

Original Paper

Dynamics of Management of Cross Border University

Education in East Africa

Okoche John Michael Maxel^{1*}

¹ School of Management Science, Uganda Management Institute, Plot 44-52 Kampala-Jinja Road, P.O Box 20131, Kampala

* Okoche John Michael Maxel, School of Management Science, Uganda Management Institute, Kampala-Jinja Road, Kampala

Received: December 25, 2018 Accepted: January 8, 2019 Online Published: January 9, 2019

doi:10.22158/wjer.v6n1p1

URL: <http://dx.doi.org/10.22158/wjer.v6n1p1>

Abstract

The success of any organization is intricately tied to its ability to positively respond to environmental dynamics. Universities are no exception to environmental changes; due to global politics, economic and technological changes, fragmentation of consumer and business markets due to changing tastes and craving by consumers for specialized services. This has increased the velocity of change, critical issue of time, and shaping of the organization as universities need to compete and yet innovate simultaneously. Worldwide various universities have responded to the changing trends by the organization of education across borders but the East African Universities have not fully embraced organizing of education across borders. Whereas the integration of East Africa was viewed as a catalyst but this has not been the case. Universities in E. Africa needs to quickly adapt to environmental changes, match global trends, become competitive and enhance effectiveness. This paper historical trend of cross border education in East Africa, arguments for and against cross border education, strategies for organizing cross border education, approaches for organizing cross border education and recommendations for the most effective means of organizing across borders. The proposed recommendations are mindful of the current and future environmental dynamics in the provision of education in East Africa.

Keywords

strategies, structures, across borders, organization and environment

1. Introduction

Organizing across borders in East Africa started in 1929 when Makerere College started admitting students from Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, and Zanzibar. Macpherson (1964) observed that Makerere College School was expanding at a fast rate because, from the fourteen students with which it had begun, it had reached a total of 141, of whom 98 were resident, and others were from Kenya and Tanzania. He further highlights that the first Kenya student from Alliance High School was admitted for entrance for the following year, a significant advance, for it showed that the neighboring territories were beginning to turn their eyes to Makerere. In 1929 at the Dar es Salaam Conference of Directors of Education in March, "it was accepted that higher education for Africans of the Eastern territories should be centered at Makerere (Kibalama & Nassali, 2005). The only college for East African countries by 1939 already had registered 149 many more from Kenya and Tanganyika. Despite challenges like Kenya recalling the students that had earlier been sent Makerere for teacher training but organizing across borders persisted. Macpherson further noted that by 1940 the college had increased in the number of students being admitted to 181 students including 28 from Kenya, 31 from Tanzania and 9 from Zanzibar and rest from Uganda. The places which were allocated to the students were in accordance with the territorial contribution. The college continued to organize across borders upon transformation of Makerere College School entering a collaboration with the University of London. This arrangement was to facilitate the process of networking with the University of London that had a capacity to award diplomas and degrees. This drove the concept of organizing University education across borders to a higher level where the capacity of the Makerere College was enhanced as providing education to students from the East African countries. This collaboration further encouraged students from other countries in the great lakes to send students to Makerere College. Upon the independence of most East African countries, the college attained independence and changed to the University of East Africa but still providing education to students for students in East Africa and great lakes. The University of East African further increased the concept of organizing across borders by the opening of constituent colleges in Nairobi (Kenya) and Dar-es-Salaam (Tanzania). The constituent colleges provided education for students from all the East African countries. Whereas formerly students came from Kenya, Tanzania, and Zanzibar but now students now moved across the different borders as the colleges specialized in particular fields. In 1970, the East African University Authority decided to confirm the constituent colleges into three independent universities in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. This resulted in Makerere University becoming a first University in Uganda, the University of Dar-es-Salaam for Tanzania, and the University of Nairobi in Kenya. However, these universities maintained a close collaboration to promote good standards and maintained the spirit of the East African Community. The collapse of the East African Community in 1977 led to the breakdown of the good collaboration that had existed between East African Universities. This had facilitated the process organization of University Education across the borders. The cooperation between the Universities was due to the disagreement between the heads of state from Uganda, Tanzania, and Kenya.

University-based collaboration between Makerere University, University of Nairobi and University of Dar-es-salaam was again revived in 1980 between the universities just to deal with the exchange of research and development. This collaboration was further strengthened upon signing of the treaty for East African Community in 1999 in Arusha by former East African community members. The treaty was for re-establishment of the East African community. Article 5 of the East African community identifies East African Community with the main purpose of promoting collaboration and deepening relationship between the citizens from different countries. This is further bolstered by chapter 16 which sets out cooperation for member states towards the development of human resources, science, and technology. Article 102 specifically provides mechanisms for collaboration in education and training in the community. Section 2 of article 102 asserts that member states shall put in place mechanisms for education and training. East African community has envisaged the establishment of centers of excellence, cooperation in industrial training and development of common programmes, harmonization of curricula, examination, certification, and accreditation of universities. The treaty also puts in place mechanisms for mobility of students and lecturers within East African community, sharing information and education systems of member states.

The treaty for re-establishment of East African Community was signed on 30th November 1999 and eventually came into force in July 2000 upon ratification by the three regional partners; Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania. The major purpose of the East African Community is to set up a prosperous, competitive, secure and stable and politically East Africa. This is by the community providing a platform for widening, deepening economic, political, social and cultural integration so as to improve the quality of life in East Africa. The economic, social, political and cultural environments are meant to improve conditions that will facilitate trade across borders with the community and also improve competitiveness among the members so as to compete with other countries. The treaty is a framework that will facilitate the process of putting in place mechanisms for organizing across borders within and out of East Africa. In order for companies to be effective in organizing across borders within East Africa, there has to be free movement of labour, goods, and services, capital, harmonized macro-economic policies, development of joint educational projects and harmonization of structures for delivery of education in East Africa.

2. Arguments for Organizing University Education across Borders

Several scholars have documented the benefits of organizing across borders to countries that have put in place policies to facilitate organizing across borders. There is a strong relationship between foreign direct investment inflows through organizing across borders and productivity (Caves, 1974; Blomstrom, 1986; Driffield, 2000). Organizing across borders emerged relatively benevolent provider of knowledge and capital, whose technology and expertise contributed to national productivity and export performance (Caves, 1996). This view is also held by Shenkar and Luo (2008), who acknowledges that firms organizing across borders are agents of change, introducing new ways of doing business that would eventually be adopted by local firms. The World View Multinationals (2000) for instance observed that

companies in Turkey had increased staffing levels in a stagnant labour market and jobs paying more than the double average wage. MNEs technological resources, capital investment, global distribution, and managerial expertise add critical value to local economies especially developing countries (Shenkar & Luo, 2008). MNEs maintain a clear national base and that enduring national and political realities shape their governance, financing, research and development and intra-firm strategies (Doremus & Keller, 1998). Organizing across borders enables universities based in different countries to utilize various competitive advantages developed in response to factor and product market circumstances in their home countries (Lecraw, 1983). Global spread permits companies organizing across borders to effectively respond to trade and investment barriers (Shenkar & Luo, 2008). He also acknowledges that organizing across borders allows entities to diversify thus enabling them to compensate for low performance or uncertainties' such as currency fluctuations in certain markets.

In East Africa organizing across borders is credited for the ability to meet a high demand for university education. Maviiri (2010) highlights that public universities are not able to meet the ever increasing demand for higher education, but are also a direct response to the wave of liberalization in the trade that has and continues to take place in the globalized market place. He further notes that private universities have emerged to meet the demand but students find that there are other opportunities in other Universities outside of their national border to pursue their educational goals. The role and importance of cross-border higher education in East Africa lie in the need to produce a highly skilled human workforce that will contribute to the development of this region (Maviiri, 2010). Cross-border Higher Education in East Africa has resulted in increased opportunities for nationals to access higher education (Magugula, 2005). Maviiri (2010), summarizes the benefits of cross-border Higher Education as; promotion of access to greater to specific knowledge, support the development of skilled human resources, the creation of the socio-economic alliance, promotion of income from cross border education and a major tool for promoting diversity in East Africa. Cross-border education enhances mutual trust amongst academics and researchers and allows for the development of areas of specific expertise (Association of Commonwealth Universities, 2007). In East Africa, Uganda seems to have benefited the most from the income generated as a result of cross border higher education with the country receiving about 8-10 billion Uganda shillings in 2007 (Ongong'a, 2008).

3. Strategies for Organizing across Borders

International firms have three core strategies for organizing across borders in order to gain a competitive advantage; multi-domestic, global and transnational (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Child (2005), on the other hand, identifies the strategies as multi-domestic, international strategy, transnational and global strategy. The degree of internationalization is measured by use of trans-nationality index; calculated foreign assets to total assets, foreign sales and foreign employment total employment (Moore & Lewis, 2000). Whereas the nationality index for organizations is at 50% but still there should be overwhelming evidence of dependence on a local organization (Luo & Shenkar, 2008). Organizing across border firms

don't have to retain all high-value activities in the home country but also the presence of foreigners on the board is also measured for a global firm (Shenkar & Luo, 2008). Whereas the strategies may be different the same organization can use the different strategies depending on the conditions in the market and the objectives of the firm.

3.1 Multi Domestic Strategy

The strategy employs approaches each market different from other markets. The strategy emphasizes competition within each country through segmentation of markets by national boundaries (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). This requires high local adaptation (Prahalad & Doz, 1987), use of the local mechanisms for communication like language improves managerial efficiency (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). It, therefore, calls for use of less intranet communication, coordination and integration because there is not much sharing of information between the sub-units each subunit needs to pursue unique strategies for organizing across the boundaries thus likely to use multiple functional languages (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). This is because the major goal of the university is local differentiation advantage, lower costs, highly customized products and approaches for each market. This is in order to maximize the advantages of differentiation in products, services and production Child (2005), this strategy is pursued when pressures for localization are outweighing those of global integration strategy. The multi-domestic firm is an enterprise with multiple international subsidiaries that are relatively independent of headquarters (Shenkar & Luo, 2008, p. 97). The multi-domestic strategy can be effectively employed to exploit the different market orientations. The strategy emphasizes cultural pluralism and is organizationally least demanding and least costly (Child, 2005).

The structure which suits this strategy is global geographic one in which the country or region based divisions replicate and contain all the domestic the company's domestic value-creating activities adapting these to suit their local situations. The divisions normally operate in a relatively differentiated manner requiring little integration between the headquarters and the sub-units. The subunits effectively operate with limited control thus most of the decision making is delegated to them in various countries. It doesn't facilitate the exchange of information because the strategy thrives on uniqueness and addressing the unique needs of the customers. It is upon the managers to promote the information exchange through workshops and seminars.

3.2 Global Strategy

The strategy assumes more standardization of products across national markets (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). The foreign subunits in different countries are presumed to be interdependent, headquarters focused on attaining integration among subunits (Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Yip, 1995). Luo and Shenkar (2006), it, therefore, calls for uniformity in communication mechanisms with the harmonized network, which headquarters dictates operational strategies. He further argues that standardized policies enhance the ability of the firm to design global production and new investments, integrate global value chain activities, avoid translation related costs and combine information and reports. This argument is supported by Salter and Niwswander (1995), who also argues that standardized policies improve the

organization's ability to consolidate financial statements across subunits, facilitate transfer pricing and streamline internal risk hedging policies. The strategy places different functions in different locations, seeking operational synergies from inter-unit collaboration in primary value chain activities (Yip, 1995). The strategy emphasizes cultural domination (Child, 2005, p. 261).

The major intention of the global strategy is to accomplish economies of scale and location, yet offer products of high quality with relatively low costs because of standardization. The global structure normally suits this strategy. Centralization is the major strategy for effective standardization with a greater focus on the entire global market. This comes with the high level a great emphasis on effective coordination of the various subunits for the realization of the desired service and product. Centralized coordination tends to lengthen managerial hierarchies and thus results in high organizational costs (Child, 2005). The global strategy uses a uniform functional language (Luo & Shenkar, 2006).

3.3 Transnational Strategy

The transnational strategy is a hybrid strategy situated between the multi-domestic and global strategy seeking to achieve global efficiency and local responsiveness (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). Firms maintain greater inter-unit integration to jointly exploit existing knowledge or explore new knowledge (Zander & Kogut, 1995). Transnationality influences the global learning process and knowledge sharing within an integrated structure (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). Firms depend more on information and communication systems for coordination (Ghoshal & Nohria, 1989). The organizational structure, global market diversity confers greater coverage of intra-unit transfer of information and resources (Herbet, 1984; Dunning, 1995). Transnationality affects language selection and preference by foreign units, indicating a firm's interdependence with foreign markets and resources (Davidson, 1980; Johansson & Vahlne, 1977). Firms using a hybrid strategy must transfer distinctive competencies within the network while heeding pressures for local responsiveness (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Transnational firms consist of subsidiaries that fulfill varying roles; with same subsidiaries playing strategic roles that global firm is reserved for headquarters (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Foreign subunits adapt different organizational forms and identities to meet local government requirements and or achieve various strategies and objectives (Dunning, 1995). Firms using a hybrid strategy must transfer distinctive competencies within the network while heeding pressures for local responsiveness (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Transnational firms consist of subsidiaries that fulfill varying roles, with same subsidiaries playing strategic roles that global firm is reserved for headquarters (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Foreign subunits adapt different organizational forms and identities to meet local government requirements and or achieve various strategies and objectives (Dunning, 1995). The common practice is the firm use a shared language as parents' primary functional language except where firms have strictly ethnocentric staffing policies (Luo & Shenkar, 2006).

The strategy needs effective communication of the vision across the various subunits, departments, and divisions due to need to use an integrated as well as a flexible network to achieve desired results. There is a need to minimize conflicts between globalization and localization. The firm also seeks to expand

foreign subunits while headquarters maintains less control over local units. The strategy fits well with a situation in which subunits must fit well with a situation in which subunits must be sufficiently differentiated to confront diverse cultures and unique markets with diverse tastes and preferences (Luo & Shenkar, 2006).

3.4 Mutual Understanding Approach

To cross border education is the common historical basis of internationalization. The approach countries come together to work together to strengthen ties through the creation of international networks of political and business elites. The European Union through various regulatory mechanisms has put in place to facilitate the cross border education within the community and outside. The first aim of intra-European programs was to create European citizenship and promote and support academic recognition within Europe. Besides the impressive growth in intra-European student mobility, a notable achievement of European programs is the striking growth of cross-border academic partnerships between institutions. There is a great attempt for cooperation with the states in the European Union to make a University education more competitive through harmonization of programs. Interestingly in the European Union programs competition starts at the European border but starts at the national borders for national policies on a cross-border education (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004).

In accordance with the East African Treaty (1999), the framework has put in place mechanisms for stimulating trade within and outside East Africa. In order for members to achieve the objectives of East African community partner states have to develop and adopt trade regime and cooperate in trade liberalization and development (East African Treaty, 1999). The various sections articulate the mechanisms for improvement of environment for organization of trade across borders; establishment of customs union (75), a common market (76), addressing imbalances arising from customs union (77), cooperation in investment and industrial development (Chapter 12), promotion of industrial linkages (79), harmonization of macro-economic policies especially exchange rates, interest rates, monetary and fiscal policies (82), removal of obstacles to free movement of goods and services and capital (82 c), banking and capital markets development (85), facilitation of movement of capital (86), joint project financing (87), harmonization of telecommunication services (99), fostering cooperation in education and training (102). Education will be fostered through the harmonization of the curriculum, establishment of common basic programs, the revival of activities of the inter-university council of East Africa, encouragement and support of the mobility of students and teachers within the community, exchange information and experiences on issues common to the educational systems of the partner states. The implementation of the treaty is meant to be in transitional stages until complete integration is completed (East African Treaty, 1999).

3.5 Skilled Migration Approach

Economic and international competition has taken on greater importance of international competition. The skilled migration approach across borders education is viewed as a means of supporting economic growth and competitiveness in a knowledge economy (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004). This strategy has been

adopted by most stakeholders to gain economic competitiveness in trading blocs like the European Union. The major objective is to attract foreign students who become foreign immigrants in order to stimulate the competitiveness of the education system. This mainly aimed at attracting larger numbers of foreign students by use of a combination of agencies that market the higher education sector abroad. This will eventually contribute to the knowledge economies of East African Countries. Vincent-Lancrin (2004), notes that Austria, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary and Ireland, and the United Kingdom together with Canada have inclined toward organizing across boundaries in order to attract foreign labour. The United States of America during the Bill Clinton administration supported internationalization of university education.

The Canadian government looks at the higher education views organization of education across borders as a tool for institutional and national building. The government has put in place mechanisms for attracting foreign students through the use of the Canadian Education Centre. The immigration and refugee protection act recognizes facilitating the entry students as a key objective; criteria for prospective independent immigrant applicants (CIC, 2003). Whereas the European Union policies have a focused promotion of education within European Union members but the system has also focused on the development of links with other parts of the World.

3.6 Revenue Generation

The potentiality of revenue generating aspects of university education implicitly has made the development of European Union member University education competitive worldwide (Huisman & Van der Wende, 2004). There are concerted efforts towards ensuring that university education becomes attractive worldwide in order to generate revenue and make economies more efficient. The Australian government established the international marketing of University education as a means of generation of revenues by both public and private universities (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004). The government of New Zealand supported exporting education through market legislation, regulation of recruitment, liberalization of international trade services, ease restrictions on students, and funding for foreign students (New Zealand, 2002). The Ministry also established export education development fund and other related export education development (New Zealand, 2002). The British government by 1999 launched an initiative for raising the United Kingdom share of international students among the four leading English speaking countries from 17% in 1997 to 25% by 2005 (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004).

3.7 Capacity Building Approach to Cross Border Education

The capacity building approach to university education is much prevalent in emerging economies like Malaysia, China, India, and Mexico. The approach is an importer perspective which views cross-border education as a means to meet the UN met demand as well as building capacity for quality higher education (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004). China aims at attracting higher quality educational resources from overseas and introduces a globally advanced curriculum and teaching materials greatly needed in China (NCN, 2003). Indonesia has legislative provisions to foster locally based cooperation with foreign universities as a means of enhancing the performance of higher education and maintain, develop,

empower and expand science, technology (DGHEI, 2000). Asia-pacific countries came up with mechanisms to regulate entry and conditions for foreign providers in order to promote the provision of education (McBurnie & Ziguras, 2001). The capacity building approach to education by the Malaysian government has yielded fruits to the extent that the country in turn also exporting education to Indonesia, Thailand, and Singapore (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004).

3.8 Mobility of Students

Organizing across borders can take a form where students from other countries come to your home country to obtain the education. Some mobile students take full degree programmes abroad whereas others go abroad for a limited period of time, possibly through an exchange programme, as part of degree delivered in their home country (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004). Different regions favour different forms of organization across the border. Within the European Union, only 2% of tertiary-level students have enrolled abroad for the acquisition of a foreign full degree (Eurydice, 2002). He further explains that students who do so are often citizens of small or relatively small countries and/or countries whose educational system does not go beyond undergraduate studies: Luxembourg (68%), Iceland (17%), Lichtenstein (22%), Greece (11%), Ireland (10%) and Cyprus (56%). He also highlights that within the European Union, student mobility is facilitated by fact that each student and by the free movement of people permitted between these countries. In the United States, 91% of students who participate in study abroad do so for one semester or less (Vincent-Lancrin, 2004), represents the bulk of cross-border education and is growing steadily in all three regions with exception of Africa.

4. Recommendations

4.1 Removal of Barriers that Still Exists within East Africa and Putting in Place Good Strategies for other Countries

The treaty has put in place mechanisms for harmonization of trade across borders in East Africa but there still barriers in various sectors. The system of education across East African countries are the different and limiting organization of education across East African boundaries. This calls for harmonization of the policies across the East African countries to facilitate recruitment of students. There are different systems of education and perceived standards across the East African territories this needs a deliberate effort for mainstreaming the differences for fair treatment of students across the East African communities. Uganda and Tanzania 7:4:2:3 and Kenya 8:4:4 but streamlining of the process will make it easy for students to obtain the education.

Universities in East Africa need to identify the specific goals, strategies, and tactics that are required to harness, focus and intensify this activity to East African Universities to become the global intellectual hub. This calls for the effective allocation of resources to potential initiatives related to internationalization of East African education. A clear institutional strategy should guide decision-making about the opportunities available for internationalization of education using innovator, integrator, and market seeking strategies. There should be deliberate efforts for properly identifying the

unique opportunities that are in the various regions of the world. International partnerships must be focused, with clearly defined objectives that relate to university broader strategic goals. Universities must try as much as possible to leverage existing resources and strengths. Partnerships must be sustainable and multifaceted where appropriate, beneficial to both institutions and sufficiently limited in number so that they can be sustained and given available resources (Calgary, 2012).

These strategies can also be an establishment of Centres for International Students and Study Abroad. Universities have to put in place different strategies in order to organize education across the border have put mechanisms of marketing for foreign students to join the campuses in the home countries. There should also be efforts to ensure that build campuses in the virgin areas like Southern Sudan, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo. These works towards an increasing market of the programmes that are being provided but deliberate attempts should also be made to organize across developed countries. Universities that have built international reputations have had to build partnerships by constructing centers across the World. This can be summarized by the strategic plan of University of Calgary (2012), “Not only does the university operate an international campus in Qatar (focused on nursing), but it also sustains nearly 200 international partnerships involving students, staff exchanges, and research agreements”.

There should also be deliberate strategies as much as possible to strategically partner with universities or organizations that are highly respected internationally, within their geographic area, and within select fields of interest. Exceptions should be made when the partnership accomplishes specific educational, research, or service-to-society objectives that relate to unique circumstances at the potential partner institution.

4.2 Adoption of Dynamic Approaches of Organizing across Borders

East African Universities need to adopt modern approaches to learning by a combination of E-learning, M-learning, and use of open educational resources, open learning and post-schooling approaches to learning. This will enable the East African Universities to move with the trends and capture the elite through the use of technology and cope up with the rest of the world in the provision of education. E-learning refers to structured learning opportunities mediated through the use of digital resources (usually combinations of text, audio and visual/video files) and software applications. E-learning may be offered online and synchronously (e.g., real-time conference), online and asynchronously (e.g., text-based discussion forum) or off-line (e.g., interactive CD/DVD/flash drive). E-learning can be employed in both contact and distance programmes (Republic of South Africa, 2012). This goes along with M-learning or mobile-learning refers to e-learning opportunities formatted for access via mobile devices such as netbooks, tablets, smartphones, and MP3/4 players. The universities should streamline the use of materials with improvement in technology towards the provision of open educational materials which is the use of curriculums maps, textbooks, course materials, podcasts, streaming videos with enablement of modern technology without a license to match trends in the world leading universities. Universities that aspire to provide education across borders should be in a position to establish materials

that are for open access together with those that are paid for or licensed to ensure adequate provision of education. Openly licensed content can be produced in any medium: text, video, audio, or computer-based multimedia (Republic of South Africa, 2012). Open learning is an approach which combines the principles of learner-centredness, lifelong learning, flexibility of learning provision, the removal of barriers to access learning, the recognition for credit of prior learning experience, the provision of learner support, the construction of learning programmes in the expectation that learners can succeed, and the maintenance of rigorous quality assurance over the design of learning materials and support systems (Republic of South Africa, 2012).

4.3 Pro-Activeness and Upfront Investment

Organizing across borders should not be limited to traditional thinking that students and lecturers have to be in the same place, at the same time. This traditional mindset delimits the provision of education to students that are within the same location, country, and region because the great thinking in this approach is that teachers and learners to be in the same place at the same time and that the resource-based nature of distance education allows for the possibility to achieve economies of scale (Republic of South Africa, 2012). Organizing across borders requires substantial support in curriculum development which favours preparedness in terms of preparation of materials before the establishment of the program. It requires upfront investment in terms of time, resources, structures to be used and decentralized provision of education to the various diverse unique customers with diverse tastes and preferences. Countries like South Africa that have embraced provision of University education across border testify that the venture doesn't come without much upfront investment. Universities like the University of South Africa has been able to enroll very many students and yet climb high in the World ranking through strategic planning, competitiveness, and pro-activeness. In South Africa, distance education programmes enrolled 316,349 students in 2009, which was 37,8% of all higher education students, Unisa's headcount enrolment in 2009 was 279,744 amounting to 88% of all distance education enrolments: 10 out of a total of 22 predominantly contact institutions enrolled the balance (Republic of South Africa, 2012).

East African Universities that desire to follow suit in organizing university education across border need to put in place structures that will facilitate competitiveness by being proactive having an upfront investment in curriculums and training materials.

4.4 Establishment of Unique Programmes to Take Care of Unique Needs

East African Universities should work towards providing access to students with unique geographical locations, work commitments, personal social circumstances, poor learning prior experience, difference education orientation, and different unique backgrounds. East African universities should embark towards providing flexible programmes to address all the unique needs of the customers' in terms, location, time, orientation with a bias of offering a long time learning experiences for the students. Universities could make this possible through the use of distance education can increase the flexibility of provision in structure, duration, and timing. It is thus particularly important in providing opportunities for lifelong learning. This can further be strengthened through expansion of access education provision of

education to a larger number of students by designing cost-effective academic programmes. East African Universities need to expand access by shifting patterns of expenditure to achieve economies of scale by reducing costs in education. The universities can do this by specifically making improvement in course design and development and putting in place effective administrative systems over time and large student numbers.

Universities also can organize through border through the provision of low enrolment niche programmes that are may be required by students across the East African community. Programmes in areas like music, sports, and arts require a unique differentiated approach of support in terms of financing and delivery of the curriculum. The rationale for offering such programmes, and the nature of the provision, will need to be carefully scrutinized and agreed to in enrolment planning and programme accreditation procedures (Republic of South Africa, 2012). Universities also could put in place bridging programmes to accommodate students that are from different educational systems like currently the education system in Uganda, Kenya, and Rwanda are different. This calls for synchronization of the systems or universities strategically putting in place programmes that can accommodate students from these countries. This could be by offering outstanding modules for students at contact institutions that could require modules in order to complete the given level and move to the next level of study.

4.5 Support Expansion of a Small Suite of High Volume Distance Education Programmes

Governments and Universities in East Africa need to support and put in place mechanisms for the expansion of the small and high volume of distance education programmes. This would provide affordable university education to most of the qualified school leavers and unemployed youth that could not afford to participate in face to face programmes in East Africa. Online education is paramount for the provision of cheap and affordable education both to the universities and the students and parents. The programmes could be expanded to accommodate the unique challenges of these students across various border segments. The traditional education system in East Africa doesn't recognize the unique the current challenges of unemployment as universities basically train scholars for formal jobs without creating entrepreneurs. It's imperative therefore for Universities to offer limited programmes that would provide school leavers and unemployed youth with appropriate skills for job creation. Most countries are now faced with unemployment so organizing across borders would be met with great appreciation when the needs of communities are appropriately met and are delivered at a significantly lower cost than face-to-face alternatives. The programmes will tap into the dire need of political leaders and communities as the programmes would offer meaningful opportunities for employment upon completion. Universities should also need to enhance the collaborative development of programmes with Universities across borders in order to ensure appropriateness in the delivery of these programmes. Universities also need to conduct studies and come up with appropriate mechanisms that can ensure that provision of dealing with challenges that students that are undertaking virtual programmes are facing.

4.6 Facilitation and Management of International Strategies

Universities need to facilitate and manage universities wide international agreements for collaborative research, joint academic and scientific activities, exchange of publications, student and/or staff exchange programs, training, internships, international practical attachments, and collaborative degree programs. Universities have to provide services to faculties related to the contracting, administration and financial design, implementation, and management of international projects and programs. This can further be enhanced through establishment and maintenance of structures that will drive organizing across borders. Sustainability of international activities requires creating and maintaining incentive structures that will drive the achievement of goals for internationalization of education in East Africa.

Universities need to deliberately Increase the international diversity of the student body benefits. There is a need for students and faculty in the university to create a more diverse culture in all the university campuses. Exposure to diversity in classrooms, laboratories, and residences is essential for graduates, who will be entering a global marketplace. Globalization is a reality which strongly benefits local economies through attracting high-quality personnel to East Africa. There should also be deliberate efforts to ensure that students from East Africa have an international experience before completing university education. The international travel by the students will make it more attractive for the students to join universities in East Africa.

The safety and security of our students, faculty, and staff are paramount towards organizing university education across borders. The operation of all international activities must proceed within a well-considered, enterprise-wide, risk-management framework that will include reputational and financial risk assessment. The International Strategy must encourage and facilitate international interactions at the level of individual faculty members or students, focusing on those areas that will have the largest impact on the achievement of the goals of the academic and research Plans.

East African universities need to put in place mechanisms that will guarantee the safety of international students so to ensure the reputation of our universities.

4.7 Good and Effective Leadership

University-level strategic plan for internationalization requires visionary and effective senior leadership, as well as an effective organizational structure at the institutional level to implement that plan (Calgary, 2012). East African Universities need to build more coherence in top management by the development of executive teams that work towards competitiveness and productivity to meet the challenges of today and future. The dynamics that have affected the education sector continuously becoming complicated as the environment keeps changing at supersonic speeds (Okoche, 2013). The biggest challenge in the management across borders comes with the enormous challenge of envisioning the entire organizations. Top management has a mandate envisioning the universities to manage current and future challenges. One person in the modern organization cannot possess the charisma to drive the organization into the desired end without the establishment of good executive teams that can work towards coherence and strategic fit the unique environment.

East African Universities with top managers, middle managers, and lower level cadres need to work towards building teams at the various levels of the organization to deliver quality and appropriate services to the customers. These sophisticated tasks require the combined intellect of senior people who share a commitment to the common good of the enterprise (Nadler & Tushman 1999:59). Leadership has a task of building in relation to a context that the team is needed, purpose, cultural orientation, structure and supports the systems that have been established in the university (Okoche, 2013). This should also mix skilled, experienced and motivated teams with appropriate sizes that can be effective in the achievement of organizational goals. This should also be built with abilities to effectively communicate, make decisions, and manage conflicts.

4.8 Embrace of Technology

Technology change is one of the dynamics that has greatly affected all spheres of life. Emerging trends in information, communication, and technology together with relevance in education can only be ignored by those that are not foresighted and are realistic to the impact of ICT on education. Information communication and technology has expanded the range of options available for education planners and managers in terms of curriculum development, teaching, learning strategies, administration of examinations, and management of university education. It has provided varied and wide options in terms of systems design options. Modern technology has allowed an exponential increase in data transfer through the global communication systems and enabling connection between people from various walks of life. This, therefore, has allowed organizations to tremendously expand the sphere of operations across borders of neighbouring countries and continents. Technology has further enabled organizations to increase the span of influence beyond their traditional geographical boundaries. Reduction in barriers due to technology has increased the influence of outside universities that used to be far off due to distances to become high competitors thus undermining the importance of geographical distance as a barrier, by reducing the overhead and logistical requirements of running education programs and research agencies, and by expanding cheap access to information resources (Republic of South Africa, 2012). The doors of competition have been flung wide open because of technology so it is imperative for universities that want to embrace competition have to embrace technology for the organization of education across borders. A traditional approach is like going to war with traditional weapons like a spear in the 21st century.

East African universities need to embrace modern technology and communication in order to organize through the virtual organization. This will enable the universities to establish technology-enabled solutions to challenges of organizing across borders. Modern information communication and technology play a pivotal role in enabling virtual organization (Child, 2005, p. 198). A virtual team is a group of geographically dispersed employees who are assembled using a combination of telecommunication and information technologies for the purpose of accomplishing tasks (Yuhung, 2005). This is different from the conventional organizations that depend on physical structures to facilitate interaction, coordination among the various units within the university and students to provide

education. A virtual organization, when applied properly, reduces the barriers caused by the rigidities of the traditional organization. The advancement in technology has hastened organization bringing people from a different location, to plan, organize, direct, control and execute responsibilities that were previously impossible (Okochi, 2013). This strategy has been embraced by the University of Calgary to greater success. The five countries from which we receive the largest number of international students are China, Iran, India, the USA, and Saudi Arabia (Calgary, 2012). East African Universities seeking to provide university education could begin with collaborative engagement with modern universities that have already got different technologies in order to obtain mechanisms for the provision of education. These developments offer extraordinary opportunities to universities, many of which were simply hardly even imaginable ten years ago. ICT has become central to knowledge production, dissemination, sharing, and application in ways that make it inconceivable to imagine planned future developments in higher education without identifying a central role for ICT. This calls for the establishment of ICT infrastructure that will facilitate the organization of education across borders. Technology is vital for the development and provision of quality distance education provision by East African Universities.

4.9 Establishment of Regional Differentiated Recruitment Programs

Instead of pursuing mainly market seekers the universities need to diversify strategies for organization across borders. The strategies should embrace an innovative and integrating strategy to enhance competitiveness with other universities. The universities also can develop regionally differentiated recruitment strategy for professional graduate programs that will be able to capture different segments of countries within and outside East Africa. The recruitment and development of regionally differentiated recruitment strategy for professional graduate students jell well with unique diversities in East African community and world. The differentiated programmes will bear in mind the different needs in different communities. Strategies for recruitment of research-graduate students, Support recruitment efforts of thesis-based graduate students by faculty members, develop an institutional-level thesis-based graduate student recruitment strategy and General recruitment strategies (Calgary, 2012).

This can also involve recruitment of faculty within the constraints of East African immigration laws, all faculty recruitment will seek to identify the best candidates worldwide and develop onboarding and support programs for international faculty to ensure retention. This will encourage students from other regions to register with University and also facilitate the faster process of economic integration envisaged in the East African Community.

4.10 Establishment of Good Strategies for Organization across Border

Universities in East Africa need to come up with good effective strategies for organizing across borders bearing in mind the opportunities, challenges, threats, and weaknesses within the confines of different universities. The different strategies have to put in place subunits that will lead to the achievement of university goals. Subsidiaries can be owned subsidiaries, joint ventures, branches or representative offices (Root, 1994). Subsidiaries differ in several ways; decision making, autonomy, process, type of ownership, structure and governance mechanism (Hill et al., 1990). Wholly owned subsidiaries offer

MNCs tighter control and freedom of operation without having to consult a partner, reduce transaction costs and being able to focus on own strategic objectives (Hill et al., 1990). The communication network within the subsidiary depends largely on the parent firm needs (Luo & Shenkar, 2006).

The strategic roles of sub-units are classified as a global innovator, integrated player and local market seeker (Gupta, 1987; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Gupta & Gorindarajan, 1991; Root, 1994; Dunning, 1995). The strategic role of the organization influences the mechanisms for coordination. This also offers a framework in which communication priority and channels are defined thus the appropriate definition of the strategy for organizing across borders facilitates proper alignment of resources. The internal communication with integrated players as compared to global innovators and local market seekers complicates this because of the comprehensive aspect of integrated players that support other subunits while receiving support from the integrated players as well as the global innovators. This is because integrated players work towards knowledge creation and yet at the same time relying on knowledge from other subunits. The strategic roles of subunits constitute different models that are employed in organizing across borders in order to exploit the opportunities that are available in diverse markets across countries. Nielsen (2012), business models have multiple advantages, enables companies, managed to structure their thoughts and understanding about strategic objectives, facilitate conveyance of ideas and expectations, the management has to employ on the business process level and to the technically oriented functions. This will facilitate the process of creating clear linkages and understanding of the overall functioning of the universities. This will make it easy for management to emphasize a common understanding of the business, strategy, and objectives within the enterprise. Nielsen further argues that the business model is more than organization charts, diagrams shows how departments and divisions interact and the extent to which they affect each other but business model includes a coherent understanding of the strategy, structure, and ability to utilize technological solutions to create value. Hoerl (1999) argues that the application of the business model helps to structure the adding key business issues and that an effective business model ought to incorporate aspects such as values and governance. East African Universities have not effectively designed the

4.11 Putting in Place Collaborative and Partnership Arrangements

The African Universities should deliberately build partnerships between universities in East Africa with multinational companies based in East Africa. This will be vital in the creation of professional education and training opportunities for international or multinational employees. The East African communities have recently discovered various minerals with exploration companies like Tullow Oil and Heritage undertaking exploration need expertise in the new area of oil and energy. Partnership with these companies would facilitate linkages with outside universities especially in the recruitment of staff and eventually building greater potential for provision of education in the unexplored areas by the traditional universities. This would further facilitate the process of organizing across borders.

5. Conclusion

East African Universities have to put in place good strategies bearing in mind the challenges, opportunities, threats, and weaknesses within the East African Universities and the region in general. There should be concerted efforts by government and individual universities to put in place strategies for organizing across borders. Universities need to put in place subunits that can comprehensively exploit the opportunities and deal effectively with challenges. Global Innovator subunits should be established for the sake of innovation and supplying the innovations to other units within the university. A global innovator serves as a source of knowledge and expertise to contemporary subunits while receiving little knowledge from them. It serves as a platform for developing and building dynamic capabilities that can sustain competitive advantage (Gupta, 1988) normally maintain weak and narrow network communication due to one direction knowledge flow compared to integrated players (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). This is because the main purpose is to innovate and supply the new innovations to the headquarters which eventually supplies these to other sections within the firm. They are closely interconnected with headquarters and peer sub-units by means of flexible and varied coordination mechanisms and information systems (Gorindarajan & Gupta, 2001). Despite limited communication but stronger and wider communication with the network than local market seekers as they assume global mandate for knowledge outputs and new innovations (Luo & Shenkar, 2006).

Integrated Players need be put in place so as to take the responsibility for creating knowledge that can be utilised by other subunits but is not self-sufficient to fulfil own knowledge needs (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). The main focus is to maintain facilitate value creation from global integration (Gupta & Gorindarajan, 1991). These play a key role in integrating the global value chain and in leveraging cross-unit cooperation (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Integrated players and local market seekers are closely linked and intensity of network than local market seekers as they assume global mandate for knowledge outputs and new innovations (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). This also exhibits a high intensity of coordination and communication due to vertical and horizontal integration between subunits makes them deal with subunits, diverse teams, divisions, departments.

Local market seekers emphasize economic benefits arising from local market development and concentration; provide very little knowledge to peer subunits (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). Local market seekers are interconnected with the local business community and are shaped by local market conditions (Prahalad & Doz, 1987; Root, 1994). They work towards adaptation to changing market conditions and remain responsive to heterogeneous consumer needs (Ghoshal & Nohria, 1989). Localization of human resources is a common policy in organizing across borders in order to improve local responsiveness (Pucik, 1992; Zahra, 1999). Commitment to the enterprise is enlisted from local management authorities, buyers, competitors and regulators by the recruitment of local human resources (Luo & Shenkar, 2006). Indigenous workforce plays an important managerial role as universities seek to cut costs and adaptation (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Hofstede, 2001).

References

- Akilagpa, S. (2002). *African Universities and the Challenge of Research Capacity Development* (Unpublished). Retrieved from <http://www.aau.org/english/documents/>
- Bartlett, C. A., & Ghoshal, S. (1989). *Managing across Borders*. Harvard Business school press: Boston, MA.
- Blomstrom, M. (1986). Foreign Investment and Productive Efficiency: The case of Mexico. *Journal of Industrial Economics*, 35, 97-110. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2098609>
- Caves, R. E. (1974). Multinational Firms, Competition, and Productivity in Host Country Industries. *Economica*, 41, 176-193. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2553765>
- Caves, R. E. (1996). *Multinational Enterprise and Economic Analysis*. Cambridge University Press.
- CHEA. (2002). *Council for Higher Education Committee*. Retrieved from <http://www.chea.org>
- Child, J. (2005). *Organization: Contemporary principles and practice*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Child, J., Faulkner, D., & Pitkethly, R. (2001). *The Management of International Acquisitions*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Craig, C. S., & Douglas, S. P. (1997). Managing Transnational value Chain-strategies for firms from emerging markets. *Journal of International marketing*, 3, 71-84. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1069031X9700500306>
- Davidson, W. (1980). the location of foreign direct investment activity: Country characteristics and experience effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 11(2), 9-22. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490602>
- Doremus, P. N., Keller, W. W., Pauly, L. W., & Reich, S. (1998). *The Myth of the Global Corporation*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Driffield, N. (2000). The impact of Domestic productivity of inward investment into UK. *Manchester School*, 69(1), 103-119. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9957.00237>
- Druckerman, P. (2000). The Foreign Invasion. *Wall Street Journal*, 21.
- Dunning, J. (1995). *Multinational Enterprises and the Global economy*. Addison-Wesley: New York.
- Edstrom, A., & Galbraith, J. (1977). Transfer of Managers as a co-ordination and Control Strategy in Multinational Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 248-263. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2391959>
- Ely, R. J., & Thomas, D. A. (2001). Cultural diversity at work: the effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46(2), 229-273. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2667087>
- Eurydice. (2002). *Key data on Education in Europe*. European Commission.
- Ferner, A., Quintanilla, J., & Varul, M. Z. (2001). Country-of-Origin Effects, Host-Country Effects, and the Management of HR in Multinationals: German Companies in Britain and Spain. *Journal of World Business*, 36(2). [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1090-9516\(01\)00050-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1090-9516(01)00050-5)

- Geppert, M., Matten, D., & Williams, K. (Eds.). (2002). *Challenges for European management in a global context: Experiences from Britain and Germany*. Palgrave: Basingstoke. <https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230510180>
- Ghoshal, S., & Nohria, N. (1989). Internal differentiation within multinational corporations. *Strategic management Journal*, 10(4), 323-337. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.4250100403>
- Govindajaran, V., & Gupta, A. K. (2001). Building an effective global business team. *Sloan Management Review*, 42(4), 63-71.
- Gupta, A. K. (1987). SBU strategies, corporate- SBU relations, and SBU effectiveness in strategic implementation. *Academy of Management Review journal*, 30(3), 477-500.
- Gupta, A. K., & Govindajaran, V. (1991). Knowledge flows and the structure of control within multinational corporations. *Academy of management review*, 16(4), 768-792. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1991.4279628>
- Head, K. (1998). Comment on Doms and Jensen's. In B. Robert, L. Robert, & J. Richardson (Eds.), *Geography and Ownership as Bases for Economic Accounting* (pp. 255-258). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Herbert, T. T. (1984). Strategy and multinational organization structure: An-inter organizational relationship perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(2), 259-271. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1984.4277651>
- Hill, C. W. L., Hwang, P., & And Kim, W. C. (1990). An electric theory of the choice of international entry mode. *Strategic management journal*, 11(2), 117-128. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.4250110204>
- Hoerl, R. (1999). Using an Effective Business Model for Group Practice Management. *Healthcare Financial Management*, 53(11), 61-62.
- Hosftede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values Behaviours, Institutions and organizations Across Nations*. Aage: Thousand Oaks. C.A.
- Hu, Y. S. (1992). Global or Stateless Corporations Are National Firms with International Operations. *California Management Review*, 34. <https://doi.org/10.2307/41166696>
- Johansson, J., & Vahlne, J. (1977). The internationalization process of the firm: A model of knowledge development and increasing foreign markets commitments. *Journal of international Business Studies*, 8(1), 23-32. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490676>
- Kimenyi, M. S., & Datta. A. (2011). *Think Tanks in Sub-Saharan Africa: How the political landscape has influenced the political landscape has influence their origins*. Overseas Development Institute 111 Westminster Bridge Road London SE1 7JD, UK.
- Kogut. B. (1991). Country capabilities and the permeability of borders. *Strategic management Journal*, 12(Summer Special), 33-47. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.4250120905>
- Kristensen, P. H., & Zeitlin, J. (2005). *Local Players in Global Games*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Lane, C. (1998). European companies between globalization and localization: A comparison of internationalization strategies of British and German MNCs'. *Economy and Society*, 27(4), 462-485. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03085149800000030>
- Lecraw, D. J. (1983). Performance of transnational corporations in less developed countries. *Journal for International Business Studies*, Spring/Summer, 15-33. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490504>
- Li, P. P. (1994). Strategy profiles of indigenous MNEs from NIEs: The Case of South Korea and Taiwan. *International executive*, 36(2), 14. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tie.5060360204>
- Lipsey, R. E., Blomstrom. M., & Ramstetter. E. (1998). International Production in World Output., In B. Robert, L. Robert, & J. Richardson (Eds.), *Geography and Ownership as Bases for Economic Accounting* (pp. 83-135). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Lugard, R. (1922). *The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa*. London, Edinburgh: W. Blackwood and Sons.
- Luo, Y. (2001). Antecedents and consequences of personal attachment in cross-cultural cooperative ventures. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46(2), 177-201. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2667085>
- McBurnie, G., & Ziguas, C. (2001). The Regulation of Transnational Higher Education in South East Asia: Case Studies of Hong Kong, Malaysia and Australia. *Higher Education*, 42(1), 85-105. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1017572119543>
- Moore, K., & Lewis, D. (2000). *Birth of Multinational*. Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Morgan, G., Kelly, B., Sharpe, D., & Whitley, R. (2003). Global Managers and Japanese Multinationals: Internationalization and Management in Japanese Financial Institutions. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(3), 1-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0958519022000031816>
- Morgan, G., Whitley, R., & Kristensen, P. H. (2001). *The Multinational Firm: Organizing across Institutional and National Divides*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ohlin. B. (1953). *Integration and International Trade*. Cambridge, M.A: Harvard University Press,
- Porter, M. E. (1999). The current competitiveness Index: Measuring the microeconomic foundations of prosperity. In *The Global competitiveness Report*. Geneva: World economic Forum.
- Prahalad, C. K., & Doz, Y. (1987). *The multinational Mission: Balancing local Demands and Global vision*. Free press, New York.
- Pucik, V. (1992). *Globalization and Human Resource Management*.
- Ronald. (1952). Some factors in British occupation of East Africa, 1884-1894. *Uganda journal*, 15(1), 49-64.
- Root, F. R. (1994). *Entry strategies for international markets*. Lexington Books: Washington DC.
- Salter, S. B., & Niswander, F. (1995). Cultural influences on the development of accounting Systems internationally. *Journal of international Business Studies*, 26(2), 379-397. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490179>
- Shenkar, O., & Luo, Y. (2008). *International Business* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.

- Tallman, S. B., & Shenkar, O. (1994). A managerial Decision model of international cooperative venture formation. *Journal of International Business studies*, 25(1), 91-114. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490194>
- The World View of Multinationals. (2000). *Economist January 29th*.
- Tichy, & Barnett, C. K. (Eds.). *Globalizing Management: Creating and Leading the competitive organization* (pp. 16-30). John Wiley & sons: New York.
- United Nations Conference on Trade and development. (2000). *World Investment Report: Cross-border Mergers and Acquisitions and Development* (New York: United Nations)
- Vernon-Wortzel, H., & Wortzel, L. H. (1988). *Globalization strategies for multinationals from developing countries*. Columbia Journal of World Business, spring.
- Vincent-Lancrin, S. (2004). In Key Developments and policy rationales in cross-border post secondary education: Internationalization and Trade in Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges (pp. 205-235). OECD, Paris.
- Wells, L.T. (1983). *Third World Multinationals: The Rise of Foreign Investment from Developing Countries*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.
- Wells. L. T. (1998). Multinationals and Developing Countries. *Journal for International Business studies*, 29(1), 101-114. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490027>
- Yip, G. S. (1995). *Total Global Strategy*. Prentice Hall: Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Zahra, S. A. (1999). The changing rules of global competitiveness in the 21st century. *Academy of Management Executive*, 13(1), 36-42.
- Zander, U., & Kogut, B. (1995). *Knowledge and the speed of the transfer and imitation of organization capabilities*.