

**PERSPECTIVES ON EFFECTIVENESS OF QUALITY ASSURANCE PROCESSES
AND INDICATORS IN SELECTED PUBLIC AND PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES IN
KENYA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

BY

CALLEB OWINO GUDO

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION**

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT AND FOUNDATIONS

MASENO UNIVERSITY

© 2012

**MASENO UNIVERSITY
S.G. S. LIBRARY**

ABSTRACT

The demand for university education in Kenya continues to increase amidst decreasing financial support to public universities from the government and establishment of new private universities. The expanding enrolments were considered a revenue stream for public universities and business opportunity to individual and corporate investors in higher education. In the midst of this singular focus on revenues by private and public universities, basic internal quality assurance processes were ignored starting from admissions to academic processes in the institutions. There is growing public perception that educational quality is being compromised in an effort to expand enrollment in recent years. Against this background, the study set out to establish perspectives on effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes, teaching and research by faculty staff, management processes, availability and quality of learning facilities for provision of quality education and quality of enrolled students in the selected universities. The conceptual framework was based on the guidelines from Commission for Higher Education and Association of African Universities. The study population consisted of 52,141 students, 1,916 lecturers and 83 library staff. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select 502 students, 127 lecturers and 23 library staff. The researcher used questionnaires for students, lecturing staff and library staff to collect information. Validity was established by presenting questionnaires to experts in the Department of Educational Management and Foundations at Maseno University for comments and improvements. Reliability was established by piloting to 100 respondents from the four selected universities who were not involved in the actual study. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages and inferential statistics involving chi-square tests to establish the relationships of effectiveness of the variables between the types of universities. The findings indicated that there was no significant difference between the quality of enrolled students and effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities. However, there was significant difference between effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes, availability and quality of learning facilities and effectiveness of institutional management processes in Kenyan public and private universities. The study concluded that there was no significant difference among private and public universities on presage variables which defined the entry behavior of students. However, significant differences existed among private and public universities on process variables which related to what went on as students learnt. There were efficiency gaps in quality assurance processes that needed careful attention. It was recommended that the government should enhance compliance mechanisms to quality assurance guidelines so as to eliminate efficiency gaps in institutional management, provision of teaching and learning facilities and curriculum delivery processes. The findings of this study are significant to individuals and organisations that intend to ensure that our universities offer quality education.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study.

The history of quality assurance in higher education in Africa goes back to the founding of the first universities in Africa, all of which were affiliated to partner universities located in the colonizing countries, mainly the United Kingdom, France and Portugal. Authority over the quality of university education in those early days was a function of their governing boards and faculty. With affiliation, the institutions automatically became part of the British, French, Portuguese or other systems of quality assurance through their partner universities. These institutions were subject to the same kinds of quality control as were British or other European universities, including external examiners and other aspects of these systems (AAU 2007; Materu, 2007; Materu & Righetti, 2010).

Attainment of political independence marked increased role of state authority over higher education. Most departments and ministries of education took an interest in the universities and asserted greater control over their governance and decision-making. That was not always done in support of quality. Indeed, in some cases, the increased role of the state in university education contributed to a decline in the quality of higher education as desire for political control of education, appointments to management and governing bodies were made largely on political, rather than on the basis of merit (Materu, 2007; Materu & Righetti, 2010). After that, quality assurance was left to the internal machineries of the institutions. Formal Quality Assurance beyond the institutions came up through the activities of some professional associations dealing with subjects such as Medicine, Architecture, Law and Engineering, who set up standards for the accreditation of programmes in their fields. Apart from this, a few countries started to develop national

bodies for the regulation, control and setting up of standards for their higher education institutions. Nigeria and South Africa took the lead in this initiative (African Association of Universities, 2007).

Several factors are believed to have contributed to the decline in quality of higher education in Africa. These include a decline in per unit costs amid rapidly rising enrollments; insufficient numbers of qualified academic staff in higher education institutions as the result of brain drain, retirements and HIV/AIDS; low internal and external efficiency; and poor governance (Materu, 2007).

According to Ajayi (2006), the demand for higher education in Nigeria, particularly at the university level, has outgrown what the government could cope with. This led to the advent of private higher education and concern for quality assurance at this level. Tumwesigye (2006), found out that expansion of university education in Uganda was faster in the recent past, primarily due to the increasing social demand for higher education in the country.

This trend was particularly evident in Ethiopia, where only three public universities existed until 1996. By 2005, about 60 private for-profit higher education institutions had been founded in Ethiopia. This has led to mixed feelings among the Ethiopian public. While some laud the opportunities and advantages these new institutions bring, others are apprehensive that the quality of education might be compromised by an expansion motivated by monetary gain (Alemu, 2010).

Kenya similarly placed considerable importance on the role of education in promoting economic and social development after the achievement of independence in 1963. This resulted in rapid expansion of higher education system despite dwindling national economic fortunes.

The Kenya economy and by extension the education sector faced major challenges in the 1970s and 1980s. Some of these were due to poor terms of international trade, including the oil crisis, as well as increasing misunderstanding, corruption and ethnically-inspired inefficiencies and inequity. It is in this context that the IMF pushed for the implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) in the 1980s when Kenya sought financial assistance to implement some of its development policies. SAPs recommended that the Government reduce its budgetary support to the education sector. Consequently in 1994, the Government of Kenya decreased the education budget from 37% of its total annual recurrent budget to about 30%. Further, in 2006/07 public expenditure on higher education decreased by 9.4% (Sihanya, 2008).

Prior to SAP policies, universities received their revenues from the Government purse. A cost sharing policy was implemented from 1991 where students would pay for their tuition and maintenance fees. The fees paid were to be sources of income for the universities to enable them to meet the costs of providing quality education. The result was a rapid rise in student enrolment not only in public universities, but also in private universities as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Student enrolment, 2002/03 – 2008/09

Type of University	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	% of increment
Public	71,832	72,550	81,491	81,677	91,337	97,107	100,648	40.12
Private	8,680	9,541	12,660	13,606	20,892	21,132	22,198	155.74

Source: Statistical Abstract (Republic of Kenya, 2009).

From Table 1.1 above, the period ranging from academic year 2002/03 to the academic year 2008/09, enrolment of students in seven public universities in Kenya grew by a margin of 40.12%. During the same period, enrolment of students for degree programmes in eleven accredited private universities grew by a margin of 155.74%. This growth in student enrolment in public and private universities has been considered as high and is believed to have been accompanied by decline in quality of university education (Republic of Kenya, 2006).

The expanding enrolments were considered a revenue stream for public universities and business opportunity to individual and corporate investors in higher education. This led to establishment of several private universities. In the midst of this singular focus on revenues by private and public universities, basic internal quality assurance processes were ignored. It is suspected that admission processes alongside other academic processes in the institutions have been negatively affected. Universities Joint Admissions Board (JAB) normally admits fresh KCSE qualifiers who gain direct entry to universities based on individual performance and the agreed cut-off points in any year. However, how are the self sponsored students vetted? Are there quality gaps? There is also an argument that revenues from self sponsored students in public universities have been used to expand facilities and enhance quality. This argument is suspect as a study conducted among public universities in Kenya in 2006 found out that the provision of physical facilities

such as lecture theatres, library resources and computer services were inadequate (Olel, 2006).

Some studies have shown that research and publications by faculty have sharply dropped over the last few years due to heavy teaching responsibilities – brought about by the rising student numbers, plus the emerging trend where lecturers moonlight so as to make some extra money to supplement their pay (Chacha 2004; Olel 2006). With inadequate research, what informs the curriculum taught in universities?

While university expansion has led to increased access, the quality of the education provided by the existing and newly established higher education institutions has continued to raise serious concern (Mayunga, Stefan & Christoph, 2009). Similar views have been expressed by other scholars (Kiamba 2004; Sihanya (2009)), who have argued that the student enrolment explosion, has adversely affected the quality of education in public universities. It is thought the programme was implemented without specific staff recruitment or training and without expansion or upgrades to the physical or learning resources at the universities. In a study by Oanda, Chege, & Wasonga (2008), it was found out that the drive for privatization of higher education and the growth of private university institutions were not developed out of a policy context initiated by Kenya.

Universities are expected to meet specific objectives and quality standards. According to CHE (2008) areas for consideration in evaluating quality assurances in higher education include: (a) Quality of enrolled students (b) Quality of lecturers or trainers identified through stringent staff recruitment procedures; (c) Quality of facilities and learning equipment (d) External examining system to ensure high standards of examinations; (e)

Peer review of research proposals to ensure quality research; (f) Recording of academic productivity in terms of publications, awards, funds from third parties and royalties.

A careful study of the issues raised above underscores the importance of universities and justifies current concern that they provide the kind of education and training expected of them. The stakeholders need an assurance that there is quality in provision of university education in Kenya.

1.2 Problem Statement

There is concern about the quality of higher education in Kenya. Professional bodies, university researchers, employers and politicians have complained about declining standards and quality of university education. The most significant basis for the complaints is the rise in student enrolments in public and private universities. Whereas most stakeholders support increased student access to universities, there is concern that it has ended up compromising the quality of education. The challenge therefore, is how to meet the rising demand, while at the same time ensuring provision of quality education.

When quality of higher education is in doubt, the implication is that there aren't effective quality assurance mechanisms to achieve the intended objectives and standards in the universities. If our universities have to produce the high quality graduates expected of them, then the question we need to ask is: are quality assurance mechanisms in the universities effective to deliver the intended objectives and standards? The study therefore sought to conduct a comparative study investigating effectiveness of the existing quality assurance processes and indicators in delivering quality education among selected universities in Kenya.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose was to investigate perspectives on effectiveness of the existing quality assurance processes and indicators in delivering quality education among selected universities in Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

- i. To find out the quality of enrolled students in Kenyan public and private universities.
- ii. To establish effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes in Kenyan public and private universities.
- iii. To find out effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities.
- iv. To determine the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities.
- v. To establish effectiveness of institutional management processes in Kenyan public and private universities.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

H₀₁: There is no significant difference between the quality of enrolled students in Kenyan public and private universities.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference between of curriculum delivery processes in Kenyan public and private universities.

H₀₃: There is no significant difference between performance of faculty members in Kenyan public and private universities.

H₀₄: There is no significant difference between the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities.

H₀₅: There is no significant difference between effectiveness of institutional management processes in Kenyan public and private universities.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study produces empirical evidence with regard to perspectives on effectiveness of quality assurance processes and indicators in the selected public and private universities in Kenya. The findings of this study are useful to the management of universities in Kenya, the officers of Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology and Commission for Higher Education who are charged with responsibility of ensuring that universities offer quality education.

Other stakeholders, among them, parents whose children learn at the universities and politicians who have the mandate of their constituents for an oversight role will find this research rich in informing policies and future intervention strategies.

1.7 Scope of the study

This study covered four universities in Kenya, two public universities and two private universities. A sample of university staff and students taking undergraduate degree programmes offered in these universities was part of the research for the year 2010.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The study was based on the perceptions of students and staff of the universities. Whereas a gap may exist between the reality and customer perception on performance and satisfaction levels, the universities, like other businesses, are forced to confront the fact

that, since perception is reality to customers, it is the perceptions that must be considered if improvements are to be recognized.

Secondly, the information in the study was collected from four universities only; two being public while the other two were private universities. Whereas it could have been plausible to visit all the universities, the four universities were sampled in a way that the findings were representative and allowed generalization of findings to both public and private universities in Kenya.

1.9 Conceptual Framework

Comparativists of education have increasingly incorporated institutional theory in their studies. According to Baker and Wiseman (2006), a major argument in institutional theory, as applied in comparative education, has been that national education arrangements and changes in them, reflect models obtaining in society. The models are transmitted by professionals, organizations such as World Bank, UNESCO and OECD and non – governmental organizations. The idea of national educational system supporting a national society has been central. Thus, national education system celebrates expansion, participation and opportunity for everyone. The absence of societal involvement creates a social problem.

According to Republic of Kenya (2006), the best approach to mainstream quality assurance in Kenya's universities is when quality assurance indicators are developed by each university and validated by an external assurance agency. They develop relevant quality indicators for use in assessing programmes at the department, institution, national or international levels. These standards are usually based on benchmarks, but also on

public and stakeholders' expectations.

African Association of Universities (2009) indicated that evaluation of quality in higher education institutions should include the following (a) Institution mission and purpose (b) Governance and management (c) Infrastructure, Finances and learning resources (d) Academic staff (e) Student admission and support services (f) Curriculum relevance and programme monitoring (g) teaching, learning and assessment (h) Student progression and graduate outcomes (i) Research, publication and innovation (j) Community/societal engagement (k) Quality assurance mechanism.

The dimensions of educational quality identified by AAU were used to compare educational settings. They were conceptualized along Biggs's '3P' model (Biggs, 1993) of presage, process and product. Presage variables define the context before students start learning, process variables describe what goes on as students learn, and product variables relate to the outcomes of that learning. Whereas presage variables provide evidence of the extent to which they predict student learning outcomes and educational gains, what best predict educational gains are measures of educational process: what institutions do with their resources to make the most of whatever students they have (Gibbs, 2010). Hence this study was concerned with the effectiveness of presage and process variables as predictors of quality learning outcomes.

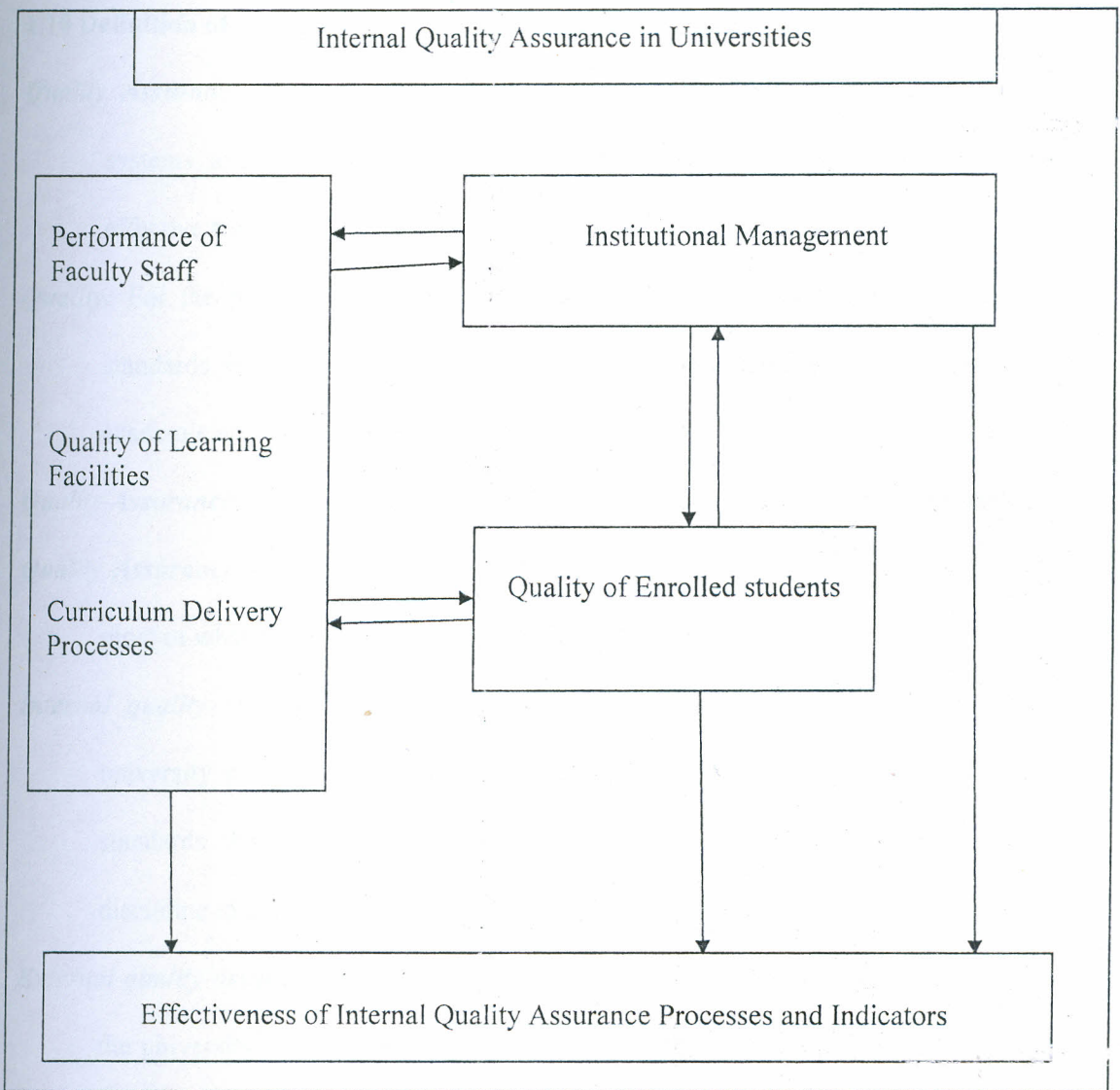


Fig.1 A Conceptual Framework showing Relationship of Variables in the Processes of Internal Quality Assurance in Universities.

From the figure above, the process variables consist of institutional managers who offer control function and assemble learning resources including lecturers, physical facilities, and research activities and coordinates university curriculum. These resources collectively interact with students, who are admitted based on some criteria (presage variables), to influence and determine the level of effectiveness of quality assurance in a given institution.

1.10 Definition of Key Terms

Quality Assurance: This refers to the rigorous process used to ensure institutional systems and strategies for meeting agreed quality standards are operational, effective and credible.

Quality: For the purpose of this study, quality is defined as conformity to accepted standards as defined by an institution, quality assurance bodies or appropriate academic and professional communities.

Quality Assurance Indicators: These are representations of measurable quality variables.

Quality Assurance Processes: Refer to what institutions do with their resources to make the most of whatever students they have.

Internal quality assurance: This is self regulation process of the university. Each university develops its policies and mechanisms for ensuring that it fulfills the standards that apply to higher education in general or to the profession or discipline in particular.

External quality assurance: This refers to the actions of an external body different from the university which assesses its operations or that of its programmes in order to determine whether it is meeting the standards that have been agreed on.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to quality assurance processes in public and private universities. The review has been presented in six themes, namely; quality of enrolled students, university curriculum, faculty research and teaching duties, financing and provision of physical resources, institutional management and examination processes.

2.2 Quality of Enrolled Students

There are three major factors that influence to a great extent the quality of students that graduate from an institution of higher learning. These are students' entry qualifications, diverse student body and the willingness of the students to pursue a given course. Wambua (2003) found that KCSE grade contributed more significantly in predicting university performance in comparison to other predictors. The entry qualifications are useful for identifying admissible university students as well for predicting their potential to achieve the expected learning outcomes. Thus, universities should exercise extra care during student admission process to identify those students with genuine certificates before they are admitted for courses commensurate to their grades.

Kenyan youth have shown an urge to cheat in national examinations. Every year, several KCSE candidates are victims of examination irregularities (KNEC, 2010). Performance in the exams is the most critical determinant of students' progression for further studies including university education. Given the very stiff competition for places for job placements and further education, it is imperative that objectivity and fairness be the overriding concerns in allocation of these places (Wasanga 2009). Any process therefore,

that threatens fairness and objectivity in allocating students places in universities and the courses of study thereof is a threat to meritocracy and quality and should not be allowed.

Authentication of entry qualifications is an important process for both Kenyan students and students from other countries who wish to pursue university education in Kenya. Borrowing from experiences of other countries, according to State of California Commission on Teacher Education (2009), individuals who have completed college or university coursework at an institution in a country other than the United States must obtain a complete evaluation of foreign transcripts, degrees, and other relevant documents prior to applying to the Commission for a California credential, permit, or certificate. In all instances, original, official documentation will be required when requesting the evaluation.

As student mobility increases throughout the world, the process of evaluating the formal and non-formal educational credentials of local and international student applicants becomes more and more important. Students particularly, want to overcome the obstacles to the effective exercise of free movement, recognition of courses and qualifications. Some scrupulous entrepreneurs have turned the desire to have minimum qualifications to enroll in another university into a money minting business (Wenger & Frey, 2009) in which they manufacture certificates, diplomas and degrees. This is a challenge that universities have to accept to face and overcome.

There is evidence proving that studying with learners from different backgrounds helps to improve international competences, placement in international professional positions and increases the probability of a person working abroad later in life. This economic discourse

also includes an overlapping socio-cultural discourse about integration with the international community and shared national and international cultural values, which underlies the relevance of student diversity as a prime mechanism to foster a sense of national and international identity and citizenship (Virak, 2009; Gonzalez, Mesanza & Mariel 2010).

Thomas (2008), observed that for a university to produce quality students, they must be committed to creating a diverse student body. Research has shown that students' involvement in experiences and interaction with institutional environment are by far the two most important predictors of student outcomes on a range of cognitive and affective attributes. There is sufficient evidence to indicate that university years are a time of student change on a broad front. Students do not just report significant gains in subject knowledge and in a range of cognitive and intellectual skills, but also change on a broad range of value, attitudinal, psychological and moral dimensions (Tam, 2002). Kenya's diversity in culture and ethnic heritage is perhaps best demonstrated by her wealth of 42 indigenous groups, in addition to other multi-racial, multi-lingual and numerous religious groups. Scholars believe that education is one of the tools for achieving national unity that the government and its agencies can use to their advantage (Wasike, 2010).

Most private universities in Kenya are faith based and trace their origin from the United States of America (USA). Valparaiso University, a top ranked private university (Lutheran sponsored) in USA states in its Diversity and Inclusion statement of the university that it is a diverse community which includes and purposefully supports diversification in all aspects of university life and beyond. Furthermore, one's faith is not a condition for admission. Consequently, students are drawn from diverse religious

orientations (www.valpo.edu/about_valpo/mission.php). Escape from ethnic tragedies that have often bedeviled Kenya in election years underscores the importance of concerted efforts to ensure that social cohesion is maintained as the basis of national unity. As Kenya embraces devolved county governance, there is urgency for concrete efforts to instill the spirit of national cohesion and internationalism through the education system adopted in public and private universities. The universities need to admit their students based not on ones' faith but on academic performance.

According to UNESCO (1995), the quality of students in higher education depends in the first place on the aptitudes and motivations of those leaving secondary education and wishing to pursue studies at higher level – hence the need for a re-examination of the interface between higher and secondary education, and students counseling and orientation, as well as the need to foster the notion of responsibility towards society among students, particularly those benefitting from public support. Higher education must develop in students both responsive and pro-active attitudes towards the labour market and the emergence of new areas and forms of employment. Put succinctly, higher education is expected to produce graduates who can be not only job seekers but also successful entrepreneurs and job creators.

The available literature reveal a number of issues to be considered during the admission process. Most significant is the need to verify authenticity of the certificates and qualifications presented by applicants to the respective universities. The other important attributes to consider include student course preferences and creating a diverse students' body.

2.3 University Curriculum

A curriculum is a vital element in determining the quality of education received by learners in learning institutions and elsewhere where learning takes place. In some countries efforts have been made to standardize and coordinate school curricula in order to deliver a more recognizable and assured quality of education across a wide diversity of schools (Gannicott and Throsby 1996). According to UNESCO (1995), the need for relevance has acquired new dimensions and greater urgency as modern economies demand graduates able to constantly update their knowledge, learn new skills and with the qualities to be able not only as successful job seekers but also job creators in continuously shifting labour markets.

Africa Union (2006) defines education curriculum as including what happens in the classroom and outside the classroom. Curriculum comprises teaching and learning content and methodology, as well as the means to facilitate teaching and learning. Teaching methods should encourage linkages between school experiences on one hand, with the learner's culture and environment on the other. This will be one way to improve learning outcomes. It reflects the values, attitudes and general well-being of a country, and ought to be grounded in culture. According to Ngara (1995), the importance of the curriculum lies in the assumption that quality of an individual's contribution to society will largely depend on the skills and competences the individual acquires as well as the values assimilated and developed.

Consequently, education curriculum cannot be said to offer quality unless it propagates the values and attitudes of that community. The curriculum desired is that having adequate links to industry and provides solutions to problems faced by the society.

In Kenya since the inception of the 8-4-4 education system in 1985, primary school curriculum has been reviewed three times. Five years after the inception of the 8-4-4 curriculum into primary school cycle, the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) carried out an evaluation of the secondary school education. Based on the findings of the evaluation, the secondary school curriculum was revised and new syllabi sent to schools in 1992. Other reviews were done in 1995 and 2002 which produced the current syllabi being used in schools (Khatete, Wanjala & Matanda, 2011). At every review the examination regulations were changed too. The minimum subjects for certification were varied from nine to eight and now seven. These have had effects on the content taught to students.

The Report of the Universities Inspection Board (2006) noted that universities should carry out a self-assessment based on precise criteria and validated by an external quality assurance agency using peer-review committees. The results of the quality assessment process are then discussed with the institution, and released by the agency to the stakeholders and public for accountability and scrutiny. Validation of self-audit by an external agency provides confidence to stakeholders that the outcomes of the exercise meet the levels of quality standards and the compliance which are generally agreed upon.

Globalisation of education services also calls for globalization of quality assurance and accreditation services. Indeed, many of the private accreditation agencies operating at the national level, particularly those in areas of study such as management or engineering, offer their services to organizations located in countries other than their own (UNESCO 2007). There are reports that Engineering Registration Board (ERB) in Kenya rejected requests from public and private universities to accredit some of their engineering courses (Some 2009; Daily Nation October 21, 2011). At Kisii University College, students were

admitted for a bachelor of Law degree before the curriculum was approved by the Council of Legal Education. The students were later sent home after spending several weeks at the college (Kinuthia, 2011). These are allegations that should be interrogated. The issues, if proved true, raise concern over quality of the courses being offered at the public and private universities. Studies have revealed that undergraduate students taking entrepreneurship course in public universities are dissatisfied with the course units and felt that the course was irrelevant. Apart from content of the curriculum, the students felt that the methods and approaches used to teach them were unsuitable (Gachiri, 2003). Ndethiu (2007), found that promotion of reading habits among Kenyatta University undergraduate students was greatly constrained by teaching and assessment methods.

In a study by Ng'ong'ah (2002), it was found that there was very little congruence between English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) and the English curriculum at secondary school because ELTE did not take into account classroom needs. ELTE courses were not properly designed, organized or implemented leading to preparation of teachers of English, and certification of teachers who did not possess the required skills that would make them effective teachers of English. Okwakol (2008), in a study conducted in Uganda concluded that the bulk of university programmes were outdated and only a small proportion of them were relevant. Curriculum reviews, she noted, ensure that emerging issues are included and the curriculum is tuned to new approaches in the body of knowledge reflecting responsiveness to the needs of society. According to Cace (2009) universities are accountable to society and professors, are involved in agreeing on aims and policies to promote students' learning and attainment. This involves assessment of the needs of students and the community being served, the views of parents, students and the community at large, advice from local and national bodies and reports of studies

into effective teaching and learning. By reviewing curriculum, universities are able to see what needs to be improved or maintained by using clearly defined measures of success.

Sports and Guidance and counseling are significant part of an education curriculum, especially so for university students, majority of whom are adolescents. Studies have shown that sport is an effective vehicle toward social transformation and peace building, particularly among youth to promote health and development (Keim, 2008). In a study by Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer & Wall (2010) findings indicated positive associations between physical activity involvement and academic achievement among students. Results from a study by Taylor & Turek (2010) indicated that participation in sports enhanced school adjustment, moral adjustment, self-esteem and more positive self concept among students. The results further showed that students participating in sports scored higher grades and more motivation for further studies than their non-sports counterparts.

K'Okul (2010) in a study to find out effectiveness of guidance and counseling services in universities, found out that guidance and counseling services were not effective in public universities, but effective in private universities. The study found out that Student Counselors in private universities received more support in offering their services and had adequate facilities and resources. The findings also revealed that more counselors in public universities had pastoral counseling training background than in other areas of specialization in counseling, while private universities offered more of career guidance followed by individual therapy. Findings of a task force by Standa (2000) recommended a combination of pastoral counseling with other types of counseling. The implication is that

public universities were not employing counselors with relevant training background and instead relied on the university chaplaincies.

Literature reviewed above reveal a gap between universities and stakeholders in the process of developing university curriculum. University curriculum that does not adequately represent aspirations of stakeholders cannot be said to offer quality education. Thus, a curriculum should be well thought out and continuously reviewed to keep pace with improvements in the body of knowledge.

2.4 Faculty Research and Teaching Duties

Teaching and research are the major responsibilities of academicians in any university. To a lesser extent, they are involved in administration and community service (Marsh & Hattie 2002). However, universities across Africa seem challenged to effectively deliver on these functions. Mario, Fry, Levy & Chilundo (2003) found out that dependence of most private higher education institutions in Mozambique on teachers obtained from government universities had the effect of reducing the research potential of the government institutions, while enhancing teaching quality in the private universities.

In a study by Olukaju (2002) on the crisis of research and academic publishing in Nigerian universities, found out that there was decline in terms of output, quality and regularity of publications. He further noted that, an admittedly small number of Nigerian scholars still patronise foreign journals and attend international conferences. What needs to be done, at the institutional level, is to reward such scholars in the assessment and scoring of publications for promotion. While high quality publications should attract high

scores and commendation, slipshod and “emergency” publications should be penalized with outright rejection or commensurately low scores.

Chacha (2004) observed that research and publishing by faculty had sharply dropped. This was attributed to heavy teaching responsibilities – brought about by the rising student numbers, plus the need to moonlight so as to make some extra money to supplement the meager pay – faculty are not keen on undertaking meaningful research and publishing their work.

Waituru (1999), found out that increase in student enrolment caused a decline in lecturer-student ratios and thus increase in staff shortage. Too many scripts to be marked reduced testing frequencies, compromised scoring and led to delay in giving feedback to students. Tutorials became rare and examination irregularities like cheating increased, as invigilators were not enough. The research also found out that lecturers’ ability to research and publish books and journal articles were negatively affected further by factors such as inadequate funds, poor remuneration and low staff morale. It was found that science students did not get sufficient opportunity to do practical lessons and that lecturers rated post-expansion graduates as qualitatively inferior to their pre-expansion colleagues.

Tutorials and practical lessons are meant to give students deeper understanding of subject matter through critical enquiry in guided debate and practice. Inadequate practical lessons or fieldwork denied the trainees’ opportunity to link theory learnt in lecture halls and the field of work, while lack of tutorial classes could lead to universities producing graduates with a lot of rote learning and poorly developed critical thinking abilities.

While studying the effects of privately sponsored students programme on efficiency and equity in public universities in Kenya and Uganda, Olel (2006), found out that overloading of staff with mainly teaching and marking duties, led to drastic reduction in the number and quality of research carried out by the teaching staff at universities, however, the level of motivation increased among the teaching staff being attributed to increased remuneration that was possible as a result of additional funds availed by the self sponsored students. Kabaji (2010), noted that lecturers are simply overwhelmed by the large numbers of students and spend most of their time teaching and marking without any opportunity for research. We have thus, sacrificed quality at the alter of revenues and profits. Consequently, our universities' contribution to research is negligible. We are, in fact, not generating knowledge. In terms of science and technology, our universities are trailing others in patenting innovations.

In terms of quality control, Abagi (2006) found out that private universities had a fairly well developed internal quality control mechanisms. This was evident on three fronts. First, they had a system for internal self evaluation on a yearly basis. This was done in preparation and anticipation of inspection by CHE. Secondly, there was the internal evaluation of teaching staff by both colleagues and students. This measure made teachers to work hard so as not to get unfavourable rating. Thirdly, the professional manner in which examinations were set and moderated by peers before being accepted. This was in sharp contrast with what was obtained in public universities, where such rigour was unheard of. These studies point to teaching and research challenges towards achieving quality education in Kenyan Universities. The present study will therefore find out level of effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities.

2.5 Financing and Provision of Learning Facilities

Evidence on the importance of text books and other instructional materials for the learning of students is overwhelming (Gannicott & Throsby, 1996) and it has been empirically established that lack of facilities negatively affects performance of students in the subjects studied (Amunga, Amadalo & Musera, 2011). Studies in other parts of the world point to the influence the school facilities have on achievement and explain why in South Korea no school can be opened until it has a standard Physics, Chemistry and Biological laboratories (Khatete, Wanjala & Matanda, 2011).

However, the World Bank (World Bank, 2000) noted that despite the growing public expenditures on education, the financial resources being directed to university education were inadequate. It further recognized declining quality of academic staff, poor quality teaching methodology and decaying equipment due to lack of maintenance and disuse. The cause of falling standards was attributed to decisions that were based on rate of return analysis by World Bank experts. The report argued for increased spending on education but remained clear that public resources in developing countries were exhausted and called on beneficiaries of university education to pay more.

Kamunge Report of 1988 recommended that beneficiaries of university education pay more as allocations to university education continued to dwindle (Republic of Kenya, 1988). The Kenya government consequently increased user costs to cater for deficits created by non-availability of public funds for use in public Universities. This move was intended to contain allocations to education and training at not more than 30 percent of the civil recurrent expenditure.

The Report of Inquiry into the Education System in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1999) reported that before the introduction of the concept of 'cost-sharing' in 1992, all funding for university education came from the Government. However, since the 1991/92 financial year, cost-sharing and cost-saving strategies have been put in place. The Commission noted that the country was unable to match the growth in university student numbers, with provision of appropriate resources. This led to numerous stalled physical facilities in these institutions. The Commission feared that, both the sight of numerous uncompleted buildings and the poorly maintained physical and academic infrastructural facilities may only be outward indications of other serious shortcomings, particularly those of academic and administrative nature.

Cheboi (2006) noted that the Kenyan university system is large by African standards. The Government spends up to 0.9% of its GDP and about 12.0% of its huge education budget of above Kshs 86 billion to cover the costs of university education. The Government also spends 7% of its GDP to fund education in general. He was of the view that higher education sector was not only underfunded but was also on a downward trend; that affected the quality of higher education as it could not sufficiently meet the cost fees, accommodation and equipment. CHE (2001) through a report of a regional workshop for vice chancellors for Eastern and Southern Africa advised university administrators to strengthen income generation activities. The workshop recognized the financial constraints, appreciated the causes and made valuable recommendations to arrest the situation. It became clear that all was set to change for the beneficiaries of higher education were to be prepared to pay more for their degrees. This report was particularly useful to this problem as it pointed out the real financial positions in public Universities.

In 2005, the Government of Kenya released an official policy on education, training and research in the 21st century (Republic of Kenya, 2005). The Government was of the view that university education was expensive and unsustainable. It further stated that universities had to reduce their dependence on the government by diversifying their sources of income. The Government strategy for financing universities required all beneficiaries of higher education to make higher contributions.

The Report of The Public Universities Inspection Board (Republic of Kenya, 2006) noted that quality and quantity of teaching and learning materials particularly for information technology impact in a very significant way on the quality of teaching and research. However, the Board noted that accelerated growth in student numbers in the public universities had not been matched by expansion of physical facilities and academic infrastructure. Some of the existing infrastructure were inadequate, dilapidated and in bad state of despair. The state of some of instructional and research facilities in public universities were, therefore, not conducive to high quality teaching and competitive world-class research.

According to Eshiwani (2009) our universities are forced to work under adverse conditions; poor salaries, lack of resources for non salary academic expenditure, such as textbooks, journals, teaching and research equipment and maintenance of such equipment. He asserts that the situation has resulted in a lowering of academic standards and of quality of graduates. Graduates are deficient in written communication and technical proficiency which make them unfit for the market.

Okwakol (2008) noted that a computer is increasingly becoming the major notebook, textbook, dictionary and storage facility for information for students in quality institutions of higher learning. She noted that universities that fail to utilize the benefits of the digital age-computer assisted learning, web connectivity and networked learning – cannot offer quality education. Library facilities and information systems in almost all universities are antiquated. Books and scholarly journals are not only few but very old and are therefore irrelevant to current institutional needs and priorities. A study by Ndethiu (2007) at Kenyatta University found that lack of adequate reading resources posed a great impediment to the promotion of students' reading habits. Lack of current and relevant books, inadequate use of internet and general lack of reading space were important constraints to students reading. Olel (2006) found out that the provision of physical facilities; library resources and computer services were inadequate.

Literature cited above point to financing difficulties that have impacted negatively on the provision of physical resources in public universities. Moreover, where teaching and learning resources were available, the quality was reported as poor. Little is known on the level of adequacy and quality of physical facilities in private universities. This study therefore, sought to determine the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities.

2.6 Institutional Management and the Learning Environment

Higher education in Kenya is experiencing changes in the form of expansion of the sector, diversification of provision, more heterogeneous student bodies, new funding arrangements, increasing focus on accountability and performance, global networking, mobility and collaboration. These changes have challenged institutional management that, more than ever before, need to revise and specify institutional mission statements, assess impact of new sources of funding, meet requirements for accountability, consider participation in globalization and international competition and the requirements for national, regional and international integration (Lemaitre 2009).

The terms leadership and management are often used interchangeably. Attempt to separate the two reveals that management is concerned with the daily running of an organization ensuring that the employees perform the tasks expected of them. Leadership on the other hand is a complex multifaceted process conceived as a set of values, qualities and behaviours exhibited by the leader that encourage the participation, development, and commitment of followers. Leadership is also considered as the art of influencing an individual or individuals in a particular direction which involves casting vision, goal setting and motivating people (Spendlove 2007).

Quality assurance is a continuous process by which an institution can guarantee that standards and quality of its educational provisions are being maintained or enhanced (CHE, 2008). A study that examined the problems of leadership within a university in Australia concluded that one of the most difficult challenges that leaders within universities face is that they must take responsibility for systems that provide assurance of quality teaching, research and community services within rapidly changing environment,

despite bureaucratic structural context dominated by process mentality (QUT 1994). As Ndeithu (2007) noted, learning outcomes for any institution are shaped by the determination of the university authorities more than the values of students, lecturers and availability of resources. The quality assurance regulatory body in Kenya (Commission of Higher Education) recognizes that quality assurance is primarily the responsibility of individual universities (Standa 2008).

A study conducted in Hong Kong, Pounder (1999), developed organizational effectiveness criteria, which reflected expectations from university management, applicable across higher educational institutions. The organizational effectiveness model comprised four effectiveness criteria, namely:

- i. Productivity - efficiency. This refers to behavior that reflects the extent to which leadership is concerned with the quantity of what it produces and the cost of production.
- ii. Cohesion. This refers to behaviour that reflects the extent to which it is concerned with staff morale, interpersonal relationships, teamwork and sense of belonging.
- iii. Information management – communication. This refers to ability of the leaders to distribute timely and accurate information needed by its stakeholders to do their jobs.
- iv. Planning- goal setting: This aspect of an organization's performance has to do with behavior that reflects the extent of its ability to set goals and objectives and systematically plan for the future.

What is the relationship between organizational effectiveness and quality assurance function of institutional managers? The effectiveness of employee behavior within organizations and the effectiveness of their performance are referred to in this paper as

organizational effectiveness. Studies by Weese (1996) and Lim and Cromartie (2001) recognized that a significant indirect relationship exists between leadership and organizational effectiveness. Changes in an organizational strategy bring about new management challenges which, in turn require new strategies to be successfully implemented. To guarantee that standards and quality of educational provisions are being maintained in the universities, will require that management understands the new challenges and effectively restructure the organizations to achieve the expected outcomes. Organizational effectiveness is therefore necessary for managers to guarantee provision of quality university education.

The need for quality teaching and learning in higher education has been felt all over the world. The UK Further and Higher Education Act (1992) raised concerns about how universities perform and the quality of teaching and services they provide. In response to the report of the National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education (The Dearing report, 1997), indicators and benchmarks of performance for the Higher Education (HE) sector were developed. The performance indicators focused on six broad aspects of institutional performance reflecting the political concerns of the time, which were social equity, value for money, economic impact and international standing (Breakwell & Tytherleigh, 2010). However, in 2006 the Committee of University Chairmen (CUC 2006) pointed out that the choice that an institution makes concerning the performance indicators on which it wishes to be evaluated will depend on its mission and objectives.

Since Vice Chancellors are chosen to deliver against performance indicators, the question arises as to whether institutional performance can be shown to be related in any way to the characteristics of the Vice Chancellors. Goodall (2009) argued that top research universities are led by top researchers and data showed that the heads of major research

universities internationally tend to have previously had highly successful careers as academic researchers. The existence of this relationship raises the issue of causation. Are leaders chosen because their characteristics match the profile of the university?

A study by Sifuna (1998), found out that for all the public universities, the President of the Republic of Kenya was the chancellor. The chancellor appointed and dismissed vice-chancellors, who in majority of cases were not the most able administratively and academically, but politically loyal to the establishment from within the ranks of academic staff. The chancellor's powers extended to the appointment of other key university administrators often in violation of the University Acts and statutes. This system, he noted, seriously undermined public universities' autonomy and academic freedom and tended to diminish democratization of decision making in the universities. This study also found out that the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) established in 1985 with statutory powers to plan, develop and maintain the quality of university education, was denied this function because of politicization of decision making in the expansion of university education.

The appointment of top university managers in public universities in Kenya has been a subject of discussion in education circles because it appears to lack ethnic balance. Gitahi, Odindo & Mathiu (2010), note that a trend has emerged where chancellors, vice chancellors and council chair persons are appointed from the community where a university is located. The appointment of the next layer of officials follows that pattern with the result that universities have become ethnic enclaves. A compromised university management for political or religious reasons may not promote delivery of quality education.

Chacha (2004) observed that globally, the environment of higher education is facing relentless and rapid change. The circumstances underscore the crucial role of leadership and management in maintaining morale, enhancing quality and productivity, and helping staff at all levels cope with momentous and rapid change. Those in higher education management and leadership positions are finding it essential that they understand shifting demographics, new technologies, the commercialization of higher education, the changing relationships between institutions and governments and the move from an industrial to an information society. Current leaders must be trained, new leaders prepared and students identified who will both lead and study for the future.

Kinyanjui (2007) noted that visionary and creative leadership is critical to the transformation of higher education. He held the view that restructuring of the leadership, governance and management systems of each institution should be a priority to create efficient, effective, responsive and lean structures to avoid wastage of resources, duplicated responsibilities and overlapping mandates where members of different levels are members at next level and to institute checks and balances.

The fact that there is great homogeneity in the socio-demographic characteristics across Vice Chancellors in Kenya suggests that they may not be statistically significantly related to variation in institutional performance, but this is a relationship which can be tested empirically. While one study of senior managers in small and medium-sized enterprises in the UK and their strategy development found a significant relationship between age and organisational performance (Karami, Analoui & Kakabadse, 2005), others have reported superior performance associated with younger chief executives, with level of education found to be an important factor (Norburn and Birley 1988).

Samuelson, Galbraith & McGuire, (1985) found that the impact of executive leadership on organisational performance was less than the effects of environmental and organisational factors, with executive change at the top of good-sized companies appearing less crucial, and chief executive turnover alone most often not sufficient to overcome organisational inertia. Therefore, there is little reason to suppose that the appointment of a new Vice Chancellor will have a transformational impact upon performance in a university. Breakwell & Tytherleigh, (2010) found that evidence for the importance of Vice Chancellors' characteristics for institutional performance was limited but support the notion that whilst the performance of a university may be 'moulded' by the characteristics of its' leader, most of the variability in university performance is explained by non-leadership factors.

The adoption of Quality Management System has been considered by some scholars, as a strategic decision by educational institutions to ensure delivery of quality service. This may take the form of ISO certification, structured specific training series for top management, section heads and customer care or a combination of the approaches.

The ISO certification has fundamentally been a private sector affair, but it is becoming a public sector affair too, especially in Kenya. It is believed that ISO is a mark of quality and a step towards international standards. However, Singels, Ruel & van de Water (2001) in a survey of 950 organizations of North Holland noted a common misconception among the organizations that ISO would mandate higher levels of product quality. They were of the view that ISO certification gives no guarantee that the quality of products or services of an organization is better than the quality of other organizations. According to Dick (2000) the principal motivation for pursuing ISO certification among firms in the

UK was the ability of the certificate to open customers' doors that were previously closed, or would close, if ISO certification were not achieved.

Gunnlaugsdottir (2002) while conducting a study in Iceland, concluded that ISO certification is a necessary entry ticket for an organization for selling its products abroad in new markets. A study by Staines (2000), in a Swiss hospital, concluded that ISO processes should be designed through consensus meetings, not through one or two individuals. This helps in implementing the redesigned processes and empowers people in the organisation.

According to Magoha (2008), the process of ISO certification represents an international consensus on good management practices with the aim of ensuring quality service delivery to clients. ISO certification has become a widespread practice as organizations increasingly work to conform to the international standards. The standards place strong emphasis on process control and continuous improvement which are some of the key characteristics that an organization must possess to be recognized as a leading player. Some of the universities in Kenya that have so far been certified to this standard are Strathmore University (private - the first to be certified in the country) and two public universities Kenyatta University and University of Nairobi (Mang'eli, 2008).

The literature reviewed above reveal the critical role of institutional management if universities are to offer quality education. Based on the four critical indicators of organizational effectiveness, namely productivity, cohesion, information management and planning discussed above, this study sought to establish how effectively university managers in selected universities in Kenya have played their role in quality assurance.

2.7 University Examination Processes

Effective university education is judged by its processes and product. The method of assessing learner achievement is one of the processes that the universities need to get right. In a university system the process is independent of any other national examination bodies and is expected to follow in obedience to the University Act and senate formulations.

According to Standa (1989), examinations are important because they provide an opportunity for feedback to the instructor on what learning has taken place and what changes to make in order to help the student to succeed in the learning process. Research shows that university students tend to cheat in examinations when they perceive punitive measures against dishonest behaviours to be less severe (Nazir & Aslam 2010). A number of studies have also demonstrated that cheating varies inversely with the risk of detection (Leming, 1980; Tittle and Rowe, 1973) and the perceived severity of the punishment is inversely correlated with unethical behaviour (Michaels and Miethe, 1989). Thus, the university management has to determine the appropriate internal and external assessment processes to use in evaluating the learning outcome.

According to World Bank (2007), the external examiner system, where it existed, helped to ensure that academic programmes and final examinations were reviewed on a regular basis by people committed to maintaining academic standards. This provided a level of quality assurance in many countries until it began to weaken in the 1980s and 1990s due to the growing size of the student populations.

Raffles University (2009) communicated to academic staff that the primary role of an external examiner is to report on the assessment process and to comment on whether the academic standards are appropriate to the award(s) for which they have responsibility in relation to established external criteria such as international benchmarks and professional/statutory body regulations. According to Harvey (2009), the visiting peer-review team at the heart of the ubiquitous approach to quality assurance is thus, an attempt to democratise quality assurance. Peers, it is argued, are insiders to the sector, provide insight, understand issues and are, therefore, supportive and sharing.

Okatcha (1987) examined the role of university external examiners in the universities of East Africa which consisted of Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya. He found out that external examining practice did not exist in private institutions of higher learning while one of the problems with this system in public universities was that in most cases, an external examiner was identified by the Chairman of the Department and the person identified was in most cases a personal friend of the Chairman. This contravened due process which required the Chairman of the Department to convene department and faculty board meetings for scrutiny and possible approval. He found out that in cases where appointment did not follow due process, the external examiner was not in a position to exercise a fair degree of objectivity.

Okwakol (2008) notes that quality students' assessments is assured through internal and external moderation of examination questions and an external examination system (for undergraduate and graduate programmes), intended to guarantee impartial assessment of students' accomplishments. In South Africa, the study noted, a third opinion is sought if

there is a difference of 10% or more in the marks awarded by an internal and external examiner.

However, there is an ongoing debate in East Africa as to whether or not external examiners are effective given that the external examiners stay in the host university for a short period and yet are required to look at many examination scripts. The cost of transporting, maintaining and remunerating the examiners are areas of concern. There are also issues of how often a university should have external examiners (Birungi 2006).

Both internal and external examination processes are important in directing teaching and learning. In this study attempt was made to establish effectiveness of internal examination processes such as invigilation and supervision and external examination processes in conforming to university examination standards for quality assurance.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter offers a description of how this study was conducted. It provides details of the research design, the study population, sampling process, data collection instruments, data collection procedures and methods of data analysis.

3.2 Research design

This study utilized descriptive survey design. A survey design involves asking a large group of respondents' questions about a particular issue (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). According to Creswell (2003) a survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. From the sample results the researcher generalizes about the population especially if the population is too large. In a survey the investigator examines those phenomena which exist in the universe independent of his own action (Kothari 2008). According to Mugenda (2008), descriptive research design is normally used to obtain information about the current state of the phenomena to be studied and what exists with respect to variables in a situation. Kombo and Tromp (2007) further observe that descriptive approach is designed to obtain information concerning the current phenomenon and wherever possible to draw valid conclusions from facts discussed. The researcher also did correlational tests, which were basically concerned with assessing relationships among variables. Correlational studies are on the premise that if a statistically significant relationship exists between two variables, then it is possible to predict one variable using the other (Mugenda (2008)).

3.3 Study Area

Kenya is in Africa and lies within longitude 34° E and longitude 24° E and latitude 4° S and 5° N. The total land area is 592,209sq km. The study was conducted in four universities in Kenya. Kenya has seven (7) public universities, eleven (11) constituent colleges and nineteen private universities (Appendix 5). The total student population in the public and private universities is 122,847. Of these 100,649 and 22,198 students are enrolled in public and private universities respectively (Republic of Kenya, 2009). Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology is situated within Kakamega town in Western Province. The town is located to the North West of Nairobi. The distance between Kakamega town and Nairobi is 288.14 km on a straight line but 357 km by road. It began as a constituent college of Moi University in 2006 offering education, science and technology courses. It became a fully accredited public university in 2007 (Appendix 6: the map of Kenya showing the towns in which the universities are located).

University of Nairobi on the other hand, is located within Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya, thus an urban institution. It was established in 1956 as a technical school and became a constituent college of Makerere University in 1970. Today, University of Nairobi has several faculties, institutes and schools offering not only day but also evening and distance study programmes.

United States International University (USIU) which is found within Nairobi city is one of the private universities operating in Kenya. University of Eastern Africa (Baraton) is located in a rural setting about 40km from a small town called Kapsabet in Rift Valley province. Both USIU and Baraton are branches of fully accredited universities operating in the United States of America. They boast of double accreditation and therefore likely

to provide useful information on the subject being studied.

3.4 Target Population

The target student population enrolled in sampled universities was 50,142. These were undergraduate students pursuing Bachelor of Commerce or Business Administration, Engineering and Education courses. The number of lecturing staff in the four institutions was a total 1,916 and 83 librarians as shown in the table below:

Table 3.1: Number of Lecturing Staff, Students and Librarians

Name of University	No. of Lecturers	No. of Students	No. of Librarians
UON	1,187	36,632	50
MMUST	234	6,887	7
USIU	349	4,702	11
UEA (BARATON)	146	1,921	5
TOTAL	1,916	50,142	83

Sources: Information from respective universities (Academic offices), 2010

3.5 Sample and Sampling Techniques

Two sampling techniques were used in this study, namely; purposive and stratified random sampling. The sampling procedure used to obtain universities for this study was purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is considered appropriate when the particular units of the universe constitute a sample on the basis that the small mass selected out of a huge one will be typical or representative of the whole (Kothari, 2008). Four universities were sampled as shown below:

- (i) Public Universities: University of Nairobi and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology. University of Nairobi is the oldest and most highly

ranked public university in Kenya while Masinde Muliro University is the youngest and not highly ranked public university in Kenya.

- (ii) Private Universities: University of Eastern Africa - Baraton and United States International University - USIU. These universities boast of double accreditation. Baraton is faith based institution while USIU is not.

The choice of the public and private universities provided a representation of both rural and urban institutions of higher learning in Kenya and brought in two different dimensions of these institutions which were likely to provide more useful information on the subject of study.

Stratified random sampling was used to identify students for this study, who were either third or fourth (final) year students of the selected universities. They were considered appropriate because they had longer experience with the university. It was assumed that they had developed stable thoughts and opinions concerning learning experiences in the respective universities. According to Israel (2009), the formula below can be used to determine sample size:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = \frac{50142}{1 + 50142(0.05)^2}$$

397 students

Where n = sample size
N = Population size
e = confidence level (.05)

Table 3.2: Sample Size

Category	N	Expected (n)	Actual (n)
University Students	50,142	397	502
University Lecturers	1,916	99	127
Library Staff	83	24	23
Total	52,141	520	652

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

The researcher used questionnaires and documentary analysis to obtain information from the sample. Four questionnaires were used, namely; Students' Questionnaire, Lecturing Staff Questionnaire and Library Staff Questionnaire. Possible responses were presented in a four-point Likert scale in all the questionnaires used for data collection.

3.6.1 **Students' Questionnaire:** The instrument was divided into two parts, namely part 1 and 2. Part 1 solicited demographic information while part 2 obtained information regarding students' satisfaction level with indicators for physical facilities, library services, university management, curriculum delivery processes and internal examination processes. The instrument is shown as appendix 1.

3.6.2 **Lecturers' Questionnaire:** The instrument had sub-headings designed to obtain information in line with the objectives of the study. The sub-headings were Quality Assurance, University Management, Physical facilities, Research, Faculty and Community Relations, University Curriculum and Internal Examinations, External Examination and Student Admissions. The instrument had eighty four structured questions to be responded to. The instrument is shown as appendix 2.

3.6.3 **Library Staff Questionnaire:** The questionnaire solicited information relating to library services such as adequacy of facilities and staff. It had one question which was split in three sections, referred to as A, B and C. Section A had ten closed ended questions while sections B and C had one open ended question in each section. The instrument is shown as appendix 3.

3.6.4 **Document Analysis:** This involved scrutiny of documents such as admission registers, universities lecturing staff establishment, universities annual reports and report of Engineering Registration Board (ERB). Since there were negative newspaper reports about engineering courses offered in universities, information was sought from ERB on the courses they refused to give accreditation and the reasons for their refusal. The list of the rejected engineering courses is shown as appendix 5.

3.7 Instruments' Validity and Reliability

Before the research instruments were used in the field, they were subjected to validity and reliability tests as described in the sections that follow.

3.7.1 **Validity of Research Instruments:** The researcher established validity of the instruments by developing questionnaires then presenting them to experts in the Department of Educational Management and Foundations at Maseno University for examination, comments and necessary modification. The feedback received was incorporated in the final instruments.

3.7.2 **Reliability of Research Instruments:** Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results after repeated trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). The researcher established reliability by piloting

the questionnaire to 100 respondents from four universities that were not involved in the actual study. The universities were Kenyatta, Maseno, Strathmore and KCA. The researcher used Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability test. A result above 0.5 was considered acceptable (Fairchild, 2002). The results of Cronbach's alpha measures for the instruments were; Students Questionnaire was 0.735, Lecturing Staff Questionnaire 0.915 and Library Staff Questionnaire 0.840. The coefficients were above 0.5. This was interpreted to imply that the items in the scales correlated highly among themselves and consistently measured the constructs of interest. The Cronbach's alpha measures how well a set of items (or variables) measures a single unidimensionality (i.e. fit to the one-factor model) of a latent construct. The Cronbach's alpha generally increases when the correlations between the items increase (Sultan & Wong, 2010).

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

After obtaining an introductory letter from the School of Graduate Studies, Maseno University, the researcher applied for a research clearance permit from the National Council for Science and Technology. This permit authorized the researcher to collect data from the sampled institutions in the months of May to December, 2010 (Appendix 7).

The questionnaires were taken to the respondents and delivered by hand. Students were reached in the lecture rooms and given a few minutes to fill and return the questionnaires while the lecturing staff and library staff were given one week within which to respond. However, majority of the staff filled the questionnaires and gave them back within the same day.

3.9 Methods of Data Analysis

Data obtained from the administration of the questionnaires were classified according to type of university. Descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages were used to quantify responses according to the indicators being investigated.

Further, inferential statistics, namely, a chi-square test at 95% confidence interval was used to test the study hypotheses. The decision rule was based on the calculated p-value. The decision rule was to reject the null hypothesis if calculated p-value is less than 0.05, otherwise fail to reject the hypothesis. Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used as a tool to generate frequencies, percentages and p-values.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the information collected in the field is analysed and the findings are presented and interpretations made based on the results. The analysis is organized according to the research five research objectives which were to establish the quality of enrolled students, effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes, faculty members in performing their duties, institutional management processes and the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities.

4.2 Quality of Enrolled Students

The first objective of this study was to find out the quality of enrolled students in Kenyan public and private universities. This objective was achieved by analyzing the entry behaviours that determine quality of enrolled students. The indicators identified in this study that influence quality of enrolled students were aptitude of students to pursue the courses, conduct of entrance examinations, diversity in terms of student nationalities, province and ethnic origin, religious faith.

4.2.1: Students' Enrolment by Nationality

Table 4.1: Local versus Foreign Students

University	Total	Kenyan Students		Foreign (International) Students	
		No	(%)	No	(%)
UON	36,632	36,387	99.331%	245	0.669%
MMUST	6,887	6,876	99.84%	11	0.16%
USIU	4,702	4,110	87.41%	592	12.59%
BARATON	1,921	1,731	90.11%	190	9.89%

Table 4.1 shows that public universities have higher enrolments than the private universities. It also shows that the ratio of foreign to local students is higher in private universities. At University of Nairobi, the percentage of foreign students against total students enrolled is 0.669%. At Masinde Muliro, the percentage is at 0.16%, USIU has 12.59% while University of Eastern Africa (Baraton) has 9.906%. The table shows that public universities have attracted negligible number of foreign students. The selected public and private universities did not capture commitment to diversity and inclusion in vision, mission statements or admission requirements as is the practice in most top ranked universities in the United States of America or Britain. Lack of national diversity of students negatively affected the quality of university students in the public universities. Top ranked universities are associated with attracting students and faculty who are not exclusively from the country where the university operates. This enables them to attract most talented people and open themselves to new ideas and approaches (Salmi & Altbach, 2011). The ratio of foreign students in private universities in Kenya compares favourably with top ranked universities in the world such as University of Cambridge where 10% of students are from outside United Kingdom (<http://www.cam.ac.uk/admissions/undergraduate/info/policy.html> extracted on 10th

February 2011) while at Harvard University 9% are international students (www.admissionsconsultants.com/college/havard.asp extracted on 10th February 2011).

In view of increased mobility of students across national borders, this negligible number of foreign students in public universities, shows that they have not positioned themselves as centers of excellence to attract student admissions from other countries. It consequently negatively affected the quality of education offered in the universities.

4.2.2 Students' Enrolment by Province

Table 4.2 Enrolment by Province

Name of University	Province of birth								Total
	Rift Valley	Eastern	Central	Nairobi	Nyanza	Coast	North Eastern	Western	
BARATON	35	9	2	9	22	4	0	3	84
MMUST	10	2	3	6	5	3	1	28	58
USIU	3	3	11	28	1	7	1	2	56
UON	22	17	14	15	12	1	2	3	86
MMUST WEBUYE	2	0	0	1	2	0	0	25	30
MMUST BUNGOMA	5	0	0	1	4	0	0	22	32
UON KIKUYU	7	10	8	2	7	0	0	8	42
UON PARKLANDS	10	1	8	14	5	3	0	2	43
UON L/ KABETE	5	3	13	7	10	1	1	3	43
Total	99	45	59	83	68	19	5	96	474

Table 4.2 shows that most of the students enrolled in private universities came from the immediate surrounding community. Baraton University draws majority of its students (67.857%) from Rift Valley province (where it is located) and Nyanza province (where it enjoys large religious following). USIU draws 50.00% of its students from parents

residing in Nairobi while 67.241% of its students come from Nairobi and Central provinces. The public universities have a mixed picture. Masinde Muliro University which is located outside Nairobi draws 62.5% from Western province while University of Nairobi draws 37.383% of its students from Nairobi and Central provinces.

This was compared with international best practices such as Harvard University where 85% of admitted students are out of state students www.admissionsconsultants.com/college/havard.asp. This finding shows that private and public universities in Kenya draw most of the students from the immediate surrounding community. The student interactions in these universities have very high chances of producing stereotype ethnic champions rather than nationalists. Majority of the students are likely to have gone through primary, secondary schools and university education within same ethnic community. Consequently, their nation is the ethnic community. It shows that apart from University of Nairobi which enjoys positive diversity, the university students have no benefit of diversified student population. This defeats the purpose of university education which is to create in learners, a capacity to effectively contribute in terms of work and productivity, towards national and international development (Republic of Kenya, 1999; Tam, 2002 & Mwaura, 2010b). The admission policies private and public universities were ineffective in creating nationalists among students.

4.2.3 Students' Enrolment as per Preferred Course

Table 4.3: Admissions in Preferred Courses

Type of University	Preferred Courses				Total
	Same Courses		Not Same Courses		
	No	%	No	%	
Public	232	68.843	105	31.157	337
Private	101	69.655	44	30.345	145
Total	333	69.087	149	30.913	482

Table 4.3 shows that 69.655% and 68.843% of students admitted in private and public universities respectively took their preferred courses. This high relationship between courses students applied for and courses studied at the university may have been high due to opportunity being offered to KCSE candidates to revise their preferred courses after release of KCSE results. This finding implies that most students were having the right aptitude and motivation to study the courses they were pursuing at that point in time. According to UNESCO (1995), the quality of students in higher education depends in the first place on the aptitudes and motivations of those leaving secondary education and wishing to pursue studies at higher level. The right aptitude and motivation was a boost to efforts towards attainment of quality graduates.

The respondents were asked whether new students sit for an entrance examination before they are admitted. Responses are shown in the table below:

Table 4.4: Entrance Examination

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	53	64.634	SD	1	2.222
D	25	30.488	D	2	4.444
A	2	2.439	A	19	42.222
SA	2	2.439	SA	23	51.111
Total	82	99.999	Total	45	99.999

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A = Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.4 shows that 93.333% and 4.878% of lecturers in private and public universities respectively agreed that the universities administer entrance examinations. It was interpreted to mean that public universities did not conduct entrance examination, but relies wholly on KCSE certificates presented for admission. It is important to remember that the entrance examinations help to weed out 'good' KCSE grades from those obtained through examination cheating.

4.2.4: Comparison of Students' Entry Qualifications

Attempt was made to find out if there is a relationship between grade attained at KCSE level and admission to private and public university. Results are shown in the table 4.1.5.

Table 4.5: Grades obtained by Students

Type of University	Grades obtained								Total
	C Minus	C	C Plus	B Minus	B	B Plus	A Minus	A	
Public	4	7	34	29	68	95	60	23	320
Private	0	1	21	25	41	20	4	2	114
Total	4	8	55	54	109	115	64	25	434

Table 4.5 shows that the modal students' admission grade in private and public universities is B and B Plus respectively. This suggests that private universities start at a lower point compared to public universities. The percentage of students with grade B and above enrolled in public universities was 76.875% while for private universities it was 61.404%. The students with grade C and C minus are those who had gone through other upgrading courses at diploma level or equivalent. It has been established that KCSE grade contributes more to university performance in comparison to other predictors (Wambua 2003). It was therefore implied that public universities admit students of higher quality than private universities.

4.2.5 Test of Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis for objective one that the study sought to test was stated in null form as;

H_{01} : There is no significant difference between the quality of enrolled students in Kenyan public and private universities.

The responses obtained on the aptitude of students to pursue the courses, conduct of entrance examinations, diversity in terms of student nationalities, province and ethnic origin in private and public university was subjected to a two sided chi-square test at 95%

confidence interval. The result was as shown below:

Table 4.6: Difference in Quality of Enrolled Students

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.000 ^a	12	.241
Likelihood Ratio	13.322	12	.346
N of Valid Cases	5		

a. 20 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.

The test shows p value = 0.241 which is greater than 0.05, hence the study accepts the null hypothesis (H_{01}) that there is no significant difference between the quality of enrolled students in Kenyan public and private universities. The implication is that private and public universities enroll students of expected quality.

4.3 Curriculum Delivery Processes

The second objective of the study was to establish effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes in Kenyan public and private universities. The researcher solicited views on satisfaction levels with curriculum review, field work and practical lessons, tutorial classes, guidance and counseling, students' attendance of classes, examination processes and report of the Engineering Registration Board. The findings are shown in the sections that follow.

4.3.1: Processes of Curriculum Review

Lecturers were asked whether the existing process for development, approval and review of university curriculum was satisfactory. Responses are as shown in the table below:

Table 4.7 Development, approval and review of curriculum

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	-	-	SD	-	-
D	44	53.659	D	4	8.889
A	31	37.805	A	25	55.556
SA	7	8.537	SA	16	35.556
Total	82	100.001	Total	45	100.001

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A = Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.7 above shows that 46.342% and 91.112% of lecturers in public and private universities respectively were satisfied with the process of development, approval and review of the curriculum. This was because lectures from USIU and Baraton universities reported reviewing their programmes after every two years whereas at University of Nairobi and Masinde Muliro University, policy requires that curriculum is reviewed after every five years, but this has not been done regularly. It was found that some programmes have taken as many as ten (10) years before comprehensive review was done. It was interpreted that public universities have low level of efficiency in tuning their curricula to the needs of Kenyan society and economy. This finding supports previous studies by

Ng'ong'ah (2002), Okwakol (2008) and Cace (2009) who found that the university curricula were not in congruence with the societal needs.

The researcher wanted to find out the opinion of industry players on the quality of university degree programmes. The table below shows programmes which ERB had denied approval.

Table 4.8: Number of Undergraduate Engineering Programmes not approved by the Engineering Registration Board.

Type of University	No of Courses	Percentage of total
Public Universities	42	91.3%
Private Universities	4	8.7%

Source: ERB (2010).

Table 4.8 above shows that the Engineering Registration Board rejected to accord accreditation status to forty six (46) ongoing engineering degrees in public and private universities (Appendix 4). Majority of the courses (91.3%) were amounted in public universities and a few (8.7%) in private universities. In rejecting accreditation, ERB cited low quality curriculum, lack of qualified lecturers, segmentation, duplication of programmes and absence of professional focus. ERB was of the view that the content of these programmes matched a menu for technician courses. The Council of Legal Education and the Nursing Council of Kenya have also rejected some university curricula for not meeting industry standards (Nyongesa, 2010; Wekesa, 2011; Kinuthia, 2011). Lack of inclusiveness and inadequate consultations during the review of curriculum have rendered the process ineffective and explain why some university curricula are not acceptable to industry players for not meeting expected quality in the programmes.

University senates are charged with the responsibility to oversee curriculum development and review and the quality of the process and product thereof. That a professional body finds programmes developed by universities deficient in meeting expected quality standards, raises questions on quality control processes in universities, more so, public universities since they are not being supervised by the Commission for Higher Education.

4.3.2: Field Work and Practical Lessons

Students were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with fieldwork and practical lessons. The responses are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Field work and Practical Lessons

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	88	25.882	SD	8	5.333
D	109	32.059	D	39	26.0
A	115	33.824	A	67	44.667
SA	28	8.235	SA	36	24.0
Total	340	100.00	Total	150	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.9 shows that 68.667% and 42.059% of students in private and public universities respectively were satisfied with field work and practical lessons. It was interpreted that delivery of field work and practical lessons were more effective in private than public universities. It was therefore inferred that dissatisfactory fieldwork and practical classes

in public universities negatively affected quality of teaching and learning in the public universities.

4.3.3 Availability of Tutorial Classes

Asked whether tutorial classes are available, the response from lecturers was as shown below.

Table 4.10: Availability of Tutorial Classes

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	28	34.146	SD	17	37.778
D	26	31.707	D	15	33.333
A	19	23.171	A	10	22.222
SA	9	10.976	SA	3	6.667
Total	82	100.00	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A = Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.10 shows that 71.111% and 65.854% of lecturers in private and public universities respectively reported that tutorial classes were absent. It was concluded that tutorial classes died in public universities and had not been institutionalized in private universities. Even though at University of Nairobi, tutorial classes were provided for in the timetables, it was found that the stated hours were used for normal class teaching. Tutorials and practical lessons are meant to give students deeper understanding of subject matter through critical enquiry in guided debate and practice. Inadequate practical lessons

or fieldwork deny the trainees' opportunity to link theory learnt in lecture halls and the field of work and could lead to universities producing graduates with a lot of rote learning and poorly developed critical thinking abilities (Waituru 1999). This was interpreted to mean that the universities ignored a very significant method of teaching for content delivery (Gachiri, 2003; Ndethiu (2007). Thus, the methods of teaching were ineffective for achieving quality education.

4.3.4 Guidance and Counseling Services

Students were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction with guidance and counseling services at the university. Responses are shown in the table below.

Table 4.11: Guidance and Counseling Services

Response	Public Universities		Private Universities		
	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	87	26.284	SD	6	3.947
D	97	29.305	D	26	17.105
A	124	37.462	A	68	44.737
SA	23	6.949	SA	52	34.421
Total	331	100.00	Total	152	100.210

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.11 above shows that 79.158% and 44.411% of students in private and public universities respectively were satisfied with guidance and counseling services. It was interpreted that guidance and counseling services were effective in private universities but ineffective in public universities. This finding is similar to Standa (2000) and Kokul

(2010) who found out that guidance and counseling services in public universities were ineffective.

Attendance of lectures by students was investigated. Students were asked to respond to a statement which read that, "some students miss lectures for a month without being noticed" The responses are shown in the table below.

Table 4.12: Attendance of Classes by University Students

Type of University	SD	D	A	SA	TOTAL
Public	75 22.455%	65 19.461%	95 28.443%	99 29.641%	334 100.0%
Private	74 51.748%	31 21.678%	18 12.587%	20 13.986%	143 99.999%
	149	96	113	119	477
Total	31.237%	20.126%	23.69%	24.948%	100.0%

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

Table 4.12 shows that 58.104% and 26.573% of students miss classes for a month without being noticed in public and private universities respectively. It was interpreted that attendance of classes was significantly lower in public universities compared to private. It was therefore inferred that inadequate students' attendance of classes in public universities was lowering quality of education offered in the public universities. This meant that students were not learning for the length period they were expected to study. A month translates to four weeks. It meant that out of the expected sixteen weeks in a semester some students were away from studies for a quarter of the stipulated time. Allowing such students to proceed to the next semester of study is to allow production of half baked lower quality of graduates.

4.3.5 Invigilation and Supervision of Internal Examinations

The researcher sought to find out the effect of number of admitted students in universities on the quality of invigilation and supervision of university examinations. The lecturers responded to a statement which read, "The number of students has negatively affected the quality of invigilation and supervision of university examinations". The responses are shown in Table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13: Quality of Invigilation and Supervision

Type of University	Quality of invigilation and supervision is negatively affected.
Public	59.756%
Private	35.556%

Table 4.13 above shows that 59.756% and 35.556% of the lecturers from public and private universities respectively, were of the opinion that quality of invigilation and supervision of examinations was negatively affected by the number of admitted students. It was interpreted that ineffective examination invigilation and supervision in public universities was likely to give room for opportunistic unethical behaviours such as examination cheating, thus negatively affecting the quality of education provided in the universities.

4.3.6 External Examination Processes

It was found out that external examination system was dysfunctional in private universities. At USIU, external examination is not in use. The university relies on its lecturers to moderate its examinations and results. The advantage of the system is that it was fast and easy to manage but it exposes the university examination to compromise as

the lecturers know one another and may be hesitant to correct or criticize a colleague with regard to syllabus coverage and depth captured in the examinations.

At the University of Eastern Africa – Baraton, external examination system was not regular. There were semesters or years when external examiners were appointed while much of the time they were not appointed. Thus, the university relied on internal moderation by its lecturers. The reasons for not using external examiners at Baraton were high cost associated with the system and that the university operated a three semester system. Such a system has short breaks between semesters – as short as two weeks. Those breaks were utilized by lecturers for marking the examinations of previous semesters.

The study sought to find out the level of satisfaction with external examiners in public universities. Lecturers were asked to respond to a statement which read, “Performance of external examiners in my department is satisfactory”. Responses showed that 68.293% of the lecturers from public universities were satisfied with the performance of external examiners. This was interpreted to mean that the external examiners knew their work and did it well. They submitted objective reports and were not victims of compromise.

However, the significant challenges identified were:

- (i) The number of students in some classes and departments were so large. Thus, the external examiners could not go through as many papers as required. This reduced quality of the external examination.
- (ii) Pressure of work. That, most external examiners were lecturers in other universities. Besides most of them were external examiners in other universities. Consequently, they did not have enough time for the exercise.

They already had a lot of work in their work stations. Thus, pressure of work on the external examiners reduced their efficiency as external examiners.

4.3.7: Test of Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis for objective two that the study sought to test was stated in null form as;

H₀₂: There is no significant difference between effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes in Kenyan public and private universities.

The results on report of the Engineering Registration and satisfaction levels with curriculum review, field work and practical lessons, tutorial classes, guidance and counseling, students' attendance of classes, examination processes from private and public university lecturers was subjected to a two sided chi square test at 95% confidence interval. The result was as shown below:

Table 4.14: Difference between Curriculum Delivery Processes

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.000 ^a	16	.020
Likelihood Ratio	16.094	16	.446
N of Valid Cases	5		

a. 25 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.

Results of a two sided chi-square test shows p value = 0.020 which is less than 0.05, hence the study rejects the null hypothesis. The results imply that there is significant difference between effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes in Kenyan public and private universities. The curriculum delivery processes were effective in private universities, but ineffective in public universities.

4.4 Faculty Performance of Research and Teaching Duties

The third objective of the study was to find out effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities. The first part of this analysis was about teaching duties while second part was about research duties.

4.4.1: Ratio of Lecturers to students

For effective teaching to take place at a university, there is a minimum ratio of lecturing staff against number of enrolled students to be achieved which was recommended by Commission for Higher Education (CHE). The recommended lecturer/student ratio was compared against what was available at the selected universities. Table 4.3.1 shows the recommended lecturer/staff ratios.

Table 4.15: Recommended ratio per department of staff to students

Programme	Lecturer/Student Ratio
Applied Sciences	1:10
Arts and Humanities	1:15
Medical and Allied Sciences	1:7
Pure and Natural Sciences	1:10
Social Sciences	1:18

Source: CHE (2010)

Attempt was made to analyse the lecturer/students ratio per department of each of the selected universities. Information was obtained from the relevant offices and the results are shown in the tables below.

Table 4.16: Ratio per department of lecturing staff to students at University of Nairobi

Name of College	Lecturers	Students	Ratio(Existing)	No of lecturers expected	Short fall of lecturers
Agriculture and Veterinary Science	157	1,683	10.72	168	11
Architecture and Engineering	146	3,796	26.00	380	244
Biological and Physical Sciences	153	2,972	19.425	297	144
Education and External Studies	78	7,203	92.346	400	322
Health Sciences	285	2,919	10.242	417	132
Humanities and Social Sciences	368	18,059	49.074	1003	635
Total	1,187	36,632	30.861	2665	1478

Table 4.16 above shows that there was shortage of staff in all the departments of University of Nairobi. It also shows that the number of lecturers available was 44.54% of the expected number of lecturers. Assume that the short fall was filled by part time lecturers as is the international practice, then part time lecturers formed 55.46% of the teaching staff. From the table it is evident that Education and External Studies and Humanities and Social Sciences experienced larger shortage of lecturers.

Table 4.17: Ratio per department of lecturing of staff to students at Masinde Muliro University

Name of Faculty	Lecturers	Students	Ratio(Existing)	No of lecturers expected	Short fall of lecturers
Engineering	39	629	16.128	63	24
Education and Social Sciences	108	5607	51.926	312	204
Science	87	651	7.483	65	-
Total	234	6887	29.432	440	228

The results in table 4.17 above indicate that Masinde Muliro University was experiencing shortage of lecturers. It also showed that the University had 53.182% of its teaching staff requirement. This meant that 47% of its teaching staff were part time lecturers.

Table 4.18: Ratio per department of lecturing of staff to students at United States International University (USISU)

Name of School	Lecturers (full time only)	Full-time & Part-time lecturers	Students	Ratio with full time staff only	Ratio with total staff	No of lecturers expected
Humanities, Social Sciences and Business courses	89	349	4,702	52.83	13.473	261

Table 4.18 above shows that full time lecturers at USIU were 25.501% of the expected number of lecturing staff. The table also shows that management at USIU had made deliberate effort to recruit more part time staff which currently forms 74.499% of its teaching force to fill the short fall in teaching requirement. This shows serious shortage of full time lecturers.

Table 4.19: Ratio per department of staff to students at University of Eastern Africa – Baraton

Name of School	Lecturers	Students	Ratio(Existing)	No of lecturers expected	Short fall of lecturers
Business	16	598	37.375	33	17
Education	12	327	27.25	18	6
Science and Technology	41	386	9.415	39	-
Total	69	1311	19.0	90	21

Table 4.19 above shows that Baraton was experiencing a shortage of lecturers. The shortage of 21 lecturers represented 23.333% in the three faculties. This shortage was very serious since this was a short fall after considering both full time and part time lecturing staff. It shows that the university was experiencing difficulties in attracting personnel for the teaching positions. It was not understandable that amidst this difficulty the University had more lecturers than necessary in Science and Technology faculty. The suspicion was that the extra staff were serving religious purposes in addition to their teaching duties.

The results above show that the shortage was more serious in private universities than public universities. It was therefore interpreted that shortage of lecturers reduced efficiency of lecturers in offering effective services for quality education in private and public universities in Kenya. This finding corroborates earlier studies, Waituru (1999), Maria et al (2003) and Mutisya (2010) which singled out shortage of lecturers as serious threat to offering quality university education. As was found out, private and public universities have more part time than permanent lecturers. Part time staff are available for the scheduled lecturing hours but not for consultations with students. This arrangement

denied students opportunity for deeper understanding of subject matter through critical enquiry in guided debate and practice.

4.4.2 Research Duties

The researcher wanted to find out the views of lecturing staff regarding the quality of research at the selected universities. The respondents were asked to respond to a statement, "Quality of research done by staff is high". Responses are shown in the table below.

Table 4.20: Quality of Research

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	5	6.096	SD	8	17.778
D	26	31.707	D	13	28.889
A	41	50.00	A	20	44.444
SA	10	12.195	SA	4	8.889
Total	82	99.998	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree **D** = Disagree **A** = Agree **SA** = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.20 shows that 62.195% and 53.333% of the respondents from private and public universities respectively were in agreement that quality of research was high.

Attempt was made to find out if increase in student numbers has had effect on research activities. The question responded to was, "Quantity and quality of research has been negatively affected by number of students admitted in to this university". Results are shown in the table below.

Table 4.21: Effect of Student Numbers on Quality and Quantity of Research

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	NO	%	Response	NO	%
SD	9	10.976	SD	7	15.556
D	26	31.707	D	20	44.444
A	20	24.390	A	10	22.222
SA	27	32.927	SA	8	17.778
Total	82	100.00	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

Table 4.21 above shows that the number of admitted students in public universities has had negative effect on quality and quantity of research. The staff who disagreed with the statement were 42.683% and 60.0% from public and private universities respectively. It was interpreted that increased student numbers negatively affected quality and quantity of research in private and public universities in Kenya. It was established that the negative effect was higher in public universities than private universities. It was inferred that private universities had experienced long term problem of conducting quality research due to increased student numbers alongside shortage of lecturers and reliance on part time staff for teaching. The findings compare to Olukoju (2002), Chacha (2004), Olel (2006) and Eshiwani (2009) who found that there was decline in terms of output, quality and regularity of publications among faculty staff.

The researcher wanted to find out if a research policy exists in the universities and whether the policy is known to the lecturers. The statement was, “A well articulated

research policy exists and is known to all stakeholders". Responses were shown in the table below.

Table 4.22: Research Policy

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	13	15.854	SD	5	11.111
D	26	31.707	D	11	24.444
A	33	40.244	A	25	55.556
SA	10	12.195	SA	4	8.889
Total	82	100.00	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.22 above shows that 52.439% and 64.445% of lecturers from public and private universities respectively agreed that a well articulated research policy exists and is known to the lecturers. Even a larger proportion of staff in private than public universities were aware of the detail in research policies of their universities, there was need to communicate the research policies among staff in private universities and more effort in public universities.

Attempt was made to find out how credible and transparent was the criteria for disbursement of research funds. Respondents were asked to respond to this statement; "Credible and transparent criteria exist for disbursement of research funds and are known to all stakeholders". Responses are shown in the table below.

Table 4.23: Criteria for Disbursement of Research Funds

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	12	14.634	SD	5	11.111
D	31	37.805	D	13	28.889
A	30	36.585	A	19	42.222
SA	9	10.976	SA	8	17.778
Total	82	100.00	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.23 shows that lecturers in private universities who agreed with the statement were 60.0%. Staff in public universities who agreed with the statement were 47.561%. The interpretation was that credibility and transparency of the criteria for disbursement of research funds in private universities in Kenya was satisfactory, but unsatisfactory for public universities. The management of public universities should ensure that criteria for disbursement of research funds does not become an impediment to effective conduct of research in private and public universities

4.4.3: Test of Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis for objective three that the study sought to test was stated in null form as;

H₀₃ : There is no significant difference between effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities.

Results of the responses the performance of teaching and research duties obtained in this objective from private and public university lecturers were subjected to a two sided chi-square test at 95% confidence interval. The result was as shown below:

Table 4.24: Difference in the Performance of Faculty Members

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.000 ^a	12	.241
Likelihood Ratio	13.322	12	.346
N of Valid Cases	5		

a. 20 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.

Table 4.24 shows the p value = 0.241, hence the study accepts the null hypothesis. This implies that there is no significant difference between the effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities. Effectiveness of faculty members was lowered by shortage of lecturing staff and challenges facing conduct of research in both private and public universities.

4.5 Physical Learning Facilities

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities. The facilities referred to in this study include lecture rooms, laboratory equipment, number and quality of computers, library resources and availability of sporting facilities. The researcher asked respondents for their opinion on whether the facilities were satisfactory or not. Responses were as shown in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Satisfaction Level of Physical Facilities among Staff and Students in Private and Public Universities in Kenya

Physical facilities	Universities	
	Private (satisfaction level as a %)	Public (satisfaction level as a %)
Lecture Rooms	68.889	41.463
Laboratory Equipment	80.0	35.366
Number and Quality of Computers	84.444	31.706
Sporting Facilities	63.158	44.411

Results in table 4.25 above indicate that lecturers in private universities were satisfied with the facilities available teaching and learning facilities but their counterparts in public universities were not satisfactory with the quantity and quality of the facilities. Shortage of lecture rooms in public universities implied that some students missed sitting space during lectures or attended lectures as they sat outside the lecture rooms thus, causing lack of concentration among learners. Shortage of facilities such as laboratory equipment and quality computers for practical lessons denied students opportunities to develop their

skills and encouraged rote learning. Thus, effective teaching and learning in public universities was hampered by lack of enough essential facilities.

Shortage of physical facilities in public universities in Kenya is well documented. World Bank (2000), Cheboi (2006), Republic of Kenya (2006) and Kiganda (2009) noted that financial resources directed to university education were inadequate and that accelerated growth in student numbers in the public universities had not been matched by expansion of physical facilities and academic infrastructure. According to Okwakol (2008) most African universities do not have adequate physical facilities such as lecture rooms, office, and library and laboratory spaces to provide a suitable learning and teaching environment. She noted that 55% of laboratory equipment in most departments in universities were not in a state in which they could be used to carry out experiments. The net effect of this scenario was that only about half the experiments were done.

4.5.1 Library Resources

The study targeted 24 library staff in all universities, but only 23 responded resulting in a response rate of 95.8% which was considered adequate for this study. The distribution of respondents is shown in the table below.

Table 4.26: Library Staff

University	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Baraton	2	8.7	8.7	8.7
MMUST	4	17.4	17.4	26.1
UON	11	47.8	47.8	73.9
USIU	6	26.1	26.1	100.0
Total	23	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.26 shows that 47.8% of the respondents were drawn from the University of Nairobi. This high number was attributed to high number of colleges that the University has. Each of these colleges has a library.

Analysis was done on perceived satisfaction level among library staff with selected aspects of library services in private and public universities. The selected areas for investigation were library space, print journals, internet facilities, current books and e-journals. Results are shown in the table 4.28.

Table 4.27: Satisfaction Level of Library Resources among Staff and Students in Private and Public Universities in Kenya

Library resources	Universities	
	Private (satisfaction level as a %)	Public (satisfaction level as a %)
Library Space	100	66.667
Print Journals	100	66.667
Internet Facilities	100	40.0
Current books and e-journals	100	60.0

The results in Table 4.27 above shows that library staff in private universities were satisfied with the available space, print journals, internet services and current books and e-journals. Library staff in the public universities, on the other hand were dissatisfied with the various services. This is not new as shortage of physical facilities had been cited by academicians in other studies (Olel, 2006; Ndethiu, 2007; Okwakol, 2008; Eshiwani,

2009). From the results, it is evident that shortage of library resources was a major hindrance to effective teaching and learning in public universities.

4.5.2: Sporting Facilities

Students were asked to state their level of satisfaction with the sporting facilities provided by the university. Results are shown below.

Table 4.28: Sporting Facilities

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
VD	86	25.294	VD	7	4.605
D	103	30.294	D	49	32.237
S	123	36.176	S	64	42.105
HS	28	8.235	HS	32	21.053
Total	340	99.999	Total	152	100.00

VD =Very Dissatisfactory D = Dissatisfactory S = Satisfactory HS = Highly Satisfactory F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.28 above shows that 63.158% and 44.411% of students from private and public universities respectively were satisfied with provision of sporting facilities. This was interpreted to mean that public universities did not provide adequate sporting facilities. The inference was that inadequate provision of sporting activities in public universities in Kenya negatively influenced the quality of teaching and learning in these institutions (Keim, 2008; Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer & Wall, 2010; Taylor & Turek, 2010).

4.5.3 Test of Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis for objective four that the study sought to test was stated in null form as;

H_{04} : There is no significant difference between the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities.

The results of the responses on learning facilities and library resources from private and public university lecturers were subjected to a two sided chi-square test at 95% confidence interval. The result was as shown below:

Table 4.29: Facilities for Teaching and Learning

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	40.000 ^a	35	.008
Likelihood Ratio	27.726	35	.804
N of Valid Cases	8		

a. 48 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .13.

The test statistics shows p value = 0.008 which is less than 0.05, hence the study rejects the null hypothesis (H_{04}). This implies that there is significant difference between the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities. This meant that the quality of physical facilities in private universities was better than those in public universities.

4.6 Institutional Management

The fifth objective of the study was to establish effectiveness of institutional management practices in Kenyan public and private universities. This was achieved by obtaining views on ISO certification, teamwork and motivation among staff, engagement of staff and students in decision making and communication between management and stakeholders.

The researcher sought to find out the views of lecturers regarding ISO certification. They responded to a statement which read, "Obtaining ISO certification significantly improves university management". The response is as shown below.

Table 4.30: ISO Certification significantly improves Management

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	6	7.317	SD	11	24.444
D	13	15.854	D	15	33.333
A	48	58.537	A	8	17.778
SA	15	18.293	SA	11	24.444
Total	82	100.01	Total	45	99.999

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A = Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

The results show a significant difference in perception among lecturers on the contributions of ISO certification on management of private and public universities. Lecturers in private universities (42.222%) felt it was significant while 76.83% of lecturers in public universities felt that ISO certification significantly improves

management in the universities. It should interest scholars to find out reasons behind this divergence of views.

The respondents were asked whether tribalism and nepotism had significantly influenced employment of senior university management staff. The responses of those who agreed were Private Universities 68.889% while Public Universities 80.488%. It was interpreted that tribalism (ethnicity) and nepotism was a factor that hindered equal employment opportunities in Kenyan universities. A study by Ndegwa (2007) found that the management culture in public universities was un-adaptive, rigid, bureaucratic and did not encourage equal employment opportunities. In the study, it was found that tribalism (ethnicity) and nepotism were the factors that mostly hindered equal employment opportunities in universities. Consequently, it was further interpreted that negative tribalism and nepotism were obstacles to objective search for senior university management staff and had the potential of denying universities competent personnel for quality university management.

The researcher sought to find out if there was teamwork among different categories of staff. Lecturers were asked to respond to a statement which read, "The different categories of staff work as a team". Responses are shown in the table below.

Table 4.31: Teamwork among Staff

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	5	6.1	SD	15	33.333
D	22	26.829	D	16	35.556
A	46	56.098	A	14	31.111
SA	9	10.976	SA	0	0
Total	82	100.03	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.31 shows that 31.111% of respondents from private universities reported that staff worked as a team while 67.074% of staff from public universities were in agreement there was teamwork among staff. The interpretation was that there was significant difference in availability of team work among staff in private universities compared to public universities. This finding showed that public universities had managed to build effective teams among its staff while management of private universities did not have effective teamwork among their staff. It was interpreted that lack of team work among lecturers in private universities negatively affected effective teaching and learning. This could also be attributed to high number of part – time lecturers in private universities.

The researcher sought opinion of lecturers on the level of staff motivation. Responses are shown in the table in the next page.

Table 4.32: Staff Motivation

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	25	30.488	SD	8	17.778
D	28	34.146	D	11	24.444
A	21	25.61	A	22	48.889
SA	8	9.756	SA	4	8.889
Total	82	100.00	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

Table 4.32 above shows that 35.366% and 57.778% of the lecturers from public and private universities respectively reported that staff were well motivated. There are many studies that have analyzed the relationship between motivation and job satisfaction and performance and it has been found to exert significant influence (Yurtseven & Halici, 2012). Therefore, the interpretation of the finding in the table was that low staff motivation in public and private universities was a hindrance to their effectiveness. This finding contradicts Olel (2006), which found that the level of motivation increased among the teaching staff being attributed to increased remuneration for self sponsored programmes. Researchers are of the view that low level of staff motivation in public universities is mainly due to inadequate remuneration which has cost universities loss of outstanding brains and skills that have migrated abroad. The remaining staff have been forced into income generating activities to supplement their dwindling earnings. It has further been observed that inadequate remuneration is often the cause of staff strikes. Thus, inadequate staff remuneration and attendant low morale have negatively affected quality of education in universities (Kiganda 2009; Ogot 2011). Olayo (2005), in a study

among selected universities in Kenya, found that inadequate availability of resources demotivated employees and did not enhance work performance. This is because possession of skills without adequate relevant tools of trade does not enhance efficiency. He further found out that employees were de-motivated by inadequate training opportunities for capacity building. Ndegwa (2007) also found out that public universities did not prioritize staff training. Capacity building in an organization is vital in enhancing efficiency. This is so because of the changing nature of technology and management styles.

Attempt was made to ascertain the level of staff involvement in decision making in the selected universities. Lecturers were asked to respond to a statement which read, "Staff are effectively involved in decision making". Responses are shown in table 4.5.4.

Table 4.33: Staff involvement in Decision Making

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	13	15.854	SD	4	8.889
D	39	47.561	D	19	42.222
A	24	29.268	A	17	37.778
SA	6	7.317	SA	5	11.111
Total	82	100.00	Total	45	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A = Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Responses in Table 4.33 show that 36.585% and 48.889% of lecturers from public and private universities respectively agreed with the statement that staff were effectively involved in decision making. It was interpreted that management of private universities and public universities did not adequately involve their staff in decision making. Effective involvement of staff in decision making leads to ownership of the management decisions and creates conducive environment for effective teaching and learning. Olayo (2005), found that low level of participation in decision making among staff in selected universities in Kenya reduced employee work performance with regard to efficiency and effectiveness. Thus, ineffective involvement of staff in decision making was interpreted to impact negatively on quality of services offered by the lecturers in both private and public universities.

Students were asked to respond to this statement, “Students are adequately involved in decision making at the university”. Responses are shown below.

Table 4.34: Students’ involvement in Decision Making in the University

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	138	40.828	SD	42	29.167
D	105	31.065	D	32	22.222
A	70	20.710	A	46	31.944
SA	25	7.396	SA	24	16.667
Total	338	99.999	Total	144	100.00

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.34 shows that 48.611% and 28.106% of students in private and public universities respectively felt that they were involved in decision making in the university. It should be noted that students' involvement in decision making was below average in both private and public universities and significantly different between private and public universities. It was inferred that students' involvement in decision making was better in private universities compared to public universities. This explained why there were more student riots in public universities compared to private universities. According to K'Okul (2010), the riots were attributed mainly to misunderstanding between the students and the university authority and poor management followed by inadequate learning facilities and ineffective guidance and counseling services. In a study by Maina (2009), it was found that colleges that keep students informed of the challenges that they faced in providing services and how they were handled gave students an opportunity to experience management in action and were better prepared for challenges.

The researcher sought to find out if there was satisfactory communication between university management and stakeholders. Lecturers were asked to respond to a statement which read, "There is a good channel of communication between management, staff, students and other stakeholders". Responses are shown in the table in table 4.35.

Table 4.35: Communication between Management and Stakeholders

Public Universities			Private Universities		
Response	F	%	Response	F	%
SD	8	9.756	SD	3	6.667
D	38	46.341	D	9	20.00
A	27	32.927	A	21	46.667
SA	9	10.976	SA	12	26.667
Total	82	100.00	Total	45	100.01

SD = Strongly Disagree D = Disagree A= Agree SA = Strongly Agree

F = Frequency % = Percentage

Table 4.35 shows that 43.903% and 73.334% of lecturers from public and private universities respectively reported existence of effective communication. It was interpreted that management of private universities communicate more effectively to its staff, students and other stakeholders compared to management of public universities. It was inferred that ineffective communication between management and stakeholders negatively affected effective teaching and learning in public universities. According to Standa (2007) quality management involves effective engagement with relevant stakeholders in order to gain their confidence. A study by Ndegwa (2007) found that policies and procedures regarding staff welfare in public universities such as training and promotion policy for staff were not clearly communicated and a hindrance to effective employee performance and implementation of future university plans. This impacted negatively on provision of quality of services which depend on adoption of management decisions by the stakeholders.

4.6.1: Test of Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis for objective five that the study sought to test was stated in null form as;

H_{05} : There is no significant difference between effectiveness of institutional management processes in Kenyan public and private universities.

The results on ISO certification, teamwork and motivation among staff, engagement of staff and students in decision making and communication between management and stakeholders obtained in this study from private and public university lecturers were subjected to a two sided chi-square test at 95% confidence interval. The result was as shown below:

Table 4.36: Institutional Management Processes

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	56.000 ^a	49	.029
Likelihood Ratio	33.271	49	.958
N of Valid Cases	8		

a. 64 cells (100.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .13.

Table 4.36 shows the results of the chi-square test. The p value = 0.029 hence the study rejects the null hypothesis. This implies that there is significant difference between effectiveness of institutional management processes in Kenyan public and private universities. It was concluded that private universities were more efficient in institutional management processes than public universities.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In the order of the five objectives in this study, the chapter presents the summary of findings, conclusions made in view of the findings and recommendations for further action to enhance compliance to quality assurances mechanisms in public and private universities.

5.2 Summary of Research Findings

The first objective was to find out the quality of enrolled students in Kenyan public and private universities. It was found that foreign (international) students enrolled in public universities were below 1% and about 10% in private universities. An average of 52.383% and 58.929% of enrolled students in public and private universities respectively came from the immediate local community. An average of 69.087% of students enrolled in public and private universities were pursuing courses of their preferences. Public universities did not conduct student entrance examinations while private universities conducted the examinations. It was found out that students admitted with grade B and above were 61.49% and 78.875% in private and public universities respectively. The quality of enrolled students in public and private universities was pulled down by inadequate student diversity, however, their quality was improved by high admission grades and pursuing courses of their preferences.

The second objective of the study was to establish effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes in Kenyan public and private universities. It was found that lecturers' perceived satisfaction level of curriculum delivery processes was 46.342% and 91.112% and

satisfaction level for fieldwork was 42.059% and 71.111% among public and private universities respectively. Guidance and counselling was 44.411% and 79.158% satisfactory among students in public and private universities respectively while 58.104% and 26.573% of students in public and private universities respectively indicated that students can miss attendance of classes for a month without being noticed. 59.756% and 35.556% of lecturers in public and private universities respectively indicated that the quality of invigilation and supervision of examinations was negatively affected by the number of admitted students while 65.854% and 71.111% of lecturers in public and private universities respectively indicated that tutorial classes were absent. It was also found that 91.3% and 8.7% of the engineering courses rejected by ERB came from public and private universities respectively.

The third objective of the study was to find out effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities. It was found that performance of lecturers in private and public universities was negative affected shortage of lecturers. 57.317% and 40.05 of lecturers in public and private universities reported that the number of admitted students in negatively affected the quality and quantity of research. The lecturers who indicated that transparent criteria existed for disbursement of research funds were 60.0% and 47.561% in private and public universities respectively while 64.445% and 52.439% of lecturers in private and public universities respectively reported that a well articulated research policy existed and known to all stakeholders.

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities. It was found that public universities experienced shortage of lecture rooms, laboratory equipment, quality computers, sporting

facilities and library resources such as print journals and internet facilities. Private universities on the other hand did not have shortage of these facilities

The fifth objective of the study was to establish effectiveness of institutional management processes in Kenyan public and private universities. It was found out that teaching and learning in public universities was negatively affected by low staff morale, lack of sufficient engagement of staff and students in decision making, inadequate communication between management and stakeholders, admissions of students beyond the capacity of physical facilities available in the institutions. Negative tribalism (ethnicity) and nepotism was found to hinder equal employment opportunities in private and public universities, particularly, the search for senior management. Private universities did not have teamwork among staff and did not satisfactorily engage students and staff in decision making.

5.3 Conclusions of the Study

The study concluded that there was no significant difference among private and public universities on presage variables which defined the entry behavior before students start learning. However, significant differences existed among private and public universities on process variables which related to what went on as students learnt. Differences on effectiveness of the quality assurance processes in private and public universities were therefore determined on the process variables. There were efficiency gaps in quality assurance processes that needed careful attention.

On the basis of the objectives and findings of this study, it was concluded that there is no significant difference between the quality of enrolled students in Kenyan public and

private universities. The implication is that private and public universities enroll students of expected quality.

With regard to objective two, it was concluded that there is significant difference between effectiveness of curriculum delivery processes in Kenyan public and private universities. The curriculum delivery processes were effective in private universities, but ineffective in public universities.

On effectiveness of faculty members in performing their research and teaching duties, it was concluded that there is no significant difference between the effectiveness of faculty members in performing their duties in Kenyan public and private universities. Effectiveness of faculty members was lowered by shortage of lecturing staff in both private and public universities. Effectiveness of lecturers in public universities was further lowered by large number of admitted students and unsatisfactory criteria for disbursement of research funds.

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the quality of physical learning facilities in Kenyan public and private universities. It was concluded that there was a significant difference between public and private universities in availability of teaching and learning facilities and that the quality of physical facilities in private universities was better than those in public universities. Thus, effectiveness of teaching and learning in public universities was hampered by lack of enough essential facilities.

The study concluded that there was significant difference between effectiveness of institutional management processes in Kenyan public and private universities. Private universities had more effective institutional management processes.

5.4 Recommendations

- i. There is need for the government to formulate policies regulating student admissions with the intention of improving the quality of enrolled students in universities. One such policy should be diversity and inclusiveness policy on thresholds to be met at the time of admission. As Kenya embraces devolved county governance, there is urgency for concrete efforts to instill the spirit of national cohesion through the education system. The national goals deserve an equal, if not higher preference than county goals on university education agenda.
- ii. Existing efficiency gaps in the curriculum delivery processes in public universities and private universities need attention. Areas for immediate attention include adequate stakeholder involvement in curriculum development and review processes, enhancing fieldwork and practical lessons, invigorating guidance and counseling services, tutorial classes and monitoring student class attendance.
- iii. To improve the effectiveness of performance of faculty members, the responsible individuals or agencies should employ more lecturers to match the number of enrolled students in accordance with CHE recommendation of student staff ratios. Other measures to include effectively communicating criteria for obtaining and disbursement of research funds.
- iv. To overcome shortage of physical facilities in public universities, student admissions should be based on available facilities. Secondly, the management

should plan and budget for gradual improvement of available facilities and purchase new state of the art facilities to enhance quality learning.

- v. Appropriate steps should be taken to boost staff motivation and commitment in public universities. The management should negotiate effective measures to improve working conditions of university staff. This negotiation should deliberately invite active involvement of the lectures and any decisions touching on the teaching, research and administrative work effectively communicated to relevant stakeholders.
- vi. In order to manage quality controls and checks in private and public universities, there is need for external agencies such as Commission for Higher Education to have supervisory role in both categories of universities. Currently only the private universities are supervised by the Commission for higher Education.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

- i. There is need for a study on the effectiveness of external quality assurance agencies in enforcing delivery of quality education in private and public universities in Kenya.
- ii. The level of relevance of university programmes to the needs of the industry and society should be established.
- iii. A study should be initiated to determine effectiveness of quality assurance mechanisms among the certificate, diploma and graduate programmes offered in private and public universities in Kenya.

REFERENCES

- Abagi, O (2006). Private Higher education in Kenya. *New Trends in Education: Growth and Expansion of Private Higher Education in Africa*. Paris. International Institute for Educational Planning 74 – 94.
- African Union (2006). *Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006 -2015) Draft Plan*, June 2006, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Ajayi, T (2006). *Private Higher education in Kenya. New Trends in Education: Growth and Expansion of Private Higher Education in Africa*. Paris. International Institute for Educational Planning 95 – 108.
- Alemu, D.S (2010). Expansion vs Quality: Emerging Issues of For-Profit Private Higher Education Institutions in Ethiopia. *International Review of Education* Vol 56, 51–61.
- Amunga, J.K, Amadalo, M.M & Musera, G (2011). *Disparities in Academic Achievement and Enrolment in Secondary Schools in Western Province: Implications for Strategy Renewal*. Research Paper presented at Educational Management Society of Kenya Conference held at University of Nairobi from 26th – 28th April, 2011.
- Aruasa, W.K (2009). *Implementation of ISO 9001:2008 Quality Management System at Moi Teaching and Referral Hospital*. A speech by the Quality Management Representative.
- Association of African Universities (2007). *The Quality Assurance Situation and Capacity Building Needs of Higher Education in Africa*. Accra. AAU.
- Association of African Universities (2009). *Capacity Building Workshop for National Quality Assurance/ Accreditation Agencies*. 15th – 17th April, 2009. Dodowa, Ghana.
- Baker, D.P and Wiseman, A.W. (Eds) (2006). *The Impact of Comparative Education Research on Institutional Theory*. International Perspectives on Education and Society Vol 7. Amsterdam. JAI Press.
- Biggs, J.B. (1993). From Theory to Practice: A Cognitive Systems Approach. *Higher Education Research and Development*. 12 (1), 73–85.
- Birungi, P (2006). Quality Assurance in East Africa: The State of the Art. *The Uganda Higher Education Review*. *Journal of the Council for Higher Education*. Vol3 No.2, 10-16.

- Breakwell, G. M., & Tytherleigh, M. Y. (2010). *University Leaders and University Performance in the UK: is it „who“ leads or „where“ they lead that matters most?* Higher Education Journal Vol 60 pp 491-506.
- Cace, C (2009). Quality Educational Services in University: Self Evaluation Using Quality Indicators. *Review of International Comparative Management. Vol 10, Issue 3*, 543-551.
- Chacha, N.C (2004). *Reforming Higher Education in Kenya: Challenges, Lessons and Opportunities*. A paper presented at the State University of New York workshop with the Parliamentary Committee on Education, Science and Technology, Naivasha, Kenya.
- Cheboi, B (2006, 6th November). *Funding Patterns and their Effects on Quality of Higher Education in Kenya*. Presented at Kenyatta University. Conference paper. Nairobi.
- Commission for Higher Education (2001, July). *Strategic Planning and Resources Management for Universities*. Vice Chancellors' Regional Workshop Nairobi, Kenya.
- Commission for Higher Education (2008). *Handbook on Processes for quality assurance in Higher Education in Kenya*. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Commission for Higher Education (2010 November 17). Press Release, by E.M Standa – CEO CHE. *Daily Nation*, p.22. Nairobi .Nation Media Group.
- CUC. (2006). *CUC Report on the monitoring of institutional performance and the use of key performance indicators (pp. 1–51)*. Sheffield: University of Sheffield.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*: London. Sage Publication Thousands Oaks.
- Daily Nation Friday October 21, 2011 p.37.
- Dick, G.P.M (2000). ISO Certification benefits, reality or myth? *The TQM Magazine* Vol 12 No 6, 365-371.
- Eshiwani, G (2009). University Expansion in Eastern Africa: Challenges and Options in Higher Education. *Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA). Newsletter* Vol. 39, 17-22.
- Fairchild, J.A (2002). *Instrument Reliability and Validity: Introductory Concepts and Measures*. James Madison University.

- Fox, C.K; Barr-Anderson, D; Neumark-Sztainer, D & Wall, M (2010). Physical Activity and Sports Team Participation: Associations with Academic Outcomes in Middle School and High School Students. *Journal of School Health*. Vol 80 Issue 1, 31-37.
- Gachiri, M.N (2003). The Teaching of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management Curriculum at University Level: A Study of Selected Public and Private Universities in Kenya. Unpublished MBA Thesis. Kenyatta University.
- Gannicott, K. & Throsby, D. (1996). Education Quality and Effective Schooling. *Education for the Twenty – first century: Issues and Prospects*, 215-230.
- Garner, R (February 2008). MPs investigate Catholic Influence on Schools. *The Independent*. www.independent.co.uk.
- Gibbs, G. (2010). *Dimensions of Quality*. Higher Education Academy. Heslington - UK. The Charlesworth Group.
- Gitahi, L; Odindo, J & Mathiu, M (2010). Varsity recruitment marred by ethnicity. *Daily Nation* 16th June, 2010 p.12.
- Gitahi, L; Odindo, J & Mathiu, M (2011). Varsity Learning Quality should be Safeguarded. *Daily Nation* 29th November, 2011 p.12.
- Goodall, A. H. (2009). *Socrates in the boardroom: Why research universities should be led by top researchers*. Princeton: Princeton U P. 11.
- Gonza'lez, C.R; Mesanza, R.B & Mariel, P (2010). The Determinants of International Student Mobility Flows: An Empirical Study on the Erasmus Programme. *Higher Education* Vol 10 N0 5, 1-18.
- Grimes, P.W. (2004). Dishonesty in academics and business: A cross-cultural evaluation of Student attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 49 No. 2, 273-90.
- Gunnlaugsdottir, J (2002). ISO Certification in Iceland. *Records Management Journal*. Vol 12 No 2, 40 -47.
- Gynnild, V (2007). Quality Assurance Reconsidered: A Case Study. *Quality in higher Education* Vol 13 Number 3. Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Hardling, T.S., Carpenter, D.D., Finellie, C.J. and Passow, H.J. (2004). Does academic dishonesty relate to unethical behavior in professional practice? An explanatory study. *Science and Engineering Ethics*, Vol. 10 No. 2, 311-326.
- Harvey, L (2009). 'Democratising quality' in *Trends in Quality Assurance: EUA Case Studies 2009*. Brussels. European Universities Association.

- Harris-Huemmert, S (2010). The Identification of Best Practice in International Quality Assurance. *Research in Comparative and International Education*. Volume 5 Number 1, 2010, 112 – 121.
- Israel, G.D (2009). *Determining Sample Size*. Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences, University of Florida.
- Jamah, A (2011). Streamlining training: Bogus Colleges to be shut down. *The Standard* 15th September, 2011 p. 21.
- Kabaji, E (2010). Major Challenges: We need to rethink strategies on university education. *Daily Nation* 24th June, 2010. p.13.
- Karami, A., Analoui, F., & Kakabadse, N. K. (2005). The CEOs' Characteristics and their Strategy Development in the UK SME Sector. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(4), 316–324.
- Keim, M (2008). Building Peace through Sport in Western Cape, South Africa. *Africa Peace and Conflict Journal*. Vol 1 No 1, 95-109.
- Khatete, I; Wanjala, G & Matanda D (2011). *Planning For Quality Secondary School Education in Kenya: Some Policy Considerations*. Seminar Paper Delivered At The Educational Management Society Of Kenya Held At University Of Nairobi From 26th-28th April, 2011.
- Kiamba, C (2004). Privately Sponsored Students and Other Income-Generating Activities at the University of Nairobi. *JHEA/RESA* Vol. 2, No. 2, 53-73
- Kiganda, C (2009). East African Universities Vice Chancellors Urged to shift Students Roles to Centre and make the Partners and Responsible Stakeholders. *Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA)*. Newsletter Vol. 39, 8-16.
- Kigotho, W (2011). Board Declines to approve engineering courses in Universities. *The Standard*. March 12, 2011 p 12.
- Kinuthia, J (2011). Shame of varsities which waste students' time, cash. *The Standard* October 27, 2011 p.17.
- Kinyajui, K (2007, July). *The Transformation of Higher Education in Kenya: Challenges and Opportunities*. Paper presented at the 'Mijadala on Social Policy, Governance and Development in Kenya' sponsored by Development Policy Management Forum at Nairobi Safari Club.
- KNEC, (2010). *KCSE results for the year 2009*. Nairobi: KNEC.

- Koech, S & Nyagesiba, B (2011). Unlicensed Colleges closed in Crackdown. *Daily Nation* January 4, 2011; p.33.
- K'Okul, F (2010). Perception of Students on the Status of Guidance and Counseling in Selected Universities in Kenya for Minimizing Student Riots. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Kenyatta University.
- Kombo, D. K. and Tromp, D. L. A. (2007). *Proposal and Thesis Writing-An Introduction*. Nairobi: Paulines Publications Africa.
- Kothari C.R (2008). *Quantitative Techniques: Third Edition*. New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House PVT Ltd.
- Kumba, S (2010). University Wrangles: Bishop moves to take control of KEMU. *The Standard* 27th February, 2010 p.10.
- Lawson, R.A. (2004). Is classroom cheating related to business students' propensity to cheat in the real world? *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 49 No. 2, 189-99.
- Lemaitre, M.J (2009). *Quality Assurance in a Changing World*. INQAAHE Conference. Abu Dhabi, March 2009.
- Lim, J. Y., & Cromartie, F. (2001). Transformational leadership, organizational culture and organizational effectiveness in sport organizations. *The Sport Journal*, 4(2), 111-169.
- Leming, J.S. (1980). Cheating behavior, subject variables, and components of the internal-external scale under high and low risk conditions. *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 74, 83-87.
- Magotha, G. A.O (2008 August 7). Speech delivered by the Vice Chancellor, University of Nairobi on the occasion of presentation of ISO 9001:2000 Certification in Taifa Hall.
- Maina, R.K (2009). Encouraging Youth Entrepreneurship: The Role of Institutional Environments and Learning Experiences. *International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management*. Vol 9, No 10, 107-118.
- Mange'li, K (2008 August 7). Speech delivered by the Director Kenya Bureau of Standards during the presentation of ISO 9001:2000 Certificate to the University of Nairobi at the University Taifa Hall.
- Mario, M; Fry, P; Levy, L & Chilundo, A (2003). *Higher Education in Mozambique: A Case Study*. Partnership for Higher Education in Africa. Oxford: James Curray.

- Martin, M (ed) (2007). *Cross-border Higher Education: regulation, quality assurance and impact*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning UNESCO.
- Marsh, H.W & Hattie, J (2002). Relationship Between Research Productivity and Teaching Effectiveness. *Journal of Higher Education* Vol 73 No 5, 603-641.
- Materu, P (2007). *Higher Education Quality Assurance in Sub-Saharan Africa: Status, Challenges, Opportunities and Promising Practices*. Washington D.C. World Bank.
- Materu, P & Righetti, P (2010). Quality Assurance in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Research in Comparative and International Education*. Volume 5 Number 1 2010, 4- 17.
- Mayunga H.H.N, Stefan, B & Christoph, H (2009). *Developing Internal Quality Assurance Mechanisms - Towards an East African quality assurance framework*. In the European Union Association. Trends in Quality assurance: A Selection of papers from the 3rd European Quality Assurance Forum. Brussels pp 39 – 44.
- Michaels, J.W. and Miethe, T.D. (1989). Applying theories of deviance to academic cheating. *Social Science Quarterly*, Vol. 70 No. 4, 870-885.
- Muindi, B (2009 June 18). Standoff over TSC move to bar P1 teachers from Degree courses. *The Standard*, p.11.
- Mugenda, O. M & Mugenda, A.G (2003). *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Nairobi: ACTS Press.
- Mugenda, A.G (2008). *Social Science Research: Theory and Principles*. Nairobi: Applied Research & Training Services.
- Mutisya, K (2010, December 22). How the wrong policies turned public universities into cacophonous markets. *Daily Nation*, p.13.
- Mwaura, P (2010a October 23). Christian Colleges use Discriminatory Criteria in admitting new students. *Daily Nation*, p.14.
- Mwaura, P (2010b November 20). Part – time tutors help to cross – fertilise ideas and upgrade education standards. *Daily Nation*, p.14.
- Nazir, M.S & Aslam, M.S (2010). Academic Dishonesty and Perceptions of Pakistani Students. *International Journal of Educational Management*. Vol 24 No 7, 655 - 668.
- Ndegwa, R.M (2007). A Comparative Study of Factors Influencing Equal Employment Opportunities Practices in Public Universities: A Case of Non-Teaching Staff in UON, KU and JKUAT. Unpublished MBA Thesis. Kenyatta University.

- Ndethiu, S.N (2007). *The Role of Kenyatta University in Promoting Good Reading Habits among Undergraduate Students*. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Kenyatta University.
- Ngara, E (1995). *The African University and its Mission: Strategies for Improving the Delivery of Higher Education Institution*. Roma: Institute of Southern African Studies.
- Ngare, P & Muindi, B (2008 August 25). Parallel Degree Programme Blamed for declining quality Education. *Daily Nation* p. 6.
- Ng'ong'ah, B.G (2002). *An Assessment of University English Language Teacher Education in the Light of Classroom Needs: A Case Study of Maseno University*. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Maseno University.
- Norburn, D., & Birley, S. (1988). The Top Management Team and Corporate Performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 9, 42–59.
- Nyongesa, B.M (2010 July 7). Training paper engineers will not take Kenya far. *Daily Nation*, p.13.
- Oanda, I.O; Chege, F & Wasonga, D (2008). *Privatization and Private Higher Education in Kenya: Implications for access, Equity and Knowledge Production*. CODESRIA. Dakar: Imprimerie Saint Paul.
- Ogot, B.A (2011). Poor Pay blamed for flight of varsity dons. *Daily Nation* Friday February 11, 2011, p11.
- Okatcha, F.M (1987, July). Are University External Examiners Necessary? An Examination of University Education in East Africa. Proceedings of the 2nd PWPA Eastern African Regional Conference held in Kampala, Uganda.
- Okwakol, M.J.N (2008). Challenges and Prospects for Quality Assurance in Science and Technology Education in African Countries. *The Uganda Higher Education Review. Journal of the National Council for Higher Education*, Vol 5 No.2, 17-26.
- Olayo, J.O (2005). *The Impact of Employee Empowerment on Work Performance: Case Study of Selected Universities in Kenya*. Unpublished MBA Thesis. Kenyatta University.
- Olel, M. A. (2006). *The Effect of Privately Sponsored Students Programme on Efficiency and Equity in Public Universities in Kenya and Uganda*. Unpublished PhD Thesis. Maseno University.
- Olukoju, A. (2002). *The Crisis of Research and Academic Publishing in Nigerian Universities: The Twentieth Century and Beyond*. A Paper for the 28th Annual

- Spring Symposium, "African Universities in the 21st Century", Dakar. CODESRIA.
- Orido, G (2010 June 10). Why do you say 'Yes', when the Church says 'No'? *The Standard*, June p.3.
- Pounder, J.S (1999). "New Leadership" and University Organisational effectiveness: Exploring the Relationship. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal* Vol 22 No 6, 281-290.
- Queensland University of Technology (QUT) (1994). *Leading for Quality in Higher Education*. Brisbane. QUT.
- Raffles University (2009 June 30). *Report of the External Examiner*; Revised 30 June 2009. <http://www.raffles-university.com>
- Rakovski, C.C. and Levy, S.E. (2007). Academic dishonesty: perception of business students. *College Student Journal*, Vol. 41 No. 2, p. 466.
- Republic of Kenya (1988). *Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond: Report of the Presidential Working Part.(Kamunge Report)*. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (1999). *Totally Integrated Quality Education and Training: Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Education System of Kenya (Koech Report)*. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2003). *Report of the Sector Review and Development; Ministry of Education Science and Technology*. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2004). *Statistical Abstract 2003*. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2005). *A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research: Meeting the Challenges of Education, Training and Research in Kenya in the 21st Century, Sessional paper No. 1 of 2005*, Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2006). *Transformation of Higher Education and Training in Kenya to Secure Kenya's Development in Knowledge Economy: Report of The Universities Inspection Board (Kinyanjui Report)*, Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2007). *Kenya Vision 2030: A Globally Competitive and Prosperous Kenya*. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2009). *Statistical Abstract 2009*. Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (2010). *Constitution of Kenya*. Nairobi: Government Printer.

- Salmi, J & Altbach, P.G (2011). Poor States should cut through the hype that surrounds World – Class universities. *Daily Nation* October 24, 2011 p13.
- Sambili, H (2000). Characteristics of Quantitative Research Methodology. *Egerton University Journal of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education Series* Vol. 3, No.1, 157-165.
- Samuelson, B. A., Galbraith, C.S., & McGuire, J. (1985). Organizational Performance and Top-Management Turnover. *Organization Studies. Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co. KG.* Vol 6 No 3, 275.
- Shiundu, A (2010 July 30). MPs fault parallel programmes for low quality and wide rich – poor gap. *Daily Nation*, p.13.
- Sifuna, D.N (1998). The Governance of Kenyan Public Universities. *Research in Post – Compulsory Education, Vol. 3, No. 2, 1998.*
- Sihanya, B (2008). How IMF Policies Constrict Policy Space in Kenya’s Education Sector. *The Impact of IMF Policies on Education, Health and Women’s Rights in Kenya: Resource Book.* Nairobi: Action Aid Kenya.
- Singels, J; Ruel, G & van de Water, H (2001). *ISO 9000 Series: Certification and Performance. International Journal of Quality and Reliability Management.* Vol 18 No 1, 62-75.
- Smith, K.J., Davy, J.A., Rosenberg, D.L. and Haight, G.T. (2002). A structural modeling investigation of the influence of demographic and attitudinal factors and in-class deterrents on cheating behaviors among accounting majors. *Journal of Accounting Education, Vol. 20 No. 1, 45-65.*
- Spendlove, M (2007). Competencies for Effective Leadership in Higher Education. *International Journal of Educational Management* Vol 21 No 5, 407-417.
- Staines, A (2000). Benefits of an ISO 9001 Certification – The Case of a Swiss Regional Hospital. *International Journal of Health Care Quality Assurance* Vol 13 No 1, 27-33.
- Standa, E (1989). *Measuring Progress and Achievement at University Level.* Edited by Otunga, R.N. Examinations at Moi University: Report on the Workshop in Kakamega, Kenya from 23rd to 26th November, 1989 p 61.
- Standa, E (2000). Report of Vice Chancellor’s Committee on the Causes of Disturbances/Riots in Public Universities.
- Standa, E (2007). Institutional Autonomy and Academic Freedom. *The Uganda Higher Education Review. Journal of Higher Council for Education.* Vol 4 No1, 17-20.

- Standa, E. M (2008). *Purpose and Process of Accreditation of Universities in Kenya*. Stakeholders Workshop on Enhancing Quality in Higher Education in Kenya. Held at Kenya College of Communication and Technology from 13th to 15th August 2008.
- State of California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (2009), www.ctc.ca.gov
- Sultan, P & Wong, H (2010). Performance-based service quality model: an empirical Study on Japanese Universities. *Quality Assurance in Education* Vol 18 No2, 2010, 126 – 143.
- Tam, M (2002). Measuring the Effect of Higher Education on University Students. *Quality Assurance in Education* Vol 10 No 4, 223-228.
- Taylor, M.J & Turek, G.M (2010). If Only She Would Play? The Impact of Sports Participation On Self Esteem, School Adjustment and Substance Abuse Among Rural and Urban African American Girls. *Journal of Sports Behaviour* Vol 33. No 3, 315-336.
- The Dearing Report-National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education. (1997).
Online:
http://www.hero.ac.uk/uk/inside_he/government_and_higher_education/major_education_reports4024.cfm.
- Thomas, E (2008). *Who Creates Great Graduates – School or University?* A Speech made by the Vice Chancellor Bristol University at a meeting of the Society of Headmasters and Headmistresses of Independent Schools. www.bristol.ac.uk
- Tittle, C.R. and Rowe, A.R. (1973). Moral appeal, sanction threat, and deviance: an experimental test. *Social Problems*, Vol. 20, 488-498.
- Tumwesigye, G (2006). Private Higher education in Uganda. *New Trends in Education: Growth and Expansion of Private Higher Education in Africa*. Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning 202 – 229.
- UNESCO (1995). *Policy paper for Change and Development in higher Education*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (1998). *Higher education than the 21st century: Vision and actions*. Final Report of the world conference on the higher education, Paris October 5-9, 1998.
- UNESCO (2007). *External Quality Assurance in Higher Education: Making Choices*. Paris. International Institute for Educational Planning.

- Virak, Y (2009). *Student Mobility in Southeast Asia: The Case of Cambodia*. A Paper Presented on 18 August 2009 at The Regional Seminar on Student Mobility in Southeast Asia.
- Wambua, R.M (2003). Validation of a Selection and Classification Model: A Case Study of the Faculty of Education. Unpublished Master of Education Thesis. Kenyatta University.
- Waituru, M (1999). Accelerated student Enrolments in Kenyan Public Universities: Implications for Quality Instruction. Unpublished Master of Education Thesis. Kenyatta University.
- Wasanga, P (2009). Students asked to support war against exam cheating. *KNEC Bulletin*: March – June 2009 p 26.
- Wasike, N.M (2010). Education for Nationhood: Re-thinking the 2007 Post-Election Violence in Kenya. *Egerton Journal of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education*. Vol IX, 1-14.
- Weese, W. J. (1996). Do leadership and organizational culture really matter? *Journal of Sport Management*, 10(2), 197-206.
- Wekesa, G (2011). No Deal Yet over Varsity, course accreditation. *The Standard*, November 9, 2011 p 31.
- Wenger, M. L & Frey, J. S (2009). *Basic Principles and Procedures of Credential Evaluation*. Educational Credential Evaluators, Inc. USA.
- Were, N (2003). *Discipline: Guidance and Counseling in Secondary Schools*. Nairobi: Strong Wall Africa Press.
- World Bank (2000). *Higher Education in Developing Countries: Peril and Promise*. Washington D.C: World Bank.
- Yurtseven, G & Halici, A (2012). Importance of the Motivational Factors Affecting Employees Satisfaction. *International Business Research* Vol. 5, No. 1, 72 – 79.