Introduction

The question of higher education governance and leadership in any country engages with issues that reside in and transfer from activities and policies outside of higher education. Education issues are by and large social issues, and society, whose issues higher education aims to solve, is a main stakeholder in education. In this introduction, the context and basic concepts that this publication addresses are defined and described for the establishment of a common vocabulary. From the population that higher education covers, through the organisation of learning from a ministerial perspective and matters of leadership and governance, this chapter articulates broad issues that concern the practice of post-secondary school teaching and its impact on the creative and cultural industries.

Kenyan society is made up of people of multiple linguistic and cultural affiliations and origins. The country with its 38,610,097 inhabitants (as at the 24 August 2009 national census) has 26,122,722 rural and 12,487,375 urban inhabitants, accounting for 67.7 and 32.3 per cent of the population respectively (KNBS 2010). Of these, the youthful 15–24 year-old age-group comprises 3,877,758 males (48.8 per cent) and 4,066,888 females (51.2 per cent). Out of these, 1/796,467 are in secondary school, while 198,119 are in university, a total of 1,994,586 out of a possible 7,944,646, hence 25.1 per cent. Of those 19 years and above, it is granted that some will be in other tertiary institutions, as higher education is not confined to university.

Education in Kenya is organised through government provision as contained in legal notices, bills and acts. Government response to social issues through education comes in the form of task forces in education and Sessional Papers. Whereas the former seek to make recommendations for government intervention, the latter seek to formulate policies and action plans to ensure that education plays its role in moving Kenya’s development agenda forward. With a ministry responsible for education, various governments have either consolidated all education requirements into one ministry, or separated ‘basic’ education from ‘higher’ education, normally merged with science and technology, as in the immediate past arrangement. When consolidated, there would be different assistant ministers and/or principle secretaries for the two areas, still demonstrating a level of separation, a move that is perhaps responsible for the apparent lack of cohesion in the educational programmes in the country. Today, there are three
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Principal Secretaries, one each for Basic Education, University Education and Vocational and Technical Training.

There are institutions charged with specific educational tasks. These agencies of the Ministry of Education include:

a. The Teachers Service Commission (TSC), the employer of teachers for public primary and secondary schools and tertiary colleges, playing a role similar to that of the Public Service Commission that recruits and manages civil servants. This would indicate that teachers are not public servants, a debate that runs frequently, especially when matters of remuneration arise;

b. The Kenya Institute for Curriculum Development (KICD) – formerly the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). The curriculum developer has the mandate to set what is to be learnt at early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary institutions of education. It does not concern itself with universities;

c. The Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC), the educational assessment organ of the Ministry. It generates an examination syllabus, sets, administers and marks national examinations for primary, secondary and post-secondary training levels, using the learning curriculum developed by KICD (KIE);

d. The Commission for University Education (CUE), formerly the Commission for Higher Education (CHE), is responsible for oversight of university and higher education, with the mandate to supervise, register and accredit such institutions and their programmes of study;

e. The Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) administers funding for higher education learners through loans, bursaries and scholarships.

All organs are expected to work autonomously, with levels of interdependence evident, especially between KICD and KNEC. Quality assurance in higher education is the mandate of CUE, while at lower levels, the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards in the Ministry of Education is in charge. Thus matters of education planning, delivery, assessment and quality assurance are covered through the institution and organs of the government with express mandate to cover specific duties. CUE, established through the Education Act of 2012, assumed greater powers than its predecessor, CHE. It has taken on the responsibility of assuring quality and order in university education in public as well as the private universities. It has as an anchor the Universities Act of 2012 which guides all affairs pertaining to the establishment and management of universities. Each university’s activities and mandates are to be spelled out in their charter and statutes in order to cater for their particular orientation. CUE’s role is to monitor that each institution of higher education remains faithful to its stated objective, through relevant inspections and evaluations.
Education Paths

The term ‘higher education is taken to embody all organised learning and training activities at the tertiary level’ (Assié-Lumumba 2006:9). In Kenya, with early childhood, primary and secondary schooling being the initial levels of education, the tertiary level comprises the fourth stage, accommodating learners from around eighteen years of age. Education is structured in levels that are given duration in numbers of years. Early Childhood Education (ECE) starts from around the age of four years (or younger in some cases) and lasts two years. The seven-year-old then joins primary school in Standard 1, leaving eight years later having sat the Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) examination. The end of the eight-year primary cycle sees some children stepping out of formal education, while some proceed to secondary school, a four-year stint at the end of which they sit the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) examination. Whatever form of education or training that the eighteen year-old engages in, whether formal or informal, is then a tertiary level education. In some instances, post-secondary education is broadly described as higher education. For the purposes of this publication, all learning that is systematic, be it formally organised in institutions or individually provided in non-formal settings, qualify to be termed higher education.

The training and education progression path has recently opened with emphasis on the multiple-entry-multiple-exit policy espoused in the new Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Act of 2013. After primary school, one can either go on to secondary school (normal/academic or technical) or go to a polytechnic for technical training. From here, a student either goes to university, or an institute of technology, or a national polytechnic, from where they would get a degree (university), certificate or diploma (institute of technology/national polytechnic). The last two qualifications allow one to work in relevant positions in industry, but also open avenues to join, at relevant levels, university training in comprehensive or technical universities. The respective higher education qualifications are therefore certificate, diploma, bachelor’s degree (Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, Bachelor of Technology, Bachelor of Philosophy), Master’s degree (Master of Arts, Master of Science, Master of Technology) and Doctoral degrees (Doctor of Philosophy, Doctor of Musical Arts, etc.). There is therefore adequate scope for both academic and technical training, and the discerning learning planner can direct a learner’s career from as early as the start of secondary school.

Higher Education

Higher education covers academic learning, as well as technical and vocational training. The latter includes the activities of knowledge acquisition and skill
development in the creative and cultural expressions. It constitutes learning and training activities provided by and at universities, of which Kenya today has twenty-two public and fourteen private legally chartered institutions, and thirteen with Letters of Interim Authority (LIA). These vary from conventional universities offering arts, humanities and science faculties, to specialised universities offering agriculture, engineering, science and technology. The latter appears to have been the trend in recent times with public universities. As at today, of the twenty-two chartered public universities, two are expressly Technical Universities. Although some universities bear names articulating their major areas of specialisation, such as university of technology, they tend to offer arts, science and technology courses like all conventional universities.

Higher education is also conceptualised to include conventional post-secondary institutions, such as institutes of technology, polytechnics and colleges of education, agriculture etc. In here are included the professional institutes and schools (Thaver 2004:74), the various institutions that offer training in religion, business and Information Communication Technology as well as the creative disciplines of art, music and dance, design, media and journalism.

Since African higher education is a ‘social institution that reflects its socio-historical and global dynamics’ (Assié-Lumumba 2006:15), its history and character is as much the history and character of the people’s hopes and aspirations as it is the history and character of the people’s endeavours in coming to terms with global issues. The institutions of higher education derive their mandate from their categories. Conventional universities, for example, focus on teaching, research and community service, with higher levels of academic activities, a space where knowledge may have been pursued for knowledge’s sake, until the questions of funding and relevance arose. The specialised institutions developed, at least in Kenya, as responses to human resource deficits. Of these, the technical institutions emerged to respond to the growing need for skilled labour-power for industrialisation. The vocational institutions (with business, accountancy etc.,) respond to the need for the skilled labour-power for the managerial and accounting roles that large and small firms require. The creative industries are yet to receive equivalent attention in Kenya, and yet it is this area that accommodates a large number of talented youth today.

Public institutions, the focus of this chapter, are set up as a government response to improve capacity and provide skilled human resources for its planned activities in national development and the betterment of life for the people. They are expected to meet societal needs for labour-power, which will deliver services in line with government planning, and contribute to the planning, and delivery, of interventions. The institutions have been developed over a period of time, in response to and as part of government development plans, or as purely politically motivated decisions.
**Governance and Leadership**

This book focuses on governance and leadership, terms that encompass broad as well as specific ideas and behaviours. Each institution has different organs for the implementation of its programmes. These component organs relate to one another to ensure success, organisational coherence and accountability. ‘Governance can be defined as the process of providing policy leadership, oversight and strategic guidance on management of resources and delivery of services as well as the formulation and implementation of sound policies and regulations’ (Report of Task Force on Education 2012:173). As a complex process it deals with the guidance necessary for sound policy formulation and implementation. It covers relationships among those in authority towards the running of the organisation in terms of utilisation of resources and meeting of the organisation’s stated objectives, i.e. service provision.

Governance covers the structure of relationships, the interaction between the units or components of the organisation, and how they negotiate circumstances to give the organisation a sense of coherence, authorise policies and legitimise plans and decisions in an accountable, responsive and cost-effective way (Locke, Cummings and Fisher 2011). Governance is what accounts for the success of an academic system. The academic system is made up of interlinked units. These need to work closely and complementarily. Governance demands focus on structures and systems, and the qualities of the personnel in charge who give direction. Our focus is on governance of higher education as it relates to the development of the creative industry. The success of the academic system presumably reflects in the dynamics of the industry. If the academy provides the industry with skilled and knowledgeable personnel, then leadership and governance in higher education create an atmosphere conducive for this to happen. Governance and leadership in higher education must by necessity impact on the activities and structure of the industry.

But since higher education is a factor of society, various societal players contribute to its definition. These include state and civil organisations with a role in ‘securing the coherence, effective coordination and functioning of the system as a whole, the different sectors which comprise it and the institutions within each sector’ (Wolpe, Singh and Reddy 1995:113). The higher education sector in Kenya is multi-dimensional, with government and other stakeholders and culture bearers whose activities and opinions have a bearing on its activities. As a service provider to society, higher education matters are of concern to society. It is worth noting that matters of education come up in political discussions, especially with politicians aiming at scoring positively with the electorate in Kenya. Despite the multitude of rhetoric generated at such times, one often hears tangible issues raised that point to the belief that education gives direction and impetus for the growth of society. To this end, Kenya’s education task forces traditionally conduct stakeholder briefing and fact-finding sessions, so that views from as
wide a population as possible inform decisions and conclusions that should be representative of society’s vues and opinions.

Another significant factor in this higher education definition is academic freedom, autonomy and accountability. This contributes significantly to the governance and democratisation of the institutions of higher education (Wolpe, Singh and Reddy 1995:113). The university in Africa as a whole has been accused of inefficiency in many areas. This ‘lack of efficiency is created in part and maintained by state control of top administrative organisation and management’ (Assié-Lumumba 1996:7). This was even more so in Kenya before the year 2002, when the Chancellor of the public universities was the President of the Republic, and the Vice-chancellors were appointed by the Chancellor. In this scenario, merit was not the determinant of appointment to leadership, nor was ability or experience necessarily considered. When the appointee was inadequately prepared for the job, the activities and output of the institution suffered. The appointee was perceived, and in fact leaned more towards a political role, instead of efficient management of services in the institution (Assié-Lumumba 1996). There are still reports of ‘undue political interference in institutional management’ (Report of Task Force on Education 2012:173) despite new legislation that ensures a level of autonomy. This has led to tension at times, between top management and staff or top management and students, especially when there are disagreements between staff or students and the state. The university atmosphere was often marked by instability due to polarisation of students and staff against top management and government on matters that lead to mass action and unrest. Today, top management positions are filled through competitive selection, and it is expected that the appointee will bring in relevant academic and experiential qualifications. This mode of appointment reduces the alienation previously felt, where the chief executive was not perceived as a member of the institution, but an imposition of the dominant political establishment. The competitive selection is expected to tap into the nation’s top academic administrators, a move that should ensure that governance and leadership of the university facilitate a healthy relationship with industry and society.

Universities have also reflected the social and political conflicts such as party affiliation (Assié-Lumumba 1996). It was recently observed during the student union campaign and election period in one of the universities in this study that candidates vying for student leadership posts prepared publicity posters in very clearly national political party colours. The red, yellow with green, blue and orange colours that are symbols of political parties went hand in hand with geographic and linguistic affiliations of the candidates, as discernible from their names. With Kenyan politics largely tribally demarcated, governance at the university at student level, when run on political party parameters, becomes tribal in demarcation. This is a step towards the marginalisation of sections of the population, and there is often evidence of segregation on account of linguistic heritage.
University governance becomes complex when matters of globalisation are considered. When there is significant support from external donors, as happened during the period of structural adjustment programmes, and other forms of international bodies’ support, the challenge is how to sustain cooperation ‘while decreasing intellectual dependence on former European colonial powers’ (Assié-Lumumba 1996:8). When large amounts of aid come into an institution, ‘chief academic officers of higher education institutions have limited power and accept decisions made in the centre through the technical advises from industrial countries and experts from international organisations’ (Assié-Lumumba 2006:53). After all, he who pays the piper calls the tune. This leads to cultural colonisation, a phase that many institutions of higher education went through, and some still do.

One of the key elements in governance appears to be coordination, the bringing together of different players for a common goal. Not only is it crucial that valuable players are identified, but that the goal is clearly articulated, and the vision bought by the players. The challenge of good leadership often leads to the limitation of autonomy of sections being coordinated. These sections have mandates, and their thoughts, plans and activities must be herded together. When not appropriately harnessed, there is bound to be a limitation that is not necessarily the expected shepherding so that a common goal is achieved. Poor leadership will result in the strengths of the units not being recognised, captured or addressed. Such strengths and attempts to employ them may also be misunderstood, and so vital human resource goes to waste. Coordination is crucial in governance, for cohesion and coherence in an institution’s programmes. It is worth noting that democratic governance alludes to decisions that will at some time or other constrain action and rights. Where two or more units come together, each must cede some ground in order to accommodate other units.

Another key element in governance is accountability, the process of respecting checks and balances towards providing evidence that the unit is fulfilling its designated function. Accountability is a perfect curtail on freedom, as it regulates thinking and action. Accountability becomes significant especially where there is cost-sharing, like in higher education in Kenya. The public higher education bill is borne heavily by tax-payers. Over and above this, parents and guardians must also chip in, because there is a component of tuition and subsistence fees that each student, whether privately or government-sponsored, has to pay. Governance is about negotiating these to ensure coherence and successful implementation of plans.

This requires appropriate leadership, defined as ‘seeing opportunities and setting strategic directions, investing in and drawing on people’s capabilities to develop organisational purposes and values’ (Locke, Cummings and Fisher 2011: 2). Good leadership calls for skills and abilities that are focused on opportunities and people. It entails the knack of matching people and opportunities, resources and needs. It calls for an acute awareness of the context of operation, sensitivity to
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dynamics, and openness to ideas from those in the organisation. Herbst, Maree and Sibanda (2006:592) indicate that leadership requires a strong personal ethic and compelling vision of the future. Such were not necessarily the attributes looked for, or seen, in the vice-chancellors appointed during the years of state-control. Yet, perhaps appointing authorities still focus more on academic achievement, which is necessary, without giving much thought to proven leadership ability or capacity: a ‘shortage of skilled leadership and lack of management capacity… identified… as some of the major failings of… higher education’ (ibid.). Though writing about South Africa, Herbst, Maree and Sibanda (2006) describe a situation that applies to Kenya. There seems to be a need for university leaders who are not only credible scholars, but also effective leaders, as seen in the wording of advertisements for university leadership positions.

There appears to be faith in the combined effect of intellectual achievement and academic leadership. These are perceived to be instrumental in guiding the institution to find its niche. Leadership entails matching an institution's strengths with the prevailing opportunities in the environment. The institution's academic strength is a reflection of the academic standing of its employees. An effective leader seeks to channel the institution's efforts towards finding significant ways in which it could impact on society, guided by the abilities of its personnel. The achievements and capacity of staff are harnessed to generate an institutional agenda. This demands a level of cognitive ability, a capacity to process complex information in order to make valid decisions (Herbst, Maree and Sibanda 2006). The leader appropriates analytical skills in order to successfully match the institution's strengths with societal challenges. These skills are usually developed through engagement with a lot of information, the development of the ability to categorise information and the capacity for discerning the various elements that make the whole, thereby matching like objects and identifying points of convergence and divergence. This studying and placing is a complex analytical skill akin to those developed through training in the creative arts. To date, however, no Kenyan university has employed a creative academic in a top management position, a situation that cannot be ignored in the interrogation of higher education's leadership and governance impact on the creative and cultural industries.

Educational leadership is needed today in Kenya because of the educational challenges of a changing political and economic environment. There are today a lot more highly qualified academics who believe they can do the job of the vice-chancellor better than the sitting administrator. This can provide an emotional challenge to those in leadership positions. The leader is expected to be capable of providing the requisite emotional stability for the institution to move forward. Such a role requires leadership that is people-building and that works towards higher levels of staff motivation and morality. An effective leader ‘enhances
subordinates’ satisfaction with, and trust in leadership, as well as employees’ emotional commitment to (the) organisation’ (Herbst, Maree and Sibanda 2006: 597). This is partly achieved through the free exchange of ideas, and the sharing of the organisation’s inspiring vision, a vision that must first be developed. The process of sharing a vision with personnel who feel they are better placed to do what the leader is doing is a daunting task. It requires deep insight, stamina and patience to cultivate a good working academic team that will see the institution grow as a unit, despite the diverse outlooks and attitudes of its employees.

Higher education institutions in Kenya require leadership that will transform the education sector into a formidable contributor to the national good. ‘The greatest want of the world is the want of men—men who will not be bought or sold, men who in their inmost souls are true and honest… men whose conscience is as true to duty as the needle to the pole’ (White 1952 [1903]:57). However dated this quote, it remains true today. Governance and leadership are challenges of commitment, steadfastness, vision and courage to take charge in a manner that develops the total institution – its philosophy, activities and personnel. Effective governance demands courage because one is often travelling uncharted ground. Innovation and creativity are instruments with which the effective leader must be familiar in order to meet challenges and negotiate obstacles systematically.

**Funding**

The higher education environment in independent Kenya is characterised by limited funding for public programmes, increased enrolments in schools at lower levels, performance-based public policies and heightened expectations of academic relevance. The academic capacity of each institution is judged by the numbers of its academic staff and their levels of qualifications. This explains the move by universities to profile their staff by qualification and research performance. This move is often perceived as attractive for students, collaboration partners and investors through projects, who should be wooed by the implied capacity of the institution to deliver against the promises in its mission and objectives. The staff profiling, statement of mission and articulation of vision do not just provide a portrait of the institution; they also market the institution to multiple clients – students and partners.

There are several dimensions of funding that affect higher education in Kenya. ‘Availability, scarcity and absence of financial resources for higher education determine the capacity of institutions to function and fulfil their educational and societal missions’ (Assié-Lumumba 2006:9–10). The university today operates in a context of past and present economic crises, structural adjustments and instability of financial bases. All these lead to reduced government disbursement because it must rationalise distribution of the limited resources at its disposal. Yet quality is not cheap and quality education demands heavy investment. Higher
education of the type that produces human resources that do not need pre-work training demands the creation of a work-simulated learning environment. This, in the technical subjects such as are taught in some of the institutions under discussion, requires heavy investment in human and material resources.

Qualified staff at the highest level come at a cost. For the first years of independence, most doctoral degree holders in Kenyan universities held foreign qualifications. In 1994, one of these authors could not register for a Doctor of Philosophy degree study locally, due to the absence of both an accredited programme in the arts and qualified staff for supervision. It is with the expansion of university education that local institutions started to train and graduate doctoral candidates, yet not all disciplines are covered. Today, each of the twenty-two public universities has a number of doctoral degree holders in the ranks of lecturer to professor, and a doctoral degree is perceived as a minimum qualification for appointment as a lecturer.

Quality also demands material resources. The need to train workers for the industry demands ensuring learners are equipped with mastery and skill development in the use of relevant technology. Various projects have been undertaken by central government for the provision of resources, mostly in basic education, such as school equipment programmes. In the creative arts, not enough resources have been put in place for training. Currently all the departments of creative and performing arts courses in the public universities demonstrate poor equipment. The high cost of imported music instruments and equipment, for example, explains the poorly equipped music departments in the public universities where the subject is offered. In film and theatre, the cost of equipping theatres and studios is tied to the cost of purchasing the relevant equipment, costs that are high because of their special nature, and the fact that they are not normally produced locally. This leads to theoretical teaching, with little exposure to relevant technological devises that the trade employs. This compromises quality because:

- students are forced to learn only what is available, as opposed to what they may have had interest in or prior knowledge of;
- students’ skill development is checked because of limited access to instruments for practice;
- students’ proficiency is checked because their education is not complete on account of inadequate learning material.

These are funding challenges that call for heightened levels of governance and leadership for successful delivery of learning programmes that will lead to relevance of higher education. The need to make education relevant demands close links with society and industry. The higher education–society–industry link is crucial for educational relevance.
Industry

Industry is a part of the complex unit that depends on the academy and, in particular, on higher education, for its sustenance. In responding to the needs of society, industry generates goods that are consumed to meet a variety of needs. In order to be relevant, industry needs to be provided with information on the needs of society. It also requires indications of the nature or intervention that will meet society’s needs. Industry therefore provides a major raison d’être or purpose for the academy, and especially for higher education.

Africa’s industry comes in varying shapes and sizes, with the country’s context shaping its type and size. Small and medium enterprise industries characterise much of what happens in Kenya. The informal industry, the *Jua Kali* sector, employs a vast number of workers. Many small industries are often indigenous, local people-owned, and small-scale operations. They have limited skills and financial resources, commanding low levels of managerial and technical skills (Ebong 2004:556). In Kenya, these include bakeries, tailoring, carpentry and grain milling, among others. Their production is at a basic level and of a basic nature, often labour intensive.

The modern industrial sector is described as a foreign-controlled enterprise (Ebong 2004). This has a larger financial base, a higher level of organisation, more skilled labour, a good deal of technical operation and a larger workforce than the former. In Kenya this would include car assemblies, the food processing and flower industries, and the export processing zone (EPZ) whose objective is to produce items for export.

There are ‘market motivated industries’ (Ebong 2004), which are large scale firms, with foreign ownership. Such companies that manufacture tobacco and cement in Kenya fall here. Some of these that have government collaboration, where government has shares, and are thus parastatal companies in Kenya. These include government-sponsored investment, such as happens with tea, coffee and the sugar industry.

Whatever the size, these industries require technology, technical and administrative labour-power. The role of the university, having been understood as providing human resource for envisaged national development, empowers higher education to provide skilled players for these industries, and to generate the requisite technology to ensure they fulfil their mandate of providing intervention for society’s challenges.

Of significance to this discussion is the segment of industry that relies on practitioners of a creative nature. This is a segment that depends and relies on intellectual productivity more than the tangible products that other segments of industry rely on. Operating at a creative level and working with cultural products, the creative and cultural industries are fast occupying the place as an industry of choice for mostly young, untrained, talented post-secondary school Kenyans.
With an estimated contribution from music-based creative activities to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of 5.32 per cent in 2007, the industry absorbs young people from all walks of life. It comprises the creative activities of composing, performing/displaying, recording, disseminating and archiving creative material in sound and visual formats. It also comprises the fast moving elements of graphics, animation and other computer and information technology-based activities. These cover visual arts, crafts, fashion design, advertising, video games, cartoons and film production.

This industry is characterised by uncoordinated training. There are many and diverse institutions offering courses that may be more commercial than professional. The number of media and computer colleges in each urban area, for example, testifies to the popularity of some courses. The creative and performing arts are privileged owing to the number of respectable centres of skills development that exist. Several teachers also operate on a freelance basis and take pupils through a development programme, mostly through apprenticeships.

**Society**

Kenyan society is fast distinguishing itself as a consumer of quality products as well as an informed participant in global agenda. Kenyans are not only known for talent in the sports arena, but are also found in the faculty of well-established institutions of higher education, scholarly and research activities the world over. Over the years, Kenya has unwillingly or unwittingly, exported skilled and qualified labour-power to the West. The brain transfer has not neglected other African countries, with South Africa, Rwanda, Namibia and Botswana being hosts to many Kenyan scholars, doctors, engineers, planners, architects and economists.

This exposure makes Kenyan society as a whole knowledgeable about rights, expectations and possibilities. The demand for quality is therefore high, raising the stakes for higher education to deliver quality products in terms of human resources and technological advancements. Yet the converse is also true. There are a number of Kenyans whose way of life demands a different type of provision. The Kenyan whose cultural orientation requires modalities of succeeding in a world where long-held values are fast eroding needs answers to deeply philosophical concerns. The Kenyan whose world is falling apart due to the ravaging effects of prolonged drought or health-related challenges like HIV/AIDS needs intervention so that the cycle of poverty is broken and a semblance of normalcy is restored.

These are the extremes of society that the Kenyan higher education is developing in and for. It is the sum of Kenya's people who contribute to and hence make demands of higher education. It is for this society's challenges and dilemmas that industry endeavours to produce intervention. It is for the facilitation of this process by industry to satisfy society that higher education needs to find a place. It is by understanding society that higher education will inform industry, so that
the tripartite engagement produces a unity of purpose and achieves the much needed economic boost for Kenya.

This book is the output of CODESRIA-supported research that aims at encouraging a stronger academy–industry partnership. The authors are all performing artist–educators in institutions of higher education in Kenya, with diverse backgrounds in creative activities and academic administration. Observations and interaction with learners and practitioners have led the authors to interrogate the nature of our learning institutions with a view to seeking greater impact on the economy. The creative economy, and with it the creative and cultural industries, is now a mainstream economic sector worldwide, engaging thousands of youth in Kenya. Like other industrial sectors, its growth and stability can be enhanced by an enlightened workforce. The university in Kenya is tasked with producing knowledgeable workers to steer national development. An investigation into a component of higher education, its governance and leadership structures and styles sheds light on the past, current and expected performance of this industry.

In the chapters that follow, we investigate and present issues around the development of the cultural and expressive disciplines in higher education, seen generally as university education. Starting with an overview of how higher education has expanded to cover the arts, general and specific episodes in dynamics shaping the planning and implementation of learning are seen from a broader national development perspective, as this has an overarching effect on the provision of education. A total of five public universities were purposively sampled for the study, being public universities that taught one or more of the expressive arts-based courses. The story of how the arts came to school unfolds from desktop research and field notes. Issues of governance and academic leadership as they impact teaching and learning in the arts are tackled through analysis of responses to related questions from education administrators in selected public universities. Pupils’ views are accommodated as the responses from leaders are triangulated in drawing a picture of Kenyan academic leadership’s provisions for the creative and cultural industries, an industry that seems to thrive without higher education’s support. Higher education boasts arts students and student artists. Through classes and by taking part in co-curricular cultural activities, university students develop skills and acquire technical knowledge that they hopefully apply in later life. The organisation of and provision for learner participation in the two avenues for development, core and co-curricular activities, reflect a university management’s attitude to the disciplines. The governance structure and articulation of a university’s key values demonstrate its commitment to training for the creative industries. Its provisions for core and co-curricular activities reveal academic leaders’ understanding of the nature and value of the creative and cultural industries and their perception of the role and value of the expressive arts as activities and disciplines of study.