas, but it

\[^3\] Subvention refers to an amount of financial aid given to an educational institution from a government.
did not provide sufficient subventions for the emerging university to build its teaching and research capacity. As such, the government pressured the emerging university to seek financial resources from the free market, thereby necessitating the need for Mokono to approach aid donors for grants in order to build its capacities and attract students for fees to sustain its operations. Second, aid donors gave grants with attached conditions that indirectly forced Mokono to privatise some education policies and to divert from its national agendas. Even though Mokono tried negotiating with aid donors, there were limitations to removing conditions because of the unequal power relations. Third, students gave tuition fees that forced Mokono to strategically commodify its courses for domestic, international and regional students. For instance, Mokono had a niche course, which was the Kiswahili language course. The course is unique in the area of foreign language and is useful to attract fee-paying international students. However, Mokono had to compete with other institutions to attract students into the Kiswahili language course. The competition could affect collaborations with competing institutions and disadvantage the promotion of the national language internationally. Mokono also offered more courses to attract regional students even though the institution was established to prioritise teaching domestic students. Consequently, Mokono could not achieve, or delayed meeting, the government’s agenda due to the pressure to respond to the conditions of aid donors and the demands of students.

In this chapter, I examine Mokono’s resistance and compliance to understand the power used by those with financial resources (Giroux, 2012). Mokono’s stories are mainly of compliance with its stakeholders and these illustrate how power is exercised through the global distribution of financial resources. I will argue that in some ways, there is also personal agency exercised at the same time. For example, aid donors gave grants with attached conditions and expected
Mokono to oblige. However, Mokono exerted personal agency to negotiate the conditions with some successes and this indicated that alternative ways of acting and being (i.e., resistance to compliance) are possible. My findings drew on the different positions that Mokono had in its relationships with the aid donors and students that made Mokono’s decision-making complex. Within my analysis, I tried to differentiate how power plays out between Mokono and those providing it with financial resources. I used a framework that contrasted Mokono’s complex decision-making processes with the expectation of fulfilling its national agenda for the government and external interests.

In the following sections, I first explore how the government, aid donors and students influence decision-making in Mokono. I then discuss each of the advantages and disadvantages for Mokono. Finally, I present the summary of the chapter.

4.2 The government

The Constitution of University of Mokono and those interviewed showed that the government had a strong oversight of the university administration and that this reflected Mokono as a public institution. However, the government did not provide sufficient subventions for the university to fully meet its needs. The government, according to the Constitution of University of Mokono, controlled Mokono’s selection of senior administrators and determined the academic subjects required as the national agenda. However, the government also applied austerity, and an expectation that this governmental institution would meet the national agenda without providing the necessary resources. The participants highlighted that, due to austerity, Mokono could not immediately achieve the national agenda. Mokono’s responses resulted in
two advantages and three disadvantages. The advantages were Mokono increasing its internal financial efficiencies and generating additional revenue from aid donors and students. The disadvantages were the amount of time spent to gain aid donors’ support, the limited financial assistance received from aid donors and the competition with other public institutions to retain its academic staff.

The government, according to the Constitution of University of Mokono, has strong oversight of Mokono. First, it appointed the key decision-makers of the university in order to prioritise national interests. The government directly influenced the university’s administration because the President of the State was the Chancellor of the university. This position controls the appointment of the University Council and senior administrators such as the Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellors (Constitution of University of Mokono). The aim for Mokono’s research and teaching functions was set through this process to enhance the social, economic, political and cultural development of Tanzania. As such, the government established Mokono as a strategy for national development through enhancing knowledge production and distribution in higher education.

Second, the government had a strong oversight on Mokono’s teaching and research direction because it determined the institution’s establishment of academic courses and international collaborations (Constitution of University of Mokono). First, according to the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono, national goals are prioritised in setting up schools such as Education, Natural and Social Sciences, Kiswahili and Foreign Languages, Professional Learning, and Health and Medical Sciences. Additionally, Mokono also established research institutes for natural science and Kiswahili. This study assumes that the government had a high interest in these subjects
and that encouraged the institution to research in these areas. The 2015 Newsletter of Mokono added that current national interests were tourism, computing and information technologies, and petroleum engineering, which required Mokono to introduce new courses. On top of these subjects, the government expects the emerging university to establish schools of Agriculture, Business, Law, and Policy Studies and Research (Constitution of University of Mokono).

Moreover, study participant, Mune (senior administrator), noted that Mokono needed the government’s approval for international collaborations such as establishing Memoranda of Understanding with foreign institutions. He acknowledged that the government had intervention power to protect the nation’s sovereignty with respect to Mokono’s initiatives to gain external resources, in particular international collaborations. He gave an example that “if Mokono had international collaborations to research on natural resources in Tanzania, such as petroleum, the government would not easily agree because it wanted to avoid foreign institutions exploiting national natural resources”.

However, even though the government had strong oversight on teaching and research, it applied austerity and expected Mokono to find its own financial resources. In this study, austerity describes how the government directed the emerging university to fulfil its public agendas but expected the university to find its own financial resources. Hamidi (senior administrator) explained that the tourism industry was the main source of foreign income for Tanzania, and the field needed university graduates. He said, “The government has been forcing the university to establish this (course in the School of Business) for a long time, I mean, teaching the tourism (course), but then we don’t have staff for that.” The government’s austerity policy slowed Mokono from establishing the tourism course immediately, and the institution could not find
suitable teaching academics locally and did not have financial means to attract teaching academics internationally to lead the development of the tourism course.

There were two advantages of the government’s austerity policy. First, the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono pointed out that the institution reformed its operations with detailed reporting lines, roles and responsibilities to increase its financial efficiency. For example, permanent academic staff job scopes were more specific, such as imposing a minimum 10 teaching hours that significantly reduced expenditure on hiring part-time teaching academic staff. The 2015 Newsletter of Mokono added that Deans, Directors and Heads of administrative units were made responsible for planning and managing their budgets. As such, Mokono’s stringent financial accountability measure had significantly reduced its financial expenditures but not its academic performance efficiency.

Second, the participants noted that Mokono generated additional revenue from aid donors and students to sustain operations and reduce reliance on subventions. Hamidi said Mokono reached out to aid donors for grants that supported the institution and financial needs capacity development. He gave an example of an aid donor providing scholarships for professional development to establish Mokono’s tourism course (elaborated in the next section on aid donors). Mzuzi noted Mokono specifically acted “like a business” and built new schools that could attract additional tuition fees.

Next, there were disadvantages of the government’s austerity policy. First, Mokono spent a large amount of time in finding aid donors who were willing to support it. Hamidi noted that aid donors attached conditions to their grants and provided limited financial assistance, both of
which were factors delaying the institution from achieving its own agenda. He explained that Mokono had difficulties in convincing aid donors to support the institution’s cause and in some instances the donors attached conditions delayed the institution’s progress. Second, Mokono had to compete with various other governmental institutions to retain its academic staff. The issue of competition between the government institutions for academic staff was akin to the issue of brain drain (discussed in section 2.6.4). Hamidi reported that Mokono “trained our own (academic staff) and now, we have about four potential staff but could potentially lose these academics to the government’s Tourism Board.” This was a potential setback to the institution’s capacity to establish the expected Tourism course. Mokono might require another decade to establish Tourism because it could not hire international academic staff and needed to train new academic staff, who are likely to spend about 10 years completing bachelor’s, master’s and PhD degrees.

Third, Mokono did not have enough funds to develop its institutional capacity such as equipping the institution with better facilities and supporting its academic staff for professional development. Tia illustrated Mokono’s inadequate facilities with the term “third world country” because the institution did not have sufficient learning materials such as books. Badru (academic staff) added Mokono was missing basic infrastructure such as “classes to accommodate all students and adequate internet access,” which were badly needed to enable an appropriate teaching environment. The 2015 Newsletter of Mokono noted that institutional infrastructural development remained its main challenge. Another difficulty was in supporting academic staff for continuous professional development, such as attending conferences. Safiri said, “We were encouraged to go for training and conference but for my South Asia conference I was told to finance the trip myself, and then, to claim it upon return.” She explained that
political disruption in the government had affected financial support for Mokono. She was sceptical of the time the institution would take to refund her for the conference fees and expenses, and said that such financial challenges were difficult for her as an academic. In other words, Mokono’s uncertain financial resources resulted in a poor educational environment for staff resulting in low working morale.

Most studies portray emerging universities that are situated in the Global South and are receiving support from aid donors, as having little choice in aid donors’ conditions (Daun, 2015; Kapoor, 2011b; Teferra & Greijn, 2010), but my findings showed that not all of them passively accept these. These universities can take the initiative to negotiate with aid donors even though there is a challenge due to their limited leverage. In Mokono’s case, it tried negotiating with aid donors because it understood that grant-giving was not entirely altruistic. Mokono aimed to achieve ‘win-win’ terms and conditions that could benefit aid donors and recipient. In addition, emerging universities could move away from aid donors providing conditionality towards aid donors offering partnerships. Aid donors offering partnerships want to develop trade or diplomatic relationships with the recipient countries because they are either attracted to opportunities of accessing natural and human resources or having political influence (Kapoor, 2011a; Tarrósy, 2011; Teferra, 2009). For instance, amongst aid donors, Stewart and Li (2013) note that China is interested in establishing diplomatic relationships with emerging economies, especially those in Africa region. China provides flexible conditions that recipients seem to prefer over other organisations’ proposals. The authors suggest that China’s flexibility could give recipients a better bargaining position. As such, before agreeing to conditions that could restrict their choice of development or disadvantage their institution or country, emerging universities like Mokono could reach out to aid donors who prefer
partnerships, such as the industrial partner, a local telecommunication company discussed in section 6.3.3.

4.3 The aid donors

From the data, I identified that even though aid donors provided grants for Mokono to achieve its national goals, they had conditions that might not necessarily be in the interest of the university. The participants understood Mokono was forced to approach aid donors, including the Norwegian government, Chinese and Danish governments. However, the participants perceived aid donors had their own agendas rather than addressing Mokono’s national agendas due to the conditions attached to their grants. The participants gave examples of three aid donors providing grants with conditions that the institution did not immediately accept. Mokono perceived the conditions could disadvantage the institution or the country, and felt it was necessary to protect the interest of Tanzanians. Mokono successfully renegotiated with two aid donors but was unsuccessful with the third, revealing the unequal power relations between emerging universities and aid donors. This is an example of what Montinola (2010) calls conditionality, which means the aid influences decisions on policies; my findings showed the negative consequences of conditionality. Mune (senior administrator) indicated that Mokono understood conditionality as a foreign intervention because “these donors have a mission.” He explained that the terms of conditionality were not made clear to the institution.

From the examples I have, I will state the first aid donor’s condition followed by the successful negotiation, then the second aid donor’s condition followed by the slightly successful negotiation, and lastly third aid donor’s condition followed by the unsuccessful negotiation.
First, Mune talked about a European aid donor providing a fund for Mokono to establish its School of Agriculture but on the condition that the school should be the School of Organic Agriculture. Mune explained that about 90% of the local produce was organically grown using traditional farming methods but the quantity of the agricultural produce was low. He continued that Mokono understood the local produce would attract global market demand for organic agricultural food but the institution had to prioritise the local needs for food consumption before considering exporting and ensuring foreign income. Mune also added that “this is a university; it cannot abandon any type of knowledge.” Mokono preferred Tanzanians to learn all forms of agricultural knowledge because the university perceived that students could decide themselves on what type of agricultural methods they would need “instead of being limited to one [organic agricultural] knowledge.” Therefore, Mune said Mokono did not agree to the condition that the school should be focussing on organic farming only.

However, Mune deemed that Mokono was successful in negotiating the removal of the condition because it had leverage in the negotiations. He explained that Mokono knew that the aid donor would agree to remove the condition because the aid donor had a strong interest in establishing a relationship with the university, not because the aid donor respected Mokono’s needs. He said, “[This aid donor] came here to tell us to do organic agriculture and we will do it but (their) mission was not to tell us don’t do conventional agriculture.” So, Mokono negotiated that it would still teach organic agriculture but the institution would also teach other agricultural knowledge because Tanzania needed conventional agricultural knowledge to address its low productivity and ensure production was insufficient to sustain local
Second, Hamidi spoke about a Middle Eastern government sponsoring the scholarship for Mokono’s academic staff for master’s and PhD qualifications. He said:

This [scholarship] is specifically for training academic staff… The problem we have is it is for specific field [and] the Middle Eastern government also insist on science, technology… To some extent, they have agreed with [sponsoring a small number for] the tourism and education.

He noted that the aid donor’s “strict condition” of only providing specific scholarships had controlled the pursuance of other subjects and so, the institution had more staff in sciences compared to social sciences. He said that this resulted in academic staff in social sciences being discontented with the institution’s extent of support for them, yet the institution could do little due to change this. However, Hamidi added that Mokono was slightly successful in loosening the “strict condition” because some scholarships were set up for tourism and education studies, which would enable Mokono to teach these courses. He also indicated the aid donor reluctantly agreed to allocate these scholarships and felt that the donor would be unlikely to continue supporting this area of study.

The World Bank also provided a grant if Mokono would establish a Childhood Education course, but on the condition that it adopted a suggested curriculum that Tanzanian culture could not relate to. Duma (academic staff) said that international consultants from the World Bank insisted Mokono incorporate topics such as entrepreneurship, gender issues and child

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4 Two years after my data collection, I was informed that the donor left because Mokono did not agree to the terms of the aid.
protection. He acknowledged that these curricula could have benefits for students, but added that “it was a very big challenge” to incorporate into the local context. One example he gave was, “I think some day we might be forced to teach homosexuality [about freedom of choice on sexual orientation]… but we are not ready.” He was concerned that the topic would contradict domestic culture, which was largely homophobic. Siti (academic staff) explained that the challenge was Mokono “had to reflect on the nature and principle of our society” and “had to involve local people…to see how [they] accept these ideas.” She noted that the university would discuss with the representatives of domestic students and their parents to ensure their acceptance of new education content.

Duma said that the World Bank would not consider negotiation if the institution did not want to adopt the suggested curriculum, implying Mokono lacked leverage against a big organisation. Duma said, “at Mokono we rarely say no to the funds,” and “if [Mokono] said no, [we] will miss some funds.” He explained that because Mokono needed monetary support, it would be prepared to comply even when the condition might contradict with domestic culture. Duma’s story was suggesting that the World Bank only wanted compliance because the organisation wanted to influence Tanzania’s education.

4.4 The students

Domestic, international and regional students were another financial resource that shaped how Mokono operated. The institution received tuition fees for mainstream degree courses but also changed what it offered to attract more revenue. It developed niche courses to become competitive to attract additional students and used revenue to sustain operation costs. Some
domestic students, particularly working adults, created demand for short-termed vocational courses taught in the evening, whilst some high school graduates had asked for courses to improve their science and maths qualification to further their education. Also, Mokono saw an opportunity to attract international students wishing to study Kiswahili and to launch a Master’s in Business Administration (MBA) to meet regional demands. In other words, students pressured Mokono to engage in a competitive market with regard to recruiting students and earning money.

Students had enough purchasing power to influence courses that were seen as a commodity that sustained operation costs (The 2015 Newsletter of Mokono). The participants identified domestic, international and regional students in this respect. Nevertheless, domestic students were still Mokono’s main concern when providing mainstream courses for diploma and bachelor’s degrees that mainly met the national agenda for skilled labour, such as teachers and doctors (The 2015 Newsletter of Mokono).

Those domestic students who did not have academic qualifications wanted short-term vocational courses that could benefit them in the workplace, and Mokono established the School of Professional Learning to meet these demands. Mzuzi (senior administrator) acknowledged that the school was financially cost-efficient because it maximised “the instrument… to give profit to the university” because “we are charging [the students and] to bring the profit to the university.” It provided short courses designed to fill the ‘gap’ in knowledge and skills that potential students did not have. For example, the school intentionally promoted “short courses in a [basic] computer” skills such as Microsoft Word to existing students. Additionally, the School of Professional Learning mainly provided courses that were
not offered in other academic departments and targeted anyone without academic qualifications, such as working adults and post-Form-4 secondary school students. Mzuzi indicated that the school was financially cost-efficient because it maximized Mokono’s teaching and classroom capacity to generate revenue. The school also offered extra allowances to academic staff who would teach after their normal working hours, and utilised empty classrooms in the evening.

The School of Professional Learning was also an opportunity for Mokono to address the national agenda for increasing adult literacy and to strengthen science and mathematics in secondary school education. The National Policy objective is to achieve 95% adult literacy by 2021. In addition, the school had the potential to use its teaching capacity and facilities to offer vocational courses that were responsive to labour market demands (the 2014 Newsletter of Mokono). At the same time, according to Mzuzi, the school had a department of secondary education “for the young students, just after they finished Form 4 because these high school graduates did not have sufficient academic result to continue higher education.” This strategy should increase potential university enrolments.

Participants Mune, Zahra and Tia saw an opportunity to promote Kiswahili and attract international students wishing to learn the language. Mokono had received interest from international institutions and students of the United States, Europe and China. Zahra said that this made Kiswahili “a commodity” for Mokono. She added that Mokono does “try to make advertisement of our Kiswahili [course] through our websites” and it corresponded with potential international students through emails to meet “the needs [of] our customers.” Another participant, Rukiya, acknowledged that the establishment of a private language centre teaching
Kiswahili in the main city indicated that tourists were also potential students for the language. In other words, Mokono was viewing students as an opportunity that it could capitalise on for revenue.

However, academic staff member Kito noted that the promotion of the Kiswahili language course met the national agenda for the promotion of the language internationally. Kiswahili is acknowledged as the lingua franca of the East African countries. Kito explained that the language is important to “some students who came here to do diplomatic work” and they learn “Swahili as if they learn English or French.” She perceived that Kiswahili could grow into an important international language and Mokono needed to promote the language as part of its identity. Therefore, Mokono’s promotion of its Kiswahili language course aligned with the government’s aim to promote Kiswahili (Economic Commission for Africa, 2016).

However, when Mokono competed with other institutions for students wishing to study Kiswahili, the agenda to promote the national language to the world seemed secondary. From my field notes, I identified that Rukiya (senior administrator) wanted Mokono to be competitive with other Kiswahili language institutions in Tanzania and the East African region and attract more fee-paying international students. She showed competitive behaviours in two incidents while we were walking together in the town: 1) she wanted Mokono to establish its reputation as a leader of Kiswahili, and 2) she wanted Mokono to increase its flexibility of recruitment criteria and course duration. First, Rukiya saw the need to compete for the leading university of Kiswahili language when she saw that other universities in the region had produced their own Kiswahili dictionaries. She perceived that these universities could outcompete Mokono’s claim to the position as the leading university of the Kiswahili language.
She thought that Mokono needed to publish a Kiswahili dictionary, “given that we have been teaching Kiswahili for so long.” She implied that Mokono should be the leading choice for international students to learn Kiswahili. Second, Rukiya thought that Mokono had to increase its flexibility in recruitment criteria and course duration when she saw a private language centre with the signs, ‘Kiswahili Language Centre’ and ‘Short courses available.’ She was concerned that the private language centre would attract potential international students away from Mokono. She used her mobile phone to take pictures of the shop. She stated that she wanted to discuss the new competitor of Kiswahili language with other senior administrators. She added that Mokono needed to remove its “strict recruitment conditions” so it could compete with this private institution to recruit tourists as prospective students. Rukiya’s competitive behaviour indicated that Mokono was fixated with gaining more international student revenue, rather than encouraging the growth of the language being taught by more institutions.

Another strategy for Mokono attracting additional students was adhering to regional student demands and launching an MBA course. Mzuzi said that Mokono “need[ed] to explore more courses” because they bring in more students. Mokono perceived there was a demand for this MBA because of Tanzania’s collaboration with Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI). Mzuzi thought that this opportunity was one of the impacts of globalisation. He explained that Mokono could attract more “students from different areas [to come here]” because “ESAMI will advertise [the MBA course in different countries such as] 5

5 ESAMI is an intergovernmental collaboration with regional countries namely Kenya, Mozambique, Malawi, Namibia, Tanzania, Uganda, Seychelles, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe (ESAMI, 2018).
in Brazil and so [Mokono] get the opportunity to advertise there [as well].” His view was that potential MBA students would choose to study at the institution instead of others, because Mokono was located in an appealing town. He did not know if the MBA course was relevant to the national agenda or domestic students’ interests.

Students pay tuition fees that signify their purchasing power and influence Mokono’s decisions on courses offered. Mokono wanted its courses to function in favour of attracting fee-paying students from domestic, international and regional markets. While Mokono’s courses for domestic students were mostly relevant to meeting national agendas, such as increasing adult literacy, the institution also offered courses that were relevant to international interests. In the case of international students whose main interest was to learn Kiswahili, Mokono commodified the national language. While the course promoted Kiswahili, Mokono had to compete with other institutions offering similar courses, rather than collaborating with them to promote the national language. Also, this language course disadvantaged Mokono because it needed to use English in order to be a globally recognised university (discussed in section 5.2).

In the case of regional students, Mokono offered the MBA; as such, Mokono’s course offerings were primarily seen as a commodity to generate income. It behaved like a private institution, but this diverted its aim to serve the national agenda. The offered short-termed vocational courses would attract additional students, but this strategy could divert the institution from training the high-skilled labour force that Tanzania needs. Mokono’s strategy links to what has been seen as increasing short-term courses as solutions for revenue in universities of the Global North, but reducing long-term courses, which will be to the detriment of training highly skilled professionals, creative labour and high-quality research (Gumport, 2005; Marek, 2013).
4.5 Summary

This chapter examined the key stakeholders’ influences on the decisions made around Mokono’s strategy and development. The manifold ways the participants spoke about the influence of government, aid donors and students revealed that the institution and teaching had moved to more business-like values and operations (Marginson & Ordorika, 2011). Mokono was obliged to meet the national agendas of the government but it had to serve the conditions of aid donors and demands of students as customers. The government provided limited subventions due to a policy of austerity that forced Mokono to approach two groups of stakeholders: aid donors to provide grants that would build its capacity, and students to provide tuition fees that sustained operation costs.

The main advantage of aid was support for Mokono’s teaching operations. For instance, it established the School of Agriculture, provided the scholarships for its academic staff to obtain postgraduate qualifications, and adopted the Childhood Education course. However, aid donors did not entirely support Mokono’s specific needs and imposed conditions to which the university had to adhere. In some instances, Mokono could negotiate the conditionality of aid but was only partially successful in the case of organic farming in the School of Agriculture. It was also successful in negotiating a few scholarships for science and maths and a tourism course.

Finally, students as a key stakeholder group provided tuition fees for Mokono, and so their purchasing power influenced the emerging university. The advantages were that Mokono could receive tuition fees that could help the institution meet national agendas. For instance, short-
term vocational courses that provide skilled labour, increase adult literacy and strengthen the knowledge of secondary school graduates for further studies. Mokono also teaches international students Kiswahili as a niche language while meeting the national agenda for promoting Kiswahili internationally. Students had demands that motivated Mokono to introduce courses that they wanted, even if the courses had little relevance to the university’s interests.

In the next chapter, I explore how an emerging university identified English proficiency, teaching standards and research excellence as the requirements for becoming a globally recognised university. I also examine the challenges in meeting each of these requirements.
5 The impact of globalisation on teaching and research

5.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to answer the second research question:

How does globalisation affect decision-making about how to organise teaching and research in an emerging university?

The focus of this question was on the external influences on decision-making in the university with respect to the core activities of teaching and research. Following Chapter 4, I have framed this in terms of key stakeholders and the responses the university makes to external demands and pressures. From my data, I identified that many of Mokono’s decisions about teaching and research were made due to its stakeholders’ expectations, but most of the decisions were also challenging to instigate. As mentioned in Chapter 4, Mokono had to compete for funding, therefore, it had to meet the expectations of its stakeholders for international standards of teaching and research. The key stakeholders were the government, aid donors and students. Additionally, Mokono also had to fulfil the expectations of international universities and education partners, even though there was no clear indication that these stakeholders provided funding. These stakeholders expected Mokono to align its teaching and research according to their perception of international standards for teaching and research.

My analysis illustrated that, as a response to the stakeholders’ expectation, Mokono decided to implement English for teaching and research, international teaching standards and to become research intensive. I determined that the first decision was enforcing English as the language of instruction because the choice of language subsequently affected the organisation of teaching and research. Then, I deduced that the second decision was to achieve international...
teaching standards, while the third change was to enhance research intensity because the participants indicated that Mokono presently prioritised teaching over research. Within each decision, my analysis showed that Mokono instigated a few initiatives that were challenging to achieve. These mainly addressed specific stakeholders’ requests, but they were also addressing a range of expectations of Mokono’s teaching and research functions.

Mokono is part of Tanzania that recognises Kiswahili and English as its official language. This may have influenced Mokono’s decision to implement English for teaching and research even though English language competence at the university is relatively low for this aspiring bilingual university. In addition, the participants suggested that English is necessary for international communication and expected by certain aid donors, international universities, students and international education partners. Mokono responded to the expectations with three initiatives that could increase its academic staff’s and students’ English proficiency, but each was a challenge for the institution. For instance, it attempted to establish the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) test centre, but it could not meet the minimum quantity of students and the minimum quality of infrastructure that the British Council expected. With respect to enforcing international teaching standards, again Mokono’s decision was due to the expectations of four stakeholders: the government, the aid donors, the domestic students and the international students. The institution responded with five initiatives, but two of these were big challenges for Mokono. Finally, the decision to intensify its research function was due to the expectations of the government for research that would contribute to national development and a number of the aid donors who gave grants for research collaborations. Mokono implemented five initiatives as a response to the expectations to be a research-intensive university.
In this chapter, I explore English for teaching and research, followed by sections I have titled Teaching Standards and Research Intensive. Within each of these sections, I discuss stakeholder expectations and initiatives that were attempted to meet these. Then, I end the chapter with a summary.

5.2 English for teaching and research

Mokono implemented English as the language of instruction to facilitate its teaching and research. The institution’s decision was largely due to the expectations of its four stakeholders: aid donors, international universities, students, and international education partners. The donors and universities expected proficient English from Mokono’s academic staff and students. The students and international education partners expected English to be the language of instruction and communication in teaching and research.

Mokono had three initiatives to support English as the language of instruction for its teaching and research. The first initiative was establishing an IELTS centre, but Mokono was unable to meet the British Council’s criteria. The second initiative was improving the English language department, but Mokono did not have enough qualified English teachers to achieve this. The third was emphasising English as the language of instruction for the majority of courses, but Mokono faced resistance from academic staff who preferred to teach in Kiswahili while the Cuban academic staff (discussed in section 5.3.2) taught in Spanish. In this chapter, I will first describe the stakeholders’ expectations and initiatives. In the discussion, I examine the idea of English as a language of instruction in universities worldwide.
5.2.1 The stakeholders’ expectations

The aid donors who provided scholarships expected English proficiency for domestic scholarship applicants, who were both academic staff and students. According to Mune (senior administrator), the aid donor required domestic scholarship applicants “to take the IELTS test.” This test is designed by the British Council to measure the English proficiency of international students who want to study in the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada and New Zealand (Hamid, 2016). He said, “[The student] had to take the English test because it is required by the Middle Easter aid donor for scholarship applications.” Mune was indicating that the aid donor wanted to verify the student’s eligibility, which include being able to satisfy them with respect to standards of English proficiency to study abroad.

In addition, international universities also expected Mokono’s academic staff and students to have English proficiency when studying abroad at these institutions. According to Rukiya (senior administrator), “students needed to undertake IELTS because [overseas] universities expected English proficiency” and this would be the same for recruiting any international student. She added that studying abroad in an English-speaking institution was seen as essential for developing the relevant knowledge and skills for this. Mokono had to fulfil this language expectation by upskilling students especially when they would potentially become the academic staff of the future. As such, English proficiency was crucial for Mokono.

Students also expected their courses to be taught in English. Mokono wanted to attract international students and Mzuizi (senior administrator) gave two examples of courses that were taught in English to meet these students’ expectations. The first was the MBA and the second
was an English language course specifically to attract “some students from Libya, who wanted to learn English.” Therefore, Mokono saw an opportunity to generate additional income based on courses in English.

Hamidi (senior administrator) also made the point that Mokono needed to interact with its international partners in English. He said, “we are using the international students to address the local challenges.” He was indicating that they have knowledge and skills that could enhance Mokono’s development. He drew on an example of Mokono’s partnership with an American university that focussed on both teaching and research collaborations through a student exchange programme in medicine. He said:

[The American university] actually bring students here [and] they go for fieldwork. I mean at least to look for local challenges and then, student from America and students from Zanzibar [work] together. They try to develop a solution to that.

The partnership required domestic and exchange students to work together to explore the effectiveness of a technology-based approach to be used in the local health centres and hospitals (anonymous)\(^6\). Hamidi was suggesting that because Mokono hosted exchange students, domestic students needed to interact with them in English because the exchange students had knowledge and skills that would benefit the local community’s health issues.

\(^6\) Source from the collaborative university in America. The name of the website is not revealed to protect the anonymity of the participants.
5.2.2 Initiatives

The expectations for English in teaching and research led to three initiatives designed to enhance English proficiency. However, these were challenging for Mokono because of inadequate resources and language capacity. The first large initiative was, according to Rukiya (senior administrator), to establish an IELTS test centre. However, as already noted, Mokono was unable to meet the British Council’s criteria because “Mokono could not ensure 40 students to undertake the test each year, stable internet connection, sufficient computers and ample examination rooms” (Rukiya). IELTS test centres are available all over the world, including Tanzania and the test fee is about GBP 200 (IELTS, 2018). As mentioned, the IELTS was required by aid donors and, Rukiya said that a local test centre would also meet the needs of “students who complained about the hassle to take the English test [in another city].” This could help reduce the students’ stress and the financial burden of travelling. As such, an IELTS test centre was seen to have two purposes: to enable students to take the test locally and to help students to perform better in the test. The main problem with recruiting enough students was the test fee was too expensive. In addition, the institution did not have the necessary resources, such as a stable internet connection.

Another initiative for implementing English for teaching and research was to improve the offerings from the English language department. However, Mokono did not have enough qualified English language teachers. Hamidi said that Mokono intended to improve its English language department to teach English. He stated that Mokono “would like to have more staff” but the institution lacked the fund to attract teachers.

Mokono also decided to use English as the language of instruction for a majority of its courses
but faced resistance from academic staff who preferred to teach in Kiswahili. Additionally, collaboration with a Cuban international education partner resulted in a medical course being taught in Spanish. I examined Mokono’s 2017/2018 prospectus to identify how Mokono implemented its English language policy. The prospectus stated that English competency was required for student’s enrolment in 10 out of the 15 degree courses. I cross-checked the 10 courses using my interview data to gain more insight and three of these were mentioned. Mzuzi spoke about the MBA, Hamidi discussed the Diploma in Information Technology, and Duma discussed the Diploma of Childhood Education. The problems for each of these courses were the same as already described for the adopted international courses. However, there were differences in the emphasis on students’ English proficiency. The MBA and the Diploma in Information Technology strictly required proficiency in order to recruit international students and for domestic students’ participation in a twinning course at an institution abroad. However, the Diploma of Childhood Education was flexible, and Duma noted that the course did not recruit international students or require domestic students to study abroad. In this case, English as the language of instruction was seen as an enabler should students want international mobility. However, Mokono still wanted to implement English as the language of instruction for teaching and research in all courses. Participants indicated that this initiative was challenging and there was resistance from academic staff who preferred to teach in Kiswahili. Rukiya mentioned that there was tension between the English and Kiswahili languages. She said:

…people with the traditional view, they only want Kiswahili to be applied everywhere. I understand that but you can’t really tell me that you want to promote Kiswahili, so we have to abandon English while anywhere we go, we need English. We are arguing about that every time [in the staff meeting]. Everyone thinks we have to abandon English. No, I don’t think so.

Rukiya dismissed those academics opposing the use of English as “traditionalists.”
perceived that academic staff attempting to teach in the native language was illogical because Kiswahili is only spoken in a few African countries, whereas, “Anywhere we go, we need English.” She maintained that Mokono could still promote Kiswahili but not use it as the main language of instruction. However, Safiri (academic staff) said that there was a challenge teaching in English due to students’ low English proficiency. She stated that “sometimes the lecturers tend to use Kiswahili to teach because of the students.” She indicated that English proficiency of most local students was limited because they mainly speak Kiswahili outside of the university. Therefore, there was tension between the two languages despite Mokono recognising itself as a bilingual university. In addition, the promotion of English as the language of instruction was slightly at odds with Mokono’s aim to be the leading Kiswahili language centre in East Africa (discussed in section 4.4).

In contrast to other courses, the medical programme was taught in Spanish. The 2013 Newsletter of Mokono noted that the medical course was established with the support of the Cuban government. According to a Cuban website\(^7\), the first year of the course began with learning Spanish from native Spanish language teachers, and then, the Cuban academic staff teach the course in Spanish. However, Hamidi said that the medical programme also had a collaboration with an American education partner who “bring students here for fieldwork with Mokono’s students.” He was implying that in addition to learning Spanish, the medical students needed to have strong English. In other words, the medical course students needed to master

\(^7\) Source from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Cuba. The name of the website is not revealed to protect the anonymity of the participants.
three languages: they learnt in Spanish, they communicated in English to collaborate with the American education partner, but they had to translate their knowledge from Spanish and English into Kiswahili when working with the local patients.

5.3 Teaching standards

From the data, I identified that Mokono aspired to international teaching standards in order to be a globally recognised university. Mokono’s decision was in part due to the expectations of its four stakeholders: The government expected a highly skilled workforce for national development; the aid donors expected graduates with internationally recognised degrees; the domestic students expected to learn knowledge and skills that would increase their competitiveness in the job market; and the international students indirectly expected a systematic degree structure. Mokono instigated five initiatives intended to achieve international teaching standards. Three did not present discernible challenges in their implementation. These were to acquire international staff, to implement an internationally compatible degree structure and to offer a twinning course with an international education partner. However, two initiatives had challenges. One was to localise adopted courses, which led to a challenge from aid donors and students; another was to provide professional development courses for academic staff, but this was unsustainable with respect to support from aid donors and the uncertain availability of guest lecturers. In the following subsections, I will discuss first the stakeholders’ expectations then the initiatives.
5.3.1 The stakeholders’ expectations

The first stakeholder with expectations was the government, who expected Mokono to produce a highly skilled workforce that considered the needs of national development (as mentioned in Chapter 4). More specifically, according to the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono, the government expected Mokono to meet the demands for the massive skilled workforce for the public and private sector to drive the national economy forward. According to the 2015 Newsletter of Mokono, there were two examples of the expectations for a highly skilled workforce: first, the government expected Mokono to solve the critical problem of scarce medical doctors in the country, and so reduce the long-term reliance on foreign doctors. Second, the government expected Mokono to produce local graduates for the flourishing tourism and business administrative sectors. Although this expectation had likely come from the private sector, it was the government that pushed Mokono to respond due to the importance of the private sector’s contribution to job opportunities and the economy (anonymised education development plan, 2017)⁸.

The second stakeholder, aid donors, expected Mokono to produce graduates with internationally recognised qualifications. Hamidi (senior administrator) said,

> We have a partnership with a telecommunication company… [the company said to us that], if [Mokono] is really going to have a connected [technology course] with [an international] institute then [it] is ready to contribute. It is

⁸ Source from the regional education development plan. The name of the plan is not revealed to protect the anonymity of the participants.
hoping that those graduates will be very competitive and will be very useful to [work for the company].

He was indicating that Mokono had secured an aid donor from the private sector. The aid donor provided scholarships for students to pursue a technology degree. However, he said that the donor gave aid with conditionality: it expected the sponsored students to have internationally recognised knowledge and skills to work in its company. Therefore, donor’s expectation ensured Mokono’s compliance in having international recognition of its courses in order to access the scholarships.

Domestic students, a third stakeholder, also expected Mokono to teach knowledge and skills that would increase their competitiveness in the job market. Hamidi noted that their expectations were due to the “very competitive fight with others” in the job market. He explained that Mokono’s students were disadvantaged because they would be graduating “from [a] very young university, which is not very strong, [but they still] need to compete with others.” He was highlighting the problem of Mokono’s status as an emerging university in the Global South that had little international recognition for its courses. As such, he said that domestic students would expect Mokono “to strengthen” their knowledge and skills in order “to make sure that they could compete” with graduates from internationally recognised institutions.

International student stakeholders also expected an internationally compatible degree structure. The expectation was indirect because the views of international students were conveyed by an international organisation that represented the students. Mune stated that the representative, the American Council for International Education (ACIE), wanted Mokono to have a compatible degree structure for its Kiswahili for Foreigners course. He perceived that international students
were reluctant to study in Mokono due to an internationally incompatible degree structure. In addition, he highlighted that the international students expected Mokono to have systematic teaching and to teach at the correct level, but Mokono “lacked the skills in coordinating the teaching [into] beginner, intermediate and advanced levels.” He said that the academic staff had been teaching “without a prescribed lesson plan,” even though “some academic staff had 30 years of experience teaching the Kiswahili language.”

5.3.2 Initiatives

In response to the expectations of its stakeholders, Mokono implemented five initiatives to achieve international teaching standards. Three of the initiatives did not present discernible challenges in their implementation. These were to acquire international staff through national diplomatic relationships, to reform degree structures, and to offer twining courses through a partnership with international universities. However, two had challenges. These were the move to localise adopted courses and the move to provide professional development to improve the teaching quality of academic staff.

To achieve teaching standards Mokono tried to acquire international staff, mainly through national diplomatic relationships. Mzuzi noted that “Mokono made relationships with other universities” to have international academic staff. An example was that the Chinese government supported Mokono with two Chinese teachers to teach Chinese language classes. This class was likely of interest to the government due to the expanding Chinese economy, especially in Tanzania. Another example came from Badru (academic staff), who mentioned that the Cuban government supported Mokono with Cuban medical lecturers. Badru did not
give the reason why Cuba supported Tanzania, however, Asante et al. (2012) note that Cuba has been known to provide a cheaper source of doctors for countries in the Global South and helping to train local doctors. Mzuzi pointed out that the recruitment of international academic staff enabled Mokono to offer courses that were formerly not available in the institution. In addition, Hamidi gave the example of an international lecturer who extended international collegiality. The professor offered to teach the new Tourism course for a year, and she was willing to be paid with a local salary that was much lower than an international standard of salary. He said that her offer was a significant contribution to the development of the tourism course because Mokono could not afford to hire international academic staff and pay an international salary.

In order to achieve international teaching standards, Mokono needed an internationally compatible degree structure. Mune highlighted that a reformed degree structure was a response to international students’ expectation for a clear learning structure. He said that Mokono’s degree structure was introduced by the American Council for International Education (ACIE). He explained that “the degree structure has been proven to be working fine because the ACIE have tested it in many countries.” He stated that the reformed degree structure eased student exchange because the structure identified different levels in the relevant curriculum. In addition, he said that the new structure “was a positive sign” for Mokono’s overall teaching standards that “lacked some of the teaching skills.” Kito (academic staff) supported Mune’s statement because she claimed that the reformed structure had improved her teaching efficiency in terms of arranging the curriculum according to the correct levels and devising clear lesson objectives.
Another way of gaining international teaching standards was, according to Hamidi, to offer a twinning course with an international education partner. This initiative was mainly driven by an expectation of an aid donor from the private sector, but it also benefitted students who studied in internationally recognised institutions. He noted that the aid donor was not confident with Mokono’s course quality, which might have been due to the university’s lack of experience in information technology. As such, he said that Mokono established the twinning course to show the private company that the institution “was moving to the international level.” He elaborated that the aid donor was only convinced to provide the scholarship upon learning that Mokono’s twinning course partner was an institution well-known for its collaborations with the private sector.

An initiative to localise the content of courses was also seen to be part of achieving international teaching standards. Localising adopted courses from international courses was predicted to improve teaching. However, the process was difficult due to the pressure from aid donors and domestic students preferring the original course with its international focus in the curriculum. For example, Duma stated that the World Bank introduced an Early Childhood course and expected Mokono to implement this in order to access its grants. Duma agreed the course was relevant to domestic students who expected their courses to be internationally relevant. Duma stated that the initiative allowed Mokono to “learn from what others have done.” He said, “We can also start the Early Childhood course but… we have to make sure that we are not copying each and everything.” He explained that the institution “tried to localise the educational material that Mokono were importing.” Duma said that to enforce the process of localising,

academic staff had to interview parents, teachers, education managers… and so the general view that we get from these groups help us to determine what kind of [course] should we go about. Should we adopt the one that we got
from America or should we modify to cater our society.
Duma considered the “cultures and ethics of the local society” in modifying the educational material so that it would be relevant to local society. Duma said that aid donors expected Mokono to adopt most of the international course materials or topics (e.g., gender issues). While, he agreed that the courses were important internationally, some if the content had little relevance to the Tanzanian context. In addition, according to Siti (academic staff) another challenge was domestic students expected Mokono to keep up with the rapid development of curriculum in the adopted courses. Both participants perceived that the expectations pressured Mokono to spend less time on localising. Consequently, Duma said that Mokono instilled “a culture of dependency,” which was a representation of the institution “inheriting” a foreign identity. He added that a further consequence of not localising adopted courses was fostering low confidence and capability in Mokono to develop its own courses, rather than improving teaching and learning.

Professional development to improve the teaching quality of academic staff was a challenge. Mokono supported its academic staff with professional development opportunities in two ways: 1) long-term courses and 2) short-term in-house workshops. Hawa (senior administrator) said that Mokono offered long-term courses to “sponsor academic staff to undergo academic training in PhD, master’s and bachelor’s degrees.” Mune said that the objective was to train the academic staff in “quality and high-class universities” either in the Global North (e.g., Australia, the United Kingdom) or the Global South (e.g., Malaysia, India, Uganda, Kenya). He said that as a result, they would have “well-grounded” knowledge and skills to “build Mokono into a university.” He explained that his meaning of well-grounded was high quality knowledge and skills that would enhance academic staff teaching quality.
Mokono also held short-term in-house workshops to conduct professional development training for academic staff. The participants noted that there were three ways to provide these. The first was to invite international academic staff as guest lectures, mainly from neighbouring countries “to have a short visit because they had a high-quality of academic knowledge” (Tia, senior administrator). The second was “to develop an in-house workshop where academic staff who had been trained abroad share their learning experiences with their colleagues” (Kito, academic staff). The third way was “to develop an in-house workshop based on student feedback” (Kito). She explained that the workshop applied student feedback “to look for changes concerning how we are going boost academic staff [teaching performance],” and insisted that the workshop did not apply student feedback “as a kind of punishment or give an uncomfortable [i.e., embarrassing] situation to the academic staff.”

Therefore, where possible, Mokono provided professional development that involved international exposure such as long-term courses and the invitation of guest lectures for short-term in-house workshops. Where not possible, Mokono’s academic staff relied on other resources that could enhance their professional training development. However, there was a challenge with sustaining long-term courses, and an uncertain availability of international academic staff to be guest lecturers. Tia said that she had to “make appointments with international academics” indicating the effort to continuously reach out to academics who would be willing to travel to Mokono. For the long-term courses, Hamidi noted that Mokono relied on aid donors who provided the scholarships. However, sometimes scholarships were insufficient, and funders did not want to support the social sciences (discussed in section 4.3). Mune also pointed out that sometimes the scholarship was at risk of being cut off when the aid donor had financial difficulties. For instance, he said that a Middle East donor faced an
economic crisis during the oil industry downturn and wanted to stop their grants to Mokono.

5.4 Research intensive

Mokono has aspirations to be a research-intensive university. The decision was in part due to the expectations of the government and aid donors. The government, as per its local education policy, indicated that research was necessary for national development, and a few of the aid donors provided grants that required Mokono to participate in research. To respond to the stakeholders’ expectations, Mokono instigated five initiatives, but at the same time, each initiative had its challenges: first, Mokono established the Graduate Research School, but could not recruit more staff to oversee it; second, Mokono published its own research journal, but the majority of academic staff were inexperienced in writing research articles; third, Mokono stipulated that all academic staff needed PhD qualifications, but some academic staff refused to undertake a PhD; fourth, Mokono stipulated that all academic staff needed to produce two research publications, but it lacked financial resources to access fee-based journals for research; and fifth, Mokono encouraged academic staff to participate in research collaborations, but they had high teaching hours and no time for research. In the following subsections, I begin by stating the stakeholders’ expectations. I then continue with Mokono’s initiatives, followed by the discussion.

5.4.1 The stakeholders’ expectations

Mokono’s decision to be a research-intensive university was driven by its obligations to
fulfil the expectations of the government and aid donors. My study showed that the
government-led local education policy required Mokono to undertake research to contribute to
national development. According to the Constitution of University of Mokono, the government
stipulated that research was necessary to preserve, enhance and disseminate knowledge in
various fields. My analysis indicated that the government did not expect Mokono to develop
research in any specific discipline, such as technology or agriculture, but did expect Mokono
to apply research to solve local community problems. This expectation could be interpreted as
a general requirement. Mokono did respond to this by stating that it would collaborate with
various international universities aimed at addressing specific challenges faced by the
immediate community (The University of Mokono’s Research Partnerships 2017). For
example, the institution conducted research to address the quality of teachers in science and
maths subjects in secondary schools and to improve the quality of teaching in rural schools.
Unfortunately, as Mzuzi noted, grants were mostly from aid donors, indicating that the
government did not adequately support the institution for research. In other words, although
the government expected Mokono to undertake research, it did not fund this properly. Some of
the aid donors expected Mokono to participate in research in order to gain grants. Mzuzi said
that grants were for academic staff to participate in projects domestically or internationally. He
gave an instance of Swedish aid donors who dictated the research direction. He said that “some
academic staff have to develop a research project guided by the Sweden people and aim at
solving Tanzanian issues such as education.” He gave another instance of the aid donor from
Malaysia who expected Mokono’s academic staff to collaborate on a research project in
Malaysia. He said:

There is a research collaboration with the School of Oceanography and
Environment in Malaysia financed by the Education Ministry of Malaysia.
The academic involved have to spend time [conducting research] in Malaysia.
and [involved in other academic work such as] helping the master’s and PhD students there on how to shape their thesis.

He noted that both collaborations included research training that would benefit the academic staff research skills. It appears that aid donors’ research grant provisions would enable Mokono to increase its research productivity and were designed to further develop its capacity to undertake such research.

5.4.2 Initiatives

Mokono implemented five initiatives to support the development of research and meet the expectations of its stakeholders. However, each initiative was also a challenge for the institution to instigate. The first was to establish a Graduate Research School that had responsibility for master’s and PhD students. According to the Graduate Research School’s website, it managed the master’s and doctoral students in courses such as Kiswahili, education, chemistry, environmental science and natural resource management. Tia (senior administrator) said, “the school was established three years back. We have students already graduated from the centre.” Tia added that students in the school could increase local research productivity, which could solve local issues, and so, address the expectations of the government. In addition, she claimed that the school was able to “recruit international students from China and Japan for PhD study in Kiswahili.” Mokono’s Graduate Research School was seen to have some international quality because of these students.

The challenge to establishing the Graduate Research School was understaffing. Tia said, “We don’t have additional staff… [we have] around 100 postgraduate students but only one person
She explained that the understaffing undermined the School. Tia added that the Graduate Research School was expanding its courses and “expecting [to add] three more programmes,” but the School was still not about to receive additional staff. She said the academic attended to administrative tasks instead of organising learning opportunities “such as inviting international expertise to deliver training workshops.” Therefore, Mokono’s Graduate Research School might not be sustainable in the long term without extra support.

Mokono wanted its own academic journal of international quality. According to Tia, the institution’s first journal, the Mokono Journal of Natural and Social Sciences, was “a very good journal” because it followed “the same [publishing] procedures” of international academic journals. She specified that it was peer-reviewed with an international editorial board. Procedures and the Board were seen as indicators of Mokono’s ability to achieve international quality. The journal was also Mokono’s first research repository. Therefore, despite being a young institution without a lot of research experience, publishing its own academic journal increased the institution’s research profile. However, Safiri (academic staff) pointed out that most of the academic staff at Mokono were inexperienced in conducting research. She dismissed the possibility of contributing journal articles herself because she “had no [research] experience, just the experience from doing master’s [research project] and that’s it.” The 2015 Newsletter of Mokono noted that only 13 percent of academic staff have PhD and the University of Mokono’s Research Partnerships 2017 pointed out that many academic staff have just started to further their postgraduate courses. Therefore, Mokono’s academic journal would have few contributions from its own academic staff to either produce articles or conduct peer-review.
Mokono had stipulated that a PhD was now compulsory for academic staff. Zahra (academic staff) said that academic staff needed a PhD to be recognised as a lecturer, while those without a PhD would only be recognised as an assistant lecturer. She saw the need to undertake a PhD because she could develop her academic research skills and produce research publications. She perceived that pursuit of a postgraduate degree can be interpreted as a “reward” that encouraged academic staff like her to do this, not only for career advancement, but to gain research skills from another institution. Moreover, she said that there would little cost to the individual as “Mokono would sponsor academic staff” for the PhD. Indeed, Hawa (senior administrator) explained that the academic staff scholarship was largely from aid donors such as the World Bank and Swedish and Norwegian aid donors. Mokono encouraged academic staff to obtain a PhD primarily for career progression, but recognised that it also provided a scholarship opportunity.

However, Rukiya (senior administrator) said that some academic staff had refused to undertake a PhD. She talked of a colleague who was not interested due to the need to live abroad, leaving his family, and lack of interest. Yet, she said, “Somehow, he needs a PhD because students are advancing, doing master’s and PhDs. How could a bachelor’s degree teach these students?” She was suggesting that he would face difficulties with status and teaching efficiently if he did not improve his knowledge and skills. Additionally, Rukiya said that the colleague could possibly lose his job if a new academic staff had higher qualifications. In other words, Mokono’s initiative for a compulsory PhD for academics would also need to consider academic staff personnel challenges.

When Zahra was interviewed, she mentioned that academic staff have to produce two
publications in order to be recognised as a lecturer. She stated that, “after doing your research [PhD], you have to publish. You need [to publish] two papers in order to get a grade from assistant lecturer to lecturer.” However, apart from a lack of research skills, there were other challenges in doing research for publication. Primarily there was a lack of financial resources and little access to fee-based journal articles. Kito (academic staff), who conducted research for her PhD, reported that “sometimes it is difficult [to conduct research] because journals are limited from the library.” She had to “ask colleagues learning at abroad,” who had access to the fee-based articles, to send her the article she wanted. Fussy (2019) found that one of the hurdles of fostering research in Tanzania was the lack of a professional reading and writing culture. This author suggested that to address this major hurdle would require community, industry and government intervention.

One initiative to address some of these problems was to encourage participation in research collaborations. Safiri said that her research collaborations came through the training that Mokono’s education partners gave in order to enhance academic staff research performance. The University of Mokono’s Research Partnerships 2017 stated that the underlying goal to encourage academic staff to participate in research collaborations was to build Mokono’s research culture, recognising that it still had limited research experience.

However, the main challenge for this initiative was the long teaching hours of academic staff. Badru (academic staff) noted that he had the “problem of teaching loads” and so would not have the time to participate in research collaborations. He said that even though academic staff were expected to engage in research collaborations, Mokono did not clearly allocate working hours for this. In addition, Badru perceived that research “is not like a very big priority” because
Mokono was more like “a teaching university.” Safiri’s view as an academic seemed to correspond with Badru’s. Safiri stated, “I would like to conduct research but then if you have too much to do then you get exhausted to even think about the research.” Her time was fully occupied with lesson planning and long teaching hours. She said she felt exhausted from her teaching responsibilities and that she was uninterested in doing research.

5.5 Summary

This chapter explored Mokono’s adoption of international standards as a new institutional arrangement for teaching and research activities that had reasonable and unreasonable outcomes on Mokono’s freedom to manage and organise its activities. The adopted international standards involved conforming to English for teaching and research, improving teaching and intensifying research. English was implemented as the preferred language for teaching and research mainly because of the expectation of stakeholders. Aid donors and international universities expected academic staff and students to be fluent in English, while students and international education partners expected English in teaching and research. The implementation of English had advantages and disadvantages for Mokono. The two key advantages were increasing Mokono’s access to funding and knowledge. For instance, in terms of funding, Mokono could increase domestic students’ English proficiency, and so access aid donors’ scholarships; and Mokono could offer courses taught in English to generate additional income. Increasing domestic students’ English proficiency would also help them gain entrance to international universities and Mokono could enable knowledge transfer from international education partners. Nevertheless, Mokono had three challenges in implementing English. These were the cost of undertaking the IELTS test, the lack of English language teachers, and
the tensions between domestic and other international languages.

Next, Mokono’s initiatives for improving teaching standards included refining its degree structure, courses and quality of academic staff. These are goals for any institution of higher education but in terms of globalisation and external drivers, Mokono responded to aid donors for graduates with quality degrees, domestic students for internationally competitive knowledge, and international students for an internationally recognised degree. In doing so, Mokono accessed funding and knowledge. The challenges included the impact of Western degree structures and courses on local identity and the dependency on international teaching resources. For instance, it adopted the American degree structure because the institution could attract students, and the Childhood Education Course because the institution would receive grants from the World Bank.

Finally, Mokono wanted to become a research-intensive university despite the difficulties of enhancing research and teaching capacity simultaneously and meeting the expectation of the government for national development and aid donors for research. One of Mokono’s initiatives was to establish the Graduate Research School and train its own postgraduates. This resulted in research collaborations with international education partners and creation of Mokono’s own knowledge repository through its academic journal. It also provided PhD training for its academic staff, but faced challenges because of the lack of academic staff with research ability, the lack of interest in acquiring a PhD qualification, poor access to fee-based journals, and high teaching loads (Lyons, 2015).

The next chapter presents participants’ experiences with the role of digital technologies in
globalisation. It is the third and final chapter with regard to the research findings. The aim of this next chapter is to explore what are the intended and unintended impacts of technologies in the context of an emerging university in the Global South.
6 The influence of digital globalisation

6.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to answer the third research question:

What are the intended and unintended impacts of digital technologies with regard to globalisation?

Digital technologies enable and sustain the phenomenon of globalisation in higher education in many ways. Among them, digital technologies (e.g., mobile and ubiquitous technologies) enable interconnectivity and the creation of a global network concerned with the free movement of goods and services. These technologies also facilitate global access to research networks, efficient sharing of OERs, free universal opportunities to access higher quality education in the form of MOOCs and, to some extent, the development and sustenance of socio-linguistic digital heritage. This chapter will particularly examine how digital technologies such as MOOCs and OERs enabled the University of Mokono to claim its global position. At the same time, the institution faced many challenges relating to how it could sustain its status.

Despite what seems to be the appealing benefits of globalisation throughout the world, many challenges remain unresolved for the Global South. Some of these challenges are the result of the unintended, residual effects of digital technologies in the higher education sector. For instance, in many higher education systems in the Global South, issues such as lack of access to the internet, poor network connectivity, linguistic and cultural barriers as they relate to digital content, and the lack of general technological infrastructure have all contributed to a globalised digital divide. This globalised digital divide is marked by massive inequality of the
benefits afforded by globalisation. The apparent inequity experienced in many countries in the Global South is the result of the globalisation movement perpetuated by digital technologies in higher education that presents more problems than opportunities in the sector.

In this chapter, I first expand on the literature on globalisation and digital technologies in higher education, building on the digital technologies section in Chapter 2. I will discuss the role of specific digital technologies in higher education that relate to this study, namely social media, OERs and MOOCs. I then will discuss the challenges of digital technologies known as the digital divide, and the opportunities of digital technologies, known as the digital dividend and digital heritage. Next, I discuss the analysis of the data obtained from the study. I end the chapter with a summary.

6.2 Globalisation and digital technologies in higher education

6.2.1 Social media technologies, OERs and MOOCs

While the international movement of academics, researchers, students and knowledge between universities has a long history, digital technologies have sped up the ease of information and data transfer (Bedenlier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015). Notable among these technologies in education is the growth of social media technologies (SMTs), OERs and MOOCs. SMTs encompass a wide variety of web-based applications, such as blogs, wikis, online social networking, and virtual worlds. Each has a unique character while sharing the same purposes of communication, collaboration, community, creativity, and convergence (Friedman & Friedman, 2013). Although most of these applications started as amateur-driven community platforms, they have become sizeable global data corporations (e.g., Google, Facebook and
YouTube), and serve as an active knowledge hub facilitating the free flow of ideas on a global scale. More specifically, applications such as Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, and LinkedIn have transformed the way people communicate and relate to each other, play, access job opportunities and advance their careers (Greenhow & Gleason, 2012; Lightning Guides, 2015).

In education, social media applications and platforms have evolved to support various activities including peer-learning and the sharing of learning resources (Ajjan & Hartshorne, 2008; Bosch, 2009). For instance, Facebook facilitates a sense of community in language classrooms (Blattner & Lomicka, 2012; Lee & Markey, 2014; Pellerin, 2014) and can play a critical role in the development and maintenance of a language (Cunliffe, Morris, & Prys, 2013).

On a grander scale, mobile and ubiquitous technologies have enabled the sharing of OERs to create free universal access to higher education. For example, Harvard, Stanford and MIT have initiated OERs to respond to the issue of higher education outreach to broader society (van Dijck & Poell, 2015). MOOCs, as a key example of an OER, have been significant drivers of global learning and innovation in education (Bosch, 2009; Morris, 2014). MOOCs facilitate knowledge distribution among a global network of learners and deliver quality teaching from prestigious universities to large numbers of students (Christensen & Raynor, 2013). Similar to other OERs, MOOCs offer students, particularly those from in the Global South, unprecedented access to high-quality higher education. They do not impose requirements on learners’ competencies, and each course is free (or with minimal charges for those interested in acquiring a certificate of completion). MOOCs propagate accessibility to advanced knowledge beyond political, physical, socio-culture and demographic barriers and, in doing so, support new ways of learning (Laurillard, 2014). In the context of Sub-Saharan Africa, OERs, particularly MOOCs, have the potential to reduce costs, improve the quality of information and increase
access to education (Wright & Reju, 2012). For example, because they are free, in some parts of sub-Saharan Africa MOOCs are used as resources for continuing education and offered to postgraduate students, teachers and educators to improve teaching skills and the curriculum.

### 6.2.2 Digital divide, digital dividend, digital heritage

Despite the many benefits of digitally-driven globalisation such as digital heritage and digital dividend, it has also created unfavourable conditions known as the digital divide for universities that lack a comparatively strong political or economic voice, especially in the Global South. In this context, globalisation puts unsustainable pressure on institutions of higher education that wish to stay relevant to a nation-state agenda while facing demands to act differently, or that feel compelled to compete more widely on the global stage. Globalisation also threatens to homogenise social structures through the imposition of language and culture as western moral codes seem to dominate in most global transactions (Mittelman, 2000). For instance, the high English content on the internet prohibits access to knowledge and forces non-English speakers to learn English and potentially neglect their mother tongue (Firmansyah & Timmis, 2016).

The digital divide is one particular issue for globalisation. It refers to the provision of sustainable infrastructure in places where there is no universal and affordable internet access. Manyika et al. (2016) stated that at the end of 2015, 57% of the world’s population (estimated at 4 billion) was offline, and only 15 per cent had access to broadband, which allows high internet data transmission such as video calls without disruption. There is currently a widening digital divide (UNESCO, 2016b) with many countries, including those in East Africa, trailing
behind what is typically regarded in the West as modern technological infrastructure, and as a result, many of the advantages of digital globalisation are yet to be fully realised (Harle, 2010). Also, countries struggling for economic development tend to have little disposable income to spend on digital technologies (Harle, 2013; Zlotnikova & van der Weide, 2011) and data scarcity has resulted in some institutions charging students for the usage of the internet on campus computers (Moodie, 2010). There may also be a lack of the necessary digital literacy and skills, and without these, academics and students cannot fully leverage available information nor contribute significantly to digital content. As digital technologies turn into the new medium for interacting with students, pedagogical changes are also required (Jordan, 2014). For universities on the wrong side of the digital divide, academics may have little knowledge of using digital technologies or understand the appropriate methods for teaching with them.

Currently, global digital heritage is dominated by the English language while local digital heritage refers to the development of content to preserve a society’s ideas, values and knowledge for future generations (Kurin, 2004; Rahaman & Tan, 2010; UNESCO, 2016a). However, the dominance of the Western elite universities overshadows the potential for curating and preserving other cultures, languages and institutional practices (Marginson, 2010). Culture becomes endangered when an emphasis is placed on acquiring and utilising an international language (mainly English) at the expense of regional and local languages. A language reflects the culture and traditions of a people and so represents ways of thinking, knowing, values and identity. A loss becomes a critical issue.

On the other hand, it can be argued that in the higher education sector, OERs can contain
subject digital content that is equivalent to a digital heritage. As such, and for a true global benefit, all countries in the Global South need to participate in reclaiming and reshaping this content through digital repositories. This has been conducted in the context of digital libraries, which requires selecting culturally relevant writing materials, dealing with intellectual property issues, and collecting various historical and contemporary documents (Ekwelem, Okafor, & Ukwoma, 2011; M'kadem & Nieuwenhuysen, 2010). With a digital database, universities can claim ownership of their educational practices and strengthen their cultural identity (Wanjema, 2012). Only a small number of universities in the Global South, in particular, Africa, are connected to the broadband internet or have suitable computing infrastructures to do this job (Trifonas, 2017).

To achieve equity and a digital dividend (Daniel & West, 2006), universities in the Global South need to collaborate with and receive support from governments, international networks, and the private sector. At present, private technology corporations (e.g., Microsoft, Google) provide financial resources for top universities (e.g., Stanford, MIT, Harvard) to develop MOOCs (van Dijck & Poell, 2015), but this is not available in the same way to universities in the Global South, particularly Africa. Wright and Reju (2012) have argued that successful development, distribution and use of OERs in sub-Saharan Africa would require government and education leaders to tackle some key challenges. Mentioned already are improving technology infrastructure, reducing the cost of internet access and providing professional development opportunities for institutional leaders, teachers and students.
6.3 Results

Before the advent of digital technologies, Mokono did not see the necessity of responding to globalisation. Hamidi (senior administrator) recounted that the past administration:

had managed [the university] within the local boundary and was not so active to see what links can be forged or aware of what development or changes are taking place in [global] universities.

Hamidi saw the benefits brought about by technology and said, “now we have to open the boundary” as the university had no choice in embracing change. Both the senior administration group and academic staff saw digital technologies, in particular the OERs, as central to the process of globalisation, although each had different perspectives. The senior administrators were particularly concerned about the university’s global branding, primarily through the export of online education; whilst the academic staff were more concerned with downloading teaching material from online sources and developing their professional skills. The data showed three important areas of practice relating to technology. These were:

1) The MOOC for global branding and digital heritage

2) OERs for knowledge networks

3) Digital dividend and digital divide

6.3.1 The Kiswahili MOOC (KMOOC) for global branding and digital heritage

The senior administrators saw that MOOCs were opportunities for global branding and digital heritage. Global branding is a strategy to promote an institution with a specific identity in the higher education market. For instance, the Open University in the UK has branded itself as a pioneer of distance learning that provides quality and flexible degrees in the market of online
higher education. As such, Mokono’s administrators started to build the Kiswahili MOOC (KMOOC) dedicated to the teaching of the Kiswahili language as great importance to the university.

The KMOOC will be a free course with a beginner’s level of Kiswahili language lessons. It will involve the academic staff of Kiswahili language producing digital teaching content such as video-recordings of Kiswahili pronunciations and conversations. The educational content will be freely available to any students with internet access globally. However, Mune (senior administrator) said, “We would only be offering a beginner course, at least to attract people and learn the language”. His statement indicated that Mokono administrators will offer the free online course to attract a large number of students, and allow any students across the world to register, and so Mokono will likely increase its international visibility. The KMOOC was instigated as a collaborative project with another international university due to Mokono’s limited human and technology capacity. The KMOOC’s uniqueness in offering a foreign language could create a niche market and competitive global advantage for Mokono. Kito (academic staff) said, “We want to globalise Kiswahili because our vision is to be a centre of excellence for teaching Kiswahili.”

However, at the same time, the goal for global branding caused Mokono to compete with other regional institutions, which were working on establishing their own Kiswahili language MOOCs. The institution wanted to ensure it had the ownership of the branding of this language and as part of a strategy to increase global visibility, it actively sought to attract international students to study language at the university (see Yuan & Powell, 2013). However, it feared that better technologically equipped institutions would overshadow these global intentions. Mune
(senior administrator) said:

We need to be a pioneer [of the KMOOC]. Mokono must emphasise Tanzania is the place of birth of Kiswahili. We can offer an introductory course on MOOC, at least to attract people in the beginning and learn the language.

Mune explained that the aim was to use the KMOOC for expanding both local and international access to language. However, MOOCs provide something entirely different even though they may give the impression of access to university-equivalent knowledge. They are not typically used for qualifications, partly due to the resilience required to complete them and partly because people dip in and out. The quality and assessment of MOOCs remain an issue, and few participants complete their courses (Joksimović et al., 2018). The issue of assessment being linked to learning motivation is very important in learning a language where regular assessments are the norm.

Mokono was creating digital heritage when it was making educational materials available online, providing a service of preserving the Kiswahili historical, social and cultural traditions in the virtual world (UNESCO, 2016a). For instance, the digital video-recordings of the academic staff teaching Kiswahili pronunciation is a cultural representation of the sociolinguistic aspect. As such, the KMOOC’s online language teaching could digitally preserve cultural and sociolinguistic identity. In addition, all participants said that the institution not only wanted to preserve the language, but encourage the wider use of it. Kito said, “We think that Kiswahili can be the language of Africa and recognised in the United Nations.” It was also said that the KMOOC would enable Mokono to focus on using Kiswahili as its primary medium of instruction instead of English, which was a language barrier to local students (discussed in section 5.2). In other words, the KMOOC could help the university
emphasise the importance of its national language, maintain its use and expand it on a global scale.

How realistic such broad aims are must be open to question, and such changes are complex. For example, English language skills are highly desirable in a global world and students that have English as an additional language can be advantaged in employment and mobility (see Hicks, 2014). Teaching in English also promotes disciplinary learning and language learning at the same time, and MOOCs available tend to use English (Laurillard & Kennedy, 2017). Yet, English, as the lingua franca in Africa, could also be seen as detrimental to the principles of linguistic diversity or even as a form of linguistic imperialism (see Coleman, 2006). In the context of linguistic diversity, English might be seen as another language that encourages multilingual growth in Africa, which already has a range of native tongues; but, in the context of linguistic imperialism, English is seen as a global language colonializing non-English speakers’ languages and cultures. For most African universities, English is largely seen as imperialistic due to the predominance of English as an academic language that controls access to knowledge. However, most African universities favour this global language and so develop language conflicts with domestic languages (discussed in section 5.2) (see Teferra & Altbach, 2004). Regarding controlling knowledge, MOOCs themselves have been seen as neo-colonial, and it is interesting that Mokono is both colonised and coloniser at the same time; colonisation is enabled through digital technologies.

6.3.2 OERs for knowledge networks

There are benefits to knowledge networks, but also challenges in accessing them. Knowledge
networks are interconnectedness of persons and institutions to access and disperse educational resources and research worldwide, particularly through the internet and the use of a common language (i.e., English) (Altbach, 2013b). For instance, the OERs are knowledge networks because the academic staff saw themselves accessing free content from distinguished universities that was a significant contribution to their academic development. Although it was not clear what content was downloaded or what impact the transfer had on practice, access to higher education resources was seen as critical to the development of world-class knowledge and teaching skills. Mzuzi (senior administrator) said, “From the internet, I could look at other universities as case studies to prepare my lesson and get ideas from online lectures.”

Tia (senior administrator) took OERs on research, particularly from well-known universities, for benchmarking standards for Mokono’s research policy. More broadly, participants saw various forms of digital technology providing opportunities to compare the quality of education at Mokono with the rest of the world, and provide goals for alignment with international standards. Tia mentioned that digital globalisation had provided access to a world of ideas that could be ‘localised’ and adopted for East African needs. There was a clear consensus among participants that OERs enabled the university to keep abreast of developments in higher education and Duma (academic staff) added that the internet helped him keep up with his research field.

Accessing knowledge networks was largely one directional. Networks have knowledge creation, transfer and adoption (Phelps, Heidl, & Wadhwa, 2012) but in Mokono’s case, the networks were more about appropriating knowledge from OERs and adopting ideas for practice, except for the KMOOC. Such a position seems perfectly reasonable for an under-
resourced developing university, and such knowledge acquisition and use was not only rational, but in the spirit of open access.

There are global challenges about equal access, although the internet can facilitate the distribution of knowledge such as online academic journals. The participants reported that academic staff and students had limited access to quality research journals because these needed to be purchased by the institution and money was not available. The vital web-based journals are segregated by free or fee-based publishers; the private companies tend to have the monopoly on the quality research journals with the most important articles (Bergstrom, Courant, McAfee, & Williams, 2014). Yet, many institutions cannot access fee-based journals (see Beverungen, Böhm, & Land, 2012). Kito (academic staff) said that, “Sometimes it is difficult because journals are limited from our library.” She was grateful that she could “ask colleagues learning at abroad” who had access to these journals and could assist her by sending articles. Therefore, even if Mokono wanted to develop its most inexperienced research staff, it is very difficult when there is poor access to quality academic literature.

In contrast to university provision, mobile and ubiquitous technologies such as smartphones provided students at Mokono with the opportunity to access various forms of web-based resources. Although few owned computers, Tia (senior administrator) said that many students had mobile phones and could access digital information with new communication possibilities:

We do not have many resources, like books and equipment, but with [the internet-enabled] mobile phones, students can get a lot of knowledge and information. So, [now] they do not necessarily need books to know things.

Less reliance on books has to be seen as attractive when an institution cannot afford them and
using mobile, and ubiquitous technologies enabled students to experience anywhere-anytime learning. Students could tap into new knowledge networks, and these technologies foster better communication with the broader community and the global market. However, relying only on information from the internet is also problematic as there is very little control over the quality of information available online and the skill of evaluating knowledge and the quality of evidence in different fields needs to be learned as a higher-order skill. Interestingly, the use of mobile technology by academic staff was not mentioned, and it appears that teachers and researchers mainly relied on traditional digital infrastructure.

6.3.3 Digital divide and digital dividend

With regards to teaching, Mokono had few skilled professionals with the expertise to establish digital learning materials. Safiri (academic staff) said Mokono needed to work with an international partner to lead the KMOOC project, and an international academic with experience was currently providing training to improve digital skills and work on digital content delivery. Nevertheless, help was limited in what it could achieve and Mokono still had few digitally skilled staff and no resources to hire or train more. Also, an inadequate digital technology infrastructure, without stable internet access, computers and digital platforms (see Shenglin, Simonelli, Ruidong, Bosc, & Wenwei, 2017; Trifonas, 2017), and unstable electricity supply were seen to exemplify the digital divide (Fink & Kenny, 2003). Power failures interrupted all operations and every electrical appliance, from air-conditioners to computers.

These problems seemed to be even more relevant in technology courses and more acute when they were concerned with the education of digitally literate graduates.
I am teaching [technology related courses] and sometimes we have practical sessions. We do not have adequate classes to accommodate all students, and we do not have adequate internet access. Most of the time I felt that I failed to teach because we do not have the [internet] connection or so weak that you cannot do anything. This poor infrastructure is a big challenge. (Badru)

Badru’s (academic staff) interview excerpt above illustrates his despondence and Mzuzi (senior administrator) added that few of Mokono’s students owned computers due to the high price. Indeed, the limitations of digital access would likely prohibit successful teaching of technology literacy and knowledge, and unlikely respond to the global demand for technology graduates. Academic staff were well aware of the benefits that an improved infrastructure could provide. For example, the university had two campuses that could be digitally connected. Badru thought that more time was spent on teaching than necessary because some courses were taught on each campus:

If we have good infrastructure, maybe we can connect between campuses instead of teaching the same lecture here and there. We can have one session that connects two campuses to run the same lecture simultaneously.

Another example of potential benefit was on-line programmes and OERs:

The poor internet connectivity that we have, they were like a setback. If we have better internet connectivity here, we could even work with other universities, do online education. I think it would be a very good idea if our university collaborates with other universities and start some online courses together. (Safiri)

Safiri (academic staff) felt Mokono had been left out of both the development of online knowledge and digital exposure for the institution. She was concerned that the majority of Mokono’s academic staff were not familiar with educational technology in higher education due to lack of digital exposure. She suggested that the way to resolve the digital divide was to collaborate with technologically-acquainted international universities. When Mokono did this, it developed relationships with well-known universities and industry. Hamidi (senior
administrator) gave an example of how Mokono collaborated with a prestigious institution and a local telecommunication company. The company was prepared to sponsor students because of this collaboration. Sponsorship included scholarships and job placements. Both partners also wanted technically skilled graduates with qualifications of an international-standard, and this industry saw its sponsorship as an investment in the university and future employees. Respondents thought that the partnership gave successful students an edge when competing with international graduates in the global market. The initiative also enhanced the branding of the university, the reputation of individual academics and the status of particular disciplines. Both local and international students were attracted to enrol because of the training and career opportunities collaboration provided.

6.4 Summary

This chapter investigated the advancement of digital technologies and presented opportunities and challenges for universities to obtain resources and enhance teaching and learning. Digital heritage, knowledge networks and digital dividend were key opportunities, but the digital divide was evident in the marginalisation of the institution. Mokono contributed to its own digital heritage through its attempt to establish the KMOOC, which was a critical opportunity for its digital presence and for educational purposes. In addition to preserving the Kiswahili historical, social and cultural traditions, the KMOOC gave Mokono a competitive advantage to brand the institution as a key university to learn Kiswahili. MOOCs provide free access to students with internet access globally and inspired Mokono to use the OER platform for marketing (see Clow, 2013). The KMOOC was also perceived as an opportunity to strengthen the East African language, worldview and cultural values when OERs are dominated by the
However, Mokono gained knowledge networks through OERs that helped the quality of its education and kept it abreast of developments in higher education. The senior administrators benchmarked Mokono’s institutional policies on research against online resources from well-known universities as a guideline to improve standards. Academic staff primarily sought teaching and learning materials from OERs. While both senior administrators and academic staff were aware that OERs enabled the university to integrate with other institutions and improve specific research fields, they were selective and tried to adopt ideas that would be ‘localised’ and relevant for East African needs.

Finally, Mokono gained a digital dividend because it offered a digital technology degree in collaboration with a technologically-acquainted international university while partnering with the telecommunications company. The company offered scholarships and job placements for students with a digital technology degree. The company’s decision to enter the partnership was due to Mokono’s collaboration with the university. Moreover, a course that had training and career opportunities was an attractive factor for local and international students (Mishra & Deichmann, 2016). However, the strong digital divide was evident with Mokono’s struggles with modern digital infrastructure. The institution had inadequate devices, internet connectivity and technologically skilled staff, which, consequently, prohibited the smooth preparation of its digital branding and slowed its acquisition of digital skills and knowledge.

The next chapter concludes this thesis by bringing together the main findings to discuss globalisation and its impact on an emerging university in the Global South. Next, it discusses
the conclusion and contributions of the study. Then, the chapter presents suggestions and implications for institutions in the Global South. The chapter also clarifies the contribution this study makes to our understanding of the impact of globalisation on the management, academic staff and institution in the Global South. In doing so, it identifies some limitations of the study, and some avenues for future research. The chapter ends with a short reflection in carrying out the research.
7 Summary and Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This research project has attempted to investigate how an emerging university in Tanzania, East Africa is managed in response to globalisation and to the society it serves. More specifically, the purpose of the research was drawing out the polarising and marginalisation effects of globalisation that ultimately shaped the structure and the nature of teaching and research, and the aspirations of the institution to take its place on the global stage. In addition, it illustrates how a university in one of the least developed countries of the world can stay relevant to the nation-state agenda while at the same time competing globally within a hegemonic and elite higher education sector. The university’s challenges in responding to the impact of globalisation may be comparative to other East African universities.

This in-depth qualitative case study was conducted in Tanzania, East Africa. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews from an emerging university. The participants consisted of senior administrators ($n = 6$) and academic staff ($n = 6$) who together understood the policy and practice of the university. They were questioned about the opportunities and challenges of globalisation manifesting in higher education, and their roles in teaching and research. The analysis applied a general inductive approach using critical theory as the research lens to develop the theory of globalisation and critique on unequal opportunities, challenges and issues of power.

In this final chapter, I begin by presenting the three key findings as themes emerging from this study before discussing the conclusion and contributions made from these findings. I also present implications and suggestions for emerging universities in the Global South. Next, I
discuss the thesis limitations and propose future directions for research. I conclude by summing up the research from the perspective of participants.

7.2 Discussion of key findings

The findings presented in chapters 4, 5 and 6 confirm that whilst globalisation has foreseeable advantages for a university in the Global South, the university did not have equal access to the opportunities, and could not ensure local objectives were not overridden by global expectations.

The residual effects of globalisation are marked by comprehensive universal reforms driven by stakeholders and the implementation of international standards for teaching and research and the digitisation of learning. The senior administrators and academic staff members of Mokono, whose views and experiences are captured in this thesis, demonstrated how they responded to the local and global tensions in their administrative and academic roles, whilst simultaneously highlighting the advantages of globalisation, and frequently, the challenges Mokono faced as an emerging university with limited financial and knowledge resources.

This section presents the key findings and conclusion of the research. The three key findings will be discussed in greater depth by drawing on the theory of globalisation and critical theory presented in chapters 2 and 3 respectively. These findings also answer the research questions of the study, which are restated below for clarity.
7.2.1 Key finding 1: External stakeholder financing an emerging university influenced the decisions around strategy and development in response to globalisation.

Research question one asked, “What influences the decisions made around strategy and development within an emerging university in response to globalisation?” One key finding that can be drawn from the answer presented in Chapter 4 is stakeholders with financial resources, who are the government, aid donors and students, are influential in decision making. Such an intricate negotiation of influences between the stakeholders was possible due to the politic globalisation that supported the neoliberal approach of financing a public university. The government’s austerity policy initiated pressure on Mokono to source private funding through grants from aid donors and tuition fees from students. While Mokono increased financial efficiency with stringent accountability and generated external revenue to support its operation, overall, austerity was a disadvantaging financial strategy that seemed to impede the emerging university development. Private sources could not fully provide it with bigger classrooms, better internet connectivity, and development training for academic staff. Mokono generated revenue from external stakeholders to support its operations but, in the context of privatisation, aid donors had conditions and students had demands that the university had to adhere to. In doing so, this complicated Mokono’s ability to achieve its national agendas. As a result, the Tanzanian government’s influence on the institution’s strategic direction was diminished.

The findings relate to Marginson’s (2007) argument that the dualism of public and private support for universities is a sound financial strategy. This author assumes that reduced public funding will result in more private funding (or vice versa). However, my findings show that a dual financial strategy does not effectively deal with a situation when there is a chronic funding gap. While his argument does not take account of universities in severely under-resourced
situations, he does acknowledge that in the Global South, globalisation tends to subtract from the university mission at a national level, an outcome clearly supported by my data. The cost-benefit of austerity may have made the institution more efficient, but this was of little utility when it impacted negatively on operations and goals.

Marginson (2007) extends the idea of dual funding by arguing that if a university produces a global good, this needs to be recognised. In Mokono’s case, this could be the teaching of Kiswahili as something that can be seen in terms of cross-border knowledge flow. Global goods can attract cost-sharing between governments (Marginson, 2007) and would allow the university to rely less on the private sector or international aid donors. Nevertheless, the shift of knowledge for revenue can gradually erode the democratic values of a higher education institution and eliminates the ability for social critique and creativity (Olssen et al., 2004). As such, there could still be a problem if new initiatives always favoured ‘global goods’ (e.g., research or teaching programmes that had some global currency and leverage in negotiations between governments), in place of other initiatives with local benefit.

The dual financial strategy supports the assertions that higher education as a public good is no longer fully possible (see Harland, Tidswell et al., 2010). More importantly, the strategy comes with the risk of the university being “hollowed-out”, which describes how a university has to respond to external stakeholders to the detriment of what the institution might choose in its own decision-making (Cribb & Gewirtz, 2013). Unlike universities with better financial resources and research capacity that could leverage the expectations of their external stakeholders, my findings show that privatisation could force emerging universities, which are in dire need of financial resources, to placate their external stakeholders. For instance, Mokono
demonstrated personal agency in negotiations instead of passively accepting aid donors’ conditions, but this was not always successful. Moreover, negotiations due to donors’ aim for a diplomatic relationship, the outlook of negotiations for aid recipients may yet improve because even donors with the most flexible conditions (e.g. China) demand reciprocity through support of the donor’s political position (Liu, 2010). In other words, Mokono has shown a willingness to adjust its policy in order to secure grants from aid donors and in the case of students, it created courses as commodities to attract additional students. As such, the process of hollowing out is evident as stakeholders exert power. More importantly, the hollowing out process of emerging universities in the Global South will mean they have more difficulties meeting their public agendas, and so have negative implications on national development to offset the gains of globalisation.

7.2.2 Key finding 2: International standards of teaching and research strongly influences an emerging university.

Research question two, “How does globalisation affect decision-making about how to organise teaching and research in an emerging university?” The answers in Chapter 5 show that conforming to international standards of teaching and research, which were also expected by key stakeholders, appeared to be a major influence of Mokono’s decision-making. It was clear that Mokono needed international standards to catch up with the quality of higher education. This drove its desire to acquire international resources that would match international standards even when there were constraints in implementing the educational content of the West (Jowi, Knight et al., 2013). In this study, the standards were seen as essential because without the West the university could not even operate. Difficulty was acute through English language
dominance in educational material, in attracting international students, and publishing research (see Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2012). Adopting the Western degree structure and courses has been proven to enhance some emerging universities in the Global South (see Salmi, 2013). It was a strategy that gave access to wider international knowledge as well as increasing research training programmes to develop research capacity. The emerging university gained mastery in many fields including developing its research capacity that would have taken a long time if it were to discover on its own.

However, the study shows that achieving international standards require resources that could not be adequately provided due to the institution’s under-resourced circumstances. As a result, the process of implementing international standards was unreasonable and resulted in constraints on the freedom to manage and organise teaching and research. For example, grants from aid donors to help with English proficiency did not help as the English language department did not have sufficient academic staff. As such it provided less than optimal support for its students to undertake the IELTS exams. Non-English speaking universities would need a well-supported English language department to ease the implementation of English as the language of instruction and to ensure students and staff acquire English proficiency (Yumei, 2010). As such, my study reasoned that an emerging university in Africa that is functioning with an under-resourced English language department will continuously struggle with English proficiency (Harle, 2010). Additionally, it also seems unreasonable for aid donors to expect this emerging university to fully adopt international courses (e.g., Early Childhood Curriculum). Even if international standards have good teaching models, concepts and ideas, aid donors should understand that they should serve as guidelines instead of insisting on fully adopting a course that might be irrelevant to a local context. Therefore, international standards can
constraint the emerging university’s capacity and identity if aid donors do not see their investments as supporting intended development.

In terms of conforming to the expectation of research intensity, it is a huge challenge to ask that the core activity of teaching is improved at the same time as research expertise is developed. Mokono pressures its academic staff to increase research publications on top of their heavy teaching load. Without a clear allocation of working hours for research, the institution was putting mounting pressure on its academic staff to produce research publications. This pressure is similar to the culture of ‘publish or perish’ that most research-intensive universities experience (Lee, 2012). The culture refers to higher stress levels on academic staff to produce research publications for tenure, promotion and financial rewards (Bedeian et al., 2011). An unintended effect was neglecting teaching commitments due to the increasing focus on research collaborations. Indeed, teaching must be the foundation of a university (as there are many institutions that are not research-intensive and there are none that do not teach in some manner), but having research capacity as a secondary function is still necessary. It could be argued that over time, good quality research will underpin teaching, as it does in the Western elite universities. However, the timescale for this to come about may be in hundreds of years, rather than decades.

In addition, tension arises applying international standards that require using English as a language of instruction and Western degree structure. In negotiating between the domestic language and English, the study shows that the institution restrained its usage of Kiswahili only as a linguistic subject despite aiming to be a global Kiswahili language centre. They wanted the institution to preserve the domestic language and understood that most students had
difficulty comprehending English (see Tollefson & Tsui, 2014; Breidlid, 2013). Furthermore, the complexity of grasping international standards seems to have developed an institutional dependency on international teaching resources, in particular from the West. In other words, Mokono is not self-reliant enough yet to produce its own courses that would match international standards. This finding relates to how Western influences are dominating global knowledge, and in the context of Africa, would reinforce patterns since the colonial era (Jowi, Knight, & Schoole, 2013). Retrospectively, English as a language of instruction may be a legacy and continuation of colonialism but it is the language that has enabled the adoption of courses so that locals have access to a university level of education in Africa (Mngomezulu, 2017).

7.2.3 Key finding 3: Digital heritage and digital dividend are the intended impacts while the digital dividend is the unintended impact of digital technologies with regard to globalisation in the Global South.

Research question three asks, “What are the intended and unintended impacts of digital technologies with regard to globalisation?” The answer in Chapter 6 reveals that Mokono could benefit from the digital heritage and digital dividend, but these benefits are strictly limited due to the digital divide. In other words, the technological marginalisation of universities in the Global South creates inequity between universities globally.

Mokono represented how Tanzania saw digital technologies as a critical opportunity to establish its national language in the digital world and as a way to preserve the language. It also benefitted from establishing networks with a private company and an international university to access scholarships and job placements for its students. Both Mokono and the
elite university sector understand that digital technologies would create more flexible and personalized learning and that the deployment of predictive models could help institutions manage many of the challenges they face (e.g., staff and student recruitment).

However, despite these opportunities, the university and the country were still struggling with acquiring modern digital infrastructure and this limited progress. All digital technologies require skilled people with a range of expertise in both digital technology and digital globalisation strategies, and these were not yet available to Mokono. Further, the proliferation of digital learning platforms, software as a service (SaaS), platform as a service (PaaS), new psychometric and online assessments tools, learning analytics, adaptive learning technologies and gamification, as examples, were not yet available to Mokono.

There were also issues with digital heritage, in particular content curation and resistance of institutions to support MOOCs. Many MOOC-platforms such as Coursera and EDx are permeating African higher education through forging partnerships with leading universities, such as the University of Cape Town and the University of the Witwatersrand (Laurillard & Kennedy, 2017; Shrivastava & Shrivastava, 2014). However, most MOOCs are created and produced in Western countries (knowledge producers) while used extensively by many countries in the Global South (knowledge consumers), a situation which perpetuates the Western culture colonising the non-Western’s. For instance, the content of many OERs is not written in African languages and does not reflect any African worldview or cultural values (Nafukho & Muyia, 2013). It suggests that without parity in participation in content curation, aspiring institutions such as Mokono, and many others in the Global South, remain marginalised by digital globalisation (Kigotho, 2018) as they tend to operate in unrepresented
languages, such as Kiswahili. Another issue is the resistance of some universities to develop institutional strategies and support for MOOCs because of the negative perceptions that MOOCs are an undesirable model of learning, coupled with strong beliefs in the superiority of face-to-face and on-campus pedagogy. Without such support, on one hand, the sustainability and scalability of MOOCs that might benefit many higher education institutions in East Africa are not attainable; on the other hand, it was uncertain if an institution’s aim to offer courses online would help to serve its goal to be an elite research-led university?

Digital technologies require institutional support to close the digital divide for the Global South (see Guth & Gill, 2008). For instance, Mokono’s initiative to establish its own Kiswahili programme could have a positive spill-over effect for many higher education institutions in East Africa. As such, this strategy can, to some extent, start to reverse the situation of the Global South’s dependency on digital content that is mainly produced in Western countries. The teachers who took part in my study were learning from OERs to increase their teaching productivity but wanted more digital exposure to increase their efficiency in applying digital technologies. Technologically skilled academics who are locally trained would be crucial to developing relevant educational technologies and capacity for the Global South (Baldwin, 2016).

Based on these key findings, the next section will present the conclusion and contributions that can be drawn from this study.
7.3 Conclusion and contributions of the study

A conclusion that can be drawn, based on the key findings, from this study is that globalisation promises opportunities to vital resources for higher education development, but in reality, the access is not absolute and is much more complex for emerging universities in the Global South. In particular, the uptake of neoliberal ideology and digital approaches around the world puts demanding and unsustainable pressure on these institutions. As a result, globalisation made it more difficult for these institutions to realise their development goal, and near impossible to be on par with the Global North. For instance, in teaching, the process of privatisation encouraged universities to attract more students for tuition fees, but the competition for students requires high-quality classrooms, laboratories, digital technology infrastructure and skilled academic staff. Under-resourced universities in the Global South that might have difficulties meeting these demands would not be able to outcompete better equipped universities in the Global North.

Combining the findings in this study with wider research regarding neoliberal and digital globalisation, it can be seen that the processes can have counterproductive effects to an emerging university in the Global South, in particular, Tanzania. In Mokono’s case, it could not freely use the grants to achieve the government agendas while reciprocating to donors’ conditions. The reforms by the government to no longer fund a university would end up with a privatised university and likely directed by external stakeholders. Although the privatisation of the Tanzanian university sector has not been fully successful, as public universities such as Mokono are still mainly funded by the government (Provini, 2019), the study shows that the increasing austerity measures require a public institution to seek alternative resources, mainly from aid donors. As such there are indications of the shift to top-down influence from
international stakeholders especially when Tanzania is the largest recipient of aid in East Africa, if not Africa (Provini, 2019). For instance, efficiency could have been attained in different ways without austerity measures while other financial support was sought and implemented before government cost-cutting. The main impact seemed to be the reduction of public funding and the push to make up the shortfall through aid and the private sector, but Mokono now finds itself in a seemingly impossible situation for achieving its local and global aspirations.

Additionally, the study shows that there are influences from globalisation on emerging university policy and practice that seem to create difficulties in its development goals. For instance, for an institution that has not fully developed its teaching and research operations, the policies of commodifying education and incentivising research publications are akin to setting goals that could not be achieved. The paradox is the management seems to know the limited capability yet could not see an alternative response to the forces and influences of globalisation. Similarly, although digital globalisation denotes promises that would increase global cultural representation, institutional presence and economic opportunities for all, they do not ensure equal participation. For instance, language and culture representation of those technologically unequipped in the Global South such as Tanzania are still neglected. Yet, the emerging university knows it has to pursue technological development, or issues of the digital divide would only continue to widen the development gap between the Global North and Global South.

Globalisation, then, in its political and technological aspects, has a lack of equity and freedom of choice. It influences decision-making and direction of emerging universities with opportunities in terms of financial resources, knowledge resources, digital heritage and digital dividend. While opportunities were understood, they were not easily available. Thus, this study
provides insight into how globalisation can preoccupy emerging universities with global political and technological expectations, which are often seen as more superior (Altbach, 2004; Sehoole & de Wit, 2014), and so cause these institutions to have a vague sense of responsibilities for the local community while no longer really knowing who they represent.

This thesis, furthermore, contributes to the broader conversations about globalisation and higher education in two ways. First, it contributes to the scant literature on the topic of emerging universities and the equally limited literature on the Global South and East Africa, in particular. The study creates an awareness that the circumstances of emerging universities in the Global South limit their capability to respond to globalisation and its impacts. It addresses the paucity of research on globalisation from the perspective of the Global South. The imbalance alerted us to the need to understand how these universities might respond to globalisation when they are severely under-resourced. In his study on the universities in Timor Leste, China and Vietnam, Hicks (2014) called for more research to examine universities in the Global South to provide a richer understanding of their circumstances as they are being impacted by globalisation. This study added the perspectives of a university situated in one of the most severely under-resourced countries in the world, Tanzania, East Africa. It highlights the need for emerging universities to be cautious of influences on its decision-makings that have effects on their freedom of choice. However, the study does not suggest that these institutions should ignore globalisation because there are benefits for the Global South. Conversely, the findings should be viewed in ways that would enable the Global South to further improve on its approaches to respond to globalisation and thus, bridge the inequality and inequity gap with the Global North.
Moreover, the research reported here adds to the body of work on the theory of globalisation in higher education by applying Steger’s (2017) theory to a new setting. As explained in Chapter 3, previous studies on the contemporary period of globalisation in the Global South, particularly in Africa, have overwhelmingly been based on universities that have been well established. These studies examined how globalisation impacted on institutions that were over 50 years old, established by former colonisers and instilled with colonial-traditions. While Mokono shared some similarities with these universities, the site of this study, regarded as an emerging university, showed many differences because it was established in the Steger’s contemporary period, was no more than 20 years old, and operated without much of the burden of colonial-traditions.

This leads to the thesis’ second contribution with regard to the theory of globalisation framed by neoliberalism and the advancement of digital technologies. The thesis verified the complexity of globalisation that can deliver opportunities for development, but they come with challenges for the Global South. More importantly, this study argues that globalisation, based on neoliberal and digital connectivity, has multi-faceted and interconnected factors that put unequal pressure and influences on decision-making. The findings show that the influences from private and external stakeholders (i.e. aid donors and students), international standards and digital technologies did not fully address local challenges. At the same time, decisions were market-led and influenced by globalisation and so affected freedom of choice of the Global South. This lack of freedom led the study to suggest the importance of having a realistic pace of development and consider the capability and capacity of the institution when aiming to be on par with global development (discussed in Section 7.2). In other words, while the theory of globalisation attends to the escalating interconnectivity, this study highlights on the need for
a gradual pace of connectivity to allow ample time in responding to the various influences and strategising responses that address local circumstances. Therefore, the study adapted Steger’s (2017) definition of globalisation as the expansion and intensification of social relations and consciousness across world-time and world-space but at a gradual pace and with more freedom.

7.4 Implications and suggestions for emerging universities in the least developed countries of the Global South

This study may have direct implications for two groups of interest with regard to higher education policy and practice in Tanzania, or emerging universities in similarly positioned countries. One group is the internal stakeholders that include the government, senior administrators, academic staff and students. Another is the external stakeholders such as aid donors and their conditions of providing aid when considering how they could attend to the development of an emerging university.

Globalisation based on the neoliberal and digital ideal can, to some extent, sustain the development of an emerging university, but Mokono exposed the complexities of what the phenomenon means to be a new and emerging university. A partially privatise institution can acquire new resources but these can be unpredictable and unsustainable due to aid donors’ ability to cut-off donations and a student’s capacity as customer to choose to study elsewhere. Consequently, the government may also lose some oversight of university’s governance and ability to serve the national interest. At the same time, these stakeholders seemed to pitch an emerging university into direct competition with well-established universities, which have benefitted from many years of capacity development. Noticeably, the stakeholders need to be
sensitive to the differences between the institutions before making an emerging university compete and to address its difficulties with resources. The same argument applies to digital technologies.

Some suggestions are drawn from the findings of this study regarding the influences of stakeholders, international teaching and research standards and digital technologies in relation to globalisation. As such the following suggestions are made to consider how emerging universities in the context of development in the Global South might go about developing its capacity and identity. Based on the findings, an emerging university might need to answer how it might rely on external support to develop; what does it need to accept or avoid imposed international standards? In addition, it will also need to engage with the problem of digital globalisation. The following suggestions were made in the hope that globalisation can reduce the development gap between emerging universities in the Global South and the Global North.

7.4.1 Internal and external support

The study suggests that both internal and external support is necessary to an emerging university in the Global South. The government, vital for internal support, can ensure progressive capacity development of an emerging university to meet the national agenda. It can also provide the necessary funds to teach and research subjects that serve local interests instead of relying on private resources that force alternative direction (Provini 2019). Alternatively, Teferra (2014) suggests approaching successful African professionals abroad could be a good internal resource for emerging universities. These professionals might want to contribute to their home country through financial assistance or share their knowledge and industrial
networks that would benefit university-industry partnerships. This is a form of African international aid for Africa.

Aid donors play a key role in external support. However, the study showed that financial providers have a strong influence on decision-making, and thus donors hold the power in allowing room for negotiating conditions. The aid might be spent more efficiently if the university management is encouraged to take lead in proposing required development (Shiza, 2011). For instance, in the study, an international lecturer from the Global North provided the option to accept similar pay to the local academic staff (discussed in section 5.3.2) even though she was highly skilled. Her offer showed understanding of Mokono’s circumstance and also an example to donors of the importance in providing flexible conditions.

Financial support for universities that are still in the development phase needs to be sustained for a long period. Only when basic infrastructure and human capacity are met, emerging universities can start off on a more level playing field in the higher education sector. If the government and aid donors prioritise support for key infrastructure and skilled professionals, changes will be more rapid for emerging universities. However, in all these arguments about external and internal aid, institutions still need to be accountable to funders in how they meet their strategic goals. As such, regimes of quality assurance and accountability will need to accompany funding.

7.4.2 Capacity building

The challenging under-resourced circumstances of emerging universities in the Global South
would require them to have a realistic goal in terms of time frame. The study suggests that emerging universities should first set up academic development in partnership with the North and start to organise (all work) to mimic successful universities (Salmi, 2013). Such a goal would require universities to have a timeline, which was not apparent from the accounts of the management group at Mokono that were shared with me. The purpose of the timeframe is to plan for a reasonable pace of development without having goals that are even slightly beyond their current capacity. The first consideration in its development might be the availability of resources. For instance, the internationally renowned National University of Singapore, which has been heavily funded, took less than 30 years in building and attracting a critical mass of PhD trained academic staff and producing high research quality (Salmi, 2009). In contrast, as the study shows, a severely under-resourced university’s timeframe would likely take longer due to the extra work of searching for long-term financial support and its difficulty in attracting overseas faculty.

With regard to establishing teaching and research quality, the study shows staff development takes time. Most of the junior academic staff would need to acquire postgraduate degrees and develop more advanced teaching and research skills. Emerging universities should strongly emphasise educating and upskilling the academic workforce in order to develop and compete globally (Hazelkorn, 2011). Institutionally, and particular in Africa, strong support is necessary for academic staff to develop a strong research culture and environment (Fussy, 2019). The institutional effort would also require universities to have adequate numbers of academic staff as high teaching workloads preclude staff development and the time for research. Additionally, institutions need to stipulate clear working hours for research and teaching, if its research-intensive policy is to flourish. This would then allow academic staff to attend research training
programmes and thus could better achieve its goal to produce a big number of researchers prioritising research on development areas (Shabani, 2010). Having a step-by-step measure to build its academic capacity might make the goal to be more viable.

Additionally, emerging universities could build their institutional identity but, as shown in the findings, there are challenges for an emerging university to do this in isolation. The study suggests that working together with other institutions, such as a regional collaboration, would encourage the institution to view their challenges as opportunities to develop learning models that belong to them (Sehoole & deWit, 2014). However, the collaboration needs to have strong teamwork, which was not evident in the responses from my study, and set clear university structures and concepts that would be the guideline in establishing a regional identity. When institutions work together to consolidate and harness knowledge resources that are largely in the East African context they strengthen both their regional and own identity (Sehoole & de Wit, 2014). Other suggestions are forging stronger intra-regional links, South-South cooperation, and connections with the African academic diaspora in the North to develop a strong sense of African knowledge systems (Zeleza, 2015). For instance, the study shows that Mokono added a variation to its university’s courses through its collaboration with Cuba which provided an alternative to the dominant Western world view. In other words, emerging universities need to continuously seek alternative strategies instead of being dependent on international resources from the Global North.

7.4.3 Digital technology

The study suggests that the Government, aid donors and education partners from the Global
North should conceivably work towards a collaborative atmosphere to support the development of digital infrastructure and the human capacity for an emerging university. The Global South can increase its digital presence with the help of intervening policies to support the development of digital infrastructure and technologically skilled workforce (Shenglin, Simonelli, Ruidong, Bosc & Wenwei, 2017). Their intervention is necessary to help the Global South’s technologically deprived situations to have equal participation in global digital progress (see Guth & Gill, 2008). However, if the stakeholders do not sustain the technology development, the digital divide will continue to expand the development gap between the Global North and the Global South (Baldwin, 2016).

In addition, institutions could engage with technologies that are mobile and ubiquitous to enhance access to higher education. The findings on Mokono’s KMOOC represents an example of an emerging university reclaiming the region’s linguistic and cultural heritage on the global scene. It can be seen as a rare case for an emerging university in the Global South instigating a technology initiative to enhance its global representation. Given that MOOCs are accessible through mobile phones, it may be sensible to provide online courses that would enable many students to access higher education (Laurillard & Kennedy, 2017).

Alternatively, a fully online course could be developed later if an institution did not have the technological knowledge and skills. Depending on the current capacity of an emerging university, it might be more practical to make all digital resources such as lecture capture, course notes and tutorials accessible by mobile technology. Additionally, as most emerging universities have benefitted from the content of other’s MOOCS, the availability of online resources would be a reciprocal act for the wider academic community. Although they may yet
deliver their own courses, the resources shared might create a more collegial academic community, which will differ from the hegemonic market values in the global higher education sector.

7.5 Limitations

There were three limitations to the study. One of the limitations was the choice and the small number of participants. Despite the assumption that interviewing students would provide insights on globalisation particularly due to their engagement with digital technologies in learning and policymakers could reveal the government’s stand on globalisation, both were excluded due to the cost of the project and limited time at the field. More importantly, the research focus was on how the university was managed and operated, which was performed by academic staff. As such the study only interviewed academic staff who were grouped in two different categories: six senior managers who were in the position of making executive decisions and another six academics who were carrying out the teaching and research operation. The small number of participants was unavoidable as the emerging university is considerably new and only had a small size of management. As for the academics, it was hoped that more could participate but only six volunteered for the study. Nevertheless, all 12 participants represented different disciplinary background consisting of science, social science and information technology yet, as presented in the findings, they were able to discuss similar issues of globalisation. In addition, the six managers consisted of the full executive staff.

Another limitation was the bias towards research participants with English language proficiency and the exclusion of academics who were not proficient. Interviews were
conducted in English although English is not the first language for either the participants or me. As such, this could reduce an immediate understanding in ‘translation’ and ‘interpretation’ of the interviews (McWilliam et al., 2008). I was dependent on the individualistic, fragmented and heterogeneous aspects of participants’ perspectives to make inferences about the findings (Creswell, 2007).

Finally, a single case study that represents a single university in Tanzania is a limitation. The study might share similar attributes with other Tanzanian universities and East African countries, and possibly similar positioned institutions in the Global South. However, like any case study, it will have its own uniqueness. In this sense it had distinct political, economic and cultural differences. For instance, Tanzania has significant political differences from other East Africa countries, while being the birth country of the Kiswahili language (Wedgwood, 2010; Otiso, 2013). The transferability of findings, in the context of qualitative research, refers to “the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations” (Merriam, 2015, p. 253). While this study cannot fully guarantee that similar findings can be entirely generalizable to similar universities in the Global South (Bedenlier & Zawacki-Richter, 2015), the limitations, the detailed descriptions and conceptual ideas can perhaps be useful in generalizing to other contexts and so be transferable to anyone reading this thesis (Daniel & Harland, 2018).

My relationship as a researcher was identified as an ‘outsider’ (Skelton, 2001; Smith, 2010). The notion means I do not share in-depth cultural understanding, such as local customs and language. There might have been less of a language barrier if the study had employed translators. Yet, a translator’s language ability and interpretative skills would add another layer
of complexity to consider. In all qualitative interviews, participants might choose to withhold information instead of revealing their totality if they share close relationships with whom they are interacting (Charmaz, 1995). My participants seemed to freely voice their opinions and disagreements about their university as they might have perceived that my ‘outsider’ status had little threat to their views. While the interviews went well, I also acknowledge the meaning-making process of “translation …[was] a practice of intercultural communication in which … [I] understand other cultures as far as possible in their own terms but in … [my] language” (Twyman, Morrison, & Sporton, 1999, p. 320). A strategy to better understand the participants was connecting with them, and then, establishing the interpretative frames for evaluating the information obtained (Riessman, 2016). As such, my interpretation as an ‘outsider’ is contingent on paying particular attention to the individualistic, fragmented, and heterogeneous natures of understanding participants’ viewpoints (Creswell, 2007). Given more time, I may have gained a broader view of the phenomenon if another university had been included. Despite these boundaries, the study is transferable in the sense that anyone reading this thesis is likely to learn something new about the phenomenon being investigated (Daniel & Harland, 2017).

7.6 Further research

For a nuanced understanding of globalisation in higher education, more research is recommended in addressing the limitations of this study. The research is suggested to include interviewing the government and students who could provide insights, in addition to the academic staff, of the emerging university’s policy and practice. Both are key stakeholders in sustaining the university and they have a meaningful involvement in the analysis of the East Africa context that could facilitate a deeper understanding of the impact of globalisation in the
Global South (see Provini, 2019). Such an inquiry would create opportunities for the stakeholders to voice their expectations on university education, how they perceived globalisation and what they observed as its advantages and disadvantages.

Further in-depth qualitative research could be done to have an inclusive study in the dialogue about globalisation and higher education in the Global South. This can be done by recruiting participants speaking in native languages as it would have an inclusive perspective regardless of participants’ language barrier. More time and money would be needed to engage translators or local researchers to overcome the issue of translating and interpreting data. Additionally, for a broader view of the phenomenon, explorations could be carried out on other emerging universities across the Global South. As this study has been limited to a single case of Tanzania, the concepts presented in this thesis could benefit from comparison to similarly positioned institutions in the Global South. A further research with higher number of case studies such as including emerging universities from different countries in the East African region might enhance the validity and generalisation of findings and theory (Yin, 2014).

Additionally, the research findings highlight several areas where future research is needed. An investigation on the influences of aid donors in the Global South would be useful as Chapter 4 indicated that they are moving from attaching conditionality to expecting new diplomatic relations or flexible conditions. Knowledge gained from such research would add to existing studies on aid donors that have touched on the issues of attached conditions and the effectiveness sustaining the institutions. Given that the study makes the claim, in Chapter 5, that staff capacity, skills and knowledge are the most important consideration for development, these areas should be a focus for research. Such study could focus on the sustainability and the
options available for capacity development in areas such as expanding professional development courses, provision of skilled academic staff from abroad, and digital technology skills. Finally, a research is needed to explore the rare case of Mokono’s KMOOC as digital heritage. The research could investigate how it might impact on the region’s linguistic heritage and cultural traditions. In Chapter 6, the KMOOC was seen as a benefit to strengthen the local linguistic identity and against the dominance of English digital content. As such, a study of the KMOOC would provide an informative view of digital heritage in the Global South and explore the cooperation with regional institutions to widen the scale of the Kiswahili digital content.

7.7 Coda

I shall sum up this study with a single definitive story about globalisation from the perspective of the participants. They appeared to perceive that they were passively accepting globalisation and its impacts, but did not see that they are also shaping it. As Mune said, “When I read your proposal, I was not sure if Mokono is the right place to learn about globalisation but then maybe it is.” He believed that Mokono was not a worthy participant in a study on globalisation; however, I argue that those who took part provided a unique insight into how an under-resourced university is strategically navigating the processes of globalisation.

Interestingly, despite his earlier comment, Mune stated that he “was globalised.” He explained, “I did my undergraduate abroad, I did my master’s abroad, I did my PhD abroad, I did my postdoc abroad and then, for the first time I started working as an academic in a neighbouring country.” He was aware that his international experiences had developed his academic skills and eventually benefitted Mokono. Therefore, Mune and I share a similar experience of
globalisation as we are from the Global South, completing our PhD in the Global North. These are the affordances of globalisation for higher education that have stimulated me to understand the phenomenon.
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197


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Appendix: Questionnaire for participants

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARTICIPANTS

We understand the process of globalisation as involving the international exchange of goods, technologies and cultures. The modern research university sits within such a global framework and must operate in response to a range of pressures. It is clear that institutions across the world have undergone radical change in the last 30 years in response to new global forces, in particular the liberalisation of the free market and advances in technology. During this contemporary period of globalisation the core work of the university has altered. New types of teaching, research, and new types of institutional management have emerged.

Two brief examples illustrate these ideas. With respect to research, there are new tensions because of local research assessment exercises that bring about competitive funding, and that lead to a position on global league-tables that give institutional status and reputation. In new universities in developing countries, the problems of breaking in and competing with older institutions of high standing must seem daunting. Yet this pathway is inescapable for institutions that see both research and teaching as foundational to the knowledge project. Teaching also has new challenges with the recent shift to mass higher education that gives economies of scale and greater opportunity for students. However, international students are necessary for income and not all universities have equal access to this income stream.

Globalisation is complex and can be seen from many perspectives that include the important role that universities have in democratisation, international cooperation and the global knowledge project. Present day universities must serve their own society while at the same time looking outwards and being seen as ‘global’. Universities often articulate these ideas in terms of ‘internationalisation’. Internationalisation processes are viewed by many research universities as an imperative to address the challenges of globalisation, as well as to position universities in the global arena. With this competitive global positioning, the question of institutional identity, role and relevance to the nation state are challenged. Set against this backdrop, this research raises the following questions.
Section A: The impact of globalisation

Q1: How do you think the university has responded to the influences of globalisation? (e.g. neoliberal reform and compliance, changes in management, operating in the free market, advances in technology)

Q2: How do you think globalisation influences a) research and b) teaching? (e.g. international collaboration, new areas for study, access to research funding, the global academic, international research collaboration, issues around quality and universal standards, international students, open data and open scholarship, open education, student exchange)

Q3: What benefits do you think that globalisation has brought to a) the University globally and b) wider society? (e.g. staffing, reputation, quality of teaching and learning, local and international economy, critical role in society)

Section B: The benefits and costs of internationalisation

1a) In what way has internationalisation benefitted the quality of research, teaching and learning.
1b) In what way has internationalisation been detrimental to the quality of research, teaching and learning.

2a) In what way has internationalisation benefitted the reputation of research, teaching and learning.
2b) In what way has internationalisation been detrimental to the reputation of research, teaching and learning.

3a) In what way has internationalisation benefitted the knowledge creation of research, teaching and learning.
3b) In what way has internationalisation been detrimental to the knowledge creation of research, teaching and learning.

4a) In what way has internationalisation benefitted the global market of research, teaching and learning.
4b) In what way has internationalisation been detrimental to global market of research, teaching and learning.

5a) In what way has internationalisation benefitted the cultural integration of research, teaching and learning.
5b) In what way has internationalisation been detrimental to the cultural integration of research, teaching and learning.

6a) In what way has internationalisation benefitted the accessibility of research, teaching and
learning.
6b) In what way has internationalisation been detrimental to accessibility of research, teaching and learning.