African Academics in Germany

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African Academics in Germany Revitalising African Universities

George Mutalemwa



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Dedication

To Rev. Prof. Ted Walters, S.J., for his love of Africa, its people and education.

Foreword

It is a great honour that the author approached me to announce his new book. It is certainly not an easy task, but very exciting. The excitement of introducing this book comes with the fact that it is about African scholars in Germany, and it reminds me of the journey that I started in 2011, and completed in 2014.

Personal matters aside, I sincerely believe that advancement in technology and global policies has not only fostered interactions in various aspects, but also created the need of producing the required skilled labour ready to take on global challenges. It is therefore not a surprise that the language of harmonisation, internationalisation, transnationalisation in a variety of issues is a common phenomenon.

The need of graduates with globally acceptable skills means that academic institutions should look beyond the borders of their countries of origin, and countries should promote cooperation in academic and research matters, thus the need to discuss internationalisation and mobility through transnational education. Across the world, different international scholarship programmes do exist as a result of either international cooperation programmes between countries, or joint projects between universities. There are successes from these programmes, for example judging by the number of international masters and PhD graduates produced, and some programmes and projects in Africa, and thereby support an argument for the engagement of African academics in the revitalisation of the Africa's higher learning institutions, but there are also challenges — or perhaps some issues for further discussion.

The book African Academics in Germany: Revitalising African Universities provides a good analysis of issues related to international scholarship programmes. While the title suggests that African universities can be revitalised through international academic programmes, using the case of African academics in Germany, or making effective use of information and communication technology in facilitating learning, the discussion on issues like brain drain, brain gain and

brain circulation is perhaps important in further evaluating the real impact of international academic programmes in Africa while striving to produce globally recognised graduates. An interesting discussion on university revitalisation theory could raise some tricky questions – for example: is internationalisation of education needed more to revitalise universities in Africa than to do the same in other parts of the globe? Is it true that internalisation of university education is the only way towards good governance?

The book also underlines the fact that at the core of international academic or research programmes are individual students or researchers – hence the human aspect of such programmes. It is a good contribution for issues related to funding opportunities, cultural integration, and the related issues, which make the book an interesting contribution to our understanding of international scholarships.

Definitely this book is not conclusive of the themes discussed herein, since it is obvious that education is always evolving. My purpose here is just to illustrate the relevance of the matters discussed herein.

I congratulate the author for his dedication into this work, as the work of this nature must have consumed precious time of his life, and is not possible without difficulties.

All the best to the readers

Dr Abdallah Saleh Possi Ambassador of Tanzania to Germany 18 February 2019

Preface

This work seeks to contribute to existing, albeit limited, knowledge on the engagement of African academics in Germany and African Higher Learning Institutions (AHLIs). The aim is to find out how higher learning can be revitalised in relation to research, teaching and public service. Inasmuch as revitalisation denotes development in its conceptualization, as this work argues, it seems appropriate that a theory of development inform the current analysis.

African Academic Diaspora: Revitalising African Universities resulted from 20 years of working in academic institu000tions in Tanzania, Kenya and Germany. In a special way, my role as Director of International Programmes at St. Augustine University of Tanzania (SAUT) provided me first-hand experience to engage with international students and staff from universities such as University of Georgia, Georgetown University, University of North Texas, University of Western Ontario, London, University of Vechta, University of Tampere and Tampere University of Applied Sciences.

The experience I gained through the interaction with international universities, contributed to winning the Höffmann Lecturship for Intercultural Competence at the University of Vechta in Lower Saxony, Germany. While there I gave lectures and talks on Intercultural Communication and Networking. I also taught Swahili.

I was familiar with the US and UK African diaspora, but not with the German one. So, when CODESRIA announced the call for post-doctoral fellowship proposals with a theme on the revitalisation of universities, I applied and chose to focus on Germany.

The qualitative approach to research guided the analysis of data particularly obtained through interviews in answering the research question, namely how German-educated African academics engage in the revitalisation of the AHLIs.

Informed by several development theories and the need for theorisation, I constructed a 'university revitalisation theory' (URT). URT explains the centre stage that African universities occupy in the Diaspora-Africa equation.

The qualitative approach to research informs the analysis particularly through interviews in answering the research question, namely how German-educated African academics engage in the revitalisation of the AHLIs.

The analysis has led to theoretical, practical and policy implications, including the strengthening of the relationship between the African academic diaspora and AHLIs and the revitalisation of academic programmes in Africa through transnational education and mobility. I contend that internationalisation should bring about positive change in Africa as elsewhere.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the Council for Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) for accepting my proposal to investigate the engagement of Germany-based academics in revitalising African higher learning institutions. The acceptance enabled me to conduct the study which eventually made this publication possible. I am also grateful to the Carnegie Corporation of New York for funding the entire project.

St. Augustine University of Tanzania (SAUT) was kind enough to allow me to use its resources to support my study. For the administration, staff and students: I say thank you.

Indeed, the study would have been impossible without the consent and responses of research participants or respondents. I remain indebted to them all.

In a special way, I thank Philbert Kakwezi for assisting me in data collection, Hans H. Kottemann for logistical support, Living Komu for proofreading the work, Abdallah Possi for writing the Foreword and the anonymous reviewers for a job well done.

For the continued inspiration from my wife, Mariasalome and children: Georgia, Georgette and Marius, I can only promise to read more and write better. Living is learning. This is an opportunity to learn.

The research on which this work is based was made possible by a grant from the Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) 2016 Post-Doctoral Fellowship Programme, funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AA German Federal Foreign Office AAU Association of African Universities

ABU Ahmadou Bello University

ACU Association of Commonwealth Associations

ADB African Development Bank

AHLIs African Higher Learning Institutions

AISEC International Association of Students in Economic and

Commercial Studies

AU African Union

AUF Association of the Universities of the Francophonie

BEST-D Business Environment Strengthening for Tanzania Dialogue

BMBF Federal Ministry for Research and Education
CADFP Carnegie African Diaspora Fellowship Programme

CDD Community-Driven Development

CIDA Canadian International Development Agency

CIDRC Canadian International Development Research Centre

CIM Centre for International Migration

CLEAN-Africa Community Level Environmental Awareness Network

Foundation-Africa

CODESRIA Canadian Network for International Surgery
CODESRIA Council for Social Science Research in Africa
CPRA Centre for Policy Research and Advocacy

CSOs Civil Society Organisations

DAAD German Academic Exchange Service
DANIDA Danish International Development Agency

DFG German Research Foundation

DIES Dialogue on Innovative Higher Education Strategies

DRC Democratic Republic of Congo

EC European Commission

EEF Ethiopian Educational Fund EUA European University Association FNS Friedrich Naumann Foundation

GDP Gross Domestic Product

GERD Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam

GIZ German Association for International Co-operation

GTM Grounded Theory Method

HE Higher Education HoD Head of Department

IAEPs International Academic Exchange Programmes

IAESTE International Association for the Exchange of Students for

Technical Experience

ICT Information and Communication Technology

IMF International Monetary Fund iN4iN Intelligence for Innovation

INEMA International Education Management

INGOs International Non-governmental Organisations IOM International Organisation for Migration

ISSER Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research

ITT Institute for Technology and Resources Management in the

Tropics and Subtropics

IUCEA Inter-University Council for East AfricaJICA Japan International Co-operation AgencyKAAD Catholic Academic Exchange Service

MHH Muhimbili National Hospital
MoU Memorandum of Understanding
NGO Non-governmental Organisation

NPOs Non-profit Organisations

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PAMBA Parliament without Barriers

PAUWES Pan African University Institute of Water and Energy Sciences

PDG Partnership for Democratic Governance

POs People's Organisations

POTC People's Organisations Theory of Change PODT People's Organisations Development Theory PSAM Public Services Accountability Monitor

QA Quality Assurance

SARC Swedish Agency for Research Co-operation

SARUA Southern African Regional Universities Association

SAUT St. Augustine University of Tanzania

SDC Swiss Agency for Development and Co-operation SEMA Students' Environmental Maintenance Association SIDA Swedish International Development Agency

SMEs Small and Medium Enterprises

SMIS Students Management Information System

STC-EST Specialised Technical Committee on Education, Science and

Technology

STISA Science, Technology and Innovation Strategy for Africa

SUZA State University of Zanzibar TH University of Applied Sciences

TNE Transnational education

TPSF Tanzania Private Sector Foundation

UDOM University of Dodoma
UDSM University of Dar es Salaam

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation UNU-EHS United Nations University Institute for Environment and

Human Security

UIS UNESCO Institute for Statistics

UK United Kingdom

URT University Revitalisation Theory

USA United States of America

USAID United States Agency for International Development

WB World Bank

WHO World Health Organisation WTO World Trade Organisation

ZEF Centre for Development Research

About the Author

George Mutalemwa is lecturer in Development and Communication Studies at St. Augustine of Tanzania (SAUT). He has lived and taught in Kenya and Germany. He serves as the Editor-in-Chief of the Journal of Sociology and Development and as Executive Secretary of the Association of Catholic Universities and Higher Institutes of Africa and Madagascar. He has published on participatory development, community-based organisations and academic diaspora. Dr. Mutalemwa was formerly Director of International Programmes at SAUT.

Introduction

The engagement of the African academic diaspora in African Higher Learning Institutions (AHLIs) is probably the single most important intellectual remittance geared towards revamping academic development in Africa, given the qualifications of the academic diaspora as the literature elucidates. This is because the available literature has, for several decades, focused on other types of remittances (Foulds and Zeleza 2014). For example, in 2016, migrants sent approximately 585 billion US-Dollars to their home countries worldwide, to support their families or friends who lived there. Many people – especially in developing countries – depend on these payments. In Nepal and Liberia, these money transfers (or 'remittances') account for more than 30 per cent of the current Gross Domestic Product (GDP).¹

In the present analysis, this engagement presupposes theoretical and methodological substantiation on at least two levels, which are rather under-researched as articulated by Foulds and Zeleza (2014) and Schmelz (2009). First, the current analysis seeks to explain the involvement of the academic diaspora who engages with African universities and the sustainability of the engagement. Second, it attempts to unpack prevailing conditions at African universities that engage with the academic diaspora through concrete academic programmes, particularly in research and teaching.

In this regard, a few questions deserve a critical reflection, namely the extent, quality, quantity and sustainability of the engagement of the academic diaspora. This further presupposes the assessment of the academic diaspora, the African universities as well as any involved third party on the relevance of the engagement informed by a people's organisations development theory (PODT) as developed by Mutalemwa (2015). PODT emphasises ownership of a process in organising as a precondition for delivery and sustainability.

University students from sub-Saharan Africa are the most mobile in the world, with one out of every 16 – or 5.6 per cent – studying abroad, according to a report from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) of 2006.² At the other end of the scale, only one out of every 250 North American students (0.4 per cent) studies overseas, making this group the least mobile. Most North Americans go to western European countries like Germany and England. Despite the often challenging situations experienced by African students abroad, many graduates go on to hold important positions in their home countries, including those who have studied in Germany and Europe at large.

However, there is also a remarkable number of African graduates who remain in Europe after completing their studies, a phenomenon known as brain drain. Brain drain refers to the migration of educated personnel in search of the better standard of living and quality of life, higher salaries, access to advanced technology and more stable political conditions in different places worldwide (Dodani and LaPorte 2005). One argument for this is bad governance in their home countries. The connections between brain drain, brain gain, brain circulation on the one hand, and good governance and bad-governance on the other, need to be addressed in the international discourse in development politics (CLEAN-Africa Conference 2016).

Brain gain is the benefit to a country as a result of the immigration of a highly qualified person whereas brain circulation means the possibility for developing countries to draw on the skills, know-how and other forms of experience gained by their migrants – whether they have returned to their country of origin or not – and members of their diaspora.³ Africa is in a unique position of trying to catch up. The first President of Tanzania, Julius Nyerere, posited that Africans should run while others walk if Africans have to catch up with the rest of the world.

The unique position in which Africa finds itself as a youthful continent with mobile students coupled with socio-economic development challenges dictates that Africans should reconsider revitalising African universities through improvements in education, research, technology and innovation. Africa is a youthful continent: nearly 41 per cent of its population is under the age of 18. To address the unique challenges of this demographic structure, the African Union (AU) has adopted a 50-year Agenda 2063 to help guide the socioeconomic transformation of the continent with particular reference to the youth (Juma 2016).

One of the objectives of Agenda 2063 is to reposition the continent as a strategic player in the global economy through improved education and application

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of science and technology in development. The AU's Science, Technology and Innovation Strategy for Africa, 2024 (STISA- 2024) provides an initial 10-year framework for pursuing this goal. Achieving the objectives of STISA-2024 will require aligning education, research and innovation with long-term socioeconomic objectives. The AU's Specialised Technical Committee on Education, Science and Technology (STC-EST) is well-positioned to play a strategic role in guiding and fostering the reforms needed to improve the integration of education, research and innovation (Juma 2016: 2).

This work appreciates the complexity of the concept diaspora as advanced by Zeleza (2004) whereby the concept denotes a process, a condition, a space and a discourse embodied in cultural, temporal and spatial considerations. Against the backdrop of this conceptual complexity, and for the sake of the present analysis, diaspora refers to permanent and temporal Germany-educated African scholars. These scholars may or may not be affiliated with African universities through certain programmes or projects. Hence, diaspora is broadly conceptualised, with a focus on Germany.

In the above conceptualisation of the diaspora, we discuss the engagement of other African scholars who have or are currently studying in Germany to determine their contribution to the revitalisation of AHLIs. The diaspora is not a static process or entity and should not be confined to a single geographical location. As it shall be made evident, there is no formal organisation known as the African diaspora in Germany. Therefore, the current analysis pays particular attention to African scholars with a German higher academic degree obtained in Germany to tease out their engagement in the revitalisation of AHLIs. Such scholars may be residing in Germany fulltime, or oscillate living between Germany and Africa in search of transnational education (TNE).

In this analysis, the revitalisation of AHLIs denotes improvement, advancement and development of quality education, students and staff in terms of the betterment of the academic programmes and curricular. In this conceptualisation, revitalisation is essentially a question of change or development that is sustainable in nature (Biekart and Fowler 2012). The current work, then, borrows a theory from Development Studies and seeks to discuss its applicability towards revamping African universities through the engagement of African academics with at least one German degree.

I advance the argument that the engagement of the African academic diaspora as well as scholars and African universities may be effective and sustainable if the latter take the initiative in identifying their needs, affirming their strengths and acknowledging their challenges. It is through this awareness that African universities can claim ownership. As the literature shows, there is increasing agreement that the fundamental flaw in development theory and practice is the logic that has initiatives of the development process emanating from government or non-governmental organisation (NGO) programmes being controlled by urban technical elites in alliance with international development agencies (White 2004). The link between the collaborative efforts of African academics, the diaspora and African universities on the one hand and the development or transformation of higher learning⁴ on the other deserves a theoretical underpinning.

This work situates its analysis on a development theoretical framework, which postulates that confronted with development challenges, individual universities seek solutions through taking initiatives and networking, including third parties, whose ultimate goal is change and transformation (Mutalemwa 2015). Hence, this work seeks to ultimately discuss the applicability of this theoretical framework on the African academic diaspora and the revitalisation of African universities, employing the case of Germany whose engagement in the diaspora is essential but fairly new when compared to her European counterparts (Schmelz 2009).

While recognising that some scholars have engaged in the brain drain, brain gain and brain circulation debates for decades (Oezden and Schiff 2007), this analysis seeks to find out how these debates shape and translate into concrete academic programmes in order to further the discussion on the relationship between theory and practice. For example, apart from examining the improvement of infrastructure at universities one may proceed to investigate curriculum development and the qualification of lecturers as interrogated by the literature (Schmelz 2008).

This book is divided into ten chapters beginning with the introduction as Chapter One. This chapter provides the objectives of the work through a Development Studies perspective. Chapter Two consists of the Methodological and Theoretical Reflections. It contains the motivation for the study and discusses qualitative and quantitative approaches to research. Chapter Three analyses the discourses on brain drain, brain gain and brain circulation. Chapter Four presents the case of the African Good Governance Network (AGGN). AGGN is an association of Africans who pursued their Master's and especially PhD degrees in Germany. Chapter Five is devoted to the discussion of internationalisation and mobility through transnational education (TNE).

Chapter Six treats the engagement of African academics in the revitalisation of the AHLIs, pointing out examples of the programmes and projects in Africa.

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Chapter Seven highlights funding opportunities and initiatives to support the academic diaspora as well as the challenges involved in the availability of funds as well as cultural differences between Africa and Germany. Chapter Eight focuses on the use of information and communication technology (ICT) in facilitating learning in Africa. Chapter Nine introduces the university revitalisation theory (URT), which comprises four steps. URT is also a method of the revitalisation of the AHLIs. The last chapter is Chapter Ten. It sums up the previous chapters with a conclusion and recommendations.

Notes

- 1. https://www.alumniportal-deutschland.org/en/global-goals/sdg-10-inequalities/infographics-remittances-money-transfers/
- 2. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=33154&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html
- 3. https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/content/brain-gain_en
- 4. https://serve.mg.co.za/content/documents/2015/03/06/african-higher-education-summit.pdf

Methodological and Theoretical Reflections

The idea of exploring the role of African academics and diaspora in Germany was occasioned by a number of motivations and factors. The first motivation was the sheer number of Africans abroad, most of them being educated at Master's and PhD levels. Therefore, it was intellectually tempting to understand and discuss the use of their education for Africa. The second motivation was the role of scholarship providers in Germany who have invested in so much funding for the education of African scholars.

It was thus of interest to understand their motivation and learn from their assessment of the process of funding the scholars and particularly to understand their evaluation of the results that stem from the provision of funds. The third motivation was the academic situation in African universities. The motivation was based on the academic performance for most African countries which deserved a lot of attention in the university internationalisation discourse of particular importance was to debunk the engagement of African academics and diaspora based in Germany as well as former African scholars who studied in Germany at Master's and PhD levels. The choice of these academic levels was based on the fact that most funding agencies in Germany provide more scholarships to postgraduates than undergraduates. Furthermore, postgraduates are the ones who typically teach at tertiary level and hence have a bigger role to play in the revitalisation of the AHLIs.

The first activity was the gathering of information and the literature on the engagement of African academics and diaspora in the revitalisation of AHLIs. In gathering this information, I used library research as well as online resources but also institutions and individual persons who could provide the necessary data. In this activity of selecting information sources, I created a list of institutions.

After listing the institutions, I made an attempt to contact officials and relevant personnel who could provide the necessary data.

While contacting respondents, the review of the literature was going on. It was through the review that I realised that although there were research findings about a few African countries whose diaspora in Germany engaged in the development of their respective countries, the focus was on the provision of remittances rather than on tertiary education revitalisation. Additionally, there was no such thing as the African diaspora in Germany as a single entity. The extant associations were country-based rather than continental. This necessitated my inclusion of all African academics in Germany, provided they had obtained a degree there or were at least in the process of completing their Master's or PhD degree.

The review advanced sub-questions to help respond to the gap in the literature by considering four interrelated themes. First, it examined the engagement of the African scholars and academic diaspora in revitalising AHLIs both theoretically and practically. Second, it explained the programmes that exist in home universities linking higher learning institutions with the academic diaspora and scholars. Third it discussed the sustainability of the current and past areas of engagement between African universities and the academic diaspora and scholars. Fourth and finally, it touched upon the role of the third party in the process of university-diaspora engagement in the revitalisation of AHLIs through transnational education and mobility.

The main purpose of the current analysis was to appreciate and improve the quality of AHLIs through the engagement of the academic diaspora while striving to (re)build, maintain, improve and sustain the bond between the diaspora plus returning experts on the one hand and their homelands on the other hand through concrete and sustainable academic programmes. The study also attempted to identify and synchronise workable practices from numerous countries which may help various countries and universities learn from each other.

There are three objectives guiding the current analysis. The first one is the identification of academic programmes mediated by university-diaspora including African scholars with a German degree. The second one is the attempt to compare engagement practices across selected African countries and universities. The third is the construction of a theory and methodology for revitalising the university-diaspora engagement.

As a research-based analysis I advance the argument that there is a connection between the research question and the methods for answering the question. The research question to answer in this connection is: How can the engagement of the academic diaspora revitalise higher education (HE) in Africa, given the expansion of African universities and their pursuit of quality management? In answering this question, this work proposes appropriate research methods. The 'how'-research question usually presupposes a qualitative approach in data collection and analysis. The qualitative approach therefore guides the present work.

The literature shows that the qualitative approach is predominant in organisational and community contexts because so much of the research in this context is involved with gauging people's perceptions. It is people's views of situations and events that researchers generally want to explore. People's views are then subjected to investigator's interpretation. Such interpretation is intrinsically qualitative as Kayrooz and Trevitt (2006) aptly demonstrates.

The author conducted interviews, both online and face-to-face, with twenty members of the academic diaspora, twenty university staff members in Africa, and ten respondents from selected German institutions. The purpose of conducting interviews was to gather data from the respondents' perspective. Interviews help gauge ideas, opinions, feelings and views of the respondents (Babbie 2013). Furthermore, the author reviewed documents dealing with the engagement between universities and members of the academic diaspora to assess the nature and history of the engagement, the available projects, memoranda of understanding (MoU) and any other evidence of the university-diaspora engagement.

A review of more documents comprised sources from third parties which provided information regarding the engagement of the academic diaspora in a particular university. The third party was more independent and thus probably capable of providing a more plausible appraisal of the engagement than both the universities and the academic diaspora which may have interests to protect. The third party here refers to public and private organisations interested in supporting the diaspora and their countries of origin.

Linking data from universities, academic diaspora and the third party helped the author to compare information, experiences and evidence provided thus strengthen the quality of data as one of the benefits of triangulation as described by Bell (2010). The reason for triangulation is to compare and contrast findings by using different methods. As the literature points out, the key to triangulation is to see the same thing from different perspectives and thus to be able to confirm or challenge the findings of one method with those of another (Laws, Harper and Marcus 2003).

Since the study intended to test the application of the PODT, the author, therefore, employed quantitative methods. As such the study employed mixed-

methods, leveraging the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004; Feilzer 2010). The study adopted triangulation as the type of mixed-methods designs. The purpose of this design is to obtain different but complementary data on the same question as explained by Creswell and Clark (2006).

The author employed purposive sampling to study members of the African diaspora as well as universities engaging in collaborative research, teaching and public service as the core functions of a university. Purposive sampling is a nonprobability sampling technique that a researcher uses to choose a sample of subjects or units from a population (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim 2015. The sample included public and private universities while considering the regional variations to compare different regions.

This work benefitted from the data from numerous African countries, particularly four African regions, namely Eastern, Central, Southern and Western. In these regions, the current investigation analysed data from St. Augustine University of Tanzania; The University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; Catholic University of Eastern Africa, Kenya; Makerere University, Uganda; State University of Zanzibar, Tanzania; University of Cape Town, South Africa; University of Kigali, Rwanda; National University of Rwanda, Butare, Rwanda; University of Ghana and the University of Mauritius. This was an attempt to characterise the regional diversity of Africa. The respondents included members of the diaspora and returning scholars who have been engaging with home universities for at least three years.

The choice of Germany was also purposive as Germany has been involved in supporting the diaspora and universities in Africa (Bonfiglio, McGregor and Siegel 2015), Schlenzka 2009) although when compared to neighbours, Germany's role in the diaspora since decolonisation is rather new (Schmelz 2009). The study examined a pattern of African diaspora and home universities, which may help inform government policy regarding the academic diaspora both in Germany and in Africa. Similarly, the author investigated the involvement of local diaspora such as that of Kenya, which seems to be amongst the most active diaspora members (SOFRECO 2013). Others include Ghanaian, Cameroonian, Ethiopian and Southern African diaspora.

The author employed Alan Bryman's four steps in analysing qualitative data (Bryman 2012). In step one, he read the interviews and texts from transcripts, making notes at the end, looking for what the text is about, identifying major themes, unusual issues and events and finally grouping cases into types, or

categories in relation to the research question. In step two, the author reread the themes, marking them, typing out marginal notes and annotations, putting labels for codes, highlighting key words and noting any analytic ideas suggested. In step three, the author coded the text by systematically marking the text, indicating pieces of text, identifying themes and indexing them. Strauss and Corbin (1998) define open coding as the analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in data. He then reviewed the codes, eliminating repetitive and similar codes, and combining codes into groupings.

In step four, the author related general theoretical ideas to the text, identifying significance for the respondents and establishing interconnections between the codes. In the last analysis, he related the codes to the research question and the research literature. The aim of such analysis was to develop a theory on the revitalisation of the AHLIs through the engagement of scholars and academic diaspora, particularly those with German training and education.

The results showed a pattern in the areas of university-diaspora engagement across sampled universities, similarities in the process and nature of the engagement of the scholars and the AHLIs, a dearth on the Germany-based academics literature when compared to the literature on the African academic counterparts in America and the United Kingdom (UK). Lastly, the study showed that there is need for an improved process of the university-diaspora engagement in research, teaching and public service based on theorisation and a grand African vision informed by local demands as well as dictates of culture and reason while seeking to promote internationalisation across African countries. Teaching, research and public service need not be taken in isolation but rather should be combined as Juma (2016) argues for the establishment of innovation universities in Africa.

The literature proposes the creation of 'Innovation Universities' that combine research, teaching, community service and commercialization in their missions and operations. They would depart from the common practice where teaching is carried out in universities that do little research, and where research is done in national research institutes that do not undertake teaching. Under this model, there is little connection with productive sectors. The idea therefore is not just to create linkages between those activities but to pursue them in a coordinated way under the same university structure. Innovation universities can be created in diverse fields such as agriculture, health, industry, services, and environment to advance sustainable development and inclusive growth (Juma 2016).

In conclusion, the available literature focuses either on general financial remittances, cultural development as well as development projects or studies on

diaspora members supporting their home countries with a special emphasis on individual countries from which members of the academic diaspora hail (Foulds and Zeleza 2014). Besides, the focus on such development projects outlines the activities without detailing a critical examination of the sustainability of such project activities. The present work seeks to provide a cross-country analysis of the engagement of the diaspora with a critical appraisal of the working conditions within home universities in Africa. The overarching goal is to optimise resources which are often limited all over the world, particularly in Africa.

Brain Drain – Brain Gain – Brain Circulation Discourses

There are numerous socio-cultural, political and economic reasons that account for brain drain or the flight of human capital, brain gain or the benefits of foreign education to one's home country and brain circulation or the possibility of utilising one's education at home or abroad. Some of the reasons are more obvious than others. Pires; Kassimir and Brhane (1999) and Shayo (2014) showed that over the past four decades a high proportion of students and staff from universities in southern countries (especially those from African universities) who participated in International Academic Exchange Programmes (IAEPs) in universities in northern countries did not return to their home countries for social, economic, political and institutional reasons.

Brain drain, as the emigration of skilled nationals, results in a depletion of skilled human resource in the countries of origin. The African Union (2018) estimates that about 70,000 skilled professionals emigrate from Africa every year. Currently, Africa is the world's youngest continent, with an estimated 10 to 12 million young Africans joining the labour force each year. Yet the continent is able to create only about 3 million jobs annually. With limited economic opportunities, many young Africans are migrating to Europe and America for economic opportunities.

In 2016, the International Monetary Fund's (IMF) World Economic Outlook reported a growing number of African migrants in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries. Estimated at 7 million in 2013, the total number of African migrants in OECD countries could rise to 34 million by 2050. In 2013, France, the United Kingdom (UK), and the United States (US) hosted about 50.0 percent of the total sub-Saharan African diaspora. Africa's Island countries are most impacted by this

phenomenon, with almost one-third of Cape Verde's population and about 10.0 per cent of Mauritius, São Tomé & Príncipe, and Seychelles' population living outside the country (IMF 2016).

Whereas one may acknowledge the various arguments that account for brain drain, these very arguments must be tested in relation to their plausibility in terms of the political, cultural, socio-economic and technological explanations. It is the aim of this section to unpack these arguments from the standpoint of the literature as well as the empirical evidence from some respondents who also argue from their own experiences.

Nyerere has stated that while some people in the north are going to the moon, the people of the south must be going to the village. In response to this dichotomous comparison, Mazrui retorts that those people in the north have gone to the moon and back, yet the people of the south have not yet gone to the village (Mazrui 1967). One way of conceptualising this idea is to examine the post-colonial elite who have nothing to do with the village except to visit the village to beg for votes occasionally. The essence of going to the village consists in focusing attention where development needs are greater. In the context of the revitalisation of AHLIs, the attention of the African scholars should be such that it aims to solve societal problems in the villages, suburbs and townships in Africa.

Arguments for Brain Drain

Beginning with political reasons, both the literature and the respondents show a disconnection between the governments and the people they are supposed to serve. This is often seen in the government priorities which do not seem to take people's needs into consideration. This situation is often aggravated and exemplified by bad governance practices. The gravity of these practices certainly differs from country to country. This fact may also account for differences in country inclination towards brain drain across the continent. One of the respondents sums up the political reason for brain drain indicating that some decision makers in Africa are not supportive.

Most Africans are not happy with how things work in Africa. The dream is to change the world, but it takes two to tango: policy-makers in Africa and experts in the diaspora. Decision-makers are not supportive. Even ordinary people are not ready to change. People have been blinded by religion, lost hope in everything but God. Change should start at the family level. If you are sick, go to hospital, not to witches and churches. I wonder why should educated people not get into politics and influence change (Respondent from Uganda 2016).

Field data seems to suggest dissatisfaction on the side of some African scholars regarding how the governments back home in Africa handle recommendations coming from the members of the African diaspora in Germany and perhaps elsewhere in the world. It seems that none of the powers-that-be takes responsibility to directly respond to such recommendations and proposals. Instead they place the responsibility elsewhere. This is a kind of malaise which keeps some Africans abroad as the following quotation makes clear:

On my side, I started a long time ago, looking for ways of collaborating with home universities but I'm disappointed that until now my efforts have been in vain. I tried to seek partnership with the University of Marburg in co-operation with a certain Professor. I set out to go to St. John's University of Dodoma and talked to leaders of that university. This was on my own travel expenses to and from Germany. As I was in Dodoma, I went to UDOM (University of Dodoma) and I talked to the Vice- Chancellor. This was after talking to the Prime Minister about my ideas. It was his advice [that] I see the Vice-Chancellor. At that time, the prime Minister was attending parliamentary sessions in Dodoma, so we had a long conversation on this and other issues. These are just a few examples to explain to you how we, scholars who are here, would very much like to support our home universities, but we come across lots of problems, such as these disappointing ones (Respondent from Tanzania 2016).

The political argument for brain drain is closely bound up with an economic one. If the government decides to pay lip service to education and research by allocating to the ministry of education meagre resources in annual budgets, the trickle-down effect to universities and university employees would demotivate staff to stay and work in Africa. Their monthly salaries would be below standard, making it hard to meet basic requirements. Indeed, even access to basic technology such as the Internet becomes limited or impossible as the following quotation suggests.

The facilitation of professors and lecturers is not encouraging. For example, paying a lecturer 1,000 Euros a month in Uganda is a joke. Professors can't concentrate. The Internet itself is very expensive. I think the Government should regulate Internet providers to support universities. In Ethiopia, at times, the Internet is blocked (Respondent from Uganda 2016).

In addition, socio-cultural reasons pose arguments for brain drain, which equally keep some Africans away from their mother continent. One of the arguments is the apparent resistance to change in culture and mind-set on the part of some Africans. Apparently metaphysical conjectures gain the upper hand against common sense and practical reason in Africa. For instance, a person finds it perfectly fitting to

pray for a sick person for months rather than seek medical attention. Recourse to witchcraft is equally rampant. According to a respondent from Uganda, change of attitude towards cultural development is necessary and it should start at the family level. Otherwise, returning to Africa becomes less attractive.

... There are some who remain abroad and in Mainland Tanzania more than Zanzibar. Zanzibar is separate, mainlanders; I think many are coming back. Some of them are, of course, hooked up with their employers. They are employed. But those who are not employed managed to go for oversees training, they never come back (Respondent from UDSM 2017).

The data suggests that change of attitude and mentality needs to be gradual. There needs to be a conversation between the culture that appears to be resistant to change and the one that is prone to it. The academic diaspora from Africa have the better of both cultures having lived in Africa and in Germany and therefore can help influence positive change in their countries. If no possibility of change is in sight, some Africans tend to leave the continent and perpetuate the brain drain syndrome.

The motivation to come to Germany is to get a different perspective and not to undermine education back home. Maybe we try to get things done too soon, after arriving in Africa. We do sacrifice there. Money is not everything. We want to help (Respondent from Uganda 2016).

Arguments for Brain Gain

The categorisation of the arguments for brain drain could be used to discuss the arguments for brain gain as well. These arguments are political, economic and socio-cultural. The literature as well as empirical evidence point to the logic of providing support where it is primarily needed and the necessity of a return on investment on the part of the receiver of that investment. In this section I touch upon these arguments to put the engagement of African scholars and the diaspora in revitalising AHLIs into perspective.

Starting with the logic of providing support where it is primarily needed, an argument goes that in comparison with other nations worldwide, African nations have a myriad of political, economic, social and technological needs that have not been met. Such needs, which are essentially developmental, should be dealt with wherever they appear. However, since they are predominant in Africa, they need the attention that is commensurate with their predominance. To respond to these needs several actors should be in place. These actors cannot exclude African scholars and academic diaspora whether they are in Germany or in a different country outside the African continent. That is the first argument.

The second argument regards return on investment. It seems rational to assume that whoever invests in a given undertaking expects a reward or interest of some kind, which usually corresponds to the amount or quality of that investment in relation to time. It follows that behind the African academic diaspora based in Germany or generally abroad, there are African individuals, society or state that has invested a great deal in their education. This investment could be in the form of money, time and other resources. The use of these resources is not without reason, aim or meaning.

The main reason behind investing in students' education, particularly at the tertiary level is that graduates are expected to be of service to themselves, their families, societies or nation. They are expected to assist in solving problems and contributing to the general welfare of society. In developing countries such as those in Africa, the main challenges are development ones. Development is multidimensional. This means that the graduates should be able to address development issues such as hunger, poverty, education, health, infrastructure, environment, energy and dependency.

There is a distinction between graduates in developed societies and developing ones: Nyerere (1974) argues that graduates in developed societies do not have such opportunities as in Africa, and such social satisfactions as in Africa. A young man or woman there can certainly participate in raising the standard of living of his country; but he may well find that means the difference between a coloured and a black-and-white television service – which is hardly calculated to give one mental or emotional stimulus. But in Africa this is possible, by the use of skills to help people to transform their lives from abject poverty – that is, from fear of hunger and always endless drudgery – to decency and simple comfort.

It is possible to relieve the women of the burden of carrying water on their heads for miles; Africans can help bring light and hope to small children otherwise condemned to malnutrition and disease. Africans can make their own homes – that is, the homes where the masses of Africans live – into decent comfortable places, where all the inhabitants can live in dignity.

Therefore, having persistent development challenges in the midst of numerous educated African scholars calls into question the relationship between education and development. In other words, one would interrogate the role of the scholars, particularly African academic diaspora, in responding to development challenges. In this discussion, I pay close attention to the challenge of tertiary education by analysing the role of the Germany-educated Africans in the revitalisation of AHLIs. I argue that education is for development, transformation and self-reliance.

The investment argument would be incomplete without bringing into discussion the investor. To appreciate this investment, one would need to understand that before attaining a doctorate in Germany, for instance, African parents, guardians, relatives, friends and governments have invested tremendously in the education of students from nursery school, primary school, secondary school, technical school, undergraduate studies and/or even Master's level. These investors are often people with meagre economic resources. The main question remains then why should they invest in their son's and daughter's education despite their low-income status? Indeed, what do they expect in return and what do they actually get at the end of investing so much and for so many years?

I argue that investing in one's education is not an act of sheer altruism or mindless philanthropy. In fact, there are ethical, utilitarian, epistemological and practical reasons behind such an investment. If we argue that investing in education aims at development outcomes on the African continent, we can either expect educated Africans to directly give 'something back' to the continent or influence others to contribute towards the development of the continent, for example, by supporting AHLIs.

The form and approach to how people can give back to their countries might differ from person-to-person or country-to-country. For example, the literature distinguishes orientations between Oxford and Paris. Whereas the former actively encourages volunteerism and third sector engagement, the latter focuses on public service (Power; Allouch; Brown and Tholen 2016).

The language of 'social entrepreneurship', rather than simply 'charitable good works', is revealing and perhaps reflects the largely private sector leanings of our Oxford graduates who were just about to begin careers in a variety of multinational corporations. Although the concept of 'social entrepreneurship' is contested, it generally emphasises an affinity between business practice and social benefit – rather than seeing them as fundamentally opposed (Leadbeater 1997). An affinity between business and social benefit was also evident in some of our Oxford respondents' justifications for their career choices; so that even moving into a lucrative private sector occupation could be reconciled with the need to 'give something back' where the company engaged in forms of 'social entrepreneurship' (Power et al. 2016: 313).

The French way of 'giving something back' is different. However, African scholars can reflect upon it as they develop their own niche in supporting their home countries just as they can compare this with their British counterparts. In general, references to charitable work and volunteering were far less prevalent

in the narratives of our French graduates – either in terms of past experiences or future aspirations. Only two of our Parisian graduates appeared to have done any volunteering (as distinct from internships) and only one other talked about a future in the third sector. However, this does not mean that they had no sense of the need to reconcile their privileged status with social inequalities through 'giving something back.' (Power et al. 2016: 313).

Giving something back to the African continent, however, would render African scholars 'traitors' in whom much has been invested but without any returns on investment using Nyerere's analogy of an educated person and a villager who is sent out to collect food for fellow villagers. This is because this African thinker and political scientist argues that those who are lucky enough to get an education, have a duty to pay for the sweat that others have voluntarily excreted in the provision of that education. It is like a person who was given all the food in a hunger-stricken village so that they could gain strength and search for food in distant places. If this person received the same food but did not bring it to brothers and sisters (the village), that person was a traitor. In the same way, a person who is educated but turns his back to those behind his education may be referred to as a traitor.

There is in fact, only one reason why underdeveloped societies establish and maintain universities. Nyerere (1975) argues that this is done as an investment in future. Underdeveloped societies spend large and disproportionate amounts of money on few individuals so that they should, in the future, make a disproportionate return to the society. They invest in a man's brain in just the same way as investing in a tractor, and just as we expect tractor to do many times as much work for us as a hand hoe, so we expect a student we have trained to make many times as great a contribution to our well-being as the man who has not had this good fortune.

We are giving to the student while he is at the university, so that we may receive more from him afterwards. We have a right to expect things from university graduates and others who have had higher education of any kind; we do not just have a hope, but an expectation (Nyerere 1974:5).

Arguments for Brain Circulation

Nevertheless, African scholars can, in fact should, also work in Germany and in any developed economy or less developed economy all over the world because there are needs in such countries as well. Indeed, the job market or expertise cannot be confined to cultural or geographical boundaries. In fact, Africans working abroad

contribute, in various ways, towards promoting the African image. However, the central argument here is that it would make much more sense for Africans to work both where the needs are greater and where more returns on investments are expected.

As Nyerere (1974) states, society expects from university both a complete objectivity in the search for truth, and also commitment to society – a desire to serve it. Indeed, it is well known that there are more native experts in developed countries such as Germany, Australia, England, Canada, France and Norway than in Africa. Thus, sending African experts to such western countries is like carrying coal to Newcastle in England because there is plenty of coal over there already. Leaving one's country to live abroad can be both justified and rejected on a number of grounds. Moving away from one's country to reside in another country cannot be considered the only viable solution to the problems that occasioned the departure. However, the act or decision of leaving one's country to stay abroad cannot be objectively condemned as something bad, in itself. One must examine the context in which this change of place transpires.

If, for example, a person has been forced to flee their country as a refugee or asylum seeker during war time or other similar conditions including political intolerance and dictatorial practices, it would make sense to accept their reason(s) for leaving the country and living abroad, until at least the conditions in their home country has stabilised. Whatever situation one finds themselves in back home, it may be expected by society for this fleeing person to endeavour to contribute towards solving the problems using the knowledge, skills, and competences acquired through university education, training and experience if they have such capabilities. Otherwise, getting accustomed to the western-style conveniences and comfort zones can be very tempting to overlook one's own country and continent.

Running away from a problem, as it were, is usually not a great beacon of courage but a glaring symbol of fright that is inconsistent with intellectual rigour and confidence. In this connection, African scholars who have been forced to leave their countries for the reasons stated above would reconsider finding courage and returning to their countries of origin so that their society can gain from their knowledge as scholars who have been fortunate enough to learn the best of two cultures. As some scholars contemplate returning to their home countries, governments back in Africa should be working towards improving the country's situation. In a special way, AHLIs should be revitalised by employing qualified academics and by providing facilities to support and stimulate intellectual enquiry and critical thinking.

As some African academics contemplate the probability of and decision to return to their own countries, they cannot avoid reflecting on their identity, their contribution to knowledge and to societal development. Indeed, there are concerns in the literature that such people might lack both a sense of global civic responsibility and a sense of social responsibility to a certain degree. Falk (1993), for instance, claims that unlike the 'global reformers' of previous generations, these new men and women of 'international affairs' comprise a 'denationalised global elite that is virtually without any sense of global civic responsibility'.

Others fear that these new transnational elites will not only lack global obligations, but they will have limited national allegiances and little sense of social responsibility for those left behind 'at home'. Over 20 years ago, Robert Reich (1992:302) spoke of the 'darker side of cosmopolitanism' in which transnational professionals: 'may never develop the habits and attitudes of social responsibility. They will be world citizens, but without accepting or even acknowledging and of the obligations that citizenship in a polity normally implies (Reich 1992).

In conclusion, brain drain is a socio-economic problem, which if not addressed deprives Africa of its well-educated professionals. This problem may be addressed by improving living conditions in Africa while creating opportunities which would attract the professionals to stay and work in Africa. Brain gain follows the logic of return on investment. If African countries have invested in the education and training of its people, it would follow that the same people are going to serve their countries after completion of their studies. Brain gain becomes even more compelling due to the fact that developing countries need the expertise of these professionals even more urgently for Africa's development. Some international organisations have developed programmes to support returning experts as an incentive to curb brain drain and promote brain gain, while also reducing the number of economic migrants in the West.

However, whilst I strongly argue for giving something back to Africa, particularly in the context of revitalising the AHLIs, one should respect the freedom to work anywhere in the world. This freedom enables African diaspora to work at home and abroad and this is the essence of brain circulation and internationalisation. If German experts work perfectly well in Africa, while maintaining close ties to Germany, African expects would be expected to reciprocate naturally without losing sight of their countries of origin. Brain circulation seems to be the golden mean between brain drain and brain gain.

African Academics:

The Case of African Good Governance Network

In several western countries there are both formal and informal associations and networks of Africans residing there. The main aim of these associations, among other aims, is to bring Africans together to work towards addressing certain issues confronting them and their countries. Amongst such associations are diaspora ones. These can be found in countries such as the US, UK, and Norway. In Germany, however, there is no evidence to-date to suggest that an African diaspora exists as an association. In Germany, there are various diaspora associations that are national in character. This might suggest that thinking along national lines amongst African scholars in Germany supersedes continental identification; the justification or falsification of which is in itself a research question.

The association, which depicts the African character over and above national identification, is the African Good Governance Network (AGGN). This section will focus on this association because of its unique character particularly as it comprises educated Africans, predominantly at PhD level. Some Master's students are also members of the AGGN. For AGGN being African is not enough; one should be well-educated in Germany So, in this sense, it is exclusive. In the interest of the discussion of the engagement of African academics in revitalising home universities, field research shows that two-thirds of the members of the AGGN return to Africa, with about half of them working in AHLIs (AGGN Coordinator in Germany 2016).

The Genesis of AGGN

Founded in 2007, AGGN is a formal organisation that aims to improve the situation in Africa through scholars, formerly based in Germany or currently based there. As stated above, AGGN comprises a group of highly educated African academics who are dedicated to good governance principles. Good governance is a term used to describe how public institutions conduct public affairs and manage public resources. Good governance is participatory, consensus-orientated, accountable, transparent, responsive, equitable and responsive, effective and efficient and follows the rule of law.

Due to their qualifications, AGGN members are expected to be among future decision-makers in sub-Saharan Africa. AGGN is a network of peers, who promote the values of good governance and processes of democratisation by accompanying the economic and political transformation in their home countries. The network was founded in 2007 by the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) and consists of African scholars who are currently studying in Germany or have graduated from a German university. Through a set of different programme components, the fellows can promote the network's aims according to their personal situations.

Former German Federal President, Mr. Horst Köhler, played an instrumental role in the founding of this organisation through deliberations with African alumni who studied or worked in Germany. The interest and commitment of the President and, by extension, the German Government have been essential in keeping the organisation active and sustainable as it has turned ten years since its inception and accrued one hundred members by 2017. The government support of this organisation is vital in the current analysis, especially as I explore the sustainability of global partnerships and the independency of African universities in the context of brain drain, brain gain and brain circulation.

Once selected, AGGN fellows, as they are commonly referred to, are offered several workshops a year on various aspects of good governance. The aim of these workshops are to enhance the awareness and theoretical understanding of salient governance issues, thus strengthening the social attitude and preparing future decision-makers to assume their responsibility towards society. These workshops, that bring together a broad range of academic, political and societal representatives, provide a valuable foundation for future networking with German and African organisations in the field of good governance.

Another more practical element of the workshops is the regular skills training. Junior fellows, members who have been in the AGGN for less than three years,

are provided possibilities to enhance their soft skills, as attributes that enable one to interact effectively and harmoniously with other people, in areas relevant to their professional career and their activities within the network, such as public relations, decision-making, and presentation techniques.

Returning to Africa, AGGN fellows have the opportunity to organise AGGN meetings in their respective regions. As senior fellows, members who have been in the AGGN for at least three years, they also occasionally join junior workshops as resource persons. In addition, to the workshops, the DAAD supports all fellows in different good governance-related activities, such as conference participation or realising good governance project ideas. A set of communication tools inform all fellows about recent network developments, individual accomplishments and joint activities. Through ties that develop between and amongst AGGN fellows, the group can rely on each other's support and expertise, for example in professional or scientific interactions, co-operation in good governance activities and in exchanging personal experiences.

AGGN Training Activities

For AGGN, having obtained a German HE degree is necessary but not a sufficient condition for active and effective participation and delivery. AGGN fellows, undergo theoretical and practical training in seminars and workshops on a regular basis for at least two years, mostly organised and conducted in Germany. In some occasions, AGGN organises workshops in Africa. Below are some of the themes addressed in seminars and workshops that have brought together scholars from Sub-Saharan Africa. Although the focus is on good governance, the themes have varied from HE, moderation, brain drain, migration, media, resource management, health, data management, business and innovation, environmental management and massification in higher learning institutions, namely the unprecedented increase in students' enrolments, to name a few. I will present some of the themes here for the sake of illustration, arguing that such workshops provide participants with such essential skills that can be helpful in the revitalisation of AHLIs, thus benefiting the continent through brain gain and brain circulation. In this way brain drain would be curtailed.

Firstly, the governance of HE workshops exposed AGGN fellows to fields relevant to the network members. As stated earlier, about half of the network fellows remain in the field of HE after finishing their studies. An opportunity of learning how to manage AHLIs is vital. The German-African co-operation in the field of HE was another focus of discussion, covered by presentations by

the German Association for International Co-operation (GIZ) and the Federal Ministry for Research and Education (BMBF) representatives on their respective engagement. The workshop also included visits to several DAAD Programmes, namely Dialogue on Innovative Higher Education strategies (DIES) and International Education Management (INEMA) as well as a skills training on 'Moderation and Activating Methods in University Teaching'.¹

Additionally, approximately ten AGGN Fellows residing in West Africa met at the first AGGN West Africa Chapter meeting that took place in Accra, Ghana from November 5th to 8th 2015. This Chapter is one of the four Regional Chapters, the others being the Eastern African Chapter, Southern African Chapter and the Central African Chapter. The Western African meeting aimed at discussing the 'The changing landscape of Higher Education Institutions (HEI) in Africa' as well as to further develop the activities and networking goals of the Chapter.

Approximately 30 external persons, including 20 DAAD alumni as well as one of the DAAD lecturers and the Mutatio Institute - a DAAD alumni spin-off - offered a range of possibilities to network. Networking would help in the revitalisation of AHLIs through promoting the principles of good governance by deliberately and actively pulling together resources towards this end. I contend that networking for its own sake is not a noble cause; it may be a socialising event and pastime luxury while real development problems in Africa abound and adversely affect masses. One of the noble causes is the revitalisation of AHLIs. Networking is a means to a goal but not and end in itself.

The thematic part of the Western Africa Chapter programme included presentations by Wilhelmina Asamoah, a representative of the Ghana Ministry of Education, on the Ghanaian politics on tertiary education, which, among other things, focused on the further development of polytechnics. Her presence also drew the attention of a diverse range of national media to the whole meeting. In this way, AGGN Fellows were able to exchange ideas with some key decision-makers, making their presence visible and their voices audible. The visibility and audibility of AGGN should be felt around AHLIs to influence positive change there.

As an example of visibility and audibility, Robert Owino Odera, AGGN Fellow and member of the East Africa Chapter, gave a presentation on the 'Massification of African Higher Education', drawing from his own scientific work. The meeting also included a presentation by Professor Peter Mayer from the Osnabrück University of Applied Sciences, who spoke about German political foundations in Africa. A final panel discussion on the theme brought together the viewpoints of some of the speakers, but also included AGGN Senior Fellow,

Professor Felix Asante, who works as director at the Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research (ISSER) at the University of Ghana.²

Another workshop for AGG fellows took place in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. In there the nexus between brain drain and good governance created an interesting discussion in a workshop that came up with recommendations and possible solutions as inputs both for policy-makers and the educated people working in and for Ethiopia. In total, 27 participants joined the workshop from Addis Ababa University including from five newly established Ethiopian universities. The workshop took place on December 28-29, 2012. Two relevant political organisations, the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) and the Ethiopian Educational Fund (EEF) were also represented. The majority were PhD candidates who faced the burden of bad governance as opposed to good governance and the temptation of brain drain. Ethiopian intellectuals who either worked outside their country or completed their HE abroad were invited to share their experiences.

The workshop offered a lively forum for presentations, discussions and brought the issue of good governance and brain drain to the attention of different sectors concerned with the matter. Indeed, discussions around brain drain are crosscutting and should not focus exclusively on Africans in the diaspora. They should also focus on the views of policy-makers in Africa, Germany and elsewhere. They should attract the attention of the media and debates amongst higher learning institutions or higher education institutions.³

In addition, there was a workshop that focused on the important area of employing graduate surveys to enhance good governance amongst the AHLIs. The workshop took place in Nairobi, Kenya on June 26-27, 2012. The objective of this workshop was to review the effect of using data in influencing the management of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) as opposed to basing decisions on precedent and norms which could be outdated and subjective. The workshop introduced the notion of a national graduate survey at a discursive level and brainstormed on the next phase of implementation. From the four presentations to initiate discussion, it was noted that while the management of universities appreciated graduate surveys, limited resources, if any, were allocated to their implementation. The workshop targeted mid-level management positions, including of Deans of Faculties and Heads of Departments (HoDs), from six public Kenyan universities. Eight participants attended the workshop.⁴

By the same token, a workshop that took place in Uganda explored the question of ownership as an essential part in the revitalisation of the AHLIs. The

workshop aimed at exchanging expertise and experience about the situation of universities in Uganda in order to analyse the extent to which universities are attempting to solve local problems and envisaging dynamic reforms. In all, twenty-one academics, senior administrative staff and student leaders from six public universities as well as a representative from the DAAD in Uganda attended the workshop. The programme included inputs by the Deputy Vice-Chancellor for Academic Affairs and Deputy Vice-Chancellor for Finance and Administration at Kyambogo University.⁵

One of the aims of the workshops is to equip fellows with the capabilities to bring about positive change in the governance of public institutions in Africa. As a result of the training, fellows are expected to appreciate the changing landscape of HEIs in the world and in Africa, management of the AHLIs while focusing on good governance. In order for AGGN to succeed in bringing about change, fellows would need to own the association both as a network, Regional Chapter and as individuals. The ownership of associations by members is vitally important (Mutalemwa 2015; White 2004; Servaes 1999 and Hyden 1995). Equally important is the role each individual member plays. The following section highlights some of the initiatives taken by individual AGGN members.

AGGN Fellows' Personal Initiatives

Individual AGGN members play an important role in organising such workshops. Time and space do not allow for a detailed treatment of their contributions, however, I will name a few examples. AGGN Senior Fellow Shafiu Mohammed represented the AGGN at various DAAD alumni events that took place in 2015/2016. Most of the events were organized within the university collaboration of Heidelberg University and Ahmadou Bello University (ABU). Shafiu Mohammed was trained in Public Health at Heidelberg University and has been working at ABU. He was co-facilitator or co-lecturer at the events and used the opportunity to inform participants about AGGN. Some of the events, for example, focused on good governance in public health, while others focused scientific methods and funding opportunities.

The following events are worth mentioning: the DAAD Alumni Expert Seminar 'Improving capacities for public health services – Academic targets and networking' in Abuja, Nigeria, from November 27-30, 2015; International Workshop on 'Scientific Writing and Publishing' at ABU in Zaria, Nigeria, December 2-5, 2015, for staff-in-training from strategically selected Departments in the Sciences and Humanities; International Workshop on 'Qualitative Methods

in Health Research' at ABU in Zaria, Nigeria, May 20-25, 2015, for staff-intraining from strategically selected Departments in the Sciences and Humanities; Presentation on 'Scholarships and other Funding Opportunities: German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD)' for everybody interested; And International DAAD alumni workshop on 'Good Governance in Public Health' took place in Myanmar, February 16-20, 2016, for alumni of Heidelberg University Master's programme 'International Public Health'.⁶

In the framework of the celebration of the 10th anniversary of non-profit management studies at the University of Applied Sciences Osnabrück, AGGN Junior Fellow, Jacques Rene Nyembe, organised a workshop on the relevance of ethics in non-profit organisations (NPOs). The workshop took place on September 24, 2016. At that time, Nyembe was pursuing a Master's degree at the same university. The workshop aimed to discuss the mainstreaming of ethical principles in non-governmental organizations (NGOs), NPOs and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) and to give the participants an informed analysis and understanding of ethics and its impact on such organisations.

The programme included an interactive podium discussion between Sebastian Joy, the Managing Director of Vegetarierbund e. V., Albert Recknagel, a board member of 'Terre des Homes' in Germany and Dr. Rolf Wortmann, Head of the Master's programme at the University of Applied Sciences, Osnabrück. The discussion was moderated by Professor, Dr. Gesa Birnkraut from the University of Applied Sciences Osnabrück and Director of the Institut für Kulturkonzepte e.V. The workshop also explored the work of AGGN and its contribution towards improving good governance in African countries.⁷

Back in Africa, during a 21-day workshop in August 2016, the Parliament without Barriers (PAMBA) project began a dialogue on the basic principles of and the need for universally usable, accessible and friendlier barrier-free environments. It began at the Parliament House of Ghana. The central aim of the project was to provide guidance on the creation of barrier-free environments for everyone, including persons with disabilities with the view to increasing political participation. Here, AGGN fellows, Alexander Marful and Paul Osei-Tutu, were a key part of the project's organising team. Further project partners were CLEAN-Africa, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology-Ghana, Central University College - Ghana and Frankfurt University of Applied Sciences.⁸

In addition, a roundtable titled 'Accelerating Innovation and Growth of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) through Responsive Policies' took place on November 23-24, 2016 in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. The main purpose of

the roundtable was to provide an opportunity for scholars, policy-makers, development partners and business practitioners from Africa and beyond to exchange views, share experiences, disseminate research findings and practical lessons on Africa's development and the policies required to promote innovation and competitiveness of African enterprises.

The roundtable comprised several plenary and break-out sessions led by experts on African business development. Research work/reports and presentations were invited from a wide range of disciplines. The roundtable was organised by the Centre for Policy Research and Advocacy (CPRA) and the Tanzania Private Sector Foundation (TPSF) through the support of Business Environment Strengthening for Tanzania Dialogue (BEST-D) in collaboration with the Intelligence for Innovation (iN4iN) Africa Network. It was supported by the University of Leipzig SEPT programme, among others. Richard Adu-Gyamfi, an AGGN Fellow from Ghana and then PhD candidate at the University of Leipzig, played a major role in the organisation of the roundtable.

The knowledge and skills obtained in Germany should be used to influence democratisation in Africa through research and publications by tapping into accumulated local knowledge and experience. In attempting to solve Cameroonian governance issues, for example, one must start at the micro level. This is true for the entire African continent. It is in the interest of African scholars to apply the skills and knowledge acquired in Europe into the various facets of African societies, especially in the democratisation process (Respondent from the University of Bremen 2016).

One of the approaches is to establish co-operation partners with other institutions in Africa, beginning with research and publications with the objective to get the local population informed. Africans are not interested in giving people ready-made literature from Europe, but to make use of the local realities in the various countries on the continent and encourage people to read. There are a lot of problems on the continent because some people are not informed. Knowledge is power. In Cameroon for instance, there are internal difficulties because people do not get to read and understand the laws (Respondent from the University of Bremen 2016). People have to be sensitised on many issues for them to understand the stakes involved; at the levels of the governor and the governed. Africans need to conduct research at the local level to better appreciate the problems.

The initiatives of promoting good governance and development in Africa made by individual AGGN fellows as well as diaspora are, to a certain extent, being recognised across African countries. Fellows and members of the diaspora

from countries such as Zambia, Ghana and Senegal are cited as good examples of promoting the AGGN. Such members leave Europe to go and work towards developing Africa.

It is not a matter of just talking; it is an issue of getting people together. We are making efforts to implant the network in regions across the continent so that we focus on development in that region. We also have to learn from good examples like the positive impact of the Ghanaian and Senegalese diaspora contributing to the development of their countries. This is a combination of good governance and the diaspora coming back to make their own contribution. AGGN Fellows in Ghana and Senegal can organise workshops in any other part of the continent and explain the motive of their success and how it can be transferred and vice versa. We do not want to sit in Europe and talk. We want to have partners in the African continent and work on the ground, with our existing institutions. We want to do research in Africa and tell Africans what is happening in their backyard (Alemazung 2012:1).¹⁰

In contrast to the European understanding and practice of good governance based on functioning institutions (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2013), Africa seems to have numerous decision-makers who do not respect the rule of law, for example, which is an integral part of good governance. Some of them are lethargic and corrupt. Similarly, some citizens equally succumb to practices that do not augur well with the principles of good governance. Part of the reason for this practice is that the population is not informed about their role in ensuring that they participate fully and actively in deciding how their nations are governed (Alemazung 2012). Hence, the role of education cannot be over-emphasised. More importantly, I argue that highly educated Africans can and should help change the situation in Africa, starting with the revitalisation of the AHLIs, using their knowledge and skills obtained in Germany. However, failure to accommodate change in Africa could lead to brain drain amongst some well-educated Africans.

Both the African academics and members of the diaspora living in Africa, and especially those residing outside the continent, have a pivotal role to play in refining and shaping the narrative and discourse on the functionality and dysfunctionality of African governance and democracy. The literature is often awash with a negative portrayal of Africa as if that is the only image of the continent. The positive aspects are often overlooked. That is why some scholars such as Foulds and Zeleza (2014), Nyerere (1974) and Mazrui (1995) insist on African academics telling the Africa story. It is time African academics examined what functions rather than what does not function. Of course this idea does not exonerate the skeleton in the African closet. In this way, African academics

would be promoting positive developments in the continent while ironing out weaknesses around as the following quotation shows:

We have complained a lot in the African continent. As a guest speaker in one development conference on Cameroon in Germany, I spoke about the success stories of some Cameroonian diaspora who have comeback home and invested, and they are doing great. Somebody took the floor and said we should not talk as if everything is positive in Cameroon. I responded that we already know about the negative things happening, so we have to apply behavioural knowledge to change (Alemazung 2012: 1).¹¹

In 2006, the Swiss Agency for Development and Co-operation (SDC) started its support towards social accountability in Southern Africa through a partnership with the Public Services Accountability Monitor (PSAM) at Rhodes University in South Africa. At the time, PSAM was involved in social accountability an approach of building accountability through civic engagement in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. It was monitoring public resource management within the provincial departments of health, education, social welfare and housing.

Impressed by PSAM's work in the province, the SDC identified social accountability and public resource management as a regional public good that may have high relevance to other African countries as well. The SDC invited PSAM to engage in a regional learning program to promote social accountability in six countries of Southern Africa, including Tanzania, Mozambique, Zambia, Malawi, South Africa and Zimbabwe. This was achieved through a Rhodes University Accredited Fundamentals Course on Social Accountability and incountry training and mentorship in the six countries to adapt the PSAM social accountability model into their county contexts.

The conceptualisation of social accountability was advanced by an AGGN fellow, Ephrem Gebre from Ethiopia who worked in South Africa. According to the fellow, social accountability, following PSAM's logic, essentially refers to citizens' right to demand explanations and justifications on the utilisation of public resources to progressively realise people's socio-economic rights in accordance with international and constitutional obligations of states. In many ways, it complements political accountability that enables citizens to elect and recall their governments periodically. It enables citizens to regularly monitor the performance of government when it comes to public services delivery by focusing on public resource management.

Within the framework of social accountability, the PSAM model identifies five processes that constitute the major aspects of a socially accountable state:

(1) strategic planning and resource allocation; (2) expenditure management; (3) performance management; (4) public integrity; and, (5) oversight. An effective state is accordingly characterised by the capability of state institutions to properly implement these public resource management processes complemented by effective oversight by parliaments and the watchdog roles of CSOs. Improved public resource management in turn is expected to lead to a more efficient public service delivery.

In summing up, through the multidisciplinary nature of the members' academic specialisations, AGGN finds itself in a privileged position to approach governance through a diversity of development sectors. In other words, members can address governance from the perspective of the social sciences, humanities, and the natural sciences because members of the association originate from diverse fields such as Development Studies, Political Science, Theology, Mathematics, Languages, Medicine, Engineering, Geography and Computer Science.

Thus, AGGN can and should contribute tremendously towards the improvement of good governance on the continent in general. In a special way the association can play an instrumental role in the revitalisation of AHLIs. Like other institutions, universities need good governance. AGGN fellows know quite well the quality, management, strengths as well as challenges of higher learning in both Africa and Germany. This experience is essential in blending the knowledge, skills, competences, values and attitudes from Africa and abroad to revitalise AHLIs.

However, recognising the presence of strengths and challenges of African universities is likely the first step in exploring ways of revamping university operations and quality management. The second step is for the AGGN to reexamine itself and become proactive in inculcating the values of governance on the African continent, in a special way, to improve and support AHLIs. This role is easily conceivable from a theoretical standpoint. In practical terms however, this fact is rather difficult to operationalise. This difficulty is related to the dependency of the network on DAAD, especially for financial support and general management, and coordination.

The major challenge for the AGGN is ownership. For the network to be really effective, AGGN members should own the day-to-day operations of the association at both managerial and organisational levels. This ownership presupposes financial autonomy as well. The network, which has its constitution and a team of well-educated and democratically elected leaders, is expected to manage the activities of the association. In other words, AGGN fellows should utilise their education

and expertise by taking leadership in facilitating change, rather than perpetuating dependency on Germany or, by extension, any other country. Leadership needs and challenges in Africa have been well articulated in the literature for example Othman (2000) and Mo Ibrahim Foundation (2012).

To bring the issue of dependency to bear on AGGN management, a few questions are necessary for the network members. Suppose the DAAD decides not to support the AGGN or withdraws its engagement in the affairs of the network, would the fellows independently keep the association alive? Would that be the end of the network of highly educated African fellows, educated in Germany? As AGGN fellows reflect on the revitalisation of AHLIs, so should they consciously and continuously reflect on their own meaning and future. They should particularly do so in relation to their contribution towards the transformation of the continent and their countries of origin. Africa needs intellectuals to improve societal conditions.

Notes

- 1. http://www.aggn.org/workshop/governance-higher-education
- http://www.aggn.org/workshop/changing-landscape-higher-education-institutionsafrica
- 3. http://www.aggn.org/project/effects-brain drain-higher-education-system-ethiopia
- 4. http://www.aggn.org/project/improving-good-governance-higher-education-using-graduate- survey
- 5. http://www.aggn.org/project/generating-ownership-higher-education-reforms-uganda
- 6. https://www.aggn.org/project/aggn-represented-various-daad-alumni-events-nigeria-myanmar
- 7. https://www.aggn.org/project/relevance-ethic-non-profit-organizations
- 8. https://www.aggn.org/project/pamba-project-ghana
- 9. https://www.aggn.org/news/first-roundtable-smes-innovation-and-responsive-policies-2016
- https://cameroonpostline.com/lackofinformationisabigprobleminafrica/ Interview with Joy Alemazung was done by Marine Perron, Coordinator of the GPSA Knowledge Platform, at Funder, Centre for Analysis and Research, in December 2015.
- 11. http://www.africanews.com/site/list_message/36835

Internationalisation and Mobility

African students studying abroad are engaged in the process of internationalisation in pursuit of transnational education (TNE) through intercontinental mobility. In this work, internationalisation is defined as the process of integrating universities and its students and staff into the emerging global economy in order to enhance the quality of education and research. In the context of Africa internationalisation should be conceived in terms of socio-economic and political development, which needs urgent attention. In a special way, internationalisation should be analysed in relation to relevance of content (Oanda 2009). Higher education (HE) has a role to play in this development through the engagement of experts. Conversely, a developed society is likely to promote the quality of its educational institutions particularly through investment in research, innovation and mobility.

The study conducted by the British Council and the DAAD (2014) has important global findings which, when analysed in the context of the relationship between African scholars with a German academic background, provide useful insights into the factors for and the processes of the revitalisation of African Higher Learning Institutions (AHLIs). When African scholars leave their countries to go and study abroad, host countries have expectations of learning something new just as countries in Africa have their own expectations. These expectations may or may not be met. In either case, it is appropriate to appreciate the impact of transnational education and to gain an insight into how the process of moving between continents functions.

The current analysis of the engagement of Germany-educated African academics and diaspora in the revitalisations of AHLIs employs the findings of the British Council and DAAD. The findings may help African universities and governments, as well as German universities and governments to better understand the dynamics of international programmes. Such understanding would help

develop the programme and provider mobility to assess the overall perception of risks and benefits, and summarise the key findings relevant to the different impacts and implications of TNE for host countries.

The future of the programme and provider mobility in terms of size and scope is a topic of great interest to policy-makers, providers and researchers alike. Focusing on a two-year horizon, senior leaders of TNE programmes and institutions were asked about the development of TNE provision. The findings indicated that the majority (65 per cent) of senior leaders believed that the number of TNE programmes would continue to increase over the next two years. Interestingly, only ten per cent thought that they would decrease.

The 912 TNE students who participated in the British Council/DAAD (2014) research, in addition to the 346 who were part of the pilot study from countries in all regions of the world, provided new insights into what characterises a TNE student. At the risk of over-generalising, some of the most common and interesting characteristics of the student respondents from the British Council/DAAD (2014) study were provided: 52 per cent were female; 48 per cent were male; 58 per cent were under 24-years of age; 33 per cent were between the ages of 25–35; nine per cent were over 35-years of age; 31 per cent participated in a Master's or PhD programme; 86 per cent were full-time students; 54 per cent studied at a branch campus; 39 per cent of students' programmes were supported by scholarships; 27 per cent were employed full time; ten per cent were working part time; and 44 per cent continued working at the same job after graduation.

Senior TNE leaders were also optimistic about the growth in number of students enrolling in existing TNE programmes, as 60 per cent thought there would be an increase, while 26 per cent stated that there would be no change and 14 per cent thought that the number of students would decrease. On balance, it would appear that both the capacity and number of TNE programmes are expected to expand in host countries.

The findings about the positive and negative attributes of TNE were also discussed. Overall, the positives at the student/institution level were perceived by respondents to be significant and allowed for fairly robust conclusions. The negative attributes or consequences were generally not perceived as being very important or relevant by survey respondents, with the exception of the high cost of TNE programmes compared with local programmes. In any case, a separate question was asked of respondents about whether they believed the positive attributes or benefits outweighed the negative attributes. The responses to this question were presented as follows.

All respondent groups believed that at the institutional or student level, the potential benefits of TNE outweighed the possible risks. Upon closer examination, it is enlightening to see that TNE senior leaders (95 per cent), TNE faculty (90 per cent) and HE experts (88 per cent) groups are the most committed to this position. It is not surprising that the non-TNE students (68 per cent) and non-TNE faculty (76 per cent) have lower scores given that they do not have any direct experience with TNE, per se. Even so, the vast majority still believed that the benefits of TNE outweighed the risks at the institutional or student level ¹ This perception bodes well for the acceptability of TNE as a worthwhile form of providing international education opportunities to students as an alternative to students moving to the country of the awarding institution to complete a full study programme.

Short-term stays in host countries have their own advantages but can also be disadvantageous for individuals as well as African institutions. The major advantage of these short-term stays is the opportunity of keeping in touch with one's prior activities in Africa, and the local reality in general while adding new international experience abroad. However, the disadvantage is the challenge of effectively and efficiently managing local and foreign responsibilities that occur at the same time.

In contrast to shorter stays, longer ones would provide students with opportunities of concentrating on programmes more effectively. For example, in the context of postgraduate students who pursue their studies in Germany, while employed in their home countries. Generally, this category of students tends to struggle to find a balance between studying abroad and keeping their jobs back in Africa. The rationale behind involving scholars in international programmes is to expose them to academic and social experiences. This engagement should be done adequately, consistently and according to plan. The introduction of intervening variables would frustrate the engagement and beat its own logic.

The optional comments provided generally revisit a number of themes discussed throughout the report. For TNE students, the potential for TNE to offer an international and multicultural experience, the quality and prestige of the foreign institution/education system and getting an internationally recognised qualification were considered the major benefits. The issue of costs was raised here, again, as both a benefit and a risk of TNE, further confirming the importance of cost considerations and whether they are compared against studying abroad or local programmes.

It also further impresses the extent to which TNE and traditional student mobility may be considered as alternative options. Otherwise, the risks highlighted by TNE students included employers being unfamiliar with TNE, lack of commitment of fly-in faculty, TNE quality not matching programmes in the home/sending country and risks associated with smaller, lesser known institutions. For non-TNE students, the benefits of international and multicultural experience were sometimes framed within a quasi-capacity building and development context.

TNE can assist solving global- or national-level problems is not a theme presented in this research, but it may become a more important discussion topic as TNE becomes more research-focused. The other groups provided relatively few comments, generally focusing on issues already discussed.

The same question was asked of four target groups of respondents who have a national perspective and could judge whether TNE benefits or risks were predominant at the country or national level. Once again, the evidence is clear and compelling. The overwhelming majority of respondents believed that the benefits of TNE at the national level outweigh the potential risks or unintended consequences. The fact that 96 per cent of the TNE leaders emphasise the benefits of TNE is a powerful finding, as these individuals are directly involved in the planning and assessment of the value of TNE programmes and are thus knowledgeable about TNE objectives and outcomes.

Few comments were provided by these groups, but one theme that was reiterated by the HE experts was the benefit of TNE in providing access to HE in the host country. The extent to which host countries rely on TNE for providing access to HE and the implication of this for the domestic-education system is an issue that deserves greater attention. Risks at the national level were generally felt to depend on the mode of TNE delivery used. Different risk profiles were identified between branch campus degrees and top-up degrees, for example, as well as different risks between undergraduate and postgraduate programmes.

Senior TNE leaders tended to emphasise that potential risks were mitigated by close communication and co-ordination between the host institution and the foreign partner/parent institution. It was important and informative to look at the key findings in light of the indications that TNE is expected to increase in size both for the number and capacity of TNE programmes and second, that respondents overwhelmingly stated that the benefits outweighed the risks with regards to the impact on host countries.

Although more and more African students are involved in study abroad programmes, the rate of mobility is less than optimal. Many students were not informed about the available opportunities. This was more so amongst students in rural areas and those living far from major cities. Apparently, there are few

universities in Africa which have a clear strategy of communicating with students about international study programmes. Typical information exchange is by word-of-mouth from fellow students and acquaintances.

Thinking through the revitalisation of AHLIs, tertiary institutions have a unique place and indeed an obligation of raising students' awareness of the available opportunities on a regular basis and in a transparent manner. This way of sharing information goes hand in hand with devising communication strategies that would make opportunities known to potential beneficiaries. These strategies, however, cannot work smoothly in the absence of committed people at universities who are willing and able to support international mobility.

Indeed, the fact that most participants in such international programmes find the experience beneficial is motivation for sustaining the programmes. In other words, universities in Africa should look for ways and means of sustaining such programmes and encouraging participation. Among the major benefits that are vitally important for the international students according to the literature are analytical skills as well as international outlook (British Council/ DAAD 2014).

The study also showed that 61 per cent of the non-TNE students and 54 per cent of the non-TNE faculty did not know about the TNE opportunities in their country. This suggested that the full potential of collaborative education programmes is not being realised and that more work needs to be done to publicise TNE opportunities. This finding seems consistent with Alemazung's (2012) assertion that Africans lack information. The number-one rationale driving students to enrol in TNE was to improve professional skills for career development.

Mobility and Employment

The potential to develop the prerequisite skills of employment was clearly stronger than the academic-related benefits of greater programme flexibility, saving time by not studying abroad and non-admission to local equivalent programmes, which were ranked as the three least important rationales for TNE. The opportunity to develop intercultural competence ranked third in importance as a driving rationale. This is encouraging, but whether or not students' expectations of developing intercultural competence are actually realised through TNE programmes needs verification.

Branding and profiling of foreign partner/parent institution has an influence on a student's decision to enrol in a TNE programme, as the perceived importance of the qualification and the status of the awarding institution ranked in second and fourth place, respectively, as key motivations for TNE students. Overall, the number-one positive attribute or benefit of TNE at the institutional and student level was that TNE provided an affordable alternative to full-time studying abroad for an international qualification. This is solid evidence that the increasing interest and demand for international education can be partially met through mobility.

From the students' (TNE and non-TNE) perspectives, the most positive attribute of TNE was the opportunity to gain a more international outlook. The message regarding the importance of increased awareness and knowledge about international issues and events has been clearly understood by TNE students, as they believed that TNE could help them gain this international understanding. There is corroborating evidence that this rationale and expectation is met for TNE students. When asked which skills had been enhanced by TNE, international outlook ranked second in importance after analytical skills.

When asked to rate the negative aspects of TNE, most participants did not find the negative attributes to be important or applicable. This is surprising, but the finding is confirmed by the overall response that the benefits of TNE overwhelmingly outweigh the potential risks. Keeping in mind that respondents did not rate the negative attributes or TNE as very important and thus significant. It is revealing to see that the number-one negative attribute of TNE from a national level perspective is the competition for students and staff between TNE programmes/providers and local institutions. This competition for students contrasts with the finding that providing greater access for students is seen as the number-one positive of TNE at the institutional level. Clearly, competition for students and providing greater access are not mutually exclusive.

Brain drain, as the migration of well-educated professionals for better living or working conditions abroad, is probably the most discussed disadvantage associated with African students involved in study abroad programmes in developed countries. However, brain drain is not necessarily the most negative aspect in international mobility as the above study explains. Indeed it would be absurd to criticise study abroad programmes or other student mobility premised on the perceived potential of spawning and perpetuating brain drain. This perception may be obscured by negativity.

Negativity is diametrically opposed to criticality. Criticality thrives on the open mindedness of a scholar in the pursuit of knowledge. The pursuit of knowledge is such that we engage with a fair analysis and evaluation of the broader advantages of study abroad programmes rather than focusing on the negative aspect aspects such as brain drain. Brain drain is an abuse of internationalisation but

internationalisation is not an abuse. Old wisdom tells us that abuse does not do away with use. Therefore, brain drain should not do away with the transnational education pursuit.

The risk of brain drain was ranked third as a negative aspect of TNE at the national level. While the potential for brain drain or brain gain varied from country to country, it was revealing that it did not rank higher given the hot debate about this potential risk. At the national level, academic impacts in the form of increased access to HE and improvement in education quality are seen as the top two positive features/benefits of TNE and overall are reported as being more important than political, economic or skills benefits.

In general, TNE is not providing different programmes to those offered locally, which dispels the myth that TNE is offering specialised niche programmes not available in the host country. For the most part, TNE programmes are responding to students' demands. There were no major differences in teaching styles according to TNE and non-TNE faculty. However, students' views indicated otherwise: TNE students reported a significant difference in TNE programme structure and teaching as compared to local programmes.

The majority of faculty teaching in TNE programmes were locals (62 per cent) and had more than three years teaching experience (81 per cent). Fly-in faculty or visiting lecturers represent a small percentage (six per cent) of teaching staff. Approximately half (53 per cent) of the TNE teaching staff had visited the partner/parent institution primarily for administration, professional development and joint co-curricular design reasons. The majority (84 per cent) of TNE faculty felt moderately or fully supported administratively in their teaching duties. Students also reported a high level of satisfaction/acceptability with the administration but identify specific areas for improvement.

The quality assurance (QA) of TNE programmes were undertaken by local institutions (69 per cent), local QA bodies (54 per cent) and by partner/parent institutions (41 per cent) and their QA bodies (35 per cent), indicating that most TNE programmes and providers were undergoing some type of local- and partner-level quality assurance process. Approximately half (49 per cent) of the TNE students have had study abroad experiences during their TNE programme, which contributed to the high ranking that international outlook receives as both an enhanced skill and overall benefits gained by TNE students.

The most important cultural impact of TNE was articulated clearly by TNE and non- TNE students through their ranking of international outlook as the number-one benefit or positive attribute. This is strong evidence that TNE is seen

as a critical way to help students increase their understanding and knowledge about world issues and events. Developing intercultural awareness and competence is another high priority attributed to TNE programmes by TNE students, as they ranked it high as both a motivating factor and a direct benefit of TNE. Yet when asked which skills were actually enhanced by TNE, intercultural awareness and competence ranked in seventh out of tenth place.

Overall, the vast majority of HE experts (73 per cent) believed that TNE has a positive impact on intercultural relations within the country and more specifically on how students relate to different cultural and socio-economic groups. Yet examples were given ethnic tensions among a large number of international students enrolled in the TNE programme. The relationship between local and TNE programmes and institutions addresses one of the social impacts of TNE. The majority of non-TNE faculty believed that there is more of a competitive than a collaborative relationship between local and TNE HEIs. In contrast, the governmental agencies' responses are more evenly distributed across competitive, neutral and collaborative relations.

Relevance of Academic Programmes

The relevance of international academic programmes offered to guest students from Africa is an important question that both the current and the British Council/ DAAD (2014) studies have critically examined. In the current study for example, findings show that as a common phenomenon, the education and skills obtained in Germany were relevant to Africa in general and to AHLIs in particular. As a result of this appraisal, international programmes and mobility should be promoted.

Internationalisation that typically involves countries in the global south and the global north is such that one would access academic programmes and curricula of the host country and be influenced by them in one way or another. This kind of influence is part and parcel of engaging such transnational mobility in the first place. This influence should be synonymous to positive change at both the personal and institutional levels. In short, the engagement of African academics in AHLIs should influence positive change emanating from their international experience gained in Germany.

The issue of whether TNE programmes and curriculum were too Western-centric and insensitive to local context and culture did not rank high as a potential negative consequence of TNE. However, open comments suggest that this issue merits further investigation. The impact of world league tables and rankings on

the attractiveness of foreign institutions in host countries is an issue that deserves more research and analysis. The main positive aspect of TNE at the student/institution level is that TNE is a more affordable alternative to studying the entire programme abroad. The main negative aspect of TNE at the student/institution level was also framed within an economic context, being the high cost of TNE compared with local programmes.

Seventy-two per cent of TNE students felt that their TNE programme represented good value for money compared with similar local programmes. Therefore, while TNE programmes may be considered relatively expensive, most TNE students considered their money well spent. Scholarships played an important funding role for TNE, with 25 per cent of all TNE students reporting being funded by a scholarship from the host country, and fifteen per cent from the sending country. As yet, the income-generating potential of TNE for the host country did not appear to be very pronounced.

While survey respondents were of the view that income generation for the local economy is a positive attribute of TNE, it was ranked last out of seven options. In general, the impacts of TNE on infrastructure in host countries appear to be quite limited. Respondents rated this as the least significant of the positives at national level. Examples provided by HE experts were fairly minor in scale, the important exception being countries attempting to become regional HE hubs.

A degree of consistency in views was apparent across the different target groups. All groups, including non-TNE students and non-TNE faculty, believed that TNE undergraduate students are better equipped than locally educated undergraduates in all ten skills areas listed. TNE students perceived their analytical thinking to be the most enhanced of their skills, which tied with their views that teaching methods on TNE programmes relied more on critical thinking and voicing of opinions compared with local programmes. In contrast to the TNE students, the other survey groups were of the view that international outlook was most enhanced by TNE programmes; analytical thinking rated fifth on average.

Forty-two per cent of TNE students reported that their TNE programme included an internship or work-experience opportunity. It is interesting to note the high proportion of respondents who stated that their internship was a mandatory part of their TNE programme. HE experts were generally of the view that TNE graduates were moderately addressing skills gaps in the local labour market, but this depends on the type of TNE programmes offered. Specialised TNE courses covering niche topics were felt to have a positive impact on addressing local skills gaps.

However, it was also felt that many TNE institutions offered programmes already available locally, therefore limiting their contribution. TNE students were firmly of the opinion that employers perceived TNE to be advantageous when selecting job candidates. The main reasons given for this were: prestige/status of the foreign university and the international outlook/multicultural experience and competence of TNE graduates.

In assessing the relevance of international programmes, the study of the impact, implications and unintended consequences of such programmes are vitally important. The reason for assessing the impact is to address shortcomings, replicate processes that function well or abandon those that do not. The summary of key findings of the British Council and DAAD (2014) clearly illustrated the extensive number and diversity of impacts that TNE has had on host countries. It was well understood that mobility affects countries in different ways. Even though this research reports on collective opinions of host country stakeholder groups, the individuality of impact for each host country must be appreciated. Just as there is not just one model of TNE provision, there is no universality in the way that TNE affects a country.

There were myriad factors that determined the impact and implications including: maturity of HE systems in the host country; the national policy objectives and regulations guiding TNE; the predominant type of programme and provider mobility (i.e. twinning and franchise arrangements, joint/double degree programmes, distance education, branch campus, bin-national universities); the number of local students and international students enrolled in TNE programmes; the relationship between TNE-engaged institutions and local HE providers; the convergence or divergence between national-level rationales and expectations of TNE and institutional level motives; the political, economic and cultural context; the involvement of other sectors such as immigration, science and technology, foreign affairs and the impact of their regulations on TNE; the needs of the labour market for trained talent; the history of international partnerships with foreign HE systems and institutions; the experience of host-country institutions' collaboration with international education in general, and TNE in particular.

Internationalisation of universities has facilitated the production of exchange programmes for students and staff members aimed at improving their learning and working experiences. This study shows exchange programmes have led to the growth or development of universities. Through the international support and sponsorships some teaching and non-teaching staff members have received opportunities to go for training in different parts of the world including Germany.

In-service training courses have helped improve service delivery, helping the university work towards achieving its goals, vision and mission through well-trained and competent staff and students. The international co-operation at this point helps to cater for all costs in tuition fees, while travel, accommodations, and other expenses are paid by the sending university. This has enabled the university to send its teaching and non-teaching staff members to get training outside the country.

Four major lessons have been established from the reviewed literature concerning IAEP between universities in northern and southern countries as well as best practices that can be emulated in the future. First, although IAEPs have been found to be beneficial to all participating institutions, there are some complex, technical issues that tend to limit mutual involvement of universities particularly those in southern countries. Second, there are both direct benefits and indirect benefits that staff and students from universities in southern countries in particular get by participating in IAEP available in northern countries. At individual level, most staff and students from southern countries acquire both technical skills and knowledge on various development aspects not popular in their respective home countries.

Third, it also became evident that, to a larger extent, participating universities from southern countries have benefitted from improved career development among its staff and students as well as increased access to financial and human resources for institutional development. Some of these include access to funds for running joint research, academic courses, consultancies, meetings, conferences and symposia programmes, as well as academic scholarships.

More specifically, the involvement of academic staff from universities in southern countries in organising and implementing joint academic activities such as teaching, research and consultancy contribute to the visibility of respective individuals and their institutions in particular. It also results in the enormous growth of practical skills on the part of the participant, with an impact on local development. In supporting the above argument, Freudenberg, Mkony, Wilhelm and Post (2004) showed how medical staff and students from universities in Tanzania and Germany benefitted from each other through sharing and exchanging of best practices used for teaching medical students.

Through such IAEP arrangements, medical students and staff from German medical universities were given opportunities for teaching and assessing fellow local students studying medical-related studies in Tanzanian universities. Thus, through such experiences, students and staff from universities from German

universities obtained first-hand information that was used for designing new collaborative projects.

Further, it was reported that at the end of such training period, the surgeon purchased a compact Ultrasound machine for the Surgical Department at Muhimbili National Hospital (MNH) in Tanzania. Prior to having this equipment, the hospital used to do ultrasonographic evaluation of its patients in the congested Radiology Department within the same hospital. It was further reported that, after the completion of his first short-term staff exchange visit to Tanzania, one experienced German Surgical Ultrasonologist from Mannheim University continued to provide services at the MNH through organising short-term capacity building courses on diagnostic and Interventional Ultrasonography.

Similarly, the first-hand experience of this surgeon who worked under unsatisfactory conditions, including limited infrastructure and materials, enabled him to appreciate the value and cost-effectiveness of alternative options in health care interventions. In supporting this initiative, the Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences (MUHAS), which is a teaching hospital, organised joint capacity building sessions to teach more local experts about the 'Ultrasound Project,' as it has come to be known locally.

Through this project, which was borne out of an individual IAEP staff member, tremendous improvements have been recorded in relation to timely patient care at Muhimbili Hospital. Third, the participation of staff and students in IAEPs from universities in southern and northern countries has the potential for creating long-term relationships and social capital among the immediate actors and beneficiaries, as well as tangible positive outcomes.

As mentioned earlier, as a result of a visiting scholarship programme, a new academic co-operation programme between one North American university, Carleton University, and two African universities: The University of Dar es Salaam and University of Sierra Leone, was established and implemented up to 2014. It is likely that similar academic collaboration programmes with universities in the southern countries would be established. Thus, it is evident that through these different types of IAEP it is possible to guarantee continuity and sustainability of associations for many years to come.

To this effect, the joint project teaching and action research project on sexual harassment on university campuses in Canada and Africa will hopefully continue for some time. Fourth, at the individual level, the participation of experienced various types of IAEPs has also resulted in creating long-lasting personal relationships and friendships with their southern counterparts. These mutual relationships have

been found to foster long-term co-operation and further exchange of academic goods and services including through joint research projects or publications. In this respect therefore, IAEP will continue to contribute to both individual and institutional growth even after their official completion.

Fifth, as Zeleza (2012) argued, IAEP can have manifold advantages if properly arranged and used such as helping students, especially from universities in Sub Saharan African countries to develop cognitive skills for critical, comparative and complex thinking, cultivate capacities for cross-cultural communication, adaptation, flexibility, tolerance, and empathy, and enhance their ability to recognise difference and deepen their understanding of themselves, their society, and learning styles.² This will later enable them to design effective and sustainable IAEPs that include a range of challenging activities and practical field study visits to areas outside the university and cities. Such opportunities will enable foreign students and staff to put into practice the theories they learned in class and compare them with the real life conditions in their respective country.

Last but not least, it became evident that for students and staff from universities both in northern and southern countries (Africa in particular), that participation in IAEPs is a gateway to other local and international opportunities. For instance, although DAAD offers a special programme for the promotion of university partnerships, it also has links with other organisations that provide programmes for specialised surgical exchange with the Tropical Health and Education Trust based in London and the Canadian Network for International Surgery (CNIS). Through these two links, Tanzanian universities have fostered partnerships with many sister institutions in northern countries (Shayo 2014).

The above analysis is not exhaustive; it only served to illustrate the different issues that affected the academic, social/cultural, economic and skills impact of TNE on a host country. This analysis began with a review of the forecasted growth in programme and provider mobility and the assessment of whether the potential benefits of TNE would outweigh the potential risks or negative aspects. There was a clear indication that the number of TNE programmes and students would increase in the near future and that benefits overshadowed potential risks.

That very positive view of TNE is encouraging and signals that TNE will continue to change and evolve. Given the evolutionary nature of TNE it is critical that the impacts, implications and perhaps unintended consequences of TNE on host countries continue to be closely monitored and analysed. This is fundamental to ensuring that a country continues to provide relevant, quality and accessible HE, which includes options for international programmes and provider mobility.

Although the overall aim of the current analysis is to discuss the engagement of the Germany-educated African academics and diaspora in the revitalisation of AHLIs, it is essential to remember that Germany has its own expectations while hosting students and scholars from Africa and hosts these students and scholars with vested interest. The question for the African scholars is whether or not they meet these expectations. The expectations are closely bound with the impact of the involvement of Africans in international mobility. The impact may be academic, socio-economic, cultural or political. The fact that more and more students from Africa pursue their studies in Germany indicates that the impact of the study abroad programmes has been positive and the studies have been relevant to them and for Africa. The next chapter investigates the actual and practical engagement of the African academic diaspora in the revitalisation of the AHLIs.

Notes

- 1. https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/tne_report_2014.pdf
- 2. www.sarua.org/file/internationalisation-of-higher-educationfinal-paper-prof-paultiyambe-zeleza-pdf

Engagement of African Academics in Higher Education

The engagement of the African academic diaspora in African Higher Learning Institutions (AHLIs) is the motif that runs through this literature. These are academics with a German educational background. This chapter highlights the process of establishment of inter-university co-operation, the actors in partnership building as well as workable methods of partnership building, the question of internationalisation and sustainable partnership building as well as the advantages of such partnerships informed by empirical research conducted by the author in Germany and Africa in 2016 and 2017.

The main finding is that African academics with a German training and education background have demonstrated notable contributions in revitalising home universities in Africa. These contributions include participation in research, management of publications, teaching, consultancy, community service, student assignment supervision, building networks with foreign institutions, and serving in administrative positions. This chapter discusses these contributions guided by theoretical analysis. Examples from outside Germany are meant to strengthen the analysis.

Establishment of Inter-university Co-operation

In order to appreciate the impact of the German education and training in the engagement of African scholars in the revitalisation of AHLIs, it may be useful to understand the process of initiating international contacts which gives rise to international co-operation between Germany and Africa. The engagement connections are formed in various ways. It is interesting to note that common

amongst the ways in which connections are established are through individual visits by academics from Africa who teach or do research at German institutions.

Similarly, German academics visiting African universities to teach, research or engage in other academic activities play an important part in initiating such connections. For example, a respondent from Germany (2016) showed that the collaborations between the University of Vechta in Germany and several African universities began through individual initiatives. She identified these universities as Makerere University in Uganda, St. Augustine University of Tanzania, University of Yaoundé in Cameroon, Karatina University in Kenya, University of Port Elizabeth in South Africa, University of Nigeria and the University of Egypt as well as the ICT Incubator Nelson Mandela.

Another way of establishing connections between African and German institutions is through innovative programmes aimed at supporting African intellectuals. For instance, another respondent from Germany (2016) showed that the Höffmann Lectureship for Intercultural Competence linked African scholars from Nigeria, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Ivory Coast and Cameroon to the University of Vechta. Prof. Dr. Egon Spiegel at the University of Vechta in collaboration with Mr. Hans Höffmann a generous entrepreneur from Vechta in Lower Saxony took this initiative in 2008.¹

Public as well as private institutions both in Africa and in Germany play a key role in the establishment and management of partnerships between academics or higher learning institutions across the Mediterranean Sea. Main leaders in these partnerships are governments through relevant ministries as well as foundations and religious organisations.

Notable amongst German institutions are the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), the Federal German Ministry for Economic Co-operation and Development BMZ, German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), Catholic Academic Exchange Service (KAAD), GIZ, Konrad Adenauer Foundation, Centre for International Migration (CIM), Goethe Institute, Cusanus, Engagement Globale, Partnership for Africa, CLEAN-Africa and the German Research Foundation (DFG).

German institutions are part of the global actors in transnational cooperation. Some of the famous international actors in supporting cross-border learning globally include intergovernmental organisations such as the International Organisation for Migration (IOM), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and various agencies of the United Nations (UN) including the United Nations Development Programme

(UNDP) the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), the World Bank (WB), and the World Trade Organisation (WTO). There are International Non-governmental Organisations (INGOs), such as the International Association of Universities, and International Association of University Presidents or Vice-Chancellors (Zeleza 2012).

There are private foundations that operate internationally: Among them the U.S. – based Ford, Rockefeller, Carnegie and Gates; and international programmes such as the International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical Experience (IAESTE). This operates in more than 80 countries and sponsors more than 700 student exchanges every year. Another foundation is the International Economic and Commercial Sciences Students Association (AISEC) that works in over 2,100 universities in 110 countries and sends 16,000 international exchanges annually.

There are bilateral actors which include national development agencies and bilateral programmes. Bilateral means involving two nations or sides. The dominant players are from the North, i.e. America and Europe. For African countries, the most important development agencies include the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the Japan International Co-operation Agency (JICA), the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) and the U.S Agency for International Development (USAID). Bilateral programmes include the British Council, EduFrance, the Canadian International Development Research Centre (CIDRC), the U.S. Institute for International Education that administers Fulbright and MacArthur scholarships, and the Swedish Agency for Research Co-operation (SARC). The DAAD is part of these bilateral programmes.

The leading interregional actors from Africa comprise government agencies such as the European Commission (EC), interregional non-governmental organisations and networks such as the European Universities Association (EUA), the Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU), and the Association of Universities of the Francophonie (AUF). Regional actors range from intergovernmental bodies such as the African Development Bank (ADB) and the African Union to regional NGOs such as the Association of African Universities (AAU) and CODESRIA. The sub-regional actors include organisations such as the Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA) and various regional programmes.

Some former scholarship holders have been keen on setting up alumni associations in Africa. There are 24 DAAD alumni associations in Africa with an average of one association per country (DAAD 2015).² As far as the Catholic

Academic Exchange Service (KAAD) is concerned, for example, there are seven associations on the continent (KAAD 2015). These associations, apart from maintaining relations with KAAD and Germany, serve as a platform to discuss ways and means to make their education relevant to their home countries and regions. Among the important areas that the associations have capacity to change is the revitalisation of AHLIs.

At the national level the most important actors comprise government departments and agencies including ministries of education, international co-operation agencies, science foundations and councils, national export agencies, scholarship agencies as well as non-governmental organisations from university associations to international relations networks. In Kenya and Tanzania, for example, there is an arrangement between the governments of the two states and DAAD to support students pursuing their postgraduate studies in Germany.

In this arrangement the states pay up to 80 per cent and the DAAD pays 20 per cent as funding for African nationals hailing from these countries and studying in Germany. This shows that Kenya and Tanzania are not totally dependent on external funding to support their citizens studying in Germany. If other African countries emulated this example, more and more Africans could study in Germany and elsewhere in the spirit of cost-sharing, which in this sense empowers African states and their citizens and plays an emancipatory role.

Individual states along commissions for universities in particular and the African Union (AU) in general can and should take a leading role in supporting collaborations with Germany and other countries in order to revitalise AHLIs. The cooperation agreement between DAAD and the Tanzanian Ministry of Education and Vocational Training provides an opportunity for Tanzanian scientists to go Germany to do their PhDs. This is because the DAAD has a strong interest in getting applications of scientists from different universities and all disciplines.

In a broader context, African scholars and particularly the academic diaspora remain a powerful force that if appropriately mobilised could revitalise AHLIs. The Draft Declaration and Action Plan of the 1st African Higher Education Summit on Revitalising HE for Africa's Future, held in Dakar, Senegal in October 2016 summarises the strengths of the Diaspora and the initiatives done to improve HE in Africa through the '10/10' programme.³

The aim of the '10/10' Programme is to sponsor in total 10,000 diaspora academics across all disciplines 'for collaboration in research, curriculum development, and graduate student teaching and mentoring', according to the declaration. The initiative flows out of the Carnegie African diaspora Fellowship

Programme (CADFP), which was launched three years ago in an effort to help turn Africa's chronic 'brain drain' into 'brain circulation' through fellowships with African diaspora academics in North America. A proposal to implement the programme was submitted to the African Higher Education Summit.

The initiative's leader, Dr Paul Zeleza, then Vice-President for Academic Affairs at America's Quinnipiac University, concluded that the diaspora was a huge force. He showed that in the United States there were at least 25,000 African academics working at universities and that many of the diaspora was ready, willing and able to contribute to Africa's engagement regarding HEIs. The fellowship initiative, according to Zeleza, was trying to engage the diaspora very actively with African HEIs in all areas. The point made by the scholar was that the Diaspora was not waiting, but needed to be actively engaged on the African side so that this was a mutually beneficial relationship and impacted the revitalisation of AHLIs.

The current Carnegie African Diaspora Fellowship Programme (CADFP) is administered by the Institute of International Education in partnership with Quinnipiac University. It is funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York, and its advisory council is chaired by Dr. Zeleza. By 2015 there had been 165 project requests from 81 African universities for collaborations with diaspora academics in the areas of curriculum co-development, graduate student advising and teaching, and research. Ninety-three of the potential 100 had been granted (McGregor, 2015). The 81 universities are in the six African countries in which Carnegie operates – Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda. Most of the 38 collaborations went to universities in Nigeria followed by sixteen in South Africa and fifteen in Kenya.

In its submission to the conference, the current fellowship initiative shows that in 2010 alone, the World Bank estimated that the African-born diaspora worldwide represented more than 30 million people, though when accounting for unrecorded migrants and second – and third-generation migrants, the size of the diaspora is far greater. Available data from North America demonstrates the growing impact of the diaspora on the global HE landscapes.

The United States' National Centre for Education Statistics (2011) data showed that nearly 38,000 full-time lecturers in degree-granting post-secondary institutions identified as black, or some 5 per cent.⁴ According to Canadian Census data, in 2006 there were roughly 603 black academics in universities, although the number is likely to have grown significantly in the intervening nine years, with immigrant professor numbers having soared to more than 18,000.⁵

The diaspora fellowship programme's research estimates that there are 25,000 African-born diaspora academics working in North America – and they are the targets of the Carnegie initiative. The Diaspora's presence in HE beyond North America continues to grow as well. In the United Kingdom, from 2012-13, 1,730 of the 185,585 academic staff employed by a UK higher education provider were identified as black or black British-African. Research has also shown that racial data in the three countries tends to exclude the African academic diaspora of North African origin and Africans of European and Asian ancestry.

The new post-summit programme is likely to revise their list of who is eligible for diaspora grants to reflect these exclusions, and to include African American academics not born in Africa. The 10/10 programme will also become available to all African countries. The literature revealed the dearth of data on the diaspora stating that getting accurate data on the size of the African academic diaspora in other world regions was exceedingly difficult (McGregor 2015). Therefore, it is time African States consolidated data on the size of the diaspora, preferably through the AU.

There has been a marked growth in interest among German institutions in collaborating with African partners in research and innovation in recent years. Several African countries are experiencing comparatively high and steady economic growth. There is increasing awareness in African countries that technological and social innovations are essential drivers for the development of modern knowledge societies. Greater exploitation of research results and a better framework for entrepreneurial initiative provide the basis for employment and participation in economic development. This helps to create more self-supporting incomes in African countries themselves and to counteract the permanent emigration of the highly qualified.

The Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) (2016) defined cooperation with developing and emerging countries as a strategic area of action in its International Co-operation Action Plan. The BMBF's Africa Strategy provides a coherent framework for cooperation with partner countries in Africa. Within this framework many initiatives are implemented to strengthen science and innovation systems in African partner countries. The annual German-African Innovation Prize is one of these activities.

Various institutions in Africa and Germany are working in partnership projects for sustainable development. These include the United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), the Pan African University Institute of Water and Energy Sciences (PAUWES), which was founded by the

African Union (AU) in 2014. As one of only five institutes of the Pan African University located on the African continent, PAUWES is intended to contribute to the establishment of a network of institutes of HE in Africa, to close gaps and promote science and technology on a level of excellence.

Other German institutes of HE in partnership with this project are the Institute for Technology and Resources Management in the Tropics and Subtropics (ITT) at TH Köln and the Centre for Development Research (ZEF) of Bonn University. The project is funded by BMZ and DAAD. Further partners include Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) and KfW Entwicklungsbank.

Internationalisation and Sustainable Partnership Building

Sustainability is an essential element in international collaborations. If and when collaborations are sustainable, the impact of the engagement can be measured over a relatively long period of time. Field data indicated that sustainability often depends on individuals' engagement in the partnerships. For example, a respondent showed the role of committed individuals as the following quote explains:

Here partnerships are pretty sustainable, we're lucky it depends so much on people, people being committed. We have the backing of the leadership. German universities are encouraged to keep up connections abroad. German policy encourages this. President Horst Köhler was instrumental in establishing partnerships. The State of Lower Saxony is instrumental in sustaining relationships, especially with Tanzania. But personal motivation is fundamental. It relates back to individuals who are committed (Respondent from the University of Vechta, 2016).

Furthermore, the institutionalisation of partnerships is necessary for sustainability. A respondent from Germany (2016) hypothesised that: 'If we could institutionalise them, it would be great because projects come and go, professors come and go. The easier thing is to send students to Africa. And they are interested in going to Africa. So far there isn't much happening at professional or institutional level.' This is because partnerships have typically been based on individual initiatives rather than formal co-operation between institutions. The latter form of partnership is likely to be more sustainable without underestimating the role of individuals in initiating and sustaining partnerships.

Information sharing is an essential element in the internationalisation process between and amongst partner institutions. A respondent from St. Augustine University of Tanzania (SAUT) (2016) captured the information exchange idea

in the following words: 'It's an open forum through which SAUT staff can share information especially in accessing vital literature and other related stuff'. From this understanding it is clear that sharing and accessing information enable collaboration with other universities all over the world. Collaborations enrich individual universities in the process of fulfilling their core functions and realising their visions and missions.

Advantages of Collaboration

There are a number of advantages of establishing collaborations between African and German institutions and, by extension, other countries. These include applying for funds for training and scholarships to do joint projects. The main advantage is probably the opportunity to collaborate with Higher Learning Institutions in highly industrialised countries. One of the common types of collaboration is through exchange programmes for students and staff alike.

The literature shows that for many decades, International Academic Exchange Programmes (IAEPs) have been promoted as strategic components for strengthening academic curricula of most northern and southern universities (Shayo 2014). These supposedly mutually-beneficial academic exchange programmes have been motivated cultural, social, economic, and technological factors, among others.

First, in terms of promoting culture, IAEPs offer unique opportunities for beneficiaries to explore, appreciate and understand different academic and non-academic cultures both within and across universities in northern and southern countries, respectively. Such social and cultural knowledge is necessary for eliminating, minimising and demystifying misconceptions, fears and prejudices amongst students and staff, especially those from the northern countries regarding the real-life conditions of people including fellow students and staff in universities located in southern countries. This finding corroborates the analysis by the British Council and DAAD (2014) on the TNE study.

Second, at an individual level, most academic staff and students exchange programmes, especially those from universities located in southern countries get opportunities to broaden, not only their own personal academic competencies and qualifications, but also contribute to building strong institutional academic links and social networks with their northern counterparts. By so doing, these international academic links and networks tend to be beneficial to respective universities and countries in many diverse ways.

The explanation on the cultural factors are best captured in a statement that was made by Michelle Obama, at Howard University Washington, D.C., when encouraging American students to register for courses outside their region:

'Getting ahead in today's workplace isn't just about the skills you bring from the classroom. It is also about the experiences you have with the world beyond our borders, with people and languages and culture that are very different from our own.'

Further, in supporting the above arguments, Meeth (1966) argues that IAEPs are necessary for breaking racial barriers both within and across universities, particularly those affecting university staff and students from different continents. More specifically, he indicated that providing opportunities for students and staff from universities in the northern and southern countries to meet regularly or in certain periods promotes better global understandings on diverse development issues among participating actors well as among the institutions and communities in which these students or staff come from (Shayo 2014).

In supporting the above fact, Mohamoud (2003) argues that the acculturation process undergone by many of the African diaspora in the Netherlands has enabled them to learn and adopt the idea of the voluntary association from Dutch society, which they subsequently exported to their respective home countries. The same finding can be found amongst African scholars who went to university in Germany, as a common phenomenon and as pointed out from respondents from African universities in the current study.

Third, both Shayo (2014) and Zeleza (2012) argue that universities in northern countries promote IAEPs for economic purposes. However, they argue that economic benefits from IAEP accruing to different categories of actors involved are neither uniform nor consistent. They vary from programme to programme and place to place depending on the length of study as well as specific type of roles performed by direct and indirect beneficiaries. For example, the direct beneficiaries of IAEPs include participating staff and students from respective universities, whereas indirect beneficiaries include travel and health insurance companies, hotels/hostels and host families with whom staff and students reside in their host countries.

At this juncture, it may be noted that most students and staff involved in IAEPs in northern universities are required to pay 'huge sums of money' (Shayo 2014) when travelling abroad for covering tuition fees and other direct expenses such as travel, accommodation and medical insurance. However, significant differences have been observed with regards financial costs incurred by staff and students from northern universities as well as methods of payments. For instance, in most northern universities, a larger share of those funds tends to be paid directly to host institutions and students as well. On the contrary, in most universities in the southern countries, those funds are given to the direct beneficiaries including staff and students who are directly involved.

Further, it has been noted that financial costs incurred by individual foreign students or academic institutions sending or receiving students from abroad are not uniform. In most universities, both northern and southern countries, financial costs tend to vary depending on the length of the study abroad programme, type of accommodation, level of economic development and quality of life in the receiving country. Additionally, in some northern universities, students are required to pay for additional expenses such as social and cultural tourism, as well as risk management.

It has also been noted that students from northern universities who undertake short-term academic exchanges in southern universities are permitted to pay their tuition fees to either their home or host institutions. Surprisingly, it has been established that usually, most students from northern universities prefer to pay their tuition fees in their respective home campuses for purposes of maintaining their foreign money within their home universities.

This implies that universities in the northern countries who enrol many students from abroad end up generating reasonable incomes for their respective universities and countries. In supporting this, Steenkamp and Wright (2008) reported that the Province of Ontario in Canada has greatly benefitted from the economic dividends of IAEPs. However, without disclosing the exact figures, he reported that each international student was estimated to contribute more than \$25,000 to the economy – thus making education for international students a \$900 million industry in Ontario.

Similarly, Zeleza (2012) reported that in the year 2009-10, the United States of America raised approximately \$18.78 billion from 690,923 international students who enrolled for various academic courses. Additionally, it was reported that international students and staff bring valuable diversity to the classroom, the campus, and the larger community which translates into improved academic experience for a better understanding of the world. Zeleza (2012) adds another dimension showing that in the long run IAEPs have proven to be the highway for preparing students and staff for a variety of professional careers in the globalised world that is linked with enhancing national development and competitiveness as a means of generating extra institutional incomes.

In most cases, most staff and students who participate in IAEPs from universities in southern countries get financial support, either full or partial, in the form of academic scholarships. Full academic scholarships cover direct expenses such as return flight tickets, local transportation expenses in the foreign country, accommodation, food and other daily necessities as well as health insurance. The amount is usually sufficient to meet students' needs.

On the contrary, a partial academic scholarship caters for either tuition fees or travel and accommodation expenses. However, it is worth noting that in some rare occasions, governments in southern countries especially those in Sub-Saharan Africa provide full academic scholarships to staff and students to participate in IAEPs. This implies that staff and students from African countries receive financial support from governments, international organisations, NGOs, and philanthropic organizations as well as universities in northern countries.

Such organisations have developed the culture of setting aside specific funds for promoting IAEPs with similar institutions both within and outside their respective regions. The fact that most of these participating organisations are located in northern countries suggests that a larger portion of financial support for IAEPs is available in these countries. Thus, it is evident that IAEPs create great opportunities for raising government revenues in northern countries that are later used to support both short and long-term IAEPs including those with universities in southern countries.

Fourth, it has been observed that some universities in northern countries have established IAEPs for improving academic purposes. In short, most IAEP involving academic staff and students from universities in southern countries are established to develop and strengthen capacities for designing internationally competitive academic courses and joint or collaborative activities during this era of globalisation of knowledge. To-date, the growth of Information Communication Technology (ICT) has greatly facilitated faster academic co-operation between universities in northern and southern countries.

In particular, on-going advancements in ICT such as e-services and facilities have strengthened the coordination of IAEPs both within and across respective universities, countries and continents with few difficulties. This coordination is possible because most universities in northern countries have flexible learning systems that allow students to transfer credits from courses abroad to their respective northern programmes.

In contrast, African students studying abroad, especially on shorter stays, find it difficult to have their marks integrated into local grading systems. This difficulty is often due to a lack of provision for accommodating credit transfers. This situation forces students to remain in the same semester or academic year while their fellow college-mates proceed with their studies uninterrupted. One respondent from Tanzania summarised this problem in these words:

I was excited when I got the opportunity to go and study in Germany for one semester. It was my first time to go to Europe. The problem was that after completing my

studies, my marks were not recognised by my former university. Therefore, I had to repeat the semester because the courses I took there were different to the ones we study here (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

The country origin of the scholars in Africa makes communication easy between local universities and the African scholars because of the similarities in cultural backgrounds. If this argument is plausible, then the need to forge collaboration links with the African academic diaspora is indispensable. As Africa builds partnerships with other international institutions abroad, so should they reconsider paying special attention to fellow Africans because of the cultural strengths which seem to uniquely characterise them. A respondent from State University of Zanzibar supports this argument by acknowledging culture as a value in revitalising AHLIs.

Among the strengths is the fact that African academic diaspora well understands the academic environments of universities like ours so they do not find any difficulty in working together with us... It is known that most of the foreign countries in which our people live are highly developed in many disciplines, so by engaging with these people. We automatically induce higher education and skill to our countries (Respondent from SUZA, 2016).

In responding to the understanding of internationalisation, one respondent made the following assessment: 'Internationalisation is delivery of higher education services in two or more countries; it involves international academic mobility of students and staff. Integrating international dimensions into the core functions of university which are teaching, research and community services' (Respondent from SAUT 2016). This definition is explicit in what university internationalisation entails, in that it touches upon necessary elements that must be borne in mind before, during and after a university has involved itself in the process of becoming part of the international world of academia.

Further, during an interview with another respondent it was stated that 'the concept of internationalisation, comes from the concept of university which entails being universal' (Respondent from SAUT, 2016). In that way all universities by their very nature must have all the necessary elements and make all possible efforts to participate in the global realm of producing individuals who will fit all trades of life in the world. For the sake of clarity, the respondent suggested that university in the first place, means being universal in all areas and working to give universal products.

University internationalisation works to help universities become international especially in their particular areas of study. Through interaction with other universities some of the programmes taught in universities gain international

credibility and enable students to be competent at the global level. A respondent from SAUT stated:

Our university is growing in terms of research by getting and utilising opportunities at the international level. For example, we have a programme known as Environmental Journalism which is run in collaboration with a university in Finland. Students from the local community in Tanzania are invited and even sponsored to do some publications on environmental issues and conservation in Finland (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

Views on international collaboration of universities also revealed that the kind of education provided should not only address local issues. Some respondents felt that education should also be relevant internationally; noting that it should be student-centred and curricula should be devised to reflect this philosophy. In other words, education should take care of local as well as global needs in order to revitalise AHLIs.

The analysis of the engagement of the African academics in revitalising the AHLIs underscored the need of the university to engage in international collaboration and be part of the wider global academic system by using benchmarking as a tool for its assessment. A respondent from SAUT (2016) contended that, 'if SAUT as a private university in the country should be working to meet and achieve her mission and vision it has and must be part of the world universities to learn and use a benchmarking system to meet all the requirements'. With this information at hand, it becomes a *condition sine qua non* to establish a document which will explain why, how, when, and at what levels universities should embark on this phenomenon for the benefit of the learning community.

The respondent arguing further on the importance of university internationalisation seems to capture the essence of networking as an essential component of internationalisation. The following quote describes university internationalisation: 'Internationalisation is the state of expanding networking locally and globally in order to increase image, awareness of an institution and meet the requirements of both staff members and students at large' (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

In conclusion, this chapter analysed the engagement of Germany-educated African academics in the revitalisation of AHLIs stating cultural similarities as important tenets in forging co-operation between Africans abroad and their counterparts in African universities. The chapter also highlighted the importance of individuals in building up partnerships but concluded that sustainable partnerships would depend on institutionalising partnerships.

Internationalisation was identified as both the aim of establishing partnerships and as an advantage of collaboration. Such understanding allowed the study to have a broader analysis of how others construct and articulate the nature of university internationalisation. This is therefore an area of research in the university or in education in general which needs to be expanded for all universities as the world continues to advance in science and technology and create better conditions for collaboration.

Some respondents constructed the meaning of university internationalisation as a process of development by which various universities integrate in academic as well as cultural pursuits. All definitions given by respondents seemed to capture and highlight key elements that are vital to all universities if they are to successfully meet their vision and mission and accomplish their core functions of teaching, research and community service. Thus, in order for universities to grow and achieve the expected goals and visions, joining hands with other universities is a necessity. Internationalisation as a process needs to be studied and understood by both parties involved so that stakeholders can craft the best strategy to institutionalise internationalisation and make it an academic programme in its own right.

Notes

- 1. http://www.egon-spiegel.net/foren/forum-interkulturelle-kompetenz/hoeffmann-dozentur-fuer-interkulturelle-kompetenz/
- 2. https://www.daad.de/der-daad/organisationsstruktur/en/
- 3. https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=2017051814261765
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- 6. https://www.bmbf.de/pub/Afrika_Strategie_eng.pdf
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Funding Opportunities, Initiatives and Challenges for African Universities

One of the major challenges confronting study abroad programmes, particularly for students in developing and less developed countries, is the unavailability of funding. In responding to this challenge, governments and funding agencies all over the developed world have particularly earmarked funds to promote and support scholarship. Notable amongst funding agencies are numerous public and private institutions in Germany.

The following section explains the role of such organisations and foundations as the Federal Ministry of Education and Research, the German Association for International Co-operation, the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) Catholic Academic Exchange Service (KAAD), the Böll Foundation and Friedrich Neumann Foundation. The aim of the chapter is to describe some of the funding activities and programmes offered to these institutions, which are insufficiently known to African students.

Including European Union (EU) programmes, the DAAD granted academic and research funding to more than 127,000 Germans and foreigners in 2015, making it the world's largest funding organisation of its kind. The DAAD is also a driving force behind the internationalisation efforts of German universities, supports developing countries with building their HE systems, and promotes the study of the German language and German studies abroad. Artists-in-Berlin Programme being one of the most prestigious scholarship programmes for artists in the world.¹

In the future, the DAAD is determined to apply its competence and expertise even more to providing information and advisory services to institutions of

higher education and other academic exchange stakeholders, both in Germany and abroad. With its decades of experience in programme work and its unique worldwide network of 15 regional offices and 55 Information Centres, expanded in 2013 with new locations in Kazan and Tel Aviv, the DAAD brings knowledge of higher education systems and national science systems around the world.²

Germany's parliamentary elections and the new legislative period in 2013 also made it a crucial year for the DAAD. The government's 2013 coalition agreement explicitly identified the DAAD as a central driver of mobility for institutions of higher education and research, and that the German federal government wants to increase the DAAD's capacity in this regard into the future, increasing the number of foreign students in Germany to 350,000 by 2020.³

Providing scholarships remains DAAD's core business. In 2013 alone, DAAD supported 30,000 German and international students, doctoral candidates and researchers with scholarships and individual programmes. In order to serve the worldwide demand for highly qualified specialists and managers in the future, DAAD will continue to focus on two main areas: educating young German academics at the best universities around the world, and education and training for outstanding international students, doctoral candidates and researchers here in Germany. As an extension of the DAAD, Leibniz-DAAD fellowships offer highly-qualified, international postdoctoral researchers, who have recently completed their doctoral studies, the opportunity to conduct research at the Leibniz institute of their choice in Germany. Leibniz-DAAD research fellows can undertake their research at the 88 Leibniz institutes.

Another foundation which is relevant for African students as well as students especially coming from developing nations is the Böll Foundation. The Böll Foundation awards 150 to 200 scholarships every year. Dependent on parental income, the grant amount is of up to EUR 597 per month, in addition to a non means-tested book allowance of EUR 300 and family and child allowances, if necessary.⁶

International students also benefit from the Friedrich Naumann Foundation (FNS): Scholarship for International Students. The scholarship scheme is open to qualified international candidates with a first academic degree studying at German HE institutions for a Master's or a state examination degree. The minimum funding covers two semesters. Every year between 15 and 25 international Master scholarships are awarded. Each is worth up to EUR 675 with the grant amount being calculated in accordance with the guidelines by the Federal Foreign Office. The funding is initially granted for one year and need not be repaid.

In addition, there is a contribution to health insurance of up to EUR 125 at most. If the scholar's academic record warrants it, the funding may be extended until completion of the programme. Neither study- nor research stays nor internships abroad are eligible for funding. The FNS offers a wide range of projects, events and initiatives for scholarship holders, making non-material support a sponsorship priority. The FNS doctoral funding is intended for highly talented post-graduates from abroad. The scholarship is awarded independent of parental income and need not be repaid.⁷

In 2015, DAAD focused its activities particularly in the Sub-Saharan Africa region, training for specialists and management professionals and engaging in in-country capacity building and the establishment of sustainable institutional infrastructure. These emphases are aligned with DAAD's Africa Strategy guideline, published at the end of 2014 (DAAD 2015). In the area of project funding, well-established and successful programmes were further expanded and developed.

As an example, the Centres of African Excellence programme initiated a call for the establishment of a Kenyan-German Centre of Excellence for Applied Resource Management in 2015. The goal of the new centre was to prepare Kenya and neighbouring countries for future challenges over the next ten years — both in terms of specialist know-how and strategy. This included, for example, the extraction and utilisation of recently discovered natural resources. The Centres of African Excellence programme is tailored to the special needs of African universities and — by strengthening university teaching and research capacities — contributes to improved education and training for future leaders.

Also opened and inaugurated in 2015 was the East and South African-German Centre for Educational Research at Moi University in Kenya. The centre was established jointly by the University of Oldenburg and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in South Africa. Faculty also received training to improve their ability to advise students and secure funding Promotional films produced in 2015 feature the DAAD-funded centres of excellence, the benefits of training at the centres, and how African and German researchers use the centres for their collaborative projects.⁸

The Welcome to Africa and ICT Measures for Africa programmes that began in 2015 were successfully concluded with a closing event, featuring also the presentation of recommendations for continued action. The programmes have helped create a robust network of German and African universities for future partnerships focusing on partnerships for sustainable solutions with Sub-Saharan Africa: measures for research and integrated postgraduate education and training, financed by the BMBF, sought to establish structured postgraduate training as well as strengthen teaching and research staff at partner universities.

For the first time, DAAD took on project management together with the international office commissioned by BMBF. Africa was also a focus of German foreign affairs in 2015. DAAD President Prof. Dr. Margret Wintermantel was twice invited by the Federal Foreign Office (AA) to serve as a member of the Foreign Minister's delegation, taking part in trips to Mozambique, Zambia, Uganda, Tanzania and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).⁹

Leipzig- Addis Ababa Co-operation: DAAD Africa Strategy

In February 2015, the first twelve graduates of the four-semester, Global Studies: Peace and Security in Africa Master's degree programme, gathered in Addis Ababa to celebrate the completion of the unique interdisciplinary course. Students were trained to take on responsibility in their home countries within government, in the educational system or in supranational organisations. The Global and European Studies Institute at the University of Leipzig and the Institute for Peace and Security Studies at Addis Ababa University jointly offer the degree programme with funding from DAAD. Instructors from both partner institutions provide various perspectives on topics such as globalisation or peace and security, with one semester taught in Leipzig and the remainder in Addis Ababa.

At the site of the AU headquarters, Addis Ababa offers programme participants the chance to come in contact with experienced professionals—such as members of the Peace and Security Council or Panel of the Wise — during the course of their studies. The DAAD's goal in funding the Master's programme is to make a long-term investment in education. The programme works on several levels. First, students are trained at a high academic level so that they can assume responsibility and play an active role in their home countries in HE, for example— upon completing the programme. In addition curricula are taught according to German standards by both German instructors and by the foreign partners so that they can later offer the courses on their own.

Participants in the programme, all of whom already have professional experience, pay tuition for the programme, which may be covered by their employer. The Master's programme offers more than just a tailored response to local training needs. With students from eleven different countries, it is also a forum for intercultural exchange, a fact highlighted by the mayors of Leipzig and Addis Ababa during their keynote addresses at the graduation ceremony.

The first graduates in Global Studies: Peace and Security in Africa celebrated their successful completion of the Master's programme. Representatives from 24 African countries, including six ambassadors, DAAD staff and research advisors

for several members of the German Bundestag, convened in September 2012 at the Berlin-Brandenburg Academy of Sciences to discuss the DAAD's Africa Strategy. Hosted by Ulrich Grothus, Deputy Secretary General of the DAAD, the event succeeded in providing a platform for dialogue on funding for the region. In the area of individual funding, the sur-place and in-country/in-region programmes for Africa introduced new quality standards in 2015 for the process of selecting universities

Together with its long-time partner, the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA), and university representatives from Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, the DAAD selected 20 institutions to receive sur-place and incountry/in-region scholarships for Master's and PhD courses over the next three years. A corresponding course selection was planned for western and southern Africa. Ethiopia saw the launch of a new partnership programme. In autumn 2015, the first 22 Ethiopian doctoral candidates began their studies in Germany. For the first time, scholarship holders would travel to Germany up to three times for six-month stays at German universities. Their PhD certificates would then be awarded in their home country. Additional partnership programmes – withRwanda, for example, – were also finalised.

In early April 2015, the Somalian terrorist group Al-Shabaab attacked Garissa University College in Kenya. Over 140 students were killed and many more suffered injuries and trauma. To help survivors quickly resume their studies, DAAD provided 300 students with scholarships beginning in May. DAAD made roughly 550,000 Euros available from its regular scholarship fund, with initial support planned until April 2016. Garissa University College was temporarily closed following the attacks, with some 600 students meanwhile enrolled at Moi University in Eldoret.

Another example is the US\$5 billion Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD), which could train young people in diverse engineering skills related to the design, construction and implementation of hydropower projects. In addition, subjects such as economics, sociology, anthropology, and political economy can be offered to provide the full breadth of knowledge needed for effective infrastructure projects. The range of skills extends to the consumer sector. The production of power is only one step in a series of activities that includes promoting access. It takes a wide range of skills to design, produce, and sell electrical appliances.

In addition, the other opportunity consists in the rise in the number of private universities across Africa, which according to Juma (2016) offers new avenues for strengthening national innovation capabilities. Proactive government policies

and incentives can help encourage private investors to create engineering-oriented universities. Examples that illustrate the feasibility of such an approach include the creation of the Future University in Sudan and the Nile University in Egypt. Both are private universities that focus on ICTs.

The availability of funding opportunities and information about scholarship providers would foster engagement of African students where the students would benefit academically in various ways. For example, students would benefit from participating in programmes such as Erasmus Mundus, seminars, conferences as well as learning foreign languages. Research shows that some African universities do not showcase international activities or involve international students and staff on campus as a way of promoting and indeed celebrating internationality. In this connection, a respondent suggested that a university can use its local events to showcase international opportunities and involve international students and staff on campus (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

On the question of opportunities available for the growth and development of universities, investing in students' technical know-how is essential. One respondent stated that SAUT has chances of expanding technology for the benefit of students and university (Respondent from SAUT 2016). That is, students can be assisted in collaboration with other students from partner universities. They can become innovative and creative and eventually improve their talents.

Thus students and staff can develop their areas of study, utilise the internet for their studies and research while focusing on international and global issues such as global warming and sustainable development. In this connection a respondent noted that concerted efforts to preserve the environment should be made. These would include collaboration between the university, government and local associations such as the Students' Environmental Maintenance Association (SEMA SAUT) (Respondent form SAUT 2016).

In the area of environmental conservation and development, through SEMA SAUT, students can be assisted to extend their services to the surrounding community, especially in planting trees and conserving the natural vegetation around the university. Also, the government could be involved through university initiatives to take special care of the environment around Lake Victoria, in preserving the aquatic life and even introduce a course on marine technology and living organisms, making full utilisation of the presence of the lake near the university.

With assistance, students can become more creative and create employment opportunities for themselves and others. This can be achieved by learning from students from other universities on how to create job opportunities for themselves,

knowing how to write projects, how to use marketing opportunities in different countries. Learning through international contacts would complement learning skills in their own universities from their own classmates and lecturers.

In discussing the engagement of African scholars in the revitalisation of AHLIs, it was revealed that when compared to their academic staff counterparts, administrative and particularly support staff are overlooked in the selection for study abroad programmes. In terms of opportunities for staff development, their involvement, through training and further education, could amount to improving delivery at university. Thus it is crucial to point out that universities deal with discrepancies in the treatment of staff as highlighted in the following quote:

Much investment is directed towards the teaching and learning process and less importance is attached to the administration activities. If this sector in the university is given equal weight and significance when combined with other sectors surely the university [will] become very strong and international in its operations (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

Besides, teaching and administration, community service or public service is another important sector at universities which less considered in the provision of funding opportunities. However, community service is an important opportunity in itself to give back to the community the benefits of education and research while addressing the needs of the people in the communities concerned. Community service includes the provision of expert knowledge, technical skills and consultancy in order to bring about positive change as the following section demonstrates.

Funding Opportunities in Community Service

The role of the university in providing community service is one of the core functions of a university besides teaching and research. International organisations, including the diaspora and African scholars in Germany can play a significant role in this endeavour. Through internationalisation universities have been able to extend some crucial services to society helping people meet their needs. For example, it was observed that SAUT, through internationalization, contributed to community development through various outreach programmes such as rural electrification through Jumeme, a Germany-Austria-Tanzania Rural Solar Electricity Supply Company.

Jumeme has supported the provision of electricity to various regions such as Ukerewe, Musoma and Tabora and research is underway to reach Sengerema in Mwanza Region in Tanzania. The company has given SAUT local, national

and international popularity. The government of Tanzania acknowledges the contribution of the university to the economic and social wellbeing of the people. This can be realised through employment opportunities to the people as well as improvement of their societal life through access to electricity in their homes (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

Furthermore, the university has supported students and teachers from the community around the university and from Mwanza City by providing access to the Internet services freely at the American Corner on SAUT Mwanza Campus. The American Corner is a centre established through international co-operation with the American Embassy in conjunction with other universities in America to ease e-learning. Students and teachers are able to access various academic materials at the centre, thus improving their academic performance and research capability.

The University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) has also been instrumental in offering community service or public service in various aspects. The Legal and Human Rights Centre at the UDSM has provided legal advice to community members thus facilitating the access to justice. Similarly, UDSM has provided training on Environmental Business Reporting through the UDSM Business School thus building citizens' capacity in managing their businesses (Respondent from the University of Dar es Salaam 2017).

Transnational Collaboration Challenges

Developing effective and sustainable partnerships is a process often riddled with challenges. In this section, I touch upon cultural, economic, social, managerial, organisational and political challenges. Field research data as well as the literature and personal reflection inform the current analysis and discussion. Once challenges are articulated and understood, then solutions can be sought. Such challenges include management of quality education, internationalisation, communication, state intervention and policy implications, inadequate facilities as well as unpredictable finances in the midst of an increasing number of universities and students in Africa.

The literature shows numerous challenges confronting collaboration between the African academic diaspora and the African universities. These challenges include institutional and attitudinal barriers (Foulds and Zeleza 2014). Other challenges include limited research and technology infrastructure, shortage of well-trained faculty, inadequate facilities and equipment, and lack of financial capital to support and sustain research (Ferede 2013).

However, the literature reveals a gap in the appreciation of the critical and transformative role that the diaspora can play in the development of knowledge production systems (Foulds and Zeleza 2014). It is argued here that other scholars who studied in Germany can and should equally play the transformative role in Africa.

One of the challenges of collaborations is meeting expectations on both sides of the partnership, which are often higher than they can be achieved. African academics selected or involved in such collaborations are often considered to be top of their class, therefore their performance is expected to reflect this label. Failure to match this expectation often leads to frustration and disappointment on both sides of the partnership.

On the German side, the challenge is to recognise that African standards are different and that African scholars come from diverse cultural and academic backgrounds, perhaps as diverse as countries forming the African continent. Treating Africa homogenously, as if it were one country, is a common mistake that may overlook both glaring and subtle differences across African countries and scholars, alike. To appreciate these differences, Germans may need a certain kind of attitude, which may call upon them to invest more time and effort. It is vital that both Germans and Africans learn how best they can live and work together for the mutual benefit of the two parties.

Another challenge is the inability of some African members of the diaspora to return to Africa. If they return to Africa, some find it too difficult to integrate, especially during hard economic times, for example in Nigeria in the 1990s. Economic challenges are often related to bad governance. In other countries such as Eritrea, Ethiopia, Cameroon, Zimbabwe, Somalia, Rwanda and Burundi, governance has forced many citizens to leave their countries at various times, often depending on the ruling regime. This challenge is related to the argument for brain drain. This is likely why some of these countries have the largest concentration of the Africa diaspora in Germany and other western countries.

The typical kind collaboration between Germany and AHLIs is a vertical one, linking institutions on both parts of the Mediterranean. Returning experts from Germany do not harness the potential for partnering with one another across African countries to exchange knowledge, skills and competences by developing professional networks thus creating horizontal linkages. Both vertical and horizontal linkages are important, and they should be promoted. Indeed, if Germany can try to reach out to almost all African countries, an African country can then try and reach out to its neighbouring country. In other words, as South-North connections grow, South-South relations should grow even more, taking

advantage of cultural and geographical proximity. International collaboration is not necessarily Eurocentric.

Data collection showed that an inability to take advantage of internationalisation was an area that deserved special attention. An example was the problem of overcrowded classrooms, which impairs proper and effective delivery of the materials, as well as lack of commitment amongst staff members and rigidity in accepting changes in the education system. All these act as hindrances in the efforts to make the university international in all its settings.

Due to economic reasons, lack of proper planning and massification of university students vis-à-vis space and facilities, some under-funded universities are unable to provide needed infrastructure to sufficiently and professionally accommodate students. Teaching and learning facilities are often inadequate in typical AHLIs. As stated above, economic difficulties are one of the reasons that some Africans opt to work in academia. The goal seems to be earning an income and not because they are keen on intellectual or academic development.

Although IAEPs play a profound role in enhancing the quality of education among partner institutions, the involvement of African universities leaves much to be desired (Shayo 2014). The literature suggests that this disconnect is because only a few universities in Africa have established IAEPs with universities in northern and southern countries. For instance, the University of Stellenbosch in South Africa has enrolled approximately 22,000 students from 200 countries. However, this is a rather unique experience as there are very few African universities that operate IAEPs that originate from within.

This phenomenon is attributed to the fact that most African governments and NGOs, as opposed to their northern counterparts, do not set aside funds for supporting staff and students who wish to study abroad. This suggests that the majority of academic staff and students from most African universities, who participate in IAEPs both within and outside their respective countries are sponsored by either development partners (DP), donors (including bilateral and multilateral organisations) and international non-governmental institutions such as such as Fulbright, the Commonwealth, DAAD and philanthropic organisations, mostly located in northern countries.

Furthermore, lack of adequate preparation and giving of prior information to the teaching staff members upon visiting lecturers appeared to be another setback on the part of teaching staff members of SAUT. Indeed hosts in international or transnational university programmes should be prepared well in advance and informed properly and fully to accommodate international students. Education on intercultural competences is essential towards enabling a peaceful and smooth transition on the part of the guests, but it also provides the hosts with the peace of mind in dealing with foreigners. This preparation is essential as a stepping stone towards developing sustainable partnerships at personal and institutional levels.

The other challenge is related to the goal of financial aid in educational pursuits. Aid is said to be good and effective if it contributes to capacity building. Aid becomes a risk if it does not translate into the revitalisation of HE. This being the case, it follows that aid providers should, from time to time, evaluate the outcome and sustainability of aid as the following respondent put it.

I see a risk when aid does not lead to capacity building but stays an end in itself. Projects could be only implemented because their subjects sound good or are currently in fashion. But they have no sustainable effect locally. The resources could be used more efficiently (Respondent from the University of Bremen 2016).

In the current analysis of the engagement of Germany-based academic scholars and diaspora in the revitalisation of AHLIs, communication was singled out as one of the major challenges in developing and sustaining international partnerships. Inconsistent communication and a relaxed approach to executing duties were blamed for stifling international collaboration (Respondent from the University of Leipzig 2016).

While investing in capacity building is necessary and desirable, it is vital to qualify the kind of capacity Africa envisages or rather needs most. Once this need is articulated and internalised, a policy can be initiated for its implementation. One such need is investing in science subjects to accelerate technological development as a precondition of economic growth and development. African academics and the diaspora have a special role to play in revitalising science and technology through HE and research.

The literature is keen on promoting science and technology for development as the following quote illustrates. Africa's most significant challenge is to invest in capacity building through enhanced education in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. Such investments will enable the continent to leverage the world's available scientific and technical knowledge and use it to diversify the economy away from a historical dependence on natural resources. The urgency to diversify African industry has been reinforced by China's economic slowdown and its negative impacts on African raw material exporters (Juma 2016).

Although all fifteen former beneficiaries of German sponsorship interviewed from the University of Dar es Salaam in Tanzania commented that co-operation between them and their sponsors was profitable, they pointed out a number of

challenges. This was despite the fact that none of them said their training in Germany was irrelevant. They stated their desire for former bilateral programmes to be revived though worried about the sustainability of the programmes.

The academic background of the respondents affected their attitudes. Since they came from diverse areas of knowledge, it was relatively easy to classify their points of view. In the college of engineering and technology, for example, respondents lamented the termination of German sponsorship for technicians. They argued that once their batch retired, their successors may lack expertise they had acquired in Germany. Though they appreciate what the country does for the needy, they underlined the importance of its support to them.

But in the Department of Economics, respondents stated that Germany had less influence than North America and Scandinavia in their department. Accordingly, the latter trained more economists. Where there are very few German trained scholars, their contribution to higher learning is equally limited. However, some disciplines have more German trained staff than others. This manifests in the preference of the donors. For example, whereas the College of Engineering and Technology has a good number of them, the Department of Philosophy has none.

In addition, people who learn the German language and stay there for two or more years seem to appreciate their training more than those who spend a shorter time there. Moreover, it was noted that there are several disadvantages of supporting locals who study in their home countries instead of Germany. This fact is especially conceived it curtails the benefits of which Africans who study in Germany enjoy. Such benefits include acquisition of a new language, appreciation of a new culture and learning from a different work ethic, which would greatly help in their future academic and administrative operations.

Both long and short-term needs of UDSM and respondents featured in their statements. The domestic demand for the transfer of technology from Germany to Tanzania was high. At present, the technology used in the laboratories of UDSM is backwards when compared to German laboratories. Likewise, the tools in Tanzanian workshops are not up-to-date. At the same university, for example, the old equipment made in Germany should be replaced by the modern ones. When Africans pursue studies in Germany, they use state-of-the-art science and technology. Yet, they come back without the most modern tools. Their relevant knowledge, then, becomes underutilised.

Similarly, in the Department of Archaeology at UDSM, a respondent complained of the shortage of equipment. This shortage compromises the quality of research, education and training. The existence of inadequate facilities, especially in Africa is both an economic and political problem. As such one would question the rationale behind how priorities are set and the way they are implemented. It should also be highlighted that Germany and other developed countries have their own priorities and the allocation of funds follows the logic of priorities. It is essential that African and German priorities be aligned to a certain extent in the revitalisation of HE in Africa.

One challenge of internationalisation has been the ability to synchronise quality management benchmarks across countries. As student and staff mobility increases so arises the question of upholding certain 'universal' academic standards. These standards consist of, among other things, technical aspects such as credit transfer, employment criteria and infrastructure. To this end, African universities are planning to have common quality assurance standards by 2020.¹⁰

In addition to the challenge of synchronising quality standards across universities, some African universities, particularly private ones, face unwarranted interventions and control from governments. These have serious repercussions to the universities, first of all, as their autonomy is threatened but secondly because the process of intervention and its very aim, compromises the quality of education envisaged by the universities. By their very nature, universities should give informed advice to governments based on the logic of research and freedom to influence policy.

At the heart of the improvement process in AHLIs is a research-based evaluation of the current situation, with an explanation of the causes of the stagnation or poor performance of many African universities in comparison with other international universities. In the similar vein, it is important to have a theoretical explanation of the unsustainability of certain internationalisation partnerships between AHLIs and their international or German counterparts. It is a proverbial assumption that knowledge of the problem is half its solution.

In conclusion, the chapter has pointed out numerous funding opportunities as well as programmes and initiatives available to African universities. If these opportunities are well utilised, they can lead to the revitalisation of the AHLIs. The German Federal Government through the DAAD has invested a great deal of funding and offered expertise to support HE in Africa. While acknowledging the role of international co-operation in revitalising AHLIs, the study has argued for co-operation between and amongst African countries to bring about socioeconomic development.

In order to bring about change in Africa, investment in community or public service is particularly important and therefore programmes and initiatives to promote this service should be encouraged. The provision of community service amongst African academics, particularly those who studied abroad is unique way of giving something back to society. Transnational and transcontinental cooperation is an opportunity for supporting local initiatives.

The study reiterates the need to establish and maintain links with other universities to attain international standards and produce graduates who would fit in the international labour market. With the rapid growth of science and technology, extra efforts should be made to meet the demands of the changes in the world, especially on the use and application of ICT, E-teaching and E-learning programmes for both academic and administrative staff. In this way, some of the collaboration challenges such as lack of information would be minimised. The challenges facing the engagement of the African scholars and diaspora in revitalising AHLIs should be turned into opportunities for improvement. The next chapter analyses the revitalisation of the AHLIs through Information and Communication Technology.

Notes

- 1. https://www.daad.de/medien-und-publikationen/en/29887-annual-report/
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Revitalising Universities through ICT

One of the means of revitalising African Higher learning Institutions (AHLIs) is the use of modern Information and Communication Technology (ICT). E- learning in particular is set to revolutionise the learning environment in Africa as it is in other parts of the world. In a special way, digital education can transform education to a large extent. Over and above the efficiency and effectiveness of such technology, its accessibility is especially essential for students in developing countries whose financial unpredictability is often a major setback.

The number of graduates of secondary education is on the increase, especially in developing countries. E-learning enables a cademics to reach substantially more college students and to provide them with a high-quality education. Resources, that are frequently scarce, can be used more efficiently, for instance for digital learning infrastructure such as virtual classrooms, libraries or laboratories. And experts of teaching and research can be involved independently of their own location. 'There is no other way to meet the existing demand. And that is why I see digital education as existential and without alternative' (Respondent from the University of Bremen 2016).

Revitalisation through ICT

In relation to St. Augustine University of Tanzania (SAUT), for instance, it was established that internationalisation has provided an opportunity in the availability and use of ICT for teaching and administrative purposes based on appropriate training in this area. The University of Tampere in Finland is another example as it has been supporting training personnel in ICT. Use of E-library, E-learning by students and using Internet services in the administrative functions at SAUT has helped reduce the workload for administrative staff and made

the university more modern as one can reach out to many people within a short period of time (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

The role of collaboration in revitalising HEIs is acknowledged by numerous university members. In answering how collaboration with outside universities has helped to improve work performance, a participant shared his satisfaction after participating in ICT training in Europe:

Since I attended a three-month training in Europe, my working ability has greatly improved, and now I find it easier to use my ability and computer knowledge smoothly and with high performance. I wish that such chances could be available more often in our university to better our working capacity (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

These words indicate s the significance of university camaraderie when training staff to use technology. It was concluded that ICT staff training, through international collaboration, greatly contributed to the creation of a more competent staff who could help develop the university. Through the use of ICT, staff from the university along with colleagues from the University of Tampere and the University of Vechta, have created a special programme that monitors and regulates students' information. This programme is called Students Management Information System (SMIS). A respondent summarised this experience in the following words:

Students can now access their information online and know all about their admission status and even about their academic progress. This aspect has been facilitated by the use of the software received from the University of Tampere. The use of this package has minimised the running costs at SAUT because publications have been reduced and even the process of giving information has simplified for staff members and students (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

Building Partnerships in ICT

Furthermore, the study revealed that 'the use of ICT in the university has enabled the maintenance and creation of new partners with other universities because often times meeting physically becomes impossible and even too costly' (Respondent from SAUT 2016). The use of ICTs in general has made the university more international, though advancement needs to be made in the use and adoption of modern technology for staff and students.

The other challenge was for the university administration and other stakeholders to improve in some areas as required by the international standards,

especially with regard to innovations. Learning to use foreign technology is one thing, but manufacturing the technology is quite different. For Africa to make huge strides, it should also be able to invent its own technology. This invention will not only develop science and research but will also enable the continent to be more independent. Responding to this challenge a respondent observed that 'In order to be able to move ahead we are obliged to find out our own local sources and the means we need to forge ahead' (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

The co-operation between the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA) and the African academic diaspora has played a role in generating income in addition to promoting Computer Science and Swahili for foreigners. In SUZA, 'Kiswahili for Foreigners Programme is among the main sources of income, since the diaspora somehow facilitate the availability, admission of foreign students from their countries then this brings a big benefit to SUZA' (Respondent from Suza 2016).

The use of ICT within the university has an added advantage for both students and the staff through the American Corner. This is an open window for accessing online books and journals, particularly useful doing research. It has proved to be an enriching centre, not only to the members within the university but also to the members around the university. American Corner has facilitated the use of E-library and distance learning. It has also facilitated healthy relationships between the university and the American Embassy and some help has come to the university such in form of computers and books both in hard and soft copies (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

Notwithstanding the acknowledgement of the contribution made via ICTs, notable challenges were revealed with regard to certain intervening variables that hindered full or adequate utilisation of technology. These challenges included erratic power supply, slow or lack of Internet connection, as well as the inability of some students to use a computer. Although the use of E-learning and E-library is increasingly becoming the order of the day, some respondents had certain reservations. 'E-learning and E-library... well... are the best techniques at hand today in improving international collaboration. But looking at SAUT as a Tanzanian university... ICT knowledge is not yet up to standard' (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

In order for a university to remain connected to world universities and good-willed organisations, ICTs play an important role in its entire dimensions. Websites should be up-to-date, comprehensive and accessible. Students and staff should be innovative. For example, SAUT has online open forums through collaboration with the University of Vechta where PhD staff and Master's students

can log in and ask questions, get answers and openly discuss different topics of their interest. However, such opportunities are not utilised by the intended clients (Respondent from the University of Vechta 2017).

Some respondents at SAUT presented several challenges and suggestions for a better future. Below is a summary of the thematic analysis of data which includes: teaching experience, international programmes, E-learning and language proficiency and improved quality of education. Several respondents expressed views regarding how university internationalisation has contributed to the teaching and learning programmes through gaining a new international teaching experience. This assessment regarded the students and teaching staff, the curriculum and the programmes taught at the university. It was noted that when the university's indigenous teaching staff members come into contact with others from international universities, they learned new methods and techniques of teaching and assessing the students.

Every university should aim at preparing students who will fit in and contribute to raising international standards, so that after their education and training they may secure employment anywhere due to their qualifications. This trajectory would help reconstruct the meaning of internationalisation of universities. One student from SAUT noted that lecturers from Canada have enriched their educational experience, making students more international and adding credibility to their university (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

It was also observed that staff mobility from abroad greatly contributed the revitalisation of HE. In a special way, such staff help to make universities international, by sharing their own experiences, language and culture but also by introducing different methods of teaching. This kind of mobility enables universities to live up to their (potential) nature as international academic institutions.

In the faculty of education where there are lecturers from different parts of the world and they make SAUT international in that sense. For example, in the Faculty of Business Administration, there are lecturers coming from the United States of America to teach students as well as giving them some international packages in accounts which 'must be adopted in order to equip our students with international skills' (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

Programmes can be used to help lecturers gain new teaching experience and expose them to better international practice. In a university in East Africa, for example, there is a programme called Students and Staff Globalisation Policy. The programme allows students and staff to move freely within the East African

region, enabling the capacity for learning. There is an International Association of Technical Programmes organised by principals and vice-chancellors that encourages students from technical colleges to participate in student exchange programmes in capacity building, especially in IT. The major aim of this integrated programme is to help local experts and students gain international experience and add credibility to professionalism.

One respondents indicated that universities should be mindful of their local needs in the kinds of programmes and content they offer. At the same time, however, they should remain open to alternative views as they stay connected to international universities such as the University of Vechta. The study appreciated the fact that collaboration with other international universities may help to advance local programmes and make them international through either shared teaching or learning activities or through exchange programmes. Internationalisation has a great role to play in AHLIs.

Moreover, in strengthening local and international linkages, it is crucial that regional co-operation be given special attention. States and governments all over the world attach special importance to regional co-operation for various reasons such as economic development, peace and security as well as cultural exchanges. Similarly, universities should capitalize on regional co-operation.

In the African context such regional groupings are fundamental as they beat the logic that what an African country cannot do on its own, can only be done in or by Europe. However, this does not mean that Africa does not need Europe rather Africa must recognise its capability. African neighbouring countries and their universities have rich resources, which are often underutilised. Experienced professors and lecturers at various African universities should travel across African borders to give lectures, especially to universities, with fewer experts in certain academic fields. Travelling locally would complement rather than replace transcontinental mobility.

It was also noted that on-line language courses were useful in honing students' language skills just as E-learning generally would strengthen research skills and broaden students' knowledge. For example there was a programme of teaching English online through the American English Webinar, where students and teachers were offered an opportunity to learn English freely online. This resulted in improved language skills and proficiency 'both for lecturers and students. For the students who are carrying out research, online journals and books are readily available (Respondent from SAUT 2016).

In conclusion, the study showed that communication between universities is done online through the use of video-conference and Skype and this is an outcome of advancement in ICT. Digital education has helped to minimize operation costs as well as making communication easier and faster. There are some advantages such us accessing books and journals online and sharing materials with other universities. Digital education can also make a great contribution to the struggle against unemployment, especially among young people. This is particularly important for Africa with its largely young population.

The jobs of the future lie in digital education. Know-how and expertise in the diaspora can be efficiently used for the development of both individual countries and the entire continent. Another great advantage is that it is relatively hard for national agencies to censor digital education. Hence ICT is set to revitalise AHLIs and as such it must be promoted by local and international development agencies.

Theory on Revitalisation of African Higher Learning Institutions

This chapter builds on the previous chapters to highlight the insights gained in the discussion of the engagement of the African scholars who have pursued or are pursuing higher degrees in Germany. One of the insights gained is a lack coordinated programmes that engage the African academic diaspora in revitalising HE in Africa. This chapter focuses on the needs for theorisation on the revitalisation of African Higher Learning Institutions (AHLIs) and attempts to construct a theory in this regard.

At the heart of this lacuna is the need for theorising and developing a grand vision of turning brain drain that is the loss of well-educated intellectuals for greener pastures into brain gain or circulation where the well-educated individuals return to work in Africa. This need is well articulated in the literature on African civil society (White 2008; Shivji 2007 and Hyden 1995). One may argue, as I do here, that academia is part of civil society (Commission for Africa 2005) whose mandate is knowledge generation and sharing.

Consistent with the conceptualisation of academia as part of civil society, this work builds on the PODT (Mutalemwa 2015) to explain the revitalisation of the AHLIs. In addition to the conceptualisation of academia, I argue that universities should ultimately lead to the improvement of societal conditions, which is another way of defining development. This improvement entails change and even transformation of individuals and societies in various ways: socially, economically, culturally, politically and technologically.

This change denotes development. This is the reason why a theory of development is adopted to explain the revitalisation of AHLIs. Universities are actors in development. They take part in facilitating development. They

are also indicators of development. In this sense, they may be used to measure development in terms of the quality of their products in relation to national and global standards.

In short, the people's organisations development theory (PODT) postulates that confronted with development challenges, individuals organise themselves to make change whose effectiveness depends on networking. It is a four-step process, which may be adopted to discuss the process of revitalising AHLIs through the internationalisation of universities and their academic programmes, staff and students. The process is indicated in Figure 1.

 Socio-economicand political challenges Structures Poverty and Strategies for selfunderdevelopment help and income generation Process restarts: new problems identified/ enhanced development 4. Sustainable human, cultural socio- Collaboration with economic and political other POs, CSOs, state development and transnational developmentagencies

Figure 1: PO Development Theoretical Model

Source: Mutalemwa (2015: 208)

Step One: Problem Identification

The starting point of PODT is at the micro level, that is, the level of individuals. At this level, individuals who are potential people's organisations (PO) members, identify the needs and challenges they are facing. These problems originate from the potential members' lived experiences. The individuals realise that they

cannot solve the problems single-handedly. Therefore, they decide to form an organisation or join an existing organisation. The organisation is built for people and by people with similar challenges. This brings them to the second level, which is the meso or middle one.

The procedure of starting the development process at the micro level contributes to the extant literature. For example, Servaes (1999) argues that initiatives of development must begin with grass-roots communities and organisations. Similarly, White (2004) concludes that top-down approaches to development are misguided as they exclude people's initiatives. That is the theoretical basis on which the current study builds.

In the context of the engagement of the academic diaspora in revitalising AHLIs, the identification of needs, challenges, problems and issues confronting AHLIs is of paramount importance. This forms the starting point for each university in any collaboration with international institutions and, indeed, in university management as a whole. One of the questions universities need to continuously reflect on is the place of a university in the context of internationalisation.

Related questions would be: To what extent can the university manage itself independently? Which external intervention is necessary? In answering these and similar questions, a needs assessment is crucial in the management of the university. Decisions that are demand-driven are more likely to produce better results than supply-driven ones because the former ones are based on the needs on the ground. Here, the fundamental question is how AHLIs can effectively and sustainably tap into the brains of the African academics with an international background to revitalise AHLIs.

Some of the major challenges that universities in Africa generally face are creation and management of quality education, massification of students vis-avis space and facilities, state intervention, internationalisation, extra qualification and sustainable financial flow. In this theory, universities are expected to identify and address these and other challenges. The academic diaspora may well be disposed to help mitigate some of these issues.. Universities may benefit from collaborations but first their needs and priorities should be identified and articulated. Even at university, individuals can and indeed should be able to identify and articulate the needs of the university at this micro level.

Step Two: Organising

The second step in PODT is organising. Organising means the formation and management of a PO (Mutalemwa 2015). A comprehensive explanation of the

formation and management of associations is provided by Speer and Perkins (2002). At the organising level, individuals discuss their goals in a general meeting. During meetings community goals, objectives and strategies are discussed and negotiated. The ultimate goal is usually socio-economic development.

The way to achieve this goal is determined by members at the organising level. Although individual goals form the basis of PO goals, PO priorities supervene upon individual goals at this level. This is because individual goals assume an institutional character and as such they cease to be personal or individualistic. One should keep in mind the potential for disagreement amongst members can be assumed to exist whenever individuals exercise the art of organising.

As an example, so far, there has been an interplay between micro and meso relationships amongst POs in Mwanza, Tanzania. What has been lacking is the interplay over and above the meso level, that is, the networking level (Mutalemwa 2015). Apart from advantages such as stability and inclusiveness which characterise such POs, POs may be threatened by dangers such as complacency and exclusion. To counterbalance these dangers, PODT proposes an interaction between and among POs as well as with other development actors.

Therefore, in this theoretical conceptualisation a university is an academic organisation. At this stage, universities through relevant fora, focus on how to address the issues raised by staff and students. University units, departments, faculties and management boards are eminently suited to address these issues. In university management, organising thus consists of making concrete plans, devising effective strategies and appointing competent manpower. The manpower would to start, develop, maintain, improve and assess collaboration with members of the academic diaspora or scholars living in Germany or elsewhere. The aim of the assessment would be the revitalisation of the AHLIs. This constitutes the meso level whereby individuals' ideas give rise to university conversation, reflection and action.

In the context of the African academic diaspora, here is where the need for collaboration assumes an institutional character. For example, organising may lead to establishing an international office to specifically accommodate the diaspora and regularly conduct a thorough needs assessment. Several universities in Africa do not have such offices in place. This may curtail the process of internationalisation because of the absence of such an important forum.

An example of the establishment of partnership was provided by a respondent from the State University of Zanzibar (SUZA). He explained that when the Zanzibar Government passed and endorsed the bill to establish the university in 1999, many Tanzanians, Zanzibaris in particular who live and work overseas,

started the initiatives to link SUZA with other higher learning institutions: 'We started engaging with the African academic diaspora since the university started its operations in 2002' (Respondent from SUZA 2016).

The example above shows one of the ways various governments, organisations and the diaspora establish collaborations with AHLIs. The decision of the African diaspora to establish collaboration with AHLIs ushers in the third step in university co-operation, namely internationalisation through networking. Which is an independent step in the URT as it was developed in the PODT (Mutalemwa 2015).

Step Three: Networking

The third step in PODT is the macro level, which is known as networking. The underlying idea in networking is to broaden the knowledge and experience within POs in order to maximise organising potential and to extend organisational values and the norm of generalised reciprocity to a larger community. The aim is not to subsume POs into wider regional or national bodies, as this may lead to their loss of autonomy or identity. Doing this in POs would be a contradiction in terms. Some Development Theorists, for example, Rugumamu (1997) and Green (2012) argue for co-operation based on research, development and flexible networking rather than lethal aid and trade. This argument is fundamental to PODT because such organisations are stronger in terms of social capital than economic capital through which trade and political power reign supreme.

Strengthening POs can contribute to the transformation of political power. White (2004) indicates that POs need to develop into large-scale organisations aiming to transform the power structures around them. The question of collaboration of development actors proposed in that study expands the literature which argues that local and international development actors should work together and develop positive relationships (Dinbabo 2014). Furthermore, the literature shows that networking has been successful in some countries such as India and Sri Lanka due to the notion of ownership and autonomy (Hyden 1995).

At university level, networking refers to the process of reaching out to international institutions and particularly the African academics abroad, including the diaspora amongst other actors of internationalisation. The purpose being to address the issues and priorities identified at the meso level, namely the institutional level. That is where the academic diaspora and indeed other African academics living abroad are identified and contacted. Depending on the response of the diaspora and other potential partners, negotiations and agreements may be made to start and maintain co-operation between them and the university.

Indeed, as internationalisation gains ground in university management, focus should not only be between universities in the North and in the South but also between African universities and members of the academic diaspora largely with roots in the South. In other words, such collaboration entails South-South co-operation towards revitalising HE in Africa. This collaboration would help mitigate the effects of the dependency theories and lead to more self-reliance, ushering in the revival of Pan-Africanism.

It is at this networking stage that the South-South relations become formalised. Through networking with the African academic diaspora, the advantages of educating and training Africans abroad can be felt in African universities and by extension African societies in general. In this way the relevance of the education and training received could be assessed vis-à-vis the needs of the African universities pointed out in stage one, namely problem identification and articulated in stage two, that is, organising. Thus, networking logically follows the two previous stages and is dependent on them.

Networking may commence and develop between two individuals affiliated to an academic institution: for example, one in Africa and the other in Germany as the data informing this work has shown. This kind of networking makes sense as a starting point. However, in order to ensure sustainability at an institutional level this kind of networking needs to be streamlined into university management procedures. This is to ensure that the principle of subsidiarity is adhered to. For example, rather than an academic scholar paying allegiance to his or her inviting counterpart, the scholar should seek to be part of the university answerable to a unit, department or faculty. This would also help give collaboration an international character.

It will be incumbent upon the inviting scholar and the university staff and administration to work towards maintaining the network. This would entail supporting the invited scholar who would be expected to deliver in accordance with the expertise gained abroad. With several academics in Africa making an effort to reach out to the African academic diaspora a good number of the diaspora will be able to contribute towards revitalising HE in Africa.

More importantly, university initiatives should seek collaboration with the African academic diaspora and nurture it through help of concrete plans to do so. For example, in 2016, SUZA introduced an Advisory Board, which consists of many Tanzanians who had lived overseas among its members. This is an important strategy to engage scholars abroad for internal development. It is indeed a strategy for sustainability.

Academic networks and collaboration have multiplier effects. People who get such opportunities to engage in international academic exchange programmes in Germany or in other parts of the world serve to create new networks. As a result, institutions become stronger and students expand their knowledge, skills, competences and values. The following quote gives an account of the benefits of networking in mentoring young scholars and institutions in Africa.

... I think I gained a lot by being recruited in Germany and, of course, also having had an experience from America, USA. ...I was with technicians who were well-schooled, with Master's degrees who assisted with my work. ... I had all access to everything I wanted and out of that I had also collaborations with my German colleagues in terms of research. I remember ... in 2009 my supervisors, two other colleagues and ... we had... a research programme, in Northern Malawi with students from five countries and I was one of their instructors. We had students from Germany, Kenya, Ethiopia, Tanzania and Malawi ... That was through the Volkswagen Foundation. But I think they should also think of us as being originators because I wanted to apply and then they gave it to their fellow German[s]. I think they need to [provide] access to us. That we, as beneficiaries, we can, ... also launch such collaborations with Germany, of course, and other colleges in Africa ... (Respondent from UDSM, 2017)

Moreover, networking cannot be limited to academic scholars alone. It should extend to international academic associations, foreign universities, governments and international CSOs. The potential for networking is almost unlimited. One may reasonably argue that the stronger the networks get, the greater the chances for change, continuity and development, all factors remaining constant. As stated earlier, there are a good number of organisations in Germany working to promote and support collaboration with universities in Africa. Therefore, it is time Africa seized the opportunity to build and sustain networks for the revitalisation of tertiary education.

Step Four: Change and Transformation

The fourth step in the PODT theory is change or transformation which means a complete change and may be synonymous with development. It is the completion of the first cycle of the organisational development process. As such it brings together the micro, meso and macro levels in the tripartite assessment of individual, organisational and networking goals. Since PODT advances a holistic approach, the assessment of transformation takes cognizance of human, social, cultural, economic, and political elements of development (Burkey 1993).

Similarly, African universities are going through vital changes and transformation through internationalisation. Change and transformation are also demanded by national education authorities to maintain quality standards. As such universities are compelled to demonstrate indicators of compliance. Such indicators include but are not limited to capacity building for staff and students, academic performance, relevant curricula, employability, communications strategy, modern and accessible infrastructure and facilities, research, publications, public service engagement, quality management, internationality, financial stability, planning and demonstrated knowledge, skills and competences amongst graduates. Any assessment of change and transformation should consider at least one of these indicators.

However, since development is intrinsically and by definition an on-going process, PODT anticipates a discovery of other areas for improvement. This includes an identification of new challenges as the process proceeds in a spiral. This being said, it follows that a new circle of development, through problem identification commences and the process continues. This theory envisages the endresult as the strengthening of POs and improvement of societal conditions through maximisation of human and social capital (Green 2012). However, although the process is a continuous one, it does not exclude possibility of retrogression or stagnation because of potential intervening variables. Some of the variables might be lack of compliance, corruption or undue intervention by external causes.

Whereas theories such as modernisation (Rostow 1960) and dependency (Rodney 1972) assume a linear way of bringing about development, PODT assumes a cyclical trajectory. This is because PODT views development as a process that entails the interaction of various actors who are heterogeneous, dynamic and interdependent. PODT endorses self-criticism of development professionals who unquestioningly and unanimously follow neo-Newtonian paradigms as if they were the only feasible paradigms possible (Chambers 2012). For this reason, PODT assumes the participation of a diversity of actors and plurality of methods of bringing about people-centred development within a Community-Driven Development (CDD) model. The following quotation makes an invaluable insight relevant to the proposed theory in this analysis, by distinguishing between development paradigms:

We are all trapped in our mind-sets and our ways of seeing and doing things. Development paradigms: neo-Newtonian and adaptive pluralism delineates two contrasting paradigms. The neo-Newtonian has elements that are linear, ordered, uniform, controlling and predictable. Adaptive pluralism has elements that are non-linear, diverse, complex, empowering and unpredictable (Chambers 2012: 147) [Emphasis in original].

Indeed, assuming that the steps mentioned above need to follow each other in a sequence is an oversimplification. Organising and networking entails human interventions, which are as dynamic, complex and unpredictable as human behaviour itself. It is possible, for example, to start at the networking level and move towards organising and problem identification or start at the organising level and then proceed to problem identification and networking.

The important thing as far as the PODT theory is concerned is to analyse the relationship between the African academic diaspora and the AHLIs through the four elements, namely problem identification, organising, networking and change or transformation. The order may appear less significant but if, for instance, one considers networking first without doing a needs assessment or change without networking, one may end up putting the cart before the horse, especially if it is unclear why problem identification, organising, networking should take place in the first place.

Since change is the goal of engaging the African academic diaspora in revitalising AHLIs, suffice it to say that the academic diaspora and returning experts cannot be expected to solve all the problems of higher learning in Africa. However, they have the potential to facilitate change. This can and should be done in collaboration with host universities in Africa if there is a vision for implementation and the plan to make the collaboration practical and sustainable.

For example, the academic diaspora may be unable to address the question of massification of students, space and facilities and government intervention but they may contribute towards raising the quality of research, learning, teaching and consultancy. They may be innovative and creative enough to address issues otherwise considered unmanageable. Change and transformation may be evaluated against the backdrop of improved quality of research, learning, teaching, management, communication and community service, production of graduates who deliver in their places of work as well as development of sustainable programmes at university. The single and most important aspect of change in academic is probably attitudinal. Attitudinal change encapsulates a fresh mind-set and the willingness to recognise, appreciate and embrace new ideas. Change is at the heart of learning and learning is the transformative role of education.

University Revitalisation Theory Construction

There is need to link the four main points described above and construct a theory from their relationships. To begin with, problem identification gives rise to the need for organising. This is because it is through organising that problems may

be articulated to acquire an institutional character. This character originates from organising which gives it the qualification, mandate as well as opportunity to engage with other institutions locally and internationally. Such qualification is the *conditio sine qua non* for networking because networks in AHLIs are essentially formal in character. In other words, without networking, internationalisation can hardly be developed and sustained. Internationalisation cannot be done for its own sake like philosophy.

Internationalisation has its own ontological and teleological existence. This means that internationalisation consists in networking whereby at least two nations collaborate in a common or mutually agreed venture. This common venture is not without purpose. The purpose is usually co-shared by the involved parties. Collaboration has repercussions for either or both parties. This applies to universities involved in international partnerships.

Over and above having the development agenda and priorities exclusively determined by external development partners or governments, such agenda and priorities emanate from local universities which are then discussed within the context of collaboration. In this process, the needs, goals and vision of the universities become the guiding principles of collaboration. This is the essence of the theory which stands for development from below and from within. Conversely, development from above has decisions, agenda and priorities often emerging from western countries representing western values and yardsticks. At times such decisions come from governments and as such are often politicised. In this way, institutions in developing countries such as those in Africa become mere recipients and implementers of blueprints with little or no say or objection.

The above criteria of PODT stem from the analysis of empirical data as informed by Grounded Theory Method (GTM) as well as theoretical data, particularly regarding the need for theorising on POs in Tanzania (White 2008; Shivji 2007; Hyden 1995). The criteria are concepts which are systematically interrelated through what the literature describes as statements of relationship that denote a theory (Strauss and Corbin 1998). In this way, the research findings move beyond conceptual ordering to theory (Strauss and Corbin 1998). The current analysis envisages the employment of the revitalisation of AHLIs theory to explain the engagement of African scholars with a view to improving academic quality in African universities and reconstructing the kind of internationalisation which respects local needs.

Theory of Change and University Revitalisation

The people's organisations theory of change (POTC) builds on the ten criteria of assessing the performance of POs. It proposes a thesis that change is the goal of organising because PO members establish organisations in order to improve their living conditions as empirical data in this study has shown in order for change to take place. The study by Mutalemwa (2015) identifies three factors which need to be considered, namely preconditions, strategies and effects whereas the preconditions of change include legitimacy, autonomy and cohesion. The strategies comprise of internal organisation, inclusiveness and code of conduct and the effects consist of stability, delivery and contentedness.

Thus, a POTC is the interplay of preconditions, strategies and effects. The quality of preconditions, strategies and effects are essential in determining change. It is worth recalling that in this analysis, change is synonymous with development. The POTC may not be confined to Pos. It may be extended to explain development in the broader sense of the term at local, national and international levels. This conceptualisation presents an alternative way of conceptualising change which is nonlinear and participatory. A different way of deconstructing development is provided by Rostow (1960) who saw change as essentially linear in direction.

Indeed, one can analyse the engagement of African scholars and the diaspora in revitalising AHLIs if the three criteria discussed above are considered. The preconditions include a needs assessment on the side of the parties involved, commitment to the partnership and the sustainability of envisaged north-south and south-south collaboration in the context of Africa.

The strategies include constant and regular communication between the parties in question, exchange programmes and regular assessment of the strengths and challenges of the engagement. Lastly, one must evaluate the outcome of the engagement. This is best done against the objectives of the engagement. For example, the objectives may comprise improved quality of research, teaching and public service, sustainability of the engagement as well as attainment of international standards to a reasonable degree.

The argument here is that the purpose of internationalisation in AHLIs is change just as the purpose of organising in CSOs is change. In addition, I reiterate that the goal of organising is development or change, which may be indicated by the stability of the members and of the organisation, delivery on the objectives and contentedness of members because of organising. These effects depend on certain strategies and values, namely internal organisational structure, inclusiveness and personal commitment. The strategies proceed from preconditions of the strengths of an organisation, namely legitimacy, autonomy and cohesion.

In other words, commitment to social and ethical values, namely, but not limited to, co-operation, focus on the common good, financial accountability, democratic leadership, autonomy and functioning internal checks and balances need to be incorporated in theory construction. In short, internationalisation amongst academic institutions and organising amongst social institutions seem to have a common purpose. The purpose is change. In the same way, the purpose of the engagement of the Germany-educated diaspora and scholars is change in AHLIs.

Thus, the discussion of development as the goal or purpose of organising needs to consider the preconditions under which organising takes place, strategies of meeting organisational objectives as well as the effects or impact of organising. In short, the question of how change can be facilitated, under what circumstances and with what effects, determines a POTC. The same applies for the manner and conditions by which HLIs can be revitalised. Thus, the discussion of internationalisation should take cognizance of the preconditions for engagement, the strategies for establishing the collaboration and sustaining it as well as the effects of taking part in a collaborative venture.

Similarly, the content and process of engaging African scholars in revitalising higher education in Africa informs the analysis of the present work. In this context, content refers to the goals, issues, needs and programmes that form the kernel of the collaboration between scholars abroad and universities at home. The process involves the strategies, communication and exchange programmes. Furthermore in this process the people involved in the collaboration occupy the centre stage in initiating and driving the process to its logical conclusion. Thus content and process are crucial in analysing the engagement of African scholars abroad in the internationalisation process. The two variables are the building blocks of theory and as such may help in understanding and assessing the revitalisation of AHLIS.

The emphasis of active members in spearheading the goals of an organisation provides an essential criterion in determining the success of the international collaboration towards the revitalisation of the AHLIs. The failure in realising the collaboration objectives of university revitalisation can *ipso facto* be justified on the same criterion. This means that the revitalisation process is likely to fall through if the people involved do not take an active role. This failure would be imminent even if the content or the process is scientifically and professionally grounded. In short, the role of active people in the collaboration is essential. An organisation or a university cannot function well without dedicated or committed personnel.

Internationalisation, in particular, can hardly succeed unless there are devoted people to drive its goals to maturity and fruition involving all parties in the

collaboration. Myriad programmes for internationalisation, large sums of money and visits cannot facilitate successful internationalisation unless individuals join hands to make collaboration work. The bottom line is that programmes and funding can neither replace people nor succeed them.

In the revitalisation of AHLIs, members from both parts of the collaboration should possess the quality of active subjectivity together. If one part is active and the other part is not, collaboration will be negatively affected. Similarly, if both parts are inactive, then internationalisation will fail. The collaboration will be severely affected or completely obliterated.

Hence, officials entrusted with the responsibility of managing international co-operation are expected to possess the qualities, aptitude, work ethic and competences to actively create, maintain, sustain, improve and promote international partnerships. Eventually, it is a network of active players that will have a lasting impact on the revitalisation of AHLIs demonstrated by knowledge production, dissemination as well as improved societal conditions.

Additionally, the more active the subject, the more ideas or better resources can be generated. The more active the network is, the greater the opportunities for effecting change (King and Cruickshank 2012). This is possible if the socio-economic and geo-political conditions are supportive and not 'extractive' (Acemoglu and Robinson 2013). Hence, the strength of the POs does not only depend on the 'activeness' of the members as propounded by Olson (1971). It also depends on the socio- economic and geo-political forces around the POs. The same applies to the revitalisation of AHLIs

Therefore, stronger governance institutions at local and international levels, for example, have a role to play in the provision of an enabling environment for POs. The literature shows the interaction between individual PO members and organisations in a model referred to by Mutalemwa (2015) as interactive subjectivity. Interactive subjectivity denotes the active interaction of individual members at various levels which produces an essential effect towards the development of individuals as well as POs. These levels entail individual members, POs and coordinated or even federated POs. Interactive subjectivity is equally important for the revitalisation of AHLIs.

There are numerous examples that show the possibility of positive results from the collaboration through PPPs in AHLIs as Juma (2016: 11) elucidates. Private and public enterprises can also help expand higher technical training through inhouse programs. Firms can help to consolidate training activities across industries to create dedicated training and research programs, improving upon the current

emphasis on firm-specific training. With proper incentives, such activities could contribute to the firms as well as to the wider economy. Such training facilities could also be embedded in existing universities. For example a mobile phone company, Safaricom, is financing a namesake academy at Strathmore University in Kenya that offers a Master of Science degree in mobile telecommunications and innovation.

The following section attempts to show the contribution to knowledge by illustrating PODT in response to the gap in theory on POs as identified in the literature, for example White (2008), Shivji (2007) and Hyden (1995). It is vital to keep in mind the fact that PODT is a logical conclusion of applying GTM as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Strauss and Corbin (2008). PODT shows that organising is both a process and a product that begins or is attained through the four interrelated steps.

The literature has pointed out numerous advantages of networking for example Bebbington and Kopp (1996), Satterthwaite (2004) as well as Esman and Uphoff (1988). It is pertinent to note that networking, as a process of strengthening AHLIs, is crucial. The more the networks get; the better. In fact, the stronger the networks built; the better still and the more impactful the collaboration becomes. It is equally important to stress that collaboration partners should be transparent about the networks in which they are engaged, including the programmes and projects involved in the collaboration.

Such transparency would help other partners identify areas that still need attention as well as areas that have not been addressed at all. The aim is to optimise resources rather than duplicating resources unethically and irrationally. Suffice it to point out that networking is co-operation, but co-operation is not competition. The following hypothetical example may help clarify the role of collaboration amongst universities.

As an example, an African university may collaborate with organisations A, B and C. All these organisations may be involved in capacity building for the same university by addressing various aspects of capacity building. However, if this need can be addressed by organisation A alone, then there would normally be no need for involving organisations B and C. Otherwise, it would make more sense if each of these organisations addresses a different need.

On the other hand, it would be optimal and reasonable if organisations A, B and C knew what each one did in terms of collaboration with that African university. This knowledge is necessary for coordination purposes and would ward off undue division of labour and duplication of resources. This example applies to all institutions, including German ones, African alumni associations,

the African Good Governance Network (AGGN), as well as academic diaspora associations and the like.

University Revitalisation Process

The following section illustrates the process of university revitalisation, which has four inter-related main components. They consist of needs assessment, process institutionalisation, internationalisation and change or transformation as shown in Figure Two. The section below explains each component, starting with needs assessment then process institutionalisation through to internationalisation and finally change.

Quality Strategic education planning Financial support Process management Needs assessment Q J Change and transformation Internationalisation Revitalisation of Networking institutions Exchange Employability programmes Sustainability

Figure 2: University Revitalisation Theoretical Framework

Source: Mutalemwa (2018:163)

To begin with, needs assessment is the starting point of the process. This process is crucial because it seeks to answer numerous questions underlying revitalisation. These questions include: what are university's needs for revitalisation? How is the quality of education offered by the university? How are the financial needs of the university and its employees met? Which areas of revitalisation are essential for a particular university? What are the strengths of the university that can be used to attract and sustain local and international co-operation and under what

circumstances? What are the weaknesses that can be mitigated or overcome through internationalisation?

Other questions are: Which international institutions are actually or would potentially be willing and able to collaborate with a particular university? These and similar other questions may be raised by individual staff members or individual units of the university. Such questions are not dealt with at the university level yet. At this stage, freedom of thinking and expression is vitally important for each member of the university. But also listening on the part of the management and owners of the university is equally important. Communication, whether vertical or horizontal, is absolutely essential. Vertical communication is hierarchical; horizontal communication is collegial.

However, the university as a whole gets involved at the second level, namely process institutionalisation. It is at this level that relevant university organs turn individuals' questions into institutional agenda. To operationalise the agenda, a university develops a policy, guidelines and a strategic plan for revitalisation. It puts in place structures to manage the process. It identifies the personnel and creates a team to manage internal operations.

At this stage, setting up an international office would be an added advantage. If internationalisation is an important element in the university management, then universities should invest in its support by appointing qualified and interested personnel to man the office and furnish it with the necessary equipment and facilities. At this stage internationalisation is discussed from the point of view of the university concerned. It is the first concrete step to reach out to international partners.

In attempting to reach out to international partners, the engagement with the diaspora should be amongst the top priorities particularly by the AHLIs. The concern that African universities do not have a specific programme or office dealing with the diaspora may be real and quite revealing. I concur with the argument that without a strategy to engage the diaspora and other African academics abroad, little would be accomplished by the diaspora in relation to the revitalisation of the AHLIs.

The focus on internationalisation brings the revitalisation process to its third level. This level consists in the involvement of AHLIs in international networking. As AHLIs engage in the internationalisation process with various international academic and professional institutions, African scholars, including the African academic diaspora, should form a kernel of the process. This is because, as stated earlier, the diaspora know better both the western, particularly German culture, and the African cultures.

The fourth level is revitalisation. It consists in transformation or change both qualitatively and quantitatively. Just like change, revitalisation is an ongoing process. It follows from the previous three stages. The establishment of the relationships in the three stages as well as the concepts in the stages are necessary for the construction of the AHLIs revitalisation theory. Thus revitalisation is construed as the process of constant interaction of universities and other interested parties by responding to local institutional needs for development in the context of internationalisation.

In short, the assessment of needs is a precondition for revitalisation. This assessment acquires an institutional character through communication as a major strategy for university improvement with a clear focus on internationalising. The entire revitalisation process should be evaluated against certain qualitative and quantitative outcomes. Hence the URT is a combination of preconditions, strategies and outcomes. Preconditions, strategies and outcomes may change. However, they would always be replaced by new ones for the process to proceed in a spiral. This is because universities cannot remain static, especially in terms of ideas due to research and innovations. Being static in HE would be a contradiction in terms.

Some Success Stories in African Higher Learning Revitalisation

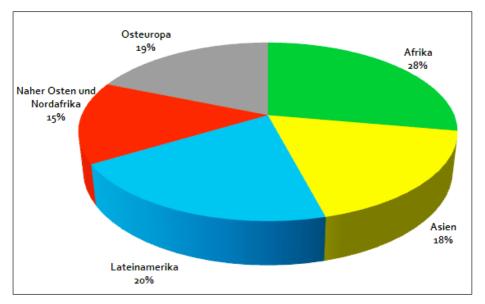
There are numerous examples of success stories in Africa, which can set a good precedence for other African universities and scholars. These include innovative AHLIs such as the University of Stellenbosch in South Africa, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture in Kenya, and the University of Zambia and Kawanda Agricultural Research Institute in Uganda, to name a few.

Some African universities have served as incubators of businesses without having explicit mandates to do so. For example, the University of Zambia's Physics Department incubated Zamnet, the country's first Internet provider (Konde 2004, Muchie and Baskaran 2012). Yet many new businesses or technologies created by entrepreneurial students in universities fail because of the lack of policy and managerial support. Others fail because of the absence of risk capital (Ben-Ari and Vonortas 2007; Bjørgum and Sørheim, 2015). Others lack innovation ecosystems that can support the emergence and development of new industries (Lee and Tee, 2009). An analysis by Juma (2016) provides examples relevant to the present study.

In comparison with other developing regions such as Eastern Europe, Asia, Latin America, Near East and North Africa, Sub Saharan Africa attracts the most support

(28 per cent) from funding agencies such as the Catholic Academic Exchange Service (KAAD) as shown in Figure Three from KAAD Annual Report (2015). This may suggest that Africa needs the most support. In this sense, other funding organisations would do well to emulate the generous example of the KAAD.

Figure 3: KAAD's Global Allocation of Funds



Source: KAAD Annual Report 2015: 105

One of the advantages of internationalisation programmes is the reintegration of scholarship recipients, which is KAAD's policy. In this policy, scholarship holders must return to Africa on completion of their studies in Germany (Respondent from Vechta 2018). This policy is meant to ensure that the Africans who have had an opportunity to study abroad should be able to give something back to the continent. This giving something back has been referred to as brain gain as opposed to brain drain or the loss of well-educated people who work abroad rather than serve in their home countries.

In conclusion, the main argument in this analysis and the motif that binds the analysis together is that the revitalisation of AHLIs is a complex and dynamic process that consists of four inter-related stages. The revitalisation depends on various actors working together towards a common goal, guided by a common vision and a certain mind-set to bring about change. Lack of theorisation on the

revitalisation of the AHLIs has been a weakness in the process of revitalisation. Indeed, change and transformation may be hard to measure especially in qualitative terms. Nevertheless they can be felt and acknowledged by the academic community or society in general. The chapter has provided a theory of university revitalisation that may guide the analysis and evaluation of universities towards revitalisation of AHLIs. Particularly the theory has identified the African academic diaspora as an integral part in this process.

10

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

The book has attempted to discuss the engagement of African academics in the revitalisation of African Higher Learning Institutions (AHLIs). These are Africans who went to German universities and obtained Master's and PhD degrees. This research-based discussion identified academic programmes mediated by the African diaspora. The engagement in research projects, teaching, exchange programmes and short courses were common phenomena. However, it was found out that these programmes were typically organised by individual African academics. There was absence of engagement of the African academic diaspora as an organised entity. What existed in Germany were a few national diaspora associations for example, Ghanaian, Kenyan, Cameroonian and Ethiopian associations.

Though intercontinental academic collaboration was fundamental in supporting AHLIs through north-south co-operation, the analysis revealed a dearth in co-operation amongst African countries. Where collaboration amongst African countries existed, there was a strong Western influence, particularly financially. I argued that even with limited financial resources, Africa has enough well-educated people to revitalise the AHLIs if they joined efforts to do so. In this way, brain drain would be curtailed whereas brain gain and brain circulation would be promoted. This is because well-educated Africans would not be compelled to work abroad but rather to offer services in Africa where the need is greater.

One of the African academic organisations set to bring about change in Africa was the African Good Governance Network (AGGN). As a network of well-educated Africans, its role for Africa's development was discussed as fundamental. However, its dependency on the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD)

raised serious questions over its sustainability. As a civil society organisation, the AGGN and other African organisations should be owned and managed by Africans, seeking external support where necessary. In this way, Africa can escape the vicious circle of dependency.

The role played by Germany in supporting African scholars was commendable. Africans who went to study there gained from transnational education and mobility obtaining various skills and a different work ethic. Respondents in this study generally found the education and skills obtained in Germany were relevant to the revitalisation of AHLIs. As such they would recommend fellow Africans to pursue their education and training in Germany. In a particular way, German technology has supported learning amongst AHLIs through ICT.

The revitalisation of AHLIs can succeed if supported by a viable theory which takes cognisance of the local needs, local aspirations and international academic standards. Such theory should emerge from research and should inform the vision of the continent in its efforts towards internationalisation of the AHLIs. The African academic vision presupposes that Africa can 'act like one' borrowing a phrase from Chinua Achebe by taking the lead in developing conceptual, theoretical and practical arguments for the revitalisation of the AHLIs.

The whole idea of revitalisation of the AHLIs is a development one. That is why a theory of change has informed the entire analysis in this work. It is essential that Africans living in Germany consider establishing a network to address African needs, especially in higher education. The advantage of a network lies in the powerful voice that often characterises associations and unions such as CSOs. The academic diaspora and academics in Germany should pull together their resources and garner concerted efforts as an entity to deal with common matters pertaining to the development of the African continent. One of the main issues should be the revitalisation of the AHLIs.

Informed by the URT, the African continent, African thinkers and academics should harness local and international resources to spearhead intellectual development in Africa. They should use their expertise, knowledge and experience to influence the internationalisation of education at various levels, primary, secondary and especially tertiary. This does not suggest that African scholars can or should work in isolation. No, they need to work alongside other thinkers from around the world.

However, unless African scholars and governments invest in research and higher education development in Africa, the continent risks remaining dependent, isolated and poor. All in all, African scholars whether in Germany or elsewhere should demonstrate their capabilities, share their research findings, tell and retell the African story until it is understood within and beyond its borders. The construction of the university revitalisation theory is a modest contribution to the African story.

Recommendations

Various recommendations may help improve the engagement of the African scholars and the Germany-educated academic diaspora in revitalising AHLIs. These recommendations touch on four major categories of key partners in the internationalisation of HE. These include students, universities, governments and other scholarship providers. To begin with, I make recommendations for students at both Master's and PhD levels involved in study abroad programmes, as well as those who aspire to study abroad, particularly in Germany

For African Students

African students who have been privileged to study abroad have their own dreams to realise. They also have employers' obligations to shoulder as well as national goals to achieve. These dreams, obligations and objectives must be crystal clear to candidates in the course of their studies if not right at the beginning of a study abroad programme. Individual dreams may dovetail employers' expectations or national vision for development, which is the purpose of education. In this case, the student will be working with the sole purpose of realising these dreams, expectations and visions. However, these dreams, expectations and visions may be conflictive and thus impact on the study process and outcome. The student is advised to understand the nature, cause and consequence of the conflict. This knowledge is essential in crafting the best way forward.

Each student needs to have a high degree of independence. This means that the student should own the study. This independence consists in the choice of topic of study to pursue and if and where possible the student should be free to decide where to study. It is an educational principle that students learn better if motivated to do so and there is no substitute for the inner motivation to learn. Forced education may backfire and cause unprecedented negative effects. It is recommended that students appraise their motivation for their pursuit of a particular field of study abroad. In this appraisal, students will identify externally intervening motivations and find a strategy to address them.

A student needs to ask oneself whether the kind of education one is pursuing has relevance to personal, national or international educational goals. Education

is inherently significant; irrelevant education is a contradiction in terms. However, students pursuing their Master's degree or doctorates need to assess the applicability of their knowledge, skills and competences to their home universities and, by extension, their home countries.

Students studying abroad should be aware of two study cultures through which they undertake their studies, namely the former culture acquired and natured in Africa and the new culture learned and developed in Germany. It is crucial to be cognisant of the cultural traits, similarities and differences between the cultures and to strive to make the most of the cultures that support one's educational endeavours. Culture is relative, and no culture is superior to another. In short, culture is a collection of reflections and practices of how people in a particular area think, behave, live and act in a given milieu.

One of the cultural habits that promote education is time management and organisation. This entails setting up a timetable and abiding by it. The study duration is usually two years for the Master's degree and three years for a doctoral degree. Often one has a study schedule for the entire project from the time one writes a proposal. Certainly, there is room for modification as the study progresses. However, modification and change should be more of an exception than a rule. The study process involves careful planning.

Lastly, Africans studying or working in Germany would do well to consider establishing a formal network of Africans which will give them a platform to discuss and assess the needs of the African continent. One of the issues to discuss would be the revitalisation of AHLIs. The formation of such a network or association is essential in reinvigorating Pan Africanism and should be informed by an inner impetus to work towards its establishment. The approach to form such an organisation would depend on the decision of the members. One of the approaches to form the organisation would be for all or at least some Africans in Germany to join the organisation.

African Universities

African universities have more or less invested in study abroad programmes as part of their quality management and staff development strategies. However, it is unclear that these universities have conducted studies to assess the relevance of the programmes and whether they can qualify or quantify the return on investment. Universities may well ask themselves if studying abroad is worth the investment in terms of resources involved in the process or whether there are alternatives which may produce similar or even better results. Universities should

endeavour to assess the relevance and applicability of the knowledge, skills and competences obtained in studying abroad, particularly in Germany.

Furthermore, universities should draw a strategic plan detailing the number and qualities of staff who are suitable to study abroad in the medium and long-term arrangements. The current work has established that some universities send students to study abroad on an *ad hoc* basis. This practice is a common phenomenon. The practice is based on the availability of funds and scholarships which are often not predetermined. In other words, a university would send their staff to study as and when funds or scholarships and fellowships are available.

This gives universities a slim chance to plan ahead, particularly when confronted with lack of financial autonomy. This autonomy is closely bound up with socioeconomic and political development of a country, especially in African countries. Nevertheless, universities still need to have a strategic plan which considers the unpredictability of financial resources. Such plan is essential for students as well because plans help students prepare themselves before embarking upon studying abroad.

Recognising the advantages of studying abroad, universities need to have programmes and projects to tap into the rich intellectual reservoirs of women and men who study or have studied abroad. Universities should encourage such students to return to their home countries to render their services there. This entails creating an enabling environment which motivates returning experts to support their home countries and universities. In this connection, African universities may establish diaspora units or departments to cater for returning experts as well as to develop networks with African scholars living abroad.

Although focusing on education and theoretical development is essential for revitalising AHLIs, African universities should reconsider offering skills training at the tertiary level. African universities should take advantage of internships and vocational training available in Germany and elsewhere. Africa needs ideas but also needs technical know-how. As Africa moves towards industrialisation, technical skills are a necessity as pointed out by Mufuruki; Mawji; Kasiga and Marwa (2017). Thus there is need for a balance between theory and practice.

There are experts in various fields who can make things happen rather than those who can simply regurgitate or copy and paste what they have learnt in lecture halls. Skills training may take even a shorter period of time than PhD programmes which last for three years at least. In this way scarce resources would be better utilised while disseminating the skills and knowledge to the next generation of scholars.

Indeed, as Africans living in Germany should deliberate on the idea of establishing the network of Africans there, Africans who live in Africa should also consider establishing a network of Africans living in Africa. Returnees from Germany should consider the best approach to establishing such a network or association. Time has come for Africa to be more independent and pro-active and lead the development agenda of the Continent.

African universities should increase support for faculty and student exchanges through strategic partnerships, fellowships, travel stipends, collaborative grant development, course release and cost sharing. The universities should seek multiple models of engagement that do not privilege the Atlantic model and recognise the histories and importance of the African diaspora outside of this model and these geographies. They should implement research plans that benefit both overseas and continental academics and recognise the importance of academic rankings.

The universities should ensure that their policies encourage maximum visibility of local and collaborative scholarship between the diaspora and continental scholars, and they too should invest in technological infrastructure to facilitate distance learning and collaborations. And finally, universities should implement monitoring and evaluation to assess short- and long-term impacts of partnerships with the African academic diaspora.

International Offices

African universities should make sure they establish international offices with the purpose of linking their universities with international universities worldwide. As international offices, they are expected to be in sync with the state-of-the-art practice in running and managing such offices in various parts of the world. The staff working in these offices should, among other things, be well-versed in international dealings, with demonstrable competences and strong communication skills

German Universities

German universities should include in their programmes, particularly at the PhD level, skills for teaching and management of HE. These would help students returning to Africa be more competent to support their home universities. German universities should attempt to assess the suitability of their education in relation to the academic needs of the African scholars and AHLIs.

In order to ensure that prospective students at German institutions of higher learning succeed in their studies, the institutions may consider introducing examinations as entry qualifications rather than depending solely on examination transcripts from Africa and recommendations from former applicants' lecturers. Introducing an examination is not a novel idea as such. In other parts of the world, for example in the United States, certain good universities require postgraduate students to take the Graduate Record Exam (GRE). GRE examines prospective students in areas such as English, Mathematics and Logic. German universities need not examine these subjects per se. They would be creative and introduce the subjects to examine and the level of difficulty such subjects should entail.

German universities should be guided by the spirit of co-operation with African universities whose students' study in Germany. There is a tendency of treating African students as people who need help. In the same way, German universities may see themselves as mere helpers or aid providers. This may create a dependency syndrome and inculcate paternalistic attitudes and tendencies. The question to ask amongst partnerships is not what can I do for you but rather, what can we do together? This presupposes a symbiotic relationship. In this relationship both African countries and Germany have a say, preferably an equal say in the organisation and management of the internationalisation of education involving AHLIs.

African Governments

It goes without saying that the cost of living abroad is much higher than needed while living in one's own country, all factors remaining constant. This means that students need to have adequate financial resources to study abroad. Therefore governments should devise means of raising funds to support their citizens. Here establishing partnerships with the private sector is absolutely essential. While recognising the benefits of studying abroad, African governments should work to improve the learning environment in Africa by deliberately making education a priority.

Regarding the often questionable quality of political and economic governance in many African countries which acts as a launchpad for scholars to leave their countries and stay abroad permanently or for a relatively long period of time, African countries have no more options than putting their houses in order first and foremost. The recommendation is therefore that African governments should re-examine existing conditions in Africa and make them attractive to returning experts.

Hand in hand with good governance are budgetary considerations, which ensure fair allocation of funds according to national priorities. Education,

including tertiary education should have its fair share in national budgets. These budgets should also cater for students studying abroad. Having a budget is the starting point in supporting higher learning. The next step is making funds available in a timely manner and in accordance with the agreement between the government and the students. Acting contrary to this agreement may stifle educational endeavours amongst African students abroad. If left unchecked, this scenario may give birth to a catalytic effect on brain drain, particularly as African scholars and diaspora have had an experience of living and or working in an economically developed country.

Governments should evaluate the quality, process and outcome of study abroad programmes. This evaluation calls for conducting research and tracer studies to gauge the study conditions, students' performance as well as employability of students in their home countries or if necessary go beyond their national borders. Besides, African governments should stay in constant communication with foreign governments to assess the study programmes and find joint efforts and strategies to maintain, improve or strengthen the quality of higher learning. There is no substitute for keeping communication channels open between states.

Embassies and High Commissions should be more involved in forging and strengthening links between African countries and foreign countries.

As articulated out in the Draft Declaration and Action Plan of the 1st African Higher Education Summit on Revitalising Higher Education for Africa's Future, held in Dakar, Senegal in October 2016, governments need to implement eight calls for action. Below is the summary of these calls. First, governments are urged to adopt a participatory approach with university leaders and scholars to build on existing models and develop new structures of collaboration. Secondly, they need to draw on the expertise of governments and institutions that have had fruitful diaspora engagement. Third, governments should actively encourage the diaspora's participation in policy debates by crafting formal and diverse spaces for their engagement, and fourth, develop policies focused on international networks and supranational organisations that seek out pathways for diaspora engagement in strengthening African HE.

Fifth, governments should collaborate with the Association of African Universities, African Union and other multilateral organisations to intensify the continental effort to create and expand research partnerships with universities in and outside Africa. Sixth, they should invest in the technology infrastructure to facilitate distance learning and diaspora collaboration. Seventh, the declaration says, governments should promote policies that facilitate travel for diaspora academics, and eighth, they should promote relationships between diplomatic

missions and higher education systems in host countries to support diaspora engagement. Finally, governments should ease import restrictions on research materials and supplies to facilitate collaboration between scholars and their networks.

German Government

The co-operation between Africa and Germany in development initiatives including higher education development is commendable. The German government should co-operate with their African counterparts to ensure that conditions in Africa are conducive for returnees even if the responsibility of ensuring a conducive socio-economic and political climate rests primarily with Africa. Here the political conditions which are closely bound up with governance are in question. Inasmuch as the German government may wish to encourage students to return to their home countries after completing their studies, the students may find it absurd to respond positively if the situation back home is not attractive. Such students know both countries quite well after spending a couple of years or more in Germany.

It is logical to assume that students would opt to stay where the political situation is better. A conducive political situation is a springboard for social-economic development. Conversely, socio-economic development may lead to political development. In this case too, the socio-economic conditions in Germany would still be attractive to students from Africa. Part of the reasons for socio-economic and political development, are functioning institutions. Africa has had its share of dysfunctional institutions, which is part of the recipe for brain drain.

Germany may use its technological advancement to introduce or revamp digital education amongst universities in Africa as part of development cooperation which has existed between these places for several decades. This is particularly true for former German colonies in Africa.

Scholarship and fellowship providers

Scholarship and fellowship providers should try and ensure that their generous support to African scholars pays dividends by producing positive results in revitalising higher education. Investing in such students is a privilege that presupposes responsibilities on the part of the recipients. In countries where the majority of the population cannot afford to pay for their studies in their home countries let alone considering studying abroad, German scholarships and fellowships are really invaluable. This fact should not be taken for granted.

Once African scholars have benefitted from the scholarships and fellowships, it is vitally important that they demonstrate that the scholarship and fellowships were not in vain. Scholarship beneficiaries are expected to deliver accordingly. In fact, they have to reciprocate in a way indicating that Africans are not permanently on the receiving end and thus re-define their image abroad.

Thorough vetting should be done to ensure that scholarship and fellowship beneficiaries are eligible to study abroad, where in most cases international educational standards are higher and therefore more demanding. Offering scholarships and fellowships to people who cannot deliver would be a waste of resources on the part of the providers but also it could be a menace to recipients who might have to put up with an unsurmountable pressure to cope with a stressful learning environment and sometimes in freezing temperatures to ensure that they honour the scholarship award. Therefore scholarship and fellowship providers should be well informed about the qualifications of the African applicants. African scholars need to be prepared and ready to face the challenges of studying abroad and make the most of internationalisation, while keeping in mind the expectations of the scholarship providers.

Academic Diaspora

The Africans who study or work abroad have the advantage of having an experience in two different cultures, namely the African culture(s) broadly conceived and the German one. They should be able to bring to Germany the best of their cultural heritage from their own national cultures and should equally bring back to Africa the best from Germany. In the context of higher education, Africans studying or working in Germany should be able to transfer to Africa the best practice in terms of research, knowledge, skills and competences all 'Made in Germany'. This is, in a way, what is meant by brain gain and brain circulation. Nevertheless, this should not be transfer for its own sake but rather a forum for sustainable conversation and knowledge exchange with Africa about Africa and the world at large.

Members of the academic diaspora are 'ambassadors' of their own countries or even of the entire African continent. They represent their countries and continent. Sometimes the only time some Germans hear of a certain country is by meeting someone from that country. This meeting also helps to inform some Germans that Africa is not a country like Germany but a continent like Europe at least geographically speaking. Thus the meeting between Africans and Germans may help prove, deepen, clear or fix the prejudices that some Germans

have towards Africans and vice versa. Because, if we argue that the essence of prejudice is ignorance, it may follow that dealing with prejudice in the first place would be a step towards dealing with ignorance.

DAAD and other Alumni

The DAAD, KAAD and other alumni, including the AGGN fellows should strive to make their presence felt by engaging their governments in Africa towards the revitalisation of higher education. They can and should reach out to local universities as agents of change and transformation. In this endeavour, it does not matter whether the alumni received a government scholarship or a private one. Their expertise and concern for the development of their countries and continent matter most. In a special way, the revitalisation of AHLIs counts on them a great deal. Their engagement can bear more and better fruits if alumni associations are strengthened, particularly from within. Hence, the responsibility of strengthening alumni associations depends on the members themselves first and foremost. In the last analysis, Africans must tell their own story and take the lead in transforming higher learning.

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