FACTORS THAT AFFECT QUALITY OF TEACHING STAFF IN UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

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Factors That Affect Quality of Teaching Staff in Universities in Kenya

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

Signature …… Date ……

Joseph Obwogi

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University supervisors.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Tabitha, my children, Joe, Peter and Sheila for their moral support and prayers throughout the study.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CHE	Commission for Higher Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HE	Higher Education
HEQC	Higher Education Quality Council
HRM	Human Resource Management
HRD	Human Resource Development
IUCEA	Inter-University Council of East Africa
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
MOEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
QA	Quality Assurance
QAA	Quality Assurance Agency
QI	Quality Improvement
QMS	Quality Management System
TQM	Total Quality Management
UNICEF	United Nations Children Education Fund
USIU	Unites States International University
USLS	University Student Loan Scheme

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms will be used frequently throughout the thesis.

Quality

According to Newton (2000), Quality refers to an acquired trait; accomplishment; acquisition a superior birth or station; high rank; elevated character or that which makes, or helps to make, anything such as it is; anything belonging to a subject, or predicable of it; distinguishing property, characteristic, or attribute; peculiar power, capacity, or virtue; distinctive trait; as, the tones of a flute differ from those of a violin in quality; the great quality of a statesman.

Total Quality Management

Total Quality Management (TQM) is a comprehensive and structured approach to organizational management that seeks to improve the quality of products and services through ongoing refinements in response to continuous feedback (Billing, 2004).

Quality Assurance

Quality assurance refers to all actions taken to ensure that standards and procedures are adhered to and that delivered products or services meet performance requirements. It is the planned systematic activities necessary to ensure that a

component, module, or system conforms to established technical requirements (Arcaro, 1995).

Academic Quality

Academic quality is a description of how well the learning opportunities available to students help them achieve their award. It is ensuring that appropriate and effective teaching, research, support, assessment and learning opportunities are provided (Billing, 2000).

University

The term “University ” means an educational institution in any state that admits as regular students only persons having a certificate of graduation from a school providing secondary education, or the recognized equivalent of such a certificate; is legally authorized within such State to provide a program of education beyond secondary education; Provides an educational program for which the institution awards a bachelor’s degree , post graduate degree or provides not less than a 2-year program that is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree(Bradley,2000).

ABSTRACT

Quality in higher education has been important for decades. In Kenya, quality in universities was embraced some years back by facilitating the vigorous vetting of programmes; matching the programmes with the existing capacity and competent sourcing of human resources to run the programmes.

The study sought to determine the factors affecting quality of teaching staff in universities. Descriptive design was adopted with eight universities/university colleges considered for the sample. Stratified random sampling was used and a total of 120 questionnaires were administered. Out of these, 102 questionnaires were returned. Analysis was done and a number of tests done using varied statistical tools.

Research findings indicate that human resource management (HRM) practices at universities remains the biggest challenge to quality. Some of the HRM activities like feedback on performance and recommendation for training/couching are poor. The applicability of HRM tools in driving university activities such as use of performance based management, reward and motivation is minimal.

The findings also indicated a mismatch between resource allocation by the Government and growth in student population. The staff capacity constraints in both the established universities and the constituent colleges continue to be felt. Teaching

facilities are getting overstretched thus reducing quality as found in this research. Also, contribution of university staff to society in terms of research and technology transfer is also demeaning. The university teaching staffs are not adequately facilitated in research and publications.

The need to address human resource management (HRM) gaps as well encourage continuous professional development of the teaching staff is therefore urgent. Universities need to set aside proportional amount of funds for staff development, so as to encourage staff to continuously undertake research and publications. A review of remuneration and work environment will also discourage brain drain and motivate teaching staff.

Of importance also is embracing e-leaning as a model for knowledge dissemination at universities. E-content development is a clear driver that will facilitate greater outreach for university education in Kenya, and attend to the long-term human resource gaps that cannot be adequately addressed with the growth in demand for higher education in Kenya.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Recognition of quality in achieving customer satisfaction and competing in the global marketplace began in the late 1980s and into the 1990s. Quality refers to “fitness for purpose” meeting or conforming to generally accepted standards as defined by quality assurance bodies and appropriate academic and professional communities. In the diverse arena of higher education, fitness for purpose varies tremendously by field and program (Hayward, 2006).

Quality management systems (QMS) in higher education (HE) have been developed for a number of years to improve professional standards. The higher education is looking for a management concept that would direct the collective efforts of all managers and employers towards satisfying customer expectations by continually improving activities (Ajayi, et al, 1996).

Quality assurance is a planned and systematic review process of an institution or program to determine whether or not acceptable standards of education, scholarship, and infrastructure are being met, maintained and enhanced. A broad range of factors affect quality in tertiary institutions including their vision and goals, the talent and expertise of

the teaching staff, the quality of the library and laboratories, access to the Internet, governance, leadership, relevance, value added, and a host of others. A tertiary institution is only as good as the quality of its teaching staff; they are the heart of the institution producing its graduates, its research products, and its service to the institution, community, and nation (Hayward, 2006).

While researchers are not always so pessimistic, it has been very difficult to find a common definition of quality teaching that all agree on. However a number of traits have been fronted that flow well across many national lines on quality teaching. These traits of quality teachers include: A capacity to respond appropriately to students, individually and collectively, and to the context, through their teaching practice; a refusal to let anything get in the way of their own or their students' learning, and what they perceive as needing to be addressed. A capacity to engender a high level of respect and even affection from their students and colleagues, a by-product of their hard work and professionalism; a great capacity for engagement in professional learning through self-initiated involvement in various combinations of professional development activities, some provided by the employing authority while others are sought out by the individual and a great capacity to contribute to the professional learning of others, and a willingness to do so (Akiba & LeTendre, 2009).

For a country's adaptability and economic and social development, indeed its standing in the international competition for power and influence is important. Many countries are

currently undertaking an overhaul and revamping of their university system – often at considerable cost and at a daunting scale. The quality of higher education will determine the scientific discovery, innovation and exploration of the future. While the competition among institutions of higher learning remains a powerful driver of innovation and change within individual countries or among some select countries, this competition now occurs increasingly and quite publicly at the global scale, as a consequence of the increased globalization of academic concerns (Hayward, 2006).

The adoption of outcomes based education in a number of countries such as Australia, New Zealand, the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom and South Africa has been a steering mechanism in the higher education sector for curriculum reform to reflect student competence in disciplinary content, thinking and critical skills. Associated with this move has been the demand by Governments, employers and the public for greater accountability from higher education institutions (Hayward, 2006).

In Africa, during the period immediately following independence, most ministries and departments of education gained legal authority and oversight over higher education, though the level of authority varied widely from one country to another. Some Governments established highly centralized authority over higher education (as in Cameroon, Nigeria, and Madagascar) while others provided for high levels of autonomy for public and/or private education by law (Hayward, 2006).

National Governments had their own interests and priorities which were not always in accord with those of the universities. They included increased access, expectations of university contributions to the development of the nation, and in some cases, the desire to control political dissent which was often seen as originating from universities (Hayward, 2006).

The rapid growth in student enrollments at most higher education institutions in Africa during the 1980s and 1990s posed additional problems. Higher education enrollments in Ghana, for example, grew from 11,857 in 1991/92 to 63,576 in 2003/2004 an increase of over 400%. Nigeria too saw a tremendous expansion in the number of universities from six in 1970 to 55 universities in 2003 with an estimated student enrollment of 700,000. While the enrollment in Nigeria represented only about 8% of the university age population, that growth had profound negative effects on the quality of teaching and training of university students (Hayward, 2006).

Yet, in spite of the increases in student numbers over the last several decades, Africa remains far behind the rest of the world in terms of access and enrollments with an average gross enrollment rate of only 5% in 2002/2003. That added to public and Government pressure to increase access. While the annual enrollment growth rate was increasing, the average public expenditures per student in higher education fell tremendously during this period with detrimental effects on quality (Hayward, 2006).

The Government of Kenya introduced free primary education immediately after the December 2002 elections. The elimination of school fees, an obstacle to education for impoverished families in many African Countries, has, at a stroke, put the Country "on track" to reach the high enrolment and low parity objectives, at least in primary education. In 2004 the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) estimated that the Country's total primary school enrolment was nearly 7.4 million, compared to less than 6 million in the Millennium year of 2000. Equally impressive has been Kenya's success in reducing dropout rates from 4.9 per cent in 1999 to just 2 per cent in 2003, despite the difficulties that followed the introduction of free education (MOEST, 2006).

In Kenya, the need to regulate, coordinate and assure quality in higher education was felt as a result of the rapid growth and expansion experienced in the sub sector prior to the establishment of the Commission for Higher Education in 1985. At independence in 1963, Kenya had an enrolment of 30,000 pupils in the 151 secondary schools at the time. This Figure shot up to 600,000 pupils enrolled in 3,000 secondary schools which had been established by 1991. Yet during most of this period, there was only one University College in Kenya, the Nairobi University College, which between 1963 and 1970 had an enrolment of about 1,000 students (Chacha, 2004).

Higher education in Kenya can be traced back to 1922 when the then Makerere College in Uganda was established as a small technical college which was then expanded to meet the needs of the three East African countries i.e. Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika and

Zanzibar, as well as Zambia and Malawi. In the 1940s and early 50s it is only this college that was providing university education in East Africa. This lasted until 1956 when the Royal Technical College was established in Nairobi (Chacha, 2004).

In 1963, the Royal Technical College became the University College, Nairobi, following the establishment of the University of East Africa with three constituent colleges in Nairobi, Dares Salaam and Kampala (Makerere). The University of East Africa offered programmes and degrees of the University of London till 1966. In 1970, the University of East Africa was dissolved to create three autonomous universities of Nairobi, Dares Salaam and Makerere. The University of Nairobi was thus established as the first university in Kenya (Chacha, 2004).

On becoming a fully-fledged university in 1970, the University of Nairobi gradually increased its enrolment to 8,900 in 1984.The increased enrolment was partially achieved through the additional places offered at its two constituent colleges, Kenyatta University College and Egerton University College. The pressure on the Government to increase enrolment at the University was such that it became necessary to establish more universities.

Throughout the 1970s the Government strengthened and expanded the University of Nairobi, the only one then, as a conscious effort to provide university education to all qualified Kenyans and as a move to develop the necessary human resource for the private

and public sectors. As years went by, the number of Kenyans seeking university education exceeded the capacity of the University of Nairobi. This led to the establishment of Moi University in 1984 as the second university in Kenya following the recommendations of the Presidential Working Commission – the Mackay Report – which collected views from many people and found an overwhelming support by Kenyans for the establishment of a second and technologically oriented university in the country (Chacha, 2004).

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From then, university education in Kenya has expanded with a rise in student enrolments, expansion of universities, diversity of programmes and setting up of new universities and campuses. Kenyatta University which had operated as a constituent college of the University of Nairobi since 1972 became a full-fledged university in 1985. A previous agricultural college also gave way to Egerton University in 1988(Chacha, 2004).

Enrolment in the four public universities increased steadily to about 20,000 students by 1989/90. University enrolment skyrocketed with the 1990 intake of 21,450 students which increased the total enrolment to 41,000 students. It was by now, evident that the Government was no longer able to cope with the ever increasing demand for more University places or even to provide the adequate resources required (Chacha, 2004).

The thirst for university education and opportunities in the sub sector were not lost to the private sector. It is therefore not surprising that, between 1970 and 1984, ten (10)

privately funded institutions offering University level education, mainly Theological based, were established. These institutions however, offered limited enrolment and few programmes. By the year 1994/95, private university institutions had increased to twelve (12) with an enrolment of slightly more than 4,000 students, which was but a drop in the ocean of the high demand for university places. Due to this, Kenyans increasingly turned to foreign universities for university education. The number of Kenyan students in universities abroad has continued to grow every year (MOEST, 2006).

It was against this background that the Commission for Higher Education was established in 1985 through an Act of Parliament, "The Universities Act Cap 210B", to regulate growth and ensure quality in higher education in Kenya. The establishment of other public Universities, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) 1994; Maseno University 2000 and the Masinde Muliro University 2002 were a further attempt to address the problem of the high demand in University education (Chacha, 2004).

In the meantime the number of private university institutions also increased to 17 with an enrolment of nearly 9,000 students. By 2002, there were six private universities which were fully chartered, by the Commission, five granted letters of Interim Authority and six, registered by the Commission. In addition, public universities had introduced part time (module II) degree programmes, which target both the public and private sector employees and school leavers. Consequently, enrolment in the entire University sector

rose from 59,193 in 2000/2001 to 91,541 in 2004/2005. The number grew to 112,500 in 2006. It is estimated that the country has 122,874 university students of which approximately 80 percent are in public universities (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2009).

With the increase in demand for higher education in Kenya by both the locals and foreign students, the Government of Kenya, through the Kenya gazette, also converted some middle level colleges into constituent university colleges in the years 2007 to 2010. These include: Kenya Polytechnic University, Mombasa Polytechnic University, Pwani University College, Narok University College, Kenya Science University College, Kisii University College, Kimathi University College, Multi Media University College, Meru University College of Science and Technology, Chuka University College, Laikipia University College, South Eastern University College, Kabianga University College Bondo University College, Chepkoilel University College and Karatina University College.

Kenya also has a number of public middle level colleges that offer diplomas in certain fields including engineering, education, and computer science. A number of these institutions were among those recently elevated to university college status. Notwithstanding the expansion in the past several years, the capacity of the higher education sector in Kenya is still limited and only three percent of the university aged cohort are enrolled in university education. In 2007, for example, of the 82,000 students

who officially qualified for university admission on the basis of their KCSE results (out of the 276,000 students who took the examination), only 10,000 were selected for Government sponsorship, 10,000 entered university on a self-paying basis and 5,000 entered the private sector, leaving 57,000 qualified students unable to enter higher education.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Universities exist to fulfill certain mandates. These mandates include: training, research and innovation, technology transfer, maximizing the stakeholders' interest, social responsibility, ethics, and market leadership. However, the achievement of this mandate has not been easier due to increased demand for university education in Kenya while the resources are still minimal. The Government, as the chief financier of university education in Kenya, has reduced its contribution to universities over the years, while at the same time pushing the same institutions to admit more students. This has led to universities resorting to other income generating activities to subsidize Government sources, thus overstretching the internal resources that in turn affect quality (Chacha, 2004).

The Kenyan Government has established systems of external quality assurance (QA) to enable Government to gain greater control over higher education institutions in an international policy context which now sees higher education as critical for national

competitiveness. This has been done through the Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology (MOHEST) and the Commission for Higher Education, that was established by the Universities Act, Cap 201B 1985. While the Government has been willing to accommodate the higher education sector's wish for more focus on quality improvement (QI) through broader evaluation of university effectiveness within the systems of external quality assurance (QA), there is a gap as the quality policies and quality indicators used by universities in Kenya, across the region and across the globe are not standard (Bradley, 2005).

Most institutions have developed quality assurance units whose core responsibilities include maintaining the quality and standards of the universities that are commensurate with other international universities. The development of these offices has been re-emphasized by the Commission for Higher Education (CHE), the inter-university council of East Africa (IUCEA) and other regional and international quality assurance bodies so as to ensure academic quality among the teaching staff in the member universities. The effectiveness of these bodies in ensuring that the right staff are teaching at various levels at universities needs to be established. This research sought to ascertain the driving factors of quality of the teaching staff at universities in Kenya.

Notable also, issues of educational quality, rather than mass production, need to move to the forefront of the educational agenda of policy makers at this level of education in Kenya. Considering this huge public and private investment in university education, there

is an urgent need to evaluate the effectiveness of this investment by examining the quality of the educational infrastructure, the cadre of qualified tutors and teaching facilities in place, and the quality of teaching and learning. This is necessary in order to determine how universities in Kenya translate the resources at their disposal into learning outcomes (Unesco, 2003). The study sought to establish the factors affecting quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.

1.3 Objectives

1.3.1 General objective

The general objective of this study was to establish the factors that affect quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of this study include:

1. To establish the contribution of Government and Government agencies in promoting quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.
2. To establish the effect of human resource management (HRM) practices on quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.
3. To examine the effect of continuing professional development on quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.

4. To examine the effect of teaching facilities on quality of teaching staff universities in Kenya.
5. To establish the challenges in maintaining quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.

1.4 Hypothesis

H1: The Government contributes to quality of teaching staff at universities In Kenya

H2: Effective human resource management (HRM) practices at universities Contribute to good quality of teaching staff

H3: Effective continuing professional development practices contribute to high Quality of teaching staff

H4: Quality of delivery of teaching staff is dependent on teaching facilities

H5: There exist a number of other challenges to quality of teaching staff At Universities in Kenya

1.5 Significance of the Study

1.5.1 Universities

The study sought to determine the driving force behind quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya. The study therefore, provides opportunities for managers to identify and lay emphasis on these key drivers to quality.

1.5.2 Stakeholders

The study sought to provide information to the stakeholders on teaching quality sustainability at universities that will facilitate development of the higher education sector in Kenya as well as identify best practices for enhancing customer satisfaction.

1.5.3 Academicians and Researchers

The study has discovered other research areas for consideration by other researchers that will contribute to existing knowledge on teacher quality at universities. one of this is on the relationship between staff development and brain drain at universities in Kenya that has developed to negatively affect higher educational goals.

1.6 Scope

This study was conducted at sampled universities in Kenya, both private and public that were in operation during the years 2009 to 2010. Respondents were the teaching staff at these Universities.

1.7 Limitations

This study had a number of limitations including failure of some teaching staff especially in the private universities to respond to a number of items in the questionnaire, while others never responded at all. There were also low response rates from the higher cadre of staff in the level of professor. In private universities, the major limitation was the low established levels of fulltime teaching staff and limited respondents at higher levels (professor level). Another limitation was delayed response to the questionnaires by some staff while others lost them in the process, making me to frequently provide additional copies. By using the sampling frame that had higher composition of respondents from the public as opposed to private universities, the challenges of low levels of establishment at private universities were addressed. Also, this sampling method was scientifically considered adequate in measuring similar items conceptually, from a large set of correlated variables from the other universities (Norusis, 1990).

1.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, there are seven subsections namely: background, statement of the problem, research objectives, and research questions, significance of the study, scope and limitation of the study. The next chapter shall represent a review of the literature related

to the problem of the study by expounding more on the key issues directly related to the research objectives and includes the Government regulations on quality assurance through the Government agencies, the effects of quality assurance on teaching and learning, the quality assurance indicators at Universities, and the challenges of quality assurance at Universities**.**

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The definition of quality teaching depends on the meaning one chooses to give to the concept of quality. Quality is indeed a multi-layered and complex word. As Biggs (2001) points out, "quality" can alternatively define an outcome, a property, or a process. Therefore it is hardly surprising that the phrase "Quality Teaching" has been given several definitions.

Harvey and Green (1993) distinguish four definitions of quality that can help us to understand what Quality Teaching might be. First, quality as "excellence"- the traditional conception of quality- is the dominant one in many old elite higher education institutions. Second, quality can be defined as "value for money"- a quality institution in this view is one that satisfies the demands of public accountability. Third, quality may be seen as "fitness for purpose"- the purpose being that of the institution, for instance getting students to learn sciences efficiently. The last definition listed by Harvey & Green is that of quality as "transforming". According to this definition, Quality Teaching is teaching that transforms students' perceptions and the way they go about applying their knowledge to real world problems (Harvey & Green 1993).

As also noticed by Harvey et al. (1992), there are many ways to define quality in higher education because definitions of quality are "stakeholder relative". Stakeholders here

includes students, employers, teaching and non-teaching staff, government and funding agencies, creditors, auditors, assessors, and the community at large.

Quality assurance is a planned and systematic review process of an institution or program to determine whether or not acceptable standards of education, scholarship, and infrastructure are being met, maintained and enhanced. A broad range of factors affect quality in tertiary institutions including their vision and goals, the talent and expertise of the teaching staff, the quality of the library and laboratories, access to the Internet, governance, leadership, relevance, value added, and a host of others. A tertiary institution is only as good as the quality of its teaching staff; they are the heart of the institution producing its graduates, its research products, and its service to the institution, community, and nation (Hayward, 2006).

Quality Teaching has become an issue of importance as the landscape of higher education has been facing continuous changes. The student body has considerably expanded and diversified, both socially and geographically. New students call for new teaching methods. Modern technologies have entered the classroom, thus modifying the nature of the interactions between students and professors. The governments, the students and their families, the employers, the funds providers increasingly demand value for their money and desire more efficiency through teaching (Fabrice &Soleine, 2008).

Teaching quality lacks of clear definitions and to some extent can't be disconnected from debates on Quality or Quality culture in higher education that remain controversial terms.

Some scholars regard quality primarily as an outcome, others as a property. Some consider teaching as the never ending process of reduction of defects and so Quality Teaching can never be totally grasped and appraised. In fact, conceptions of teaching quality happen to be stakeholder relative: Students, teachers or evaluation agencies do not share the definition of what “good” teaching or “good” teachers is (Fabrice &Soleine, 2008).

The literature stresses that “good teachers” have empathy for students, they are generally experienced teachers and most of all they are organized and expressive. “Excellent teachers” are those who have passions: Passions for learning, for their field, for teaching and for their students. But research also demonstrates that “good teaching” depends on what is being taught and on other situational factors. Research points out that Quality Teaching is necessarily student-centred; its aim is most and for all student learning. Thus, attention should be given not simply to the teacher’s pedagogical skills, but also to the learning environment that must address the students’ personal needs: Students should know why they are working, should be able to relate to other students and to receive help if needed (Fabrice &Soleine, 2008).

Adequate support to staff and students (financial support, social and academic support, support to minority students, counseling services, etc) also improves learning outcomes. Learning communities, groups of students and/or teachers who learn collaboratively and build knowledge through intellectual interaction, are judged to enhance student learning by increasing students’ and teachers’ satisfaction (Fabrice &Soleine, 2008).

Improving teacher quality has become the educational mantra of the international community since the turn of the millennium. As Akiba and LeTendre (2009) outlined, educational policymakers around the world have paid attention to teacher quality as a major vehicle to improve student learning. Attracting competent candidates for the teaching profession, retaining highly-qualified teachers by providing support and incentives, and ensuring students' access to high quality teaching have been major focus of educational reforms in many countries. Teacher quality is seen as the crucial driving force for improving student achievement thus promoting a nation's economic competitiveness in this global society (Akiba & LeTendre, 2009).

Being quality minded in higher education means caring about the expectations of students and other customers as well as all involved parties, and ensuring they are met. Students' perceptions thus provide important information for lecturers if learners' needs are to be fulfilled. An assessment of the quality of teaching programmes and staff comes at a time when the concern for quality in higher education is probably at an all-time high. All processes in any organization (University) contribute directly or indirectly to quality as the customer (student) defines it. This will determine whether students' needs have been met (Arcaro, 1995).

Quality assurance in higher education helps in improving professional standards by comparing them with international educational qualifications. Several attempts have been

made to develop quality certifications in this field such as the method ISO 9000 and others that derive from the manufacturing industry (Dolinsek &Rupnik, 1999).

Institutions of higher education are critical catalysts for a country's adaptability and economic and social development, indeed its standing in the international competition for power and influence. Many countries are currently undertaking an overhaul and revamping of their university system – often at considerable cost and at a daunting scale. The quality of higher education will determine the scientific discovery, innovation and exploration of the future. While the competition among institutions of higher learning remains a powerful driver of innovation and change within individual countries or among some select countries, this competition now occurs increasingly and quite publicly at the global scale, as a consequence of the increased globalization of academic concerns.

Universities are highly regarded as key vehicles for the pursuit of all of the national and continental development aspirations intrinsic to political, economic, and intellectual decolonization. In terms of the 'core business', this means the production of both knowledge and people equipped with the intellectual capacities needed to pursue national and regional advancement (Ajayi, et al , 1996).

Recognizing their importance, and responding to pressure from Governments and employers, universities have started to change teaching and learning practice to take account of the concept of graduateness, implied in the set of skills and attributes. For

example, it is recognized that in order to achieve this, it is necessary to move from a teacher-centred approach to a learner-centred approach which emphasizes the education experience of students and allows them to take their place in the emerging knowledge society (Huba & Freed, 2000).

2.2 Theoretical Review

2.2.1 Models for Quality and Quality Assurance at Universities

A number of different quality models exist. A quality evaluation models developed by the Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) and the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) for Higher Education in the UK (1996) are very relevant for programme review, research projects and community services, that is applicable for the teaching resources at universities (Vroeijenstijn, 2001).

Specific adaptations to this model would be necessary within the Kenyan university context, incorporating the vision, mission, goals and objectives and expected outcomes of the institution. The adapted model takes cognizance of the factors affecting quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya. The model takes account of the inputs in terms of resources required; the processes in terms of what the inputs have to go though and outputs in terms graduates, scientific production (innovations) and service impact to the community. These interactions are as presented in Figure 2.1.

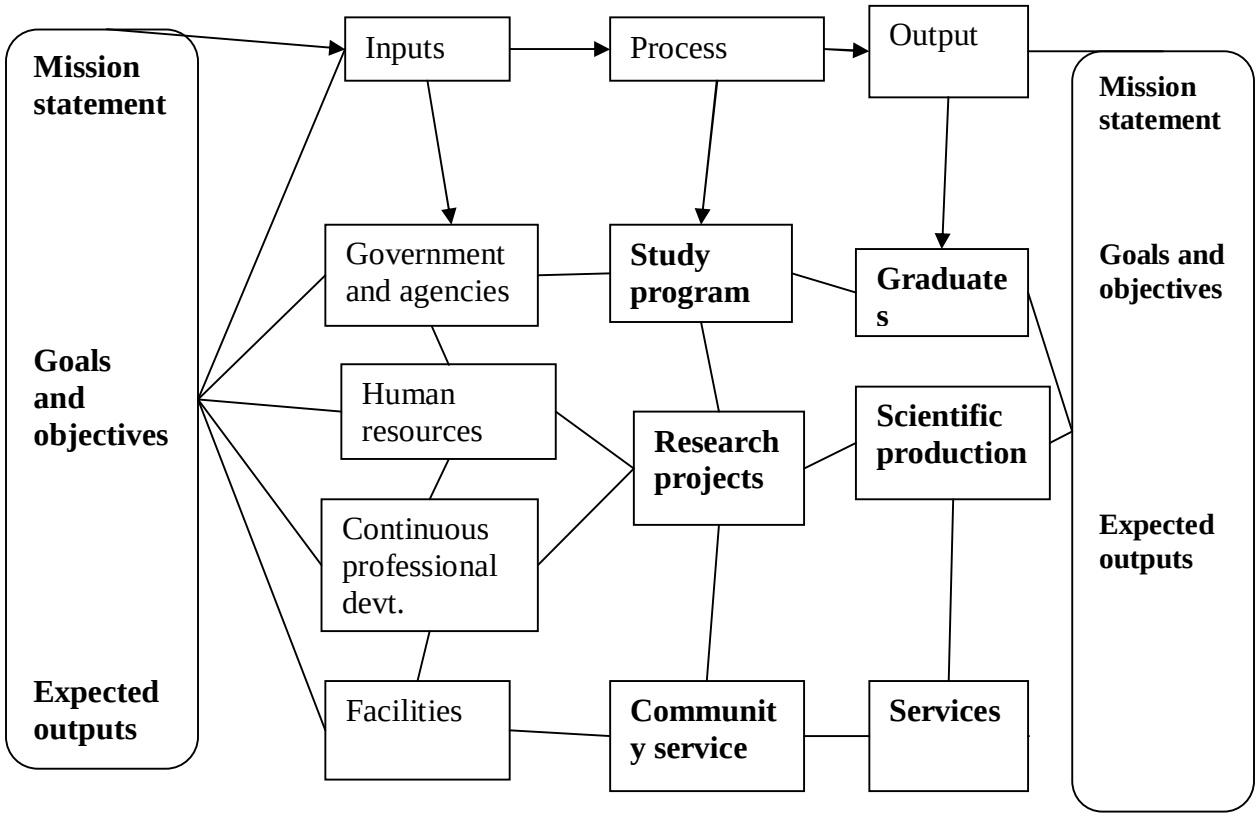

Figure 2.1 Quality Model
Source: Vroeijenstijn, 2001

The other model looks at the linkages between the inputs and outputs in achieving university goals and objectives. Inputs considered in this case includes the students, staff, teaching facilities and the internal quality assurance mechanisms while the outputs include the achieved standards, pass rate/drop- out rates, graduation and cost of running the programme per student (Figure 2.2) . For the university goals and objectives to be achieved therefore, inputs must be processed into desired outputs.

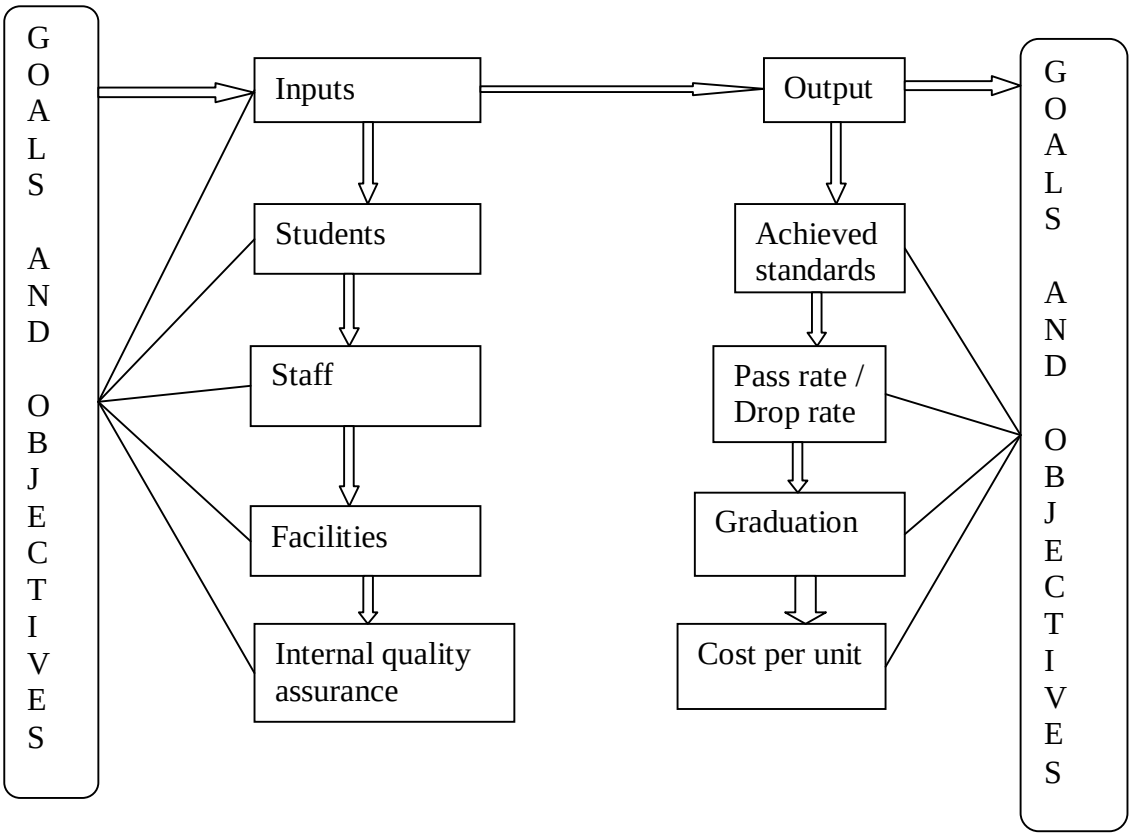

Figure 2.2 Educational Activities Model
Source: Vroeijenstijn, 2001

The attributes of the two models have been adapted to suit the Kenyan universities context and aligned to the research objectives to develop the conceptual framework that is used in this study.

2.2.2 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study is based on five independent variables namely: The Government and commission of higher education; HRM as a tool for quality; Staff

continuous professional development; effect of teaching facilities on quality of human capital and the challenges encountered on maintaining quality human capital at universities. The influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

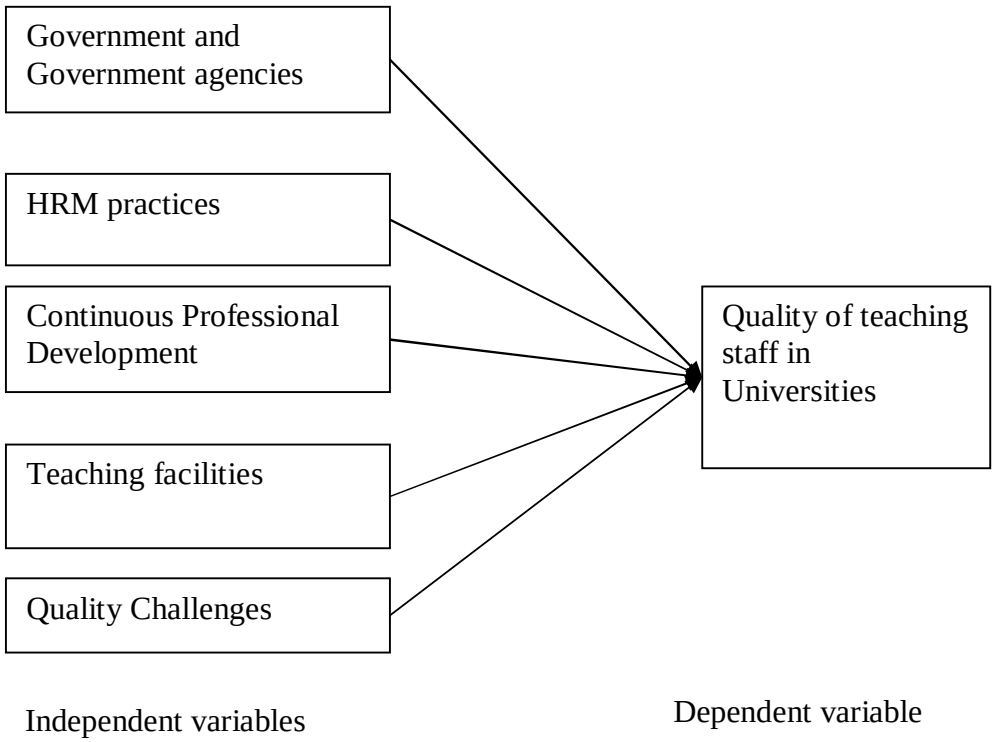

Figure 2.3 Conceptual framework

2.3 Government and Government Agencies Contribution to Quality

2.3.1 Government Contribution

Over the last two decades there has been a great increases in Government participation in higher education with a move away from a system for the socially and economically privileged; a decrease in per capita funding in many Anglophone Countries; a shift towards user pays; the incorporation into the concept of the modern university of a much broader mission; and significant increases in the numbers of students taught by each member of academic staff. Enrolment of fee paying students from other Countries has become a major source of income for institutions, regions and indeed whole Countries. More recently, the critical role of Universities in underpinning the innovation system as they generate new knowledge has begun to be recognized (Bradley, 2005). Paradoxically as the percentage of the institution's income deriving from national or state Governments has declined, the perceived importance to Governments of higher education as an activity has grown and the desire to gain greater control over it has grown also.

The 'quality' literature (Billing, 2004; Gordon, 2002; El-Khawas, 2001) rarely challenges the reasons which Governments have used to justify national quality regimes. It largely centres on implementation issues- the best way to establish and maintain such regimes. It is not often that the stated purposes themselves are challenged in the manner of Vidovich

(2001)'s trenchant analysis of the Australian discourse. In some of the more recent literature in the field, when the writer is critical (Harvey 2002, Biggs 2001, Newton, 2001), the major question is whether the regime leads to better outcomes- in particular better student learning.

Vidovich(2001), demonstrates how the various definitions of quality- standards, assurance, improvement, have been used to advance Government control of Universities. Discussions and contemporary debates within the higher education sector in Australia would support Vidovich's contention that greater control of the higher education sector was a major reason for the use of the quality discourse by Government, an interpretation held elsewhere, as Newton's work (1999) in a Higher Education College in the UK suggests. There the academics had no doubt that the external quality assurance (QA) initiatives with which they were working were led by accountability rather than improvement concerns. Harvey concludes that External quality monitoring is primarily to ensure accountability and conformity (Harvey, 2002).

With such high international comparison of higher education systems, Kenyan Universities cannot be left behind in the process of becoming part of the other universities that value quality. Quality assurance of higher education institutions, their pedagogical, research and other activities, represent the priority of strategic issues, such as the current emphasis by the inter-university council of East Africa, and the global perspective that has opened all Universities to scrutiny. In particular, clear guidelines are

provided on the level of competences and skills required to handle specific groups of students in the teaching and learning process.

In Kenya, most universities have established quality assurance systems, as a regular self-evaluation activity inside the higher education institutions and formal commissions.
The Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology has a Directorate of Quality Assurance that monitors the standards that was recently reformed in the realization of the need to strengthen quality assurance at all levels of education and training. This entails effective monitoring of curriculum, development, implementation and evaluation. In addition, the department monitors teacher-training programmes as well as organizing in-service training programmes for serving teachers and education managers in conjunction with other agencies of the Ministry.

The new national quality systems ensure that external scrutiny is brought to bear on institutions that have been largely closed to this form of public assessment. Until relatively recently peer assessment of the performance of individuals and groups both within and among institutions has been the norm, based upon a shared commitment to academic autonomy. Vidovich (2001) would argue that the major intention of the QA policy initiatives of the last decade or more has been to establish greater control over the national system of higher education.

Harvey (2002) concurs, pointing to connections between what has happened in higher education and the characteristics of the 'new managerialism' with its development of pseudo markets, assessment of organizations' systems of control, action to steer at a distance and creation of experts whose knowledge is the basis of an audit regime.

However, there has been surprisingly little challenge in much of the formal academic literature to Government initiatives to establish national QA systems. This may be because representatives of the higher education sector have found it hard to argue against 'quality' in any of its forms and, thus, have not spent much time challenging Government's mandate or real intentions but rather, as El-Khawas (2001) argues, put effort into the "need to get it right".

For the last two decades of change in higher education in many Countries, great increases in participation, greater diversity of entrants, decreased or stable per capita funding and institutional reshaping have led to many questions. Everywhere both individuals and the media ask - Is this a proper university? Is this degree competitive? Are students being taught effectively? How do I know that this university is doing a good job? (Bradley, 2005). In a globalizing world where higher education has become a service industry, and some might argue a commodity, the answers to such questions for people trying to decide with which overseas university to study are possibly even more critical than they are to those who ask these questions with some local cultural context on which to base their interpretation of the answers.

The aim of Government in establishing national quality regimes is to gain greater control over the activities of higher education institutions (Harvey, 2002). In the process of establishment of such regimes, sector representatives seek to incorporate broader aims into the process of QA. In part, they wish to ensure that the richness and diversity of what Universities do is incorporated into the ambit of the QA system but, too, they seek to subvert the Government's desire for control (Macintyre, 2004).

Quality assurance is also an aspect of the mass system of higher education, a device for improving the efficiency and effectiveness of large, complex institutions that are vital to the nation's needs and in which Government, business, professional associations and hundreds of thousands of domestic and international students have a keen interest .Thus the justification of the creation of the Commission for Higher Education by the Kenya Government through the Act of parliament in 1985(Chacha,2004).

2.3.2 Government Agency Contribution

National quality assurance regimes are generally underpinned by four components- an agency at arm's length from Government and institutions, self review/evaluation, institutional visits and reports (El-Khawas, 2001). The agency determines the evaluation criteria, framed by the ostensible purposes for which it has been established by Government. Billing suggests, after interrogating a number of surveys of QA systems,

that there is considerable commonality at the heart of national QA, in the shape of a spectrum from the 'softer' (developmental) improvement/informational functions to the 'harder' (judgmental) legal/financial/planning functions (Billing, 2004).

In quality assurance, even through Government's intention in all Countries has been to gain greater control; the purposes espoused publicly by ministers have very commonly been about public accountability, the rights of consumers and assistance to institutions in identification and dissemination of good practice. Quality improvement (QI) has been the rhetorical selling point. Within this elaborate charade, the higher education sector has been cooperative in working with Government to develop methodologies which allow assessments with a QI focus (Billing, 2004).

Some sector representatives have sought to turn Government intentions to control through operation of a relatively narrow conception of QA towards a regime which is more acceptable- more participatory, more connected to the broader and deeper purposes of education and more focused on improvement rather than accountability. So they have wanted to move from QA to QI. If it has been inevitable that a national quality system will be introduced then sector representatives have sought something that might serve broader purposes (Newton, 2002). The passion to identify a few robust performance indicators which would enable the gauging of success of the sector or compare the performance of institutions is, not unique. Thus there have been some very good reasons,

strategic and tactical, for sector representatives to work with Government to bring a broader perspective (Billings, 2004).

The accommodation between Government and higher education in most Countries has been to negotiate the establishment of an external QA regime(in this case, the Commission for Higher Education) premised upon Partnership between Government and higher education, mutual respect, the primacy of educational issues and Participation of educational experts in decisions on educational issues (El-Khawas, 2001). There are various reasons for working with such a regime. First, it's very difficult to run a public argument against 'quality'. Second, it may be that the external regime gives institutional managers a lever to address issues which have been hard to resolve in collegiate environments (Scott et-al, 2003).

Gordon (2002), Biggs (2001) and Newton (1999) point to the growth of the power of executive leadership in modern Universities and the decline of older concepts of collegial governance. Through this, it is easier for an academic manager to deal internally with controversial initiatives which touch upon issues of academic autonomy like compulsory evaluation of teaching with the threat of an external audit hanging over an institution (Bradley, 2005).

In Kenya, the Government established the Commission for Higher Education, as a regulatory agency in 1985, under the provisions of the Universities Act, with some of the

following major functions: To promote the objectives of university education namely the development, processing, storage and dissemination of knowledge for the benefit of mankind; To advise the minister on the establishment of public universities; To accredit universities; To coordinate the long term planning, staff development, scholarship and physical development of university education and to promote national unity and identity in universities(Universities Act,1985).

Other functions include; To liaise with Government departments and public and private sectors of the economy in matters relating to overall national manpower development and requirements; To cooperate with Government in the planned development of university education; To examine and approve proposals for courses of study and course regulations submitted to it by private universities and to receive and consider applications from persons seeking to establish private universities in Kenya and make recommendations thereon to the Minister for Higher Education(Universities Act,1985)..

Although these functions gave considerable statutory powers to CHE to run university education, a number of criticisms have been leveled on the operations of the organization. According to Sifuna (1998), only one of CHE's statutory functions, the accreditation of private universities, has been its main preoccupation since its secretariat became operational in 1986. The mushrooming of private universities has focussed the Commission's energies in developing accreditation instruments to regulate and permit the award of charters.

According to its statutory powers, CHE was expected to play an active role in the planning, development, budgetary matters and maintaining quality education. The politicisation of planning and development of university education seems to have effectively denied the Commission this particular role (Sifuna, 1998).

Government action in decision making also made it difficult for CHE to play an active role in public university budgetary matters. In practice, after the establishment of CHE, public universities continued to argue their individual budgetary submissions with the treasury, liaising with each other and collectively through the committee of vice-chancellors. Interestingly, Vice-Chancellors who are normally represented on CHE and praise its work on accreditation of private universities, effectively bypass the CHE when it comes to their own plans and budgets. They defend their institutional autonomy which each university enjoys by virtue of its own statute, and clearly resisting the notion of ceding part of it to CHE. They believe that rationalisation of departments and related planning issues are best handled by freely negotiating them among themselves (Sifuna, 1998).

CHE statutory requirement to make regulations in respect of admission of persons seeking to enroll in universities and provide central admissions service to public universities, as well as the maintenance of standards for courses and examinations, were

rendered inoperative through the creation by the Vice-Chancellors of the Joint Admissions Board (Chacha,2004).

2.4 Human Resource Management (HRM) practices and Quality

Human Resource Management (HRM) practices such as recruitment and selection, training, promotion, career development, feedback on performance, motivation and compensation can potentially affect quality along three parallel channels. The first one is a control based channel, which refers to all practices taken by the organization in order to sustain productivity and efficiency in the service process. The second way in which HRM might affect quality is through a knowledge based channel, in which HRM practices are adjusted to the service delivery process. By shaping practices in a service oriented manner employees will be more aware of the service delivery process and quality (Tzafrir & Gur 2007). The third way is via a motivational based channel, in which the organisation promotes practices that are focused on employees' well being.

Research by Tzafrir & Gur (2007) has shown that adopting HRM practices that employees perceive as positive and considerate, such as employment security or a compensation system that acknowledges employee efforts and contributions, results in more service committed employees. The current research is focused on the knowledge and motivational based channels because such practices are directed toward employees' well being as well as quality.

Employees in organizations that are characterized by high levels of service view the organizational leadership as putting a strong emphasis on meeting customer needs and delivering excellence in service through clearly stated goals and objectives. Leadership and supervision may contribute to quality in two ways. First, from the knowledge based aspect, managers, by being responsive to employees' questions and concerns and providing them with the information necessary to promote high quality service, can enhance the quality of service given by employees (Tzafrir & Gur 2007). And secondly, from the motivational based aspect, the way managers treat staff affects employees' feelings of being valued, thereby affecting their morale and motivation to act according to the managers' expectations.

Promotion and career development could be related to quality in knowledge as well as motivational aspects. From the knowledge based view, caring for career development and promoting service employees who are already service minded and customer oriented will strengthen the perceptions of employees as well as customers that the organization is service oriented. From the motivational view, the promoted employees feel valued by the organization, and understand that the organization is willing to invest in them in the long term. In this way they are motivated to reciprocate to the organization by investing efforts to provide quality service to customers (Tzafrir & Gur 2007).

Training is also a recognized essential component of high performance work systems. From the knowledge perspective, such service workers should be trained to identify and resolve problems, to promote changes in work methods and to take responsibility for quality. Adequate training enables the generation of a work force that is multi skilled, adaptable to rapid changes and has wide conceptual knowledge of the production system. From the motivational perspective, it is reasonable that employees would feel valued by the organization that chooses to invest in their professional development. Positive perceptions of training are associated with employees' perceptions of the organization as having a strong service orientation (Tzafrir & Gur 2007).

Compensation is another important facet of organizational success. First, it is a concern of equity and fairness. Employees whom expend more efforts and creativity in doing their job and see that their results benefit the employer will expect remuneration in exchange for their efforts. If employees do not receive any appreciable return, it is reasonable to expect that they will stop trying. Second, contingent compensation serves as a motivational tool, because employees know that they will share in the results of their work. Therefore, a compensation system based on excellence will result in increased employee performance. Internal equity of compensation was found to be related to employees' perceptions of the organization as having a strong service orientation (Tzafrir & Gur 2007).

In Kenya however, Universities, especially public ones, have almost exclusively depended on the Government for remunerating their staff. The little income generated internally goes to subsidize staff salaries as the Government funding is not enough to sustain the payroll as well as provide for operation and maintenance of university facilities. The salaries of teaching staff are standard across universities, save for compensation from other extra activities such as consultancy and part-time teaching. This has led to a situation where staff are not paid as well as their counterparts in the more developed societies. In the private universities, the teaching staff are loaded with more teaching units without providing for opportunities for research and development.

Feedback is a basic requirement for enhancing employee performance. From the knowledge aspect, employees need to know whether they are performing their job satisfactorily, and if not, how they might improve their job activities. Providing employees with structured and accurate information about their performance together with suggestions for improvement is an acceptable strategy that is likely to help them to focus on the evaluation of problematic areas, and hence, lead to better levels of performance.

From the motivational aspect, employees who make an effort to improve their service performance will be more motivated to do so if they feel that the organization and their managers recognize their efforts. A comprehensive and accepted evaluation system can

provide valuable feedback to employees and assist managers in making decisions regarding the individual employee (Tzafrir & Gur 2007).

In a study concerning quality assurance for university teaching, Sandra Griffiths associates staff development to quality assurance in which the key determinants of quality are attitudes and behaviour of staff. According to Griffiths, a comprehensive and positive staff development policy is essential to help staff deal with a changing demands and circumstances. In this case, total quality management may be conceived as a massive exercise in staff development, and the requirement is that organizations should make sustained commitment to staff development and training. Griffiths concludes that as good teaching is becoming crucial, staff development promotes quality assurance in university teaching (Griffiths, 1993).

Any university that wants its faculty to be motivated to teach well must hold as central to the institution's mission and commitment to high-quality teaching. A university in which good teaching is truly an organizational commitment finds ways to bring teaching issues into prominence. When teaching becomes a primary institutional goal, it should be reflected in the ways in which faculty are evaluated and rewarded. Formal and informal rewards for good teaching serve as strong incentive. In addition to formal rewards, universities can show interest in teaching and offer incentives to faculty through more informal means. For example, awards for high quality teaching – bestowed with the same

respect and honour attending research awards – can serve as incentives (Rice and Austin, 1993).

2.5 The Effect of Continuing Professional Development on Quality

In differentiating faculty or staff development, Menges (1997) identified three perspectives on faculty development, which, according to his argument, differ significantly depending on whether one takes the perspective of the organization, the perspective of professional development of programme or the perspective of the faculty. From organization's perspective, Menges (1997) views faculty or staff development as human resource management. This 'people side of the organization' as a term began to appear in the 1950s. The 'human element' in organization has been acknowledged somewhere else as including 'people as individuals and groups, their recruitment, selection, assignment, motivation, compensation, and retirement' (Tracey, 1991).

Universities, like other educational organizations, should be seen as providers of services rather than as producers of goods, when considering human resource management. The current tendency to adopt the phrase "human resource" from the business world as an alternative to staff development is objected on the grounds that it signifies a management attitude of manipulation. The question raised is whether staff can be developed? In a sense, if we are humans blessed with free will, we can only develop ourselves, choosing to accept or reject the attempts of politicians, managers and trainers to alter our

knowledge, skills, values, and performance (Oldroyd, 1995). Instead, Oldroyd calls for a replacement of the term “staff development” by the phrase “continuing professional development (CPD)” to signify the notion of career long learning as an entitlement and necessity in rapidly changing modern societies.

Oldroyd explained that as individual staff and their groups strive to cope with new curriculum, increasing school autonomy and changing social norms and expectations, the imperative for continuous learning grows. In this consideration, the tension between the needs of the individual and of the team and school remains a central challenge to the managers and providers of continuing professional development (Oldroyd, 1995). It was gathered from this perspective that the task of faculty development is to manage human resources in ways that create and maintain a climate consistent with the organization’s mission, that is, a climate that emphasizes the quality of teaching and learning.

The second perspective on faculty development is the teacher-centred development, also referred to as professional development. It was proposed that those who work in college and university centers for faculty development and teaching improvement commonly refer to their work as “professional development, defined as ‘maintaining and improving the professional competence of the individual faculty member within the context of the many roles the faculty member has in fulfilling his or her obligation to specific institution” (Menges, 1997).

Menges (1997) offers three-dimensional approaches intended for planning and assessing faculty development. The first dimension is temporal, referring to career stage or amount of experience, ranging from trainees (Graduate students) to Professors. The second dimension delineates the roles that faculty fulfills; namely, instructional, scholarly / creative, service and personal, since faculty development activities should specify which role or roles they are addressing. The third dimension deals with organizational level at which faculty development is targeted, ranging from the individual faculty member through particular units in the organization, to the academic and profession and non-academic community (Menges, 1997).

Members of staff at universities can retain their credibility and claim to professionalism if their declarations, whether by word or action, stands up to scrutiny. The more their services contribute to society's welfare, the more they are likely to gain appreciation and prestige. Once their occupational practice proves consistently trustworthy, through internal and external quality audit, society and its political forces would be more inclined to accord them higher degrees of autonomy and self-control. The combined factors eventually lead to higher social status often accompanied by material rewards. The combined attributes constitute the characteristics of professional bodies (Farrugia, 1996).

The above description of the processes that enhance a group's professional standing has several implications. First, the development towards professional standing involves progression, often a long and tortuous one to ensure that professional knowledge and

practice are enhanced. Second, individuals in the group are to be engaged in continuous vocational development and training that is maintained beyond academic graduation and acceptance into the profession. Third, an individual's "professing", manifested by one's words and actions, form only one part of a two-way communication process since professing in the wilderness is a futile exercise. An audience or a clientele has to receive, understand, appreciate and accept the professional's services (Farrugia, 1996).

The traditional approach to distinguish between professional and non-professional occupations relied on the identification of specific qualities which professional occupations were reputed to possess, and which non-professional occupations lacked. Professional people, show central occupational characteristics. According to the traditional professions attributes model, these characteristics were identified with medicine, law, theology and university teaching. This model is far too rigid and fails to acknowledge the evolutionary, sometimes revolutionary, progress that contributes to the development of many occupations (Farrugia, 1996).

The continuous professional development model retains the idea central to the traditional professions attributes model; namely, that certain occupations can develop to a very high degree specialized characteristics or attributes. In the case of university lecturers, the model evaluates professionalism through the acquisition of knowledge and understanding of educational theory applied to adult learners; application and refinement of validated pedagogy for tertiary-level teaching and learning; practice of instructional and managerial

autonomy coupled with accountability; exercising of organizational authority governed by internalized control to fulfill educational objectives and growth of a professional ethos within a university environment(Farrugia,1996).

The continuous professional development model provides five education-related activities uses to evaluate the degree of professionalism. These include the following:

i. Educational theory

The educational theory looks at four components based on knowledge and understanding and includes; human growth and development as applied to adult learners; learning theories that relate to tertiary education; social considerations of teaching and learning and ethical implications of education. The theory necessitates the need to ensure that only qualified lecturers are allowed to teach.

ii. Application and the refinement of validated pedagogy

The application and refinement of validated pedagogy for tertiary-level teaching and learning is divided into; mastery over the teaching content; ability to engage in curriculum development; ability to motivate students and retain their interest; the use of instructional and communication techniques; the application of evaluative and remedial procedures; classroom management; school administration; interpersonal skills, and other

pedagogy-related competences. This implies that all lecturers without teaching background needs to be exposed to the effective teaching methods while there is also a need to introduce new guides for lectures who trained long ago.

iii. Instructional and managerial autonomy

Instructional and managerial autonomy facilitates freedom to apply informed classroom practices; participation in departmental and faculty policies; participation in the formulation of national curricula and examinations; and participation in the selection of syllabuses and teaching methods. To achieve this, the contribution of individual lecturers must be appreciated by management.

iv. Lecturers' development

Lecturers' development is measured by the rate of improvement in the teaching and working environment; lecturers' conditions of work; remuneration; the degree of dialogue with an institution's administration; and the degree of collective decision making and peer-group selection. The lecturer must be facilitated to deliver in through provision of adequate resources and his/her services appreciated.

v. Professional ethics

The rate of progress in lecturers' professional ethos can be evaluated by their commitment to the service ideal; contribution to the community's welfare; collegiality; degree of self-control and regulation; the level of appreciation of their work by the community; and their esteem and prestige in the community.

The continuous development model created provisions for institution to undertake determined training and promotional efforts to persuade staff and students to adopt modern and effective teaching/learning methods. The model illustrate that, within the constraints of increased student numbers, quality assurance and academic audit measures can guarantee high standards, that restructured schedules ensure personal contacts with students, and that the university's ethos and high reputation are preserved. At the same time, the university will aim to prove to the community, and the politicians, that greater student numbers make higher demands on the institution, that substantial growth requires changes in attitudes and processes, and that these take time to take root and bear fruit (Farrugia, 1996).

The new model in Figure 2.1(Farrugia, 1996) retains also the concept of evolution which is the basis of the professions continuum. The continuum is represented by the horizontal axis which sets the rating scale of five benchmarks denoting negligible, low, moderate,

high, and outstanding rates of development or growth. The continuum concept in the model reinforces the dynamic characteristics of constant development so that while some occupations flourish and progress through sustained efforts at professional evolution, others stagnate due to lack of professional growth (Farrugia, 1996).

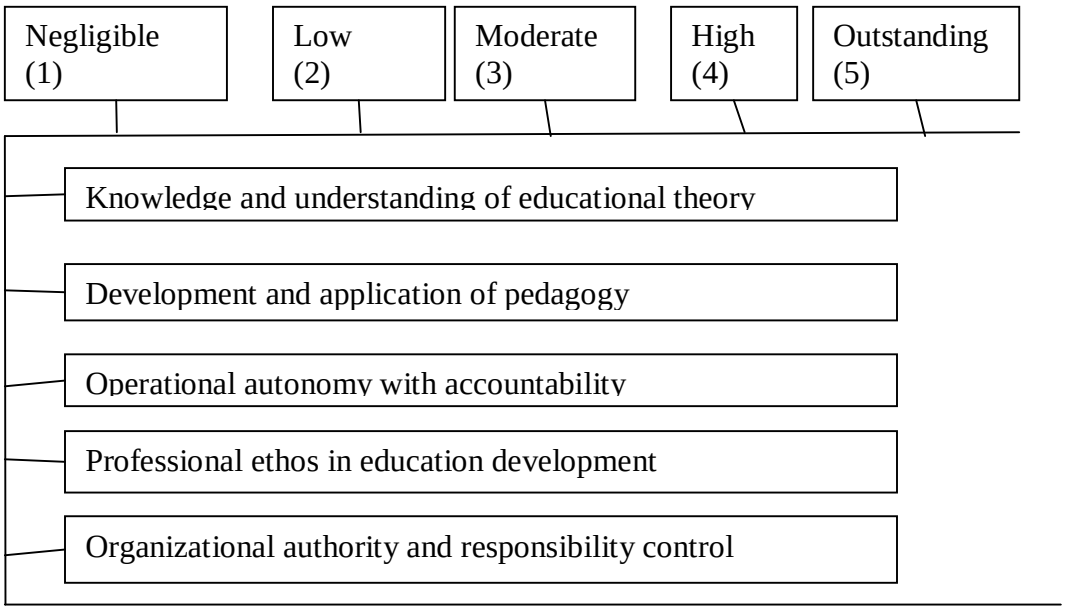

Figure 2.4: Continuous professional development model

Staff training is another area which lags behind and impacts negatively on teaching and research. Up to two-thirds of university teachers have had no initial pedagogical training. Most of these institutions are relying on individuals who have not acquired their highest level of academic training as lecturers. To improve their efficiency and effectiveness in delivering their services, staff, and especially the academic staff, must be trained continually in relevant areas. Universities must have a clear training policy, outlining

their strategy for human resource development, instead of the ad- hoc procedures currently followed in most of these institutions (Chacha, 2004).

In emphasizing the importance of staff development in increasing effectiveness in the university, it was argued that staff development facilitates personnel and professional development for individuals and groups, enabling them to achieve their potential and contribute to the provision of excellence in teaching and research in the university (Chacha, 2004).

In another contribution, Anyamele (2007) pointed out the importance of staff development in the current changing higher education landscape. According to Anyamele higher education institutions are highly recommended to put in place appropriate staff development strategies to support all staff and encourage involvement in the development and implementation of university-wide policies and strategies, because effective staff development is essential to support new approaches to learning and teaching, and meeting changing needs of institutions. Anyamele hinted that in a competitive global educational market, universities are keen to be awarded national prizes and investor in people (IIP) award through a framework of an institution-wide staff development strategy.

Higher education institutions should recognize that their staff are their vital and valued asset. The university should therefore, commit itself to encouraging and enabling staff to

realize their potential by providing opportunities for all colleagues to gain the knowledge, skills, and experience necessary for them to enhance their contribution to meeting individual, area, and organizational objectives. Not only that staff development should be among a clutch of institutional innovations thrust upon universities, it is a technique or tool to increase quality, efficiency and output, it can be associated with high quality professional performance resulting in career advancement, strategic development, and initiative to sustain change (Duke, 1992).

Continuous education, as a form of staff development is important because it will prevent knowledge obsolescence. Continuous education of staff plays a key role of advancing knowledge and skills of staff for them to play new roles. It prepares staff for development needs as well as for better teaching and research. In addition, continuous education is seen as a way in which staff are empowered to perform well in teaching and research roles. As universities are faced with accelerating changes in their environment, teachers need to improve their skills in the acquisition and management of new knowledge. The aim here is that staff working in the university will acquire the skills and knowledge needed for pedagogic purposes and for teachers to have teaching skills (Anyamele, 2007).

As a tool for increased quality, efficiency and output, staff development is associated with high quality professional development and performance, resulting to career advancement. Staff development can also assist in strategic development; when broadly conceived to initiate change: it is a way of producing strategic training programmes for

clients organizations, involving the classification of future purposes and objectives, the identification of training needs within this framework and encourage staff at all levels to see staff education and training as a key support of organizational change (Anyamele, 2007).

In addition, Staff development is critical to building a learner-centred higher education institution. Education in general and higher education in particular is concerned with the development of human potential and the quality of the human resources. Consequently, as one of the key functions of human resource department of an institution, staff development, by providing these range of services such as staff training and development, individual coaching, management support and development, the institution's mission is achieved (Anyamele, 2007).

The importance of continuous education and training is that institution's competitiveness in a global or national setting will depend on the expertise of the staff. If the competence of staff is continually maintained and developed, they will gain a lasting motivation. This approach to staff development is lent support by a study by Kautto-Koivula (1997) concerning Nokia's Technology Education and Training Programmes (NTETP). One of the findings of the study show that it was realized that in order to cope with ever-increasing global competition, Nokia had to offer its employees better opportunities to develop and educate themselves while remaining in full time employment, as a means of providing long-term training and education that were highly motivating. Hence staff

education and training does not only upgrading an individual teacher's professional skills but must serve the whole institution.

2.6 The Effect of Teaching Facilities on Quality

Current and probably converging models of Government sanctioned quality assurance in higher education assure the public that an independent group is systematically addressing whether institutions meet what might be seen as minimum requirements but they don't address many of the deep issues about quality improvement which bedevil institutional leaders. With quality assurance(QA) regimes in place in so many Countries it is time to begin to look much more carefully at whether this now almost universal model of Government sanctioned external assessment leads to better teaching and to improved learning outcomes(Billing, 2004).

The question as to whether the external QA model with its powerful pressures allow external scrutiny of the institution's management and its outcomes hinders improvements in teaching and learning at the institutional level is still subjective(Bradley,2005). These external pressures mean the institution acts to identify an acceptable institution wide model for 'delivery ' of teaching and evaluation of learning; to implement it; to collect comparable data across a often narrow set of indicators about the impact of teaching; and to reward good practice as the institution so defines it. What is done is basically systematizing and perhaps even industrializing the processes of teaching and learning.

With such an approach the dangers are that we alienate the teachers and encourage them to hide problems and innovate with great caution because innovation by its very nature means a great risk of failure. Indeed, very little is known about the broad impact on student learning of existing internal institutional quality assurance systems (Bradley, 2005).

Trust and collegial approaches are most of what we need to build effective teaching approaches in higher education (Ramsden, 1992). It is academics who innovate in teaching, not administrators, and that they will do that when they feel some sense of control over what they are doing, have time to think and reflect on what they have learnt from previous attempts to teach better and feel their efforts are valued (Bradley, 2005). Internationally, all academics, however surveyed, now comment unfavorably on staff student ratios, the rising tide of administrative reporting and the loss of a sense of control over their work (Bradley, 2005).

Quality assurance (QA) in universities has more of the characteristics of administrative burden than an exciting intellectual journey. It badgers teachers rather than working alongside them. These characteristics seem to be present whether an intensive subject inspection system or a 'lighter touch' of periodic institutional audit is employed. The variation is in degree rather than character (Ramsden, 2003).

Ramsden (2003) argues that the quality assurance systems in most Countries encourage compliance and not commitment, reinforce unsophisticated theories of learning and engender a culture of lack of trust of academics. Such views about the effects of external QA are shared by Knight and Trowel (2000) who are critical of Ramsden's views about effective academic leadership but, like him; warn that attempts to improve the practice of teaching in universities by coercive approaches will fail. If that is so, who is researching the impact of external QA on teaching and learning outcomes in Universities? Isn't it time for the 'quality' literature to make some connections with the literature on teaching and learning in universities? There is a very large area of enquiry about effectiveness to be addressed.

Macintyre (2004) argues that the life of institutional managers consists of management tasks, formulating strategies and reporting outcomes, reconciling ends and means, encouraging good practice and dealing with the consequences of bad. Managers share a bureaucratic rationality which has quality as one of its guiding values and the greatest challenge is to persuade the skeptics that managers are doing something useful.

The Large class sizes and inadequate teaching / learning facilities are some of the factors hindering effective teaching (Ngware & Ndirangu, 2005). For instance, enrolment in public Universities in Kenya grew from 3,443 in 1970 to 9,044 in 1984 (162.7 per cent increase in 14 years) and to 43,038 in 1994 (375.9 per cent in 10 years). In the 1990s, there was a rapid increase (of 375.9 per cent) in the student population in universities

without an improvement in the quality and quantity of teaching resources and other teaching facilities (Abagi, 1999).

The increased enrolment was attributable to a presidential decree that ordered a doubling of the intake in one academic year in order to accommodate two groups of students, (the last A-level class of the former 7-4-2-3 system of education, and the first O-level class of the new 8-4-4 education system) that were waiting to join the university, without giving the institutions ample time to plan for such an intake.

The implementation of Free Primary Education in the primary school sub-sector in the year 2003 resulted in substantial growth in enrolment from 5.9 million children in 2002 to 8.2 million children in 2008. In the year 2008, free secondary education was also introduced resulting in higher transition rates to universities. While the planned transition rates have not been achieved by the Government, the current student population in public universities has grown to over 100,000 in 2010. These Figures could have been higher had admission to public universities through the joint admission programmes not been begged to bed capacities.

Abagi (1999) observes that the increase in student numbers over the years has not been matched by a corresponding expansion in teaching/learning facilities, and class sizes of above 300 are not uncommon in public universities, especially in humanities and education courses. Libraries, laboratories, lecture theatres and halls of residence are all

overstretched (Abagi, 1999; Court, 1999; Hite *et al.*, 2003). Some university academics moved elsewhere for better pay. The increase in student population has not resulted in more recruitment of teaching staff, resulting in those who have remained being manifestly over-loaded.

The teaching of large classes and marking many scripts is still very common, while poor teaching facilities and inadequate teaching/learning resources in all public and private universities is still a challenge. This calls into question the quality of learning provided by the universities and the level of morale of the teaching staff. The effects of all this spills over to the university customers (Ngware & Ndirangu, 2005).

The World Bank (2002) has recently linked higher education to economic productivity and to Countries' ability to compete in the global knowledge economy. The World Bank pointed out the need for universities to continuously upgrade the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the labour force so that the workers are relevant to the dynamic global knowledge economy. Lifelong-learning and training have thus become important in inculcating and upgrading new knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Against this backdrop, most advanced economies have recognized the power of investment in education. First, universities are well positioned to provide the needed support to the knowledge-driven economic growth strategies by educating and training scientists, civil service, researchers, health care professionals, technicians, teachers in

basic and secondary education, and business leaders; generating new knowledge and technological innovations through research and development; and building the capacity of Information and communication technology(ICT) technologists and librarians to access existing stores of global knowledge and human capital around the world and adapt them for local use (World Bank, 2002).

Second, higher education offers better opportunities for low-income and minority students to become employable and move up the social ladder, thus reducing income inequality. Third, institutions of higher education inculcate norms, values, attitudes, ethics, and knowledge for civil society. Finally, they facilitate nation-building by promoting greater social cohesion, trust in democratic processes, and appreciation of diversity in gender, ethnicity, religion and social class (World Bank, 2002; Yizengaw, 2003).

Around the world, the swiftness of ICT developments, their increasing spread and availability, the nature of their content and their declining prices, are having major implications for learning. There is need to tap the potential of ICT to enhance data collection and analysis, and to strengthen management systems in educational institutions; to improve access to education by remote and disadvantaged communities; to support initial and continuing professional development of teachers; and to provide opportunities to communicate across classrooms and cultures. Most universities in Kenya have very limited access to modern computing and communications technology, so it is

increasingly difficult for teachers and students to keep abreast of current developments in their academic areas (Chacha, 2004).

The lag for most developing Countries can be attributed to a variety of reasons, but one of them is the influence of the World Bank Report (1988), Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization and Expansion, and the economists of the day who influenced the report. The consensus of that day argued that investment in higher education in developing Countries brought meager social returns compared to investment in primary and secondary schools. Consequently, from the mid-1980s up to the end of twentieth century, higher education received less funding, with the result that the quality of higher education in most sub-Saharan African Countries deteriorated substantially.

It was not until the mid-1990s that the World Bank (2000, 2002) began to question its earlier wisdom of neglecting investment in higher education in developing Countries. According to World Bank reports (2000, 2002), institutions of higher education are still chronically under-funded in spite of escalating demands for higher education. The quality and relevance of their research is poor. They operate with overcrowded and deteriorating physical facilities, limited and obsolete library resources, inadequate laboratories, insufficient equipment and instructional materials, outdated curricula, and poorly prepared secondary students. Their teaching staff are unqualified and under qualified, poorly compensated and, hence, largely unmotivated.

Most Universities in developing nations function at the periphery of the international scientific community, unable to participate in the creation, production and adaptation of knowledge necessary to confront their Countries' most important economic and social problems. The net result is that most universities in sub-Saharan Africa are finding it difficult to compete in the global market for knowledge creation and production. Yet the main challenge facing Governments of developing Countries today is how to build human capital through sustained investment in higher education so as to produce highly qualified and trained people who can compete in the global knowledge economy (Nafukho, 2004).

Higher education is considered the most significant contributor to national development. Recent comparative analysis of social and private rates of return in developing Countries, for example, shows that social returns are higher than private returns (Nafukho, 2004; World Bank 2000). In Kenya for example, the president rolled out free secondary education in January 2008 after the successful free primary education that was launched in 2003. A total of Kenya shillings 2.9 billion was released as the first tranche of funds for the programme. From the allocation, Kenya shillings 10,265 was to cater for fees per student per year with other costs such as boarding fees and personal expenses left to the parents/guardian.

During the launch of free secondary education in Kenya, the president was very clear that the Government will not allow or tolerate schools which impose unauthorized levies, since they will undermine the successful implementation of the Free Secondary Education policy whose main objective is to ensure that deserving children from poor families do not miss out on secondary education. With this directive however, the national, provincial and district schools continued to charge fees ranging from Kenya shillings 35,000 to Kenya shillings 60,000 per year. The gaps in fees continue to be met by the poor parents, thus making it very difficult to successfully finance the secondary education.

For higher education, funding is based on the number of students admitted through the Joint Admission Board (JAB) and not the unit cost for running the programmes. Institutions have to therefore look for other sources to finance the high expensive programmes such as Engineering, Architecture, Medicine, Science and Agriculture. Funding to these institutions by the Government has also been static over the past four years, despite the growth in demand for university education. Out of the 7% allocation for education, most of the funding is directed to basic education, which is primary and secondary schools, with public universities and tertiary institutions receiving not more than 20%.

2.7 The Challenges in Maintaining Quality of Teaching Staff

The challenges related to the maintenance of quality of teaching staff at Kenyan universities include the following:

2.7.1. Financial Constraints

Like most African countries, higher education in Kenya was historically free, with the public purse covering both tuition and living allowances. The rationale for free higher education in Kenya was based, among other things, on the country's desire to create highly trained manpower that could replace the departing colonial administrators. In return, graduates were bound to work in the public sector for a minimum of three years (Chacha, 2004).

By 1974, provision of education in general had expanded dramatically and the number of students seeking university education had grown to an extent that it was becoming increasingly difficult to adequately finance university education by providing full scholarships and grants by the Government. The Government therefore introduced the University Students Loans Scheme (USLS), which was managed by the Ministry of Education. Under the scheme, Kenyan students pursuing higher education at Makerere, Nairobi and Dares Salaam universities received loans to cover their tuition and personal needs, which they would repay on completion of their education (Chacha, 2004).

The USLS was plagued with a number of problems right from the onset. It lacked the legal basis to recover matured loans from loanees. In addition, the general public and university students wrongly perceived that the loan was a grant from the Government, which was not to be repaid (Chacha, 2004).

In order to address this problem, in July 1995, the Government, through an Act of Parliament established the Higher Education Loans Board to administer the Student Loans Scheme. In addition, the Board was also empowered to recover all outstanding loans given to former university students by the Government of Kenya since 1952 and to establish a revolving fund from which funds can be drawn to lend out to needy Kenyan students pursuing higher education. The establishment of a revolving fund was also expected to ease pressure on the exchequer in financing education (Chacha, 2004).

With the rolling of free primary and free secondary education in 2003 and 2008 by the president of the republic of Kenya, President Mwai Kibaki, the demand for higher education short up. The revolving fund from the Higher Education Loans Board was not able to meet the increased demand from the high number of qualified candidates seeking higher education at both public and private universities.

The Kenya Government's expenditure on education is 7% of the country's gross domestic product (GDP). This is the highest expenditure level per student based on the

average education GDP in Africa. However, most of the funding is directed to basic education, which is primary and secondary schools, with public universities and tertiary institutions receiving not more than 15%.

Public universities in Kenya have traditionally relied on Government funding to carry out their activities. Due to the harsh economic situations witnessed by the region over the recent past, Government support to these institutions has seen a steady decline, and the universities have been forced to operate under very tight budgets. The situation has not been made any better by the structural adjustment programmes prescribed by our bilateral partners. The universities have therefore been forced to rethink their strategy, and possibly look for extra sources of financing including establishing income-generating activities (Chacha, 2004).

The funding from Government is also based on the number of students admitted through the Joint Admission Board (JAB) and not the unit cost for running the programmes. Institutions have to therefore look for other sources to finance the high expensive programmes such as Engineering, Architecture, Medicine, Science and Agriculture. Funding to these institutions by the Government has also been static over the past four years, despite the growth in demand for university education (Chacha, 2004).

Private universities in Kenya depend for their revenue on the tuition fees they generate from their students. Such heavy dependence on tuition coupled with lack of alternative

income sources has made these institutions expensive and thus unaffordable for most Kenyans, in effect, limiting their services to the children of high socio economic status (Chacha, 2004).

As elsewhere in Africa, private expansion sprang forth largely due to the public system's failure to meet the demand for higher education. Private higher education has registered steady increases in enrolment, especially after the rollout of free primary and free secondary education. Some universities in Kenya, such as university of Nairobi, Strathmore University and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, have waiting lists of applicants especially for the postgraduate programmes.

2.7.2 Lack of Professional Quality Assurance Expertise

Most of the persons running quality assurance units in most Universities have no professional expertise on quality issues. Most of the quality assurance representatives are either lacking experience or have never previously worked in quality assurance, especially those people from Countries that do not have any established quality assurance (Magagula, 2005).

Education in Kenya is in a fix, caught between severe budget cuts and a flood of students in search of education. The free primary and free secondary education programme has resulted in high number of students at all levels. Class sizes have grown over the years

and the student teacher/lecturer ratio shot up at universities. Teaching at universities is becoming exam-centred and classes are only conducted in order to prepare students for examinations, rather than following the syllabi. The tutorial classes that used to be run at universities are no longer done. The Government has also given emphasis to quantitative expansion of teaching facilities to take care of the increased demand for education, than the qualitative improvement of higher education.

2.7.3 Political / Leadership Challenges

In many African Countries the majorities of higher education institutions (HEI) is public and are as such owned by the state. They are regulated, dominated and financed by the Government through the ministries of higher education. Appointments to key positions are vetted and influenced by the Government. The members of university council at state universities are political appointees. There is therefore great political influence on the institutions and on the quality of teaching staff at such institutions. The private higher education institutions are also regulated and dominated by the ministries of higher education. Thus there is great political influence intervening with competition on quality assurance within higher education institutions (Chacha, 2004).

Globally, the environment of higher education is facing relentless and rapid change. These circumstances underscore the crucial role of leadership and management in maintaining morale, enhancing productivity, and helping staff at all institutional 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, and the commercialization of higher education, the changing relationships between institutions and Governments and the move from an industrial to an information society (Chacha, 2004).

2.7.4 Lack of a standardized model

The lack of a single model for quality assurance implies that it is extremely complex to adapt and harmonize different reference points. Many international initiatives, without any monitoring of their implementation and use, remain a series of good intentions and exhortations with no indication as to their effectiveness (Magagula, 2005; Sabaya, 2004).

2.7.5 The Challenges of Cross-Border Higher Education in Kenya

The greatest disadvantage of cross-border higher education for developing Countries is its one-sidedness when compared to the well-established and well-resourced universities in developed economies. Higher education in most developing Countries is conceived as a public good, but cross-border higher education is not necessarily driven by humanitarian motives or by the self-interest of developing Countries' Governments. Rather, it is driven by the profit motives of foreign and private-for-profit providers. As a

result it threatens Governments' sovereignty over higher education by challenging their regulatory powers (Redelinghuys, 2005).

Another disadvantage is that e-learning is not necessarily cheap. Accessing e-programmes depends on the ability of national citizens to pay for computers, Internet access, tuition costs and needed supplies. Given the high level of unemployment and unequal distribution of wealth in developing Countries, only a privileged few are able to afford this educational track. As Knight (2004) points out, three classes of graduates are likely to emerge in developing Countries: those who registered with high-quality, reputable international providers; those who registered with low-quality, cross-border private, for-profit institutions, and those who registered with underfunded public universities.

The unregulated cross-border higher education causes inequity, economic disparities and social tensions in developing Countries. National Governments will likely divert their critically limited resources to what they perceive as the more pressing challenges of poverty, high unemployment and the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Even if public funding of higher education continues, almost certainly it cannot keep pace with the investment funding of foreign and private for-profit providers of cross-border higher education (Magagula, 2005).

2.7.6 Accreditation of programmes/systems

Accreditation is another challenge facing developing Countries. Currently, no internationally agreed upon standards of accreditation and quality assurance exist parallel to the International Organisation for Standardization (ISO) standards for goods and services. Some Countries have national accreditation procedures for assessing the quality of both their own and also of foreign and private commercial providers of cross-border higher education. However, other developing Countries will probably not have the capacity or the political will to establish accreditation and quality monitoring systems. Furthermore, even if accreditation procedures were in place, they would not necessarily cover the complicated issues of cross-border higher education mobility, cultural nuisances and jurisdictional systems (Magagula, 2005).

2.7.7 The brain drain Challenges

Socio-economic and political developments, in combination with processes of globalization, and the space-time compression that has come with developments in the area of information and communication technologies, have contributed towards the flow of highly skilled individuals from one end of the world to the other. The brain drain has basically been caused by the push and pull factors (Tettey, 2006).

The former is driven by such concerns as economic constraints, political turmoil or intolerance, as well as social and psychological pressures. In addition to these push factors; industrialized countries are attractive to many professionals from poorer countries for a variety of reasons which constitute the pull factors. These include the promise of economic success or political sanctuary. These pull factors have been facilitated by the increasing shortage of skilled labor (Tettey, 2006).

Developed Countries are able to attract highly skilled workers from developing Countries, especially in the critical fields of science and ICT. There is a growing mobility of academics, professional and skilled workers, especially given the usually less attractive terms and conditions of service, salary structures and work environments in developing Countries. Clearly, the assumption that both developed and developing economics compete fairly in an open market for human capital and that developing Countries have equal chances of attracting highly skilled human capital is faulty (Magagula, 2005).

While the literature on brain drain from the developing world tends to point to the industrialized world as the beneficiaries, it is important not to lose sight of the nodes of attraction within the developing world as well. This is illustrated in the Southern African context, where Lesotho had only 1,839 nurses listed in its medical and dental register in mid-1998, while many of them flocked to South Africa to take up positions because of better salaries and working conditions (Tettey, 2006).

Another dimension of the brain drain that is not discussed much, but which is very relevant to the sustainability of academic institutions, in particular, is the internal brain drain. This refers to movements of highly skilled professionals away from institutions of higher education to other sectors within the same country. The reasons for these outflows from academia are varied, but largely economic. In fact, academic staff are also lured away by a variety of Government agencies, where salaries are often better and the working environment more comfortable. In many cases, the salaries and benefits in universities are lower than comparative positions in and outside of the civil service (Tettey, 2006).

These realities erode the capability of academic institutions to build the human capacity needed for socio-economic and political development in other areas of society. While individuals who move to other organizations may contribute to the specific activities of that organization, their departure from academe means that the synergies that come with a group of academics working together is diminished, and the impact and scope of knowledge production and dissemination is lessened (Tettey, 2006)

Universities, especially public ones, have almost exclusively depended on the Government for remunerating their staff. This has led to a situation where staff are not paid as well as their counterparts in the more developed societies, or even in some of the private universities. Many professors have therefore decamped to other countries in

search of better pay, affecting the teaching needs of Kenyan universities. Demand for better pay has often led to standoffs between the Government and the university academic staff union (Chacha, 2004).

2.7.8 The Diversity of Education Systems in East Africa

Because Kenya follows an 8-4-4 system while Tanzania and Uganda follow a 7-4-2-3 system of education, public Universities in Uganda require that the Kenyan candidates undergo A – level studies for 2 years while the private Universities insist on a 6-9 months bridging course before candidates can join the institutions (Maviiri,2007).In Tanzania, the Kenyan and Ugandan students have to sit for the Matriculation examination and this has resulted in fewer foreign students going to study in Tanzania.

2.7.9 Lack of Harmonized Admission/Accreditation Criteria

Another challenge is the evaluation of the credentials of international students. With the mushrooming of new and private institutions admitting many foreign students, vetting students' credentials is not easy and quality is thus not assured. Regulating of these many institutions is made even more difficult by their numbers as well as the lack of adequate staff and logistical policies as to how to carry out inspections and evaluations. There is also lack of harmonized means of accreditation of universities within the region (Maviiri, 2007).

2.7.10 Differences in Education Priorities

The market approach of cross-border higher education, with its emphasis on maximizing profits and minimizing costs, has made Universities to concentrate on offering courses with high market demand. Even though less popular and more costly courses might be crucial for social-economic and political development, they are likely to become the responsibility of public/non-profit institutions (Knight, 2004). This split will invariably lead to a differentiated discipline-based menu for programmes and courses for foreign and for profit providers and for the non-profit providers.

The dawn of a global knowledge society also with information-driven economies and expansions in international higher education markets is placing new demands on them to search for more innovative approaches in academic course provisions; revenue generation; uncertain educational quality; institutional governance, and human resource management and to address longstanding difficulties caused by rapid enrolments; financial constraints; frequent labour strife and brain drain (Chacha, 2004).

2.7.11 Cultural Challenges

In addition to differences in educational priorities, another challenge is that foreign and private for-profit providers of cross-border higher education do not necessarily share the

same cultural values of each of the individual Countries. Cross border higher education might then become a tool for eroding national cultural identities (Magagula, 2005).

There is also the challenge of developing Countries being flooded with foreign and private providers delivering essentially profitable subjects and in these areas they will pose a serious competition to local Universities, leaving the latter to deal with "non-profitable" subjects in arts, humanities, science and technology, so vital for a Country's development. This is a result of heavy investment in terms of qualified human resources, equipment and facilities, that must go into these so called "not profitable" subjects. In addition, other pertinent issues and challenges exist in the provision of cross border Higher Education in East Africa, with its diversity in culture, economic status and educational policy issues (Maviiri, 2007).

The participation of women in higher education is very low in Kenya, in large part because of traditional cultural values that emphasize women's roles as wife and mother. Women in Kenya are underrepresented in higher education (HE) institutions as students and as workers. While gender disparities in students' enrolment exist at all levels of HE, they are particularly wide at higher degree levels and in science, mathematics and technology oriented subjects. At the same time, women are underrepresented in teaching and in the administration of these institutions. Further, women academics are concentrated in the lower ranks of the hierarchy and in the traditional 'female' social

science and education disciplines while as administrators they are few and far in between in the higher ranks of HE administration(Chacha,2004).

2.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter broadly covered the literature on quality at institution of higher learning by looking at the general review of quality , the conceptual framework , the key parameters affecting quality of teaching staff at universities including the Government and Commission for Higher Education (CHE) ; human resource management practices; continuing professional development (staff development); teaching facilities and the general challenges in sustaining quality at Kenyan universities.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides information on the methodology that is used in the study, research design, population of the study, sampling method and data collection Instruments used. The chapter also explains data collection procedures and analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The design this study adopted is a quantitative research approach. Quantitative research relies on the principle of verifiability making it possible to establish the cause and effect relationship. The quantitative research approach was in form of a survey describing a phenomenon associated with subject population or estimating proportions of the populations with certain characteristics (Kothari, 2009; Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999).

A survey design was appropriate in establishing the role of Government and Government agencies in promoting quality of teaching staff at Kenyan universities; ascertaining the effects of human resource management (HRM) practices on service quality; establishing the effects of continuing professional development (staff development) on quality of teaching staff at Kenya universities; examining the effect of teaching facilities

on quality of service and establishing the challenges associated with maintenance of quality. Taking account of all the research questions, the factors affecting the quality of teaching staff at institutions of higher learning was ascertained.

3.3 Population of Study

The target population was university teaching staff from all the public and private universities in Kenya, which is 4,000. The respondents were differentiated in terms of gender and designation in the private and public universities. The population distribution used is summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Population used

S/no	Stratum	Size	Percentage
1	Public universities staff	3,480	**87**
2	Private universities staff	520	**13**
	Total	**4,000**	**100**

Source: MOEST (2006)

3.4 Sampling

The method of sampling used was stratified random sampling (Kothari, 2009). The 5 public universities and 3 private universities formed the stratum for this study. These are: Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, University of Nairobi, Egerton University, Narok University College, United States International University (USIU), Kabarak University and KCA University. The criteria used for stratification across the strata were gender, age and designation.

The sampling frame of the study was lecturers distributed based on the weighted percentage in the stratum, targeting at least 120 respondents, derived as per Table 3.2. This is based on optimal allocation with fixed sample size (Neyman allocation). Under this method, considering the high number of lecturers in public universities as opposed to private universities, the sample for stratum h (n_h) is computed as:

$n_h = n (N_h * \sigma_h) / \Sigma (N_i * \sigma_i)$.

Where: n_h is the sample size for stratum h

N_h is the population size for stratum h

σ_h is the standard deviation for stratum h

ΣN_i is summation of population for the strata

$\Sigma \sigma_i$ is the summation of standard deviation for the strata

n is the total sample size.

Using the above formula, the resulting percentages and number of respondents from the two stratums are as given in Table 3.2. The respondents from the 5 public universities and 3 private universities were selected randomly across the departments (Kothari, 2009). This method was considered appropriate so as to maximize precision given a stratified sample with fixed sample size.

Table 3.2 Sampling Frame

S/no	Stratum	Size	Percentage	Standard Deviation	Weighted population	Percentage	Sample
	Public universities Staff	3,480	87	1	3,480	77	92
	Private universities Staff	520	13	2	1,040	23	28
	Total	**4,000**	**100**		**4,520**	**100**	**120**

3.5 Data Collection Instrument

The instrument of data collection was a questionnaire, developed by the researcher (see Appendix 1). The questionnaire was used to obtain information about the study by linking all the items to the specific objectives and research questions. The instrument had questions on the role of Government and Government agencies in promoting quality of

teaching staff, the effect of HRM on quality, the effect of continuous professional development on quality and the effect of teaching facilities on quality of teaching staff. The instrument had also a global question on challenges in maintaining quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.

The questionnaire had items with a combination of open-ended, closed-ended, contingency and matrix questions. The Likert's four point scale and summated scale was used for measuring attitudes (Kothari, 2009). In this study, a four point scale was used to produce a forced choice measure to avoid possibilities of indifferent opinion (neither agree nor disagree). Also, use of the four point scale reduces the central tendency bias where participants may avoid extreme response categories and concentrate on the middle values (neither agree nor disagree) that cannot be objectively used to make a decision or a conclusion.

The questionnaire also provided for clear differentiation of respondents in terms of gender, age and designation. Through this, the respondent had a complete freedom of response, with a list of alternative possible answers. This type of questionnaire also provided more information to the responded and also provided an opportunity to measure other attributes that could have not easily been obtained through other methods of data collection. The method adopted was useful in reducing subjectivity and also facilitated use of quantitative analysis (Kothari, 2009).

The instrument was pre-tested with 10 respondents at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT). During pre-testing, the respondents were encouraged to make comments and suggestions concerning instructions, clarity of questions and relevance (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). The pre-testing done facilitated a review and rephrasing of some of the items that were vague and not clear, while maintaining the same meaning to all subjects. Pre-testing also enhanced adequacy, reliability and quality of the questionnaire (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999).

3.5 Data Collection

In this research, drop and pick was used in the data collection (Kothari, 2009). This method was considered appropriate considering the nature of the items in the questionnaire, the length of the questionnaire, the availability of the respondents and the geographical dispersion of the sample selected. The instruments were dropped and picked by the researcher between the months of October 2009 and February 2010 at the various universities. For universities outside Nairobi, most of the data was collected in the months of November and December 2009 while universities around Nairobi spread to February 2010.

Questionnaires were administered by the researcher to the teaching staff at the sampled universities. All cadres of teaching staff were considered in this research ranging from Teaching Assistants to Professors. Respondents were given adequate time to fill the

questionnaires, which were later picked by the researcher at various convenient intervals. Though there was representation at all levels of the teaching staff, lecturers and assistant lecturers were the majority in responses to the research questionnaire. Some Universities especially private had nil responses for professors since they are yet to have full staff establishment at the higher levels. Out of the 120 questionnaires distributed, a total of 102 were responded to. By applying the principles of Schiffman and Kanuk (1997) that small sample sizes can provide highly reliable findings depending on the sampling procedures adopted, the responses received were considered adequate and representative of the total population of teaching staff at universities.

3.6 Data Analysis

The data collected was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) software, Microsoft excel and other systems. All the questionnaires received were referenced and items in the questionnaires coded to facilitate data entry and ensure uniqueness. The reliability of the data collected was judged through tests. During analysis, reliability tests were undertaken to check on any unusual cases, using Cronbach's Alpha. For all cases, reliability test using Cronbach's Alpha gave very high values (high of 0.918 and low of 0.856) with an average index of 0.9, signifying the reliability of the data collected[1]. Face and content validity was proved through internal

[1] Results of reliability test using cronbach alpha are in the appendix 2

checkups. The positive correlation matrix between the different items was also prove of the convergent validity.

Descriptive statistics reports, representing the various research items were developed during the analysis. The tables generated gave absolute means and percentage responses to all the items in questionnaire using the four point likert scales. The measurement tool ranged from 1 to 4 with 1 representing the minimum score and 4 the maximum rated score.

Factor analysis was also done for the five research hypothesis, using principal component analysis method. Through this, it was possible to reduce data from all the original measures, while still maintaining all the information contained. This method was considered important for the study in measuring similar items conceptually, from a large set of correlated variables. Other tests done are analysis of variance (ANOVA), chi-square test, correlations, paired sample tests, paired sample correlations, pareto test, t-test and independent sample tests were undertaken (Norusis,1990).

Cross tabulations was also used to assess the relationship between two categorical variables. According to Norusis (1990), cross tabulations can be used to statistically test whether two categorical variables are independent or dependent. Pearson chi-square values and associated probability values (P-values) were used to ascertain the statistical significance of relationships.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter contains information on the analysis of the responses and explanations for all the items in the questionnaire as derived from the research objectives and research questions in chapter 1. The data collected from respondents is presented and summarized using Tables, graphs and descriptive statistics. In this research, a total of 102 questionnaires consisting of 71 % male and 29 % female were responded to from the sampled universities as provided in Figure 4.1.

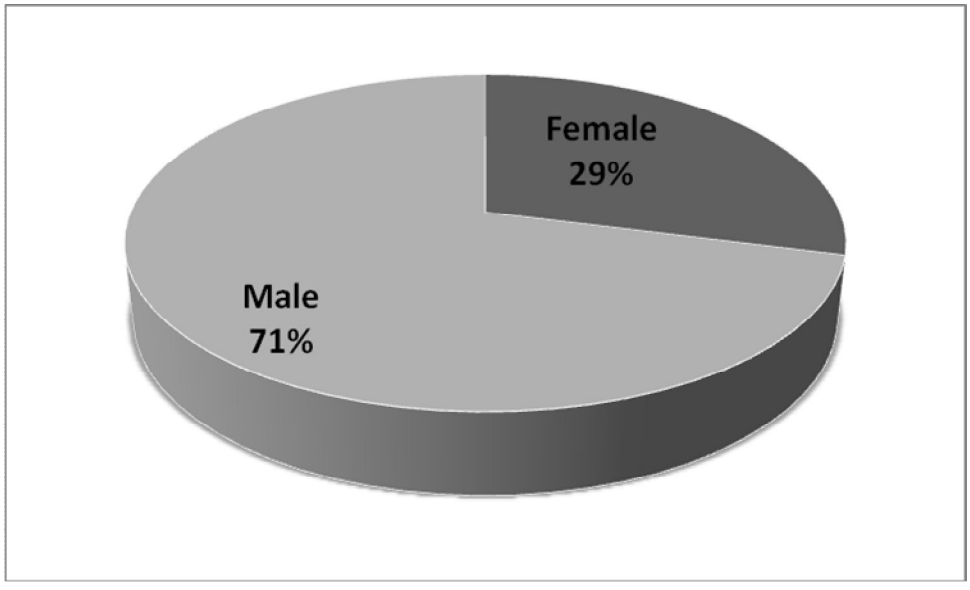

Figure 4.1: Response by Gender

High responses were received from the 31-36 age brackets and 37-42 age brackets giving 29.4% and 22.4% respectively (in Table 4.1.1). Low response rates were received from the higher and lower brackets especially at professor and graduate assistant levels. This is because, in some universities, especially the private universities, positions for graduate assistants are not established. The same applies to the higher position of professor.

Table 4.1.1: Age in years

Age span	Frequency	Percent
25-30	19	19.4
31-36	29	29.6
37-42	22	22.4
43-48	12	12.2
49-54	16	16.3
Total	98	100.0

A descriptive analysis by designation shows that a large number of the respondents were lecturers followed by the assistant lecturers with 54.9% and 29.4% response rates respectively. Professors who responded to the research constitute only 4.9% of the total sample, and senior lecturers only 6.9 %(Table 4.1.2).

Table 4.1.2: Analysis by Designation

Designation		Frequency	Percent
1	Graduate assistant	4	3.9
2	Assistant lecturer	30	29.4
3	Lecturer	56	54.9
4	Senior lecturer	7	6.9
5	Professor	5	4.9
	Total	102	100.0

In this research, the highest responses were received from Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University, Egerton University, Narok University College, University of Nairobi and KCA University. Very low responses were received from Kabarak University and the United States International University (Table 4.1.3). In total 22, questionnaires were received from private universities and 80 from public universities, a proportionate representation from each stratum.

Table 4.1.3: Analysis by University

University	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
University of Nairobi	12	11.8	11.8
Kenyatta University	18	17.6	29.4
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology	19	18.6	48.0
United States International University	4	3.9	52.0
KCA University	11	10.8	62.7
Egerton University	18	17.6	80.4
Narok University College	13	12.7	93.1
Kabarak University	7	6.9	100.0
Total	102	100.0	

4.2 The Role of Government and Government Agencies in promoting quality

In the study, the mean levels of acceptance on the level of autonomy and accountability to the Government recorded were 3.34 and 3.23 respectively out of 4[2]. The maximum and minimum in this case refers to the maximum and minimum scores given to the two attributes by the respondents. From the results, most of the respondents accept that

[2] The interpretation of means is as follows: strongly disagree (1.00-1.74), disagree (1.75-2.49), agree (2.50-3.24), strongly agree (3.25-4.0)

universities in Kenya are semi-autonomous (Table 4.2.1). Though semi autonomous however, 81% of the respondents agree that the universities are accountable to the Government either directly or indirectly through the regulatory Government agencies.

Table 4.2.1 Relationship between Universities and Government

	Universities are semi-autonomous	Universities are accountable to the Government
N	102	102
Mean	3.34	3.23
Median	3.00	3.00
Std. Deviation	.589	.595
Minimum	2	2
Maximum	4	4
Percentage	83.5	81

Ninety percent of the respondents also agree that the Kenya Government supports student learning at public universities. This is partly because of the Government's commitment to drive education for all across the country as part of its commitment to human resource development (Table 4.2.2).

Disbursements of financial resources to the public universities are not prompt and the Government has reduced its daily contribution in the affairs of the universities. The research also indicates that the hiring of senior managers at universities by the Government is not competitively handled and the Government role in the attraction and retention of staff at public universities is minimal (Table 4.2.2).

Although the commission of higher education (CHE) is involved in the regulation of programmes by private universities, their contribution in curriculum development is minimal, with a cumulative 56.5% discrediting the Government's (CHE) contribution. Other areas that the Government and commission for higher education is not actively facilitating includes contribution to quality improvement of university programmes, provision of quality and quality assurance guidelines for university resources and facilitation of external quality assurance by the commission (Table 4.2.2).

Table 4.2.2: Government and CHE Roles in Promoting Quality

		1	2	3	4[3]
		%	%	%	%
1	Universities are semi- autonomous[4]		5.9	53.9	40.2
2	Universities are accountable to the Government		8.8	59.8	31.4
3	Government has a direct hand running of universities	10.8	47.1	24.5	17.6
4	The Government is involved in staffing	14.3	33.7	38.8	13.3
5	Staffing is competitively handled by the Government	18.0	54.0	27.0	1.0
6	remuneration for managers are competitive	17.3	23.5	43.9	15.3
7	Kenyan Government supports projects in universities	7.8	17.6	64.7	9.8
8	Disbursement of financial resources is prompt	19.4	34.7	43.9	2.0
9	Governments supports student learning in public universities	1.0	8.8	64.7	25.5
10	The Governments supports student learning in private universities	8.0	33.0	52.0	7.0
11	Government is able to monitor performance	7.1	36.4	47.5	9.1
12	The Government monitors curriculum on offer	13.9	42.6	37.6	5.9
13	Universities provide quarterly /annual returns/reports to Government on performance	7.7	19.8	65.9	6.6
14	The Government is adequately represented in major decisions of universities	15.2	26.1	50.0	8.7
15	Government encourages staff development	9.0	32.0	48.0	11.0
16	The Government regulates private and public universities through CHE	1.0	17.8	56.4	24.8
17	The commission accredits all programmes offered	10.0	22.0	57.0	11.0
18	The commission is involved in university quality	8.1	39.4	39.4	13.1
19	The commission facilitates external quality assurance	6.1	42.9	40.8	10.2
20	The commission issues guidelines on quality	3.3	39.6	44.0	13.2

[3] 1= strongly disagree;2= disagree; 3=agree;4=strongly agree
[4] see appendix 1

An analysis undertaken to ascertain levels of university autonomy as per responses received using the Chi-square Test gave positive results of 0.75 using Pearson chi-square, 0.730 using the likelihood ratio and 0.529 using linear by linear association. These are as tabulated in Table 4.2.3. The results justify the earlier high percentage acceptance that universities are autonomous.

Table 4.2.3: Chi-square Test on University Autonomy

	Value	Degrees of freedom	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	.576(a)	2	.750
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	.629	2	.730
Linear-by-Linear Association	.397	1	.529
N of Valid Cases	102		

On resource disbursement, majority of the respondents disagree that disbursement to universities is prompt. Only 44 % of the respondents do agree that it is prompt with 2% strongly agreeing (Figure 4.2). Resources, being a contributor to university operational efficiency, require to be disbursed in a timely manner and the large negative response of 19% and 35% needs to be addressed. This supports an earlier research by Bradley in 2005 that the percentage of the institution's income derived from national or state

Governments has declined even with the growth in the perceived importance of higher education to Governments.

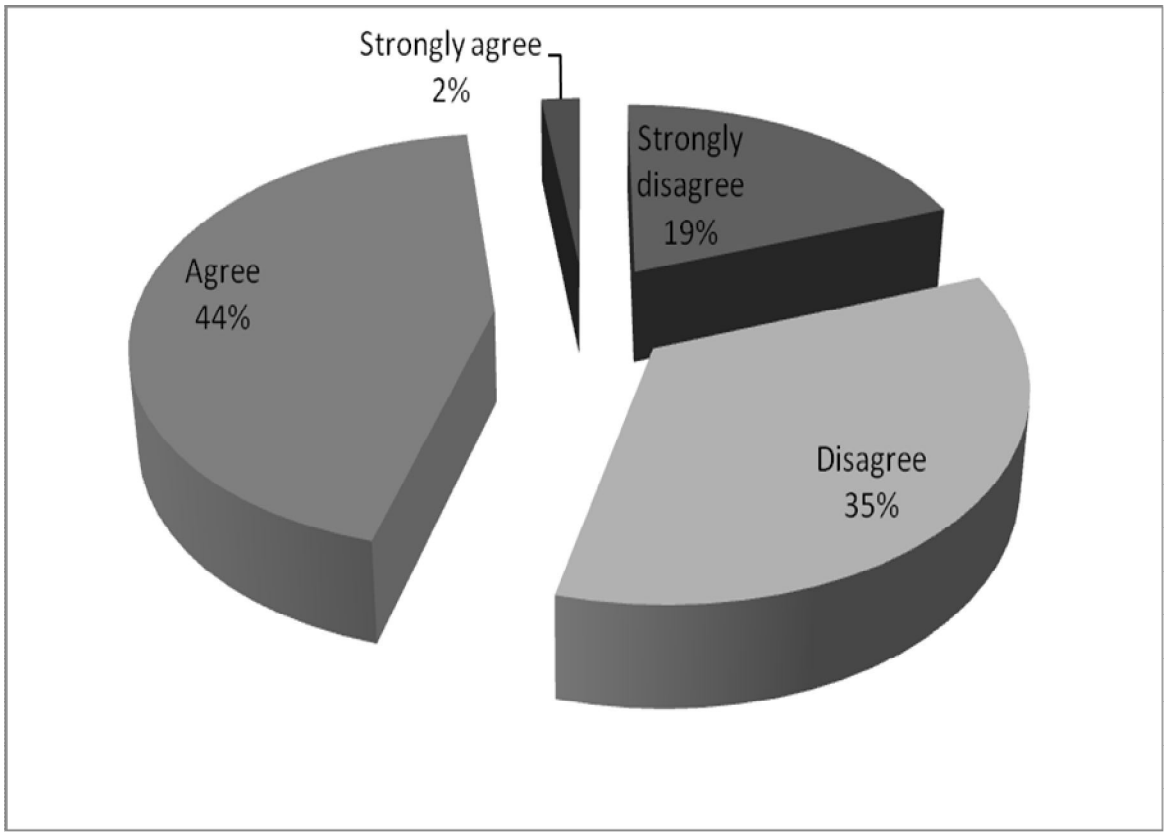

Figure 4.2 Resource Disbursement

From the results of the study, 13% strongly agree that the commission issues from time to time guidelines for quality assurance while 44% agree, giving a cumulative percentage of 57 % (Figure 4.3) . This is a satisfactory response from the stakeholders about the commission's mandate. However, according to its statutory powers, CHE is expected to play an active role in the planning, development, budgetary matters and maintaining

quality education. The politicisation of quality of university education seems to have effectively denied the Commission this particular role, thus the 43% negative responses on its ability to monitor and ensure quality of programmes at institutions of higher learning, especially the public universities. This will even be worse with time with the additional number of university colleges that were established in the years 2007 to 2010.

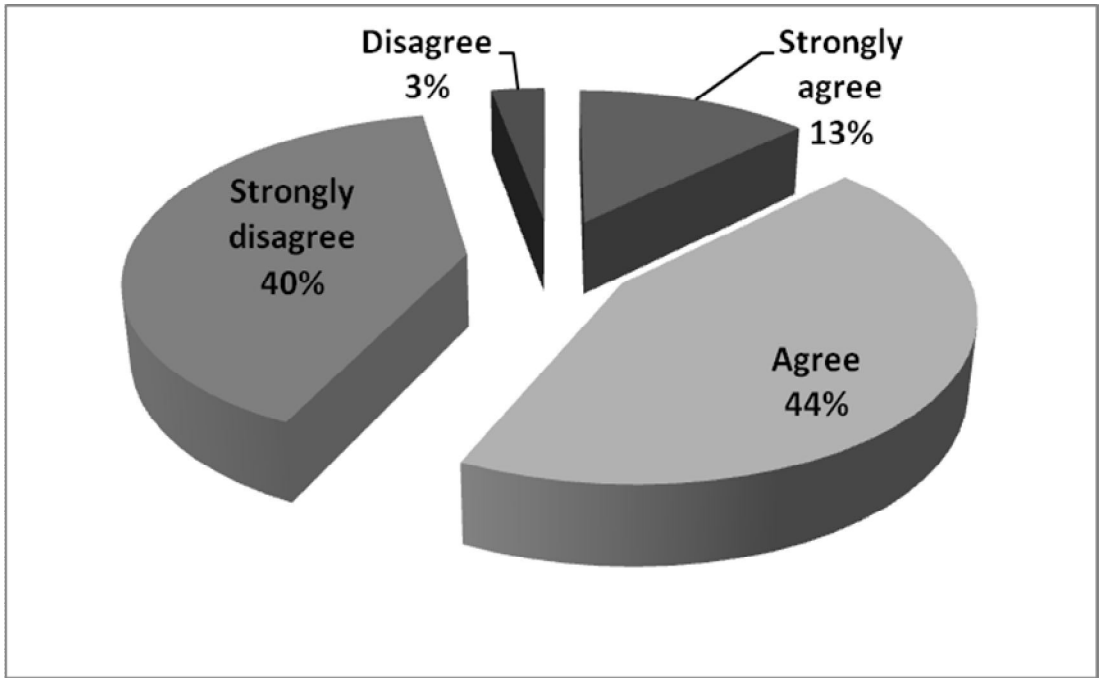

Figure 4.3 Guidelines for Quality Assurance

While the Kenya Government monitors the development of curriculum at public universities through the respective performance contracts and representation during development and implementation, programmes in private universities are first considered and approved by the commission for higher education before roll out. This is aimed at enhancing quality and supports an earlier research by Vidovich (2001) and Billing (2004).

The regulatory role of the commission on both private and public universities, as earlier researched, is still strong with 55.9% of the respondents agreeing and 24.5% strongly agreeing (Figure 4.4). It therefore means that the universities adequately understand the regulatory role of the commission as provided in its mandate, and continues to be represented in the commission board, though the commission does not have enough teeth to bite, as provided in its mandate.

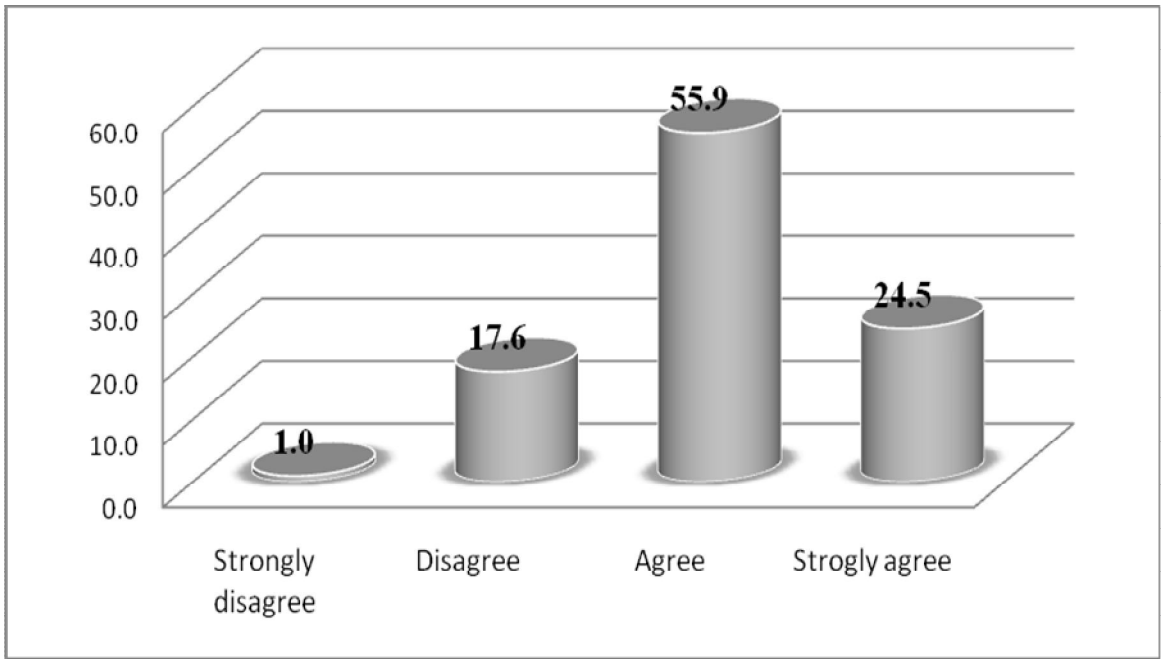

Figure 4.4 Regulation of both Private and Public Universities

In reality, even after the establishment of CHE, public universities continued to argue their individual budgetary submissions with the treasury, liaising with each other and collectively through the committee of vice-chancellors, irrespective of the provisions of the mandate for CHE. The conflicting mandate of CHE and statutes of the public

universities provide for this confusion. Interestingly, the Government recognizes and supports this autonomy as they deal with the public universities direct in day to day activities, budgetary allocations and performance contracting, with each public university having an autonomous gazetted University Council.

This confusion, however, does not appear to be serious in the private universities where the mandate of examining and approving proposals for courses of study and course regulations submitted to it by private universities and receiving and considering applications from persons seeking to establish private universities in Kenya is adequately premised within the Commission(Universities Act,1985).

Though limited in capacity, the Commission for Higher Education has actively been involved in provision of guidelines to ensure quality of programmes and quality of service at universities. For example, all private universities with charters had to show their human resource capacity for various programmes before approvals are made to allow them offer those programmes. The Commission of Higher Education has also provided guidelines for curriculum development across all universities and unless and until any new programmes have satisfactory met all these requirements, they cannot be rolled out. This almost cements Harvey's earlier research on External quality monitoring to ensure accountability and conformity (Harvey, 2002).

The key areas that the Government has been involved in public universities includes the development of major infrastructural projects with 64.7% agreeing and 9.8% strongly agreeing; performance contracting with47.1% agreeing and 9.1 % strongly agreeing and in student learning with 64.7% of the respondents agreeing and 25.5% strongly agreeing(Figure 4.5).

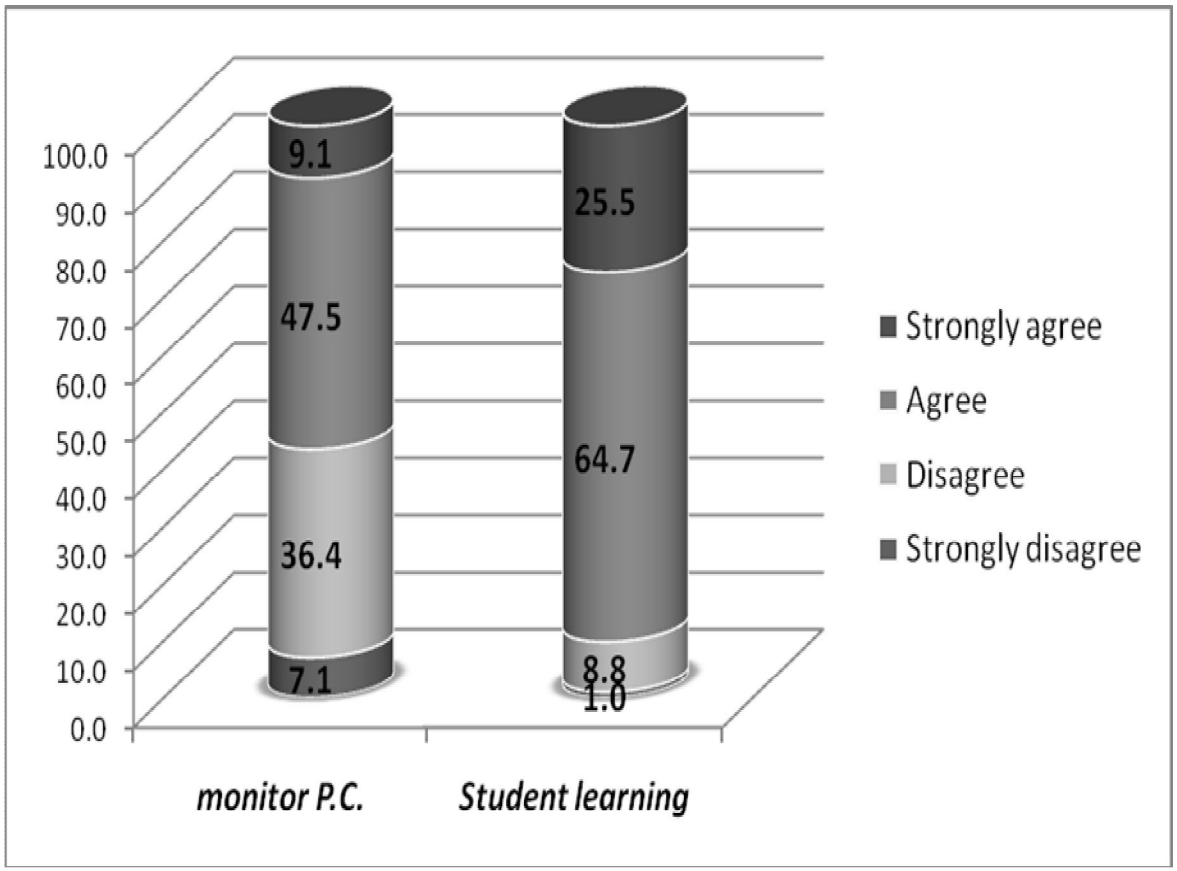

Figure 4.5 Government Role in Projects, Performance Contracts and Student Learning

From these results, it is clear that the Government role in promoting higher education through supporting the needy students with loans by the Higher Education Loans Board

is strongly recognized and has addressed the challenge that was there before its enactment in July 1985, when the University Students Loans Scheme (USLS), which was managed by the Ministry of Education lacked the legal basis to administer loans as well as the mandate to recover loans from students after completion of their education.

Other areas where the Government role is strongly felt includes monitoring and evaluation through quarterly and annual performance contracts reports to the Government (72.5%), representation in key issues of the universities (58.7%) and involvement in staff development through provision of research and innovation funds (59%). Indeed, the Government, through the National Council of Science and Technology (NCST), has been funding research by lecturers at universities.

This supports the earlier research on Government's desire for control, especially to assure on diversity and richness of what universities do. Such activities are part of the Governments' commitments in improving the efficiency and effectiveness of large, complex institutions that are vital to the nation's needs and in which Government, business, professional associations and hundreds of thousands of domestic and international students have a keen interest.

Factor analysis was run on the 20 responses received on the role of Government and Government agencies in promoting quality of teaching staff at universities.

Table 4.2.4: Factor Analysis on Government Contribution to Quality

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
A19	.778					
A20	.771					
A16	.672					
A4	.661					
A15		.782				
A5		.759				
A14		.647				
A18		.517	.420			
A11			.885			
A12			.646			
A10			.630			
A17		.435	.592			
A13			.465			-.460
A1				.737		
A2				.636		
A6				-.491		
A3				.423		
A9					.897	
A7					.654	
A8						.864

Using the principal component analysis, rotation method, varimax, with Kaiser Normalization, three items (A8, A18, A17 and A13) were excluded from the results in

table 4.2.4, resulting into five factors (Figure 4.6). The five factors include: quality assurance; staffing and staff development; performance based management; autonomy and mandate of universities and financial resources (support)5.

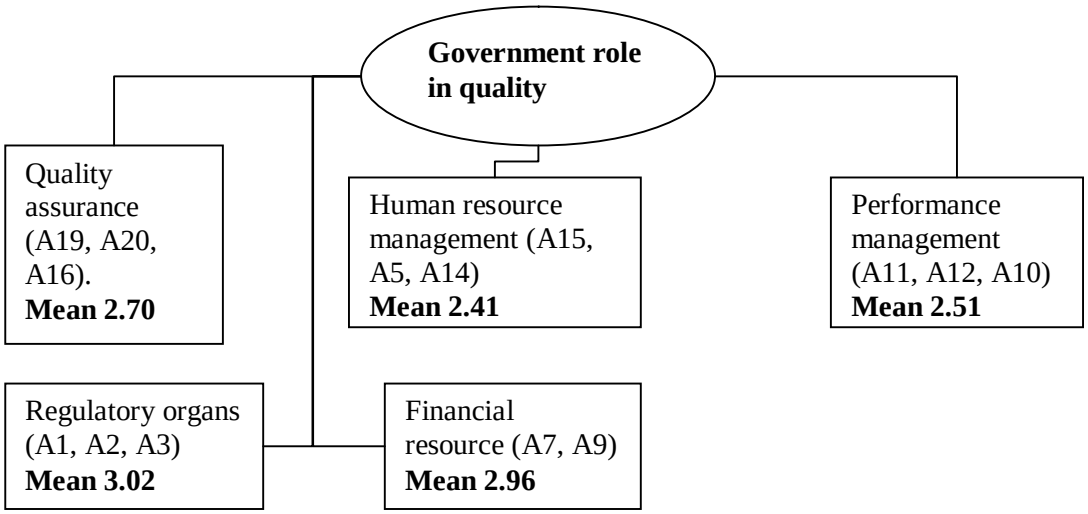

Figure 4.6 Factor Analysis on Government Role in Quality

From the results, the Government role as a regulatory organ of the universities came highest with a mean of 3.02 while the human resources management practices at universities was rated least with a mean of 2.41. These results give a clear statement that universities remain to be autonomous as provided in the various Acts that created them in contract to the supervisory role that the commission for higher education was created to provide. The Commission for Higher Education, though mandated to monitor quality

[5] The interpretation of means is as follows: strongly disagree (1.00-1.74), disagree (1.75-2.49), agree (2.50-3.24), strongly agree (3.25-4.0)

of programmes on offer at both public and private universities, is not directly able to control the running of these universities as also earlier proved by Sifuna (1998) and Chacha (2004). The missing link on the role of the commission for higher education on university education, especially public universities therefore continues to persist.

The poor ratings on resource and performance management at the universities imply that universities are not able to meet their obligations as and when they fall due as a result of these limitations. This factor has an impact on all the other factors as they rely on financial resources. As also earlier researched by Chacha(2004), funding for higher education by the Government must be re-defined to factor in the unit cost of running the programmes as well as the timely provision of these resources to support the teaching and learning.

On performance management, the Government role in monitoring performance gave a mean of 2.51. The low ratings on performance however, arose out of the poor response rates on the ability and role of Government to monitor curriculum development, implementation and evaluation. From the results therefore, it comes out that while the Government is in the forefront crusading for quality at universities, it does not have elaborate mechanisms to ensure that quality is enhanced and maintained at these universities. The factor also indicates that the Government role and ability to support student learning in private universities as well as monitor performance of key managers at universities is low.

4.3 Effect of Human Resource Management practices on Quality of teaching staff

To ascertain the role of human resource management in improving quality, a descriptive analysis was done on a number of items as given in Table 4.3. The analysis found that managers understand the university goals and objectives (89.5%); are responsive to employees' questions and concerns (60%); enhance quality of service given by employees (59.6%) and regularly appraise their employees (55%). However usage of other human resource management tools for improving quality were rated below average including caring for career development(43.1%); promoting staff on merit(48.6%); hiring only competent staff(44.5%); investing in professional development (47.1%) and having attractive compensation as compared to other institutions (42.7%).

The biggest challenge in human resource development however rests in recommending low performer for training/couching (22.4%), providing prompt feedback (24.8%), ensuring that compensation is equitable and fair (31.3%) and enhancing performance based pay (29%). This therefore creates a complete disconnect on the role of human resource management is supposed to play in improving the quality of teaching at universities. The results negate the HRM practices that managers must implement to strengthen the perceptions of employees as well as customers that the organization is service oriented and is above board.

Table 4.3.1: HRM practices and Quality

		1	2	3	4[6]
		%	%	%	%
1	The university managers clearly understand university goals and objectives	5.3	5.3	66.3	23.2
2	The university managers provide employees with the information necessary to promote high quality service	6.1	46.9	35.7	11.2
3	The university managers are responsive to employees' questions and concerns	5.0	35.0	42.0	18.0
4	The university leaders enhance the quality of service given by employees	2.0	38.4	47.5	12.1
5	The managers care for career development for employees	15.8	35.6	44.6	4.0
6	Promotions are based on merit at the university	22.5	34.3	40.2	2.9
7	Only qualified and competent staff are hired	22.8	32.7	38.6	5.9
8	The university invests in professional development for staff	15.7	37.3	36.3	10.8
9	Training needs assessment is clear and unbiased	17.2	53.5	25.3	4.0
10	Compensation is attractive compared to other training institutions	15.3	41.8	35.7	7.1
11	Compensation is performance based	14.0	57.0	27.0	2.0
12	Compensation is equitable and fair	16.2	52.5	30.3	1.0
13	Employees are regularly appraised/evaluated	10.0	35.0	51.0	4.0
14	Employees receive feedback on their performance	21.4	33.7	34.7	10.2
15	Feedback is prompt	25.7	49.5	24.8	
16	There is recognition/reward for high performers	18.6	43.1	35.3	2.9
17	Low performers are recommended for training/couching	26.5	51.0	20.4	2.0

From the results, 27% of the respondents strongly disagree that the low performers are recommended for training/couching and 51% disagree (Figure 4.7). Generally, this is an indication that universities are not keen in enhancing performance of their staff through

[6] 1= strongly disagree;2= disagree; 3=agree;4=strongly agree

further training. This is against the human resource management best practices as training is an important component for human resource development and motivation.

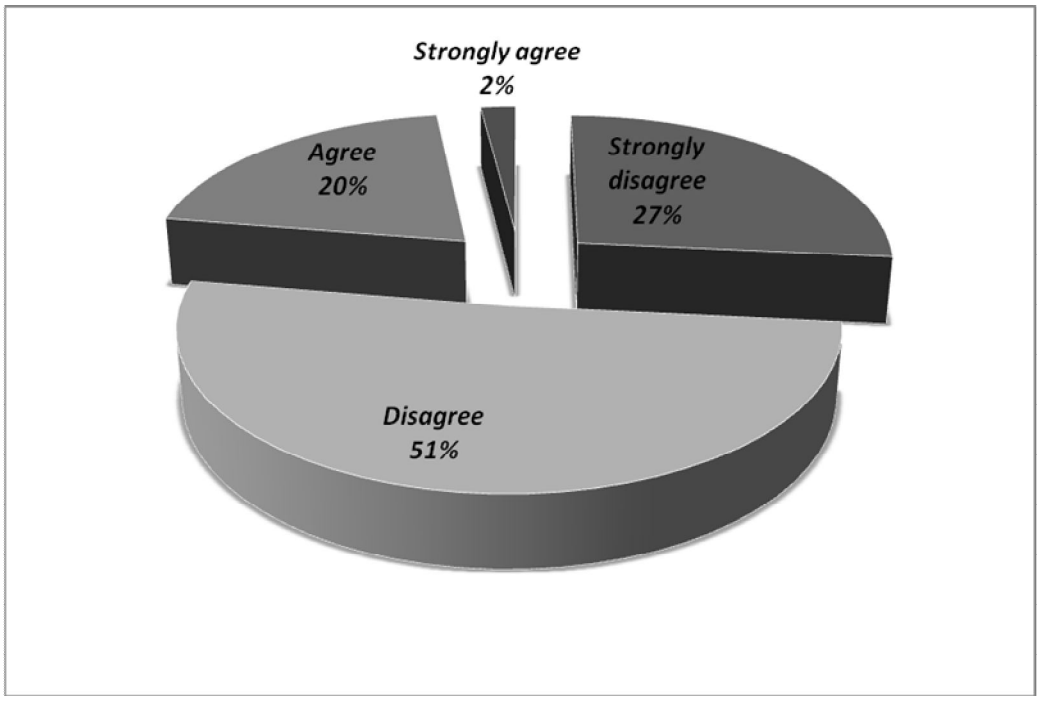

Figure 4.7 Training/Couching Low Performers

As also early researched by Tzafrir and Gur(2007) , promotion and career development are considered as key drivers to quality of staff. From the knowledge based view, caring for career development and promoting service employees who are already service minded and customer oriented will strengthen the perceptions of employees as well as customers that the organization is service oriented.

From the motivational view, the promoted employees feel valued by the organization, and understand that the organization is willing to invest in them in the long term. In this way they are motivated to reciprocate to the organization by investing efforts to provide

quality service to customers (Tzafrir & Gur 2007). From the results of the research therefore, management is poorly applying the human resource tools for promoting quality as little emphasis is given to training, pay packages for staff, merit based promotions and feedback on performance.

Generally, the bureaucratic red-tape that tends to surround promotion and appointment processes was realized. This is supported by the 22.5% strongly disagreeing and 34.3% % of the respondents disagreeing that promotion are based on merit (Figure 4.8). For the teaching staff, the minimum benchmark for promotion from one level to another may not be standard from one institution to the other. This is the case especially for the new constituent university colleges that were created in the year 2008, which had to bend their criteria in order to attract teaching staff from the established public universities.

The 40.2 % of respondents supporting the promotion criteria in use may have been the beneficiaries of these new Constituent Colleges. Also, the criteria and procedures for promotion and permanent appointment are long, stressful and cumbersome in some of the established public universities, contributing to the low evaluation recorded on this item. For example, appointments are held up for inordinately long periods of time because external assessors delay in submitting their evaluation.

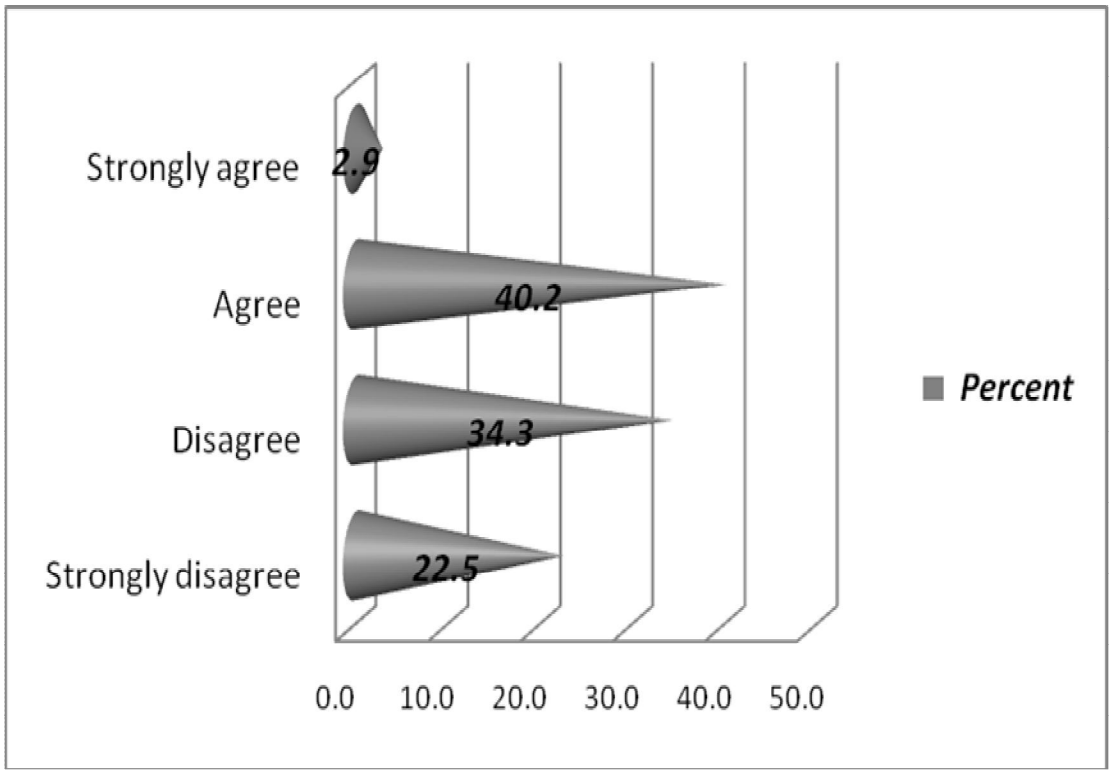

Figure 4.8 Promotions are based on Merit

On feedback, 25.7% of the respondents strongly disagreed that it is prompt while 49.5% disagreed. Only 24.8% are happy with the timeliness of feedback on their performance (Figure 4.9). This therefore means that the lecturers are not able to quickly detect areas of weakness or poor performance so as to improve. This means that little emphasis is given on feedback as a mechanism for communicating performance of the teaching staff.

As earlier also suggested by Tzafrir & Gur in 2007, a comprehensive and accepted appraisal system can provide valuable feedback to employees and assist managers in making decisions regarding the individual employee, so as to give strategic direction on institutional human resource position and needs.

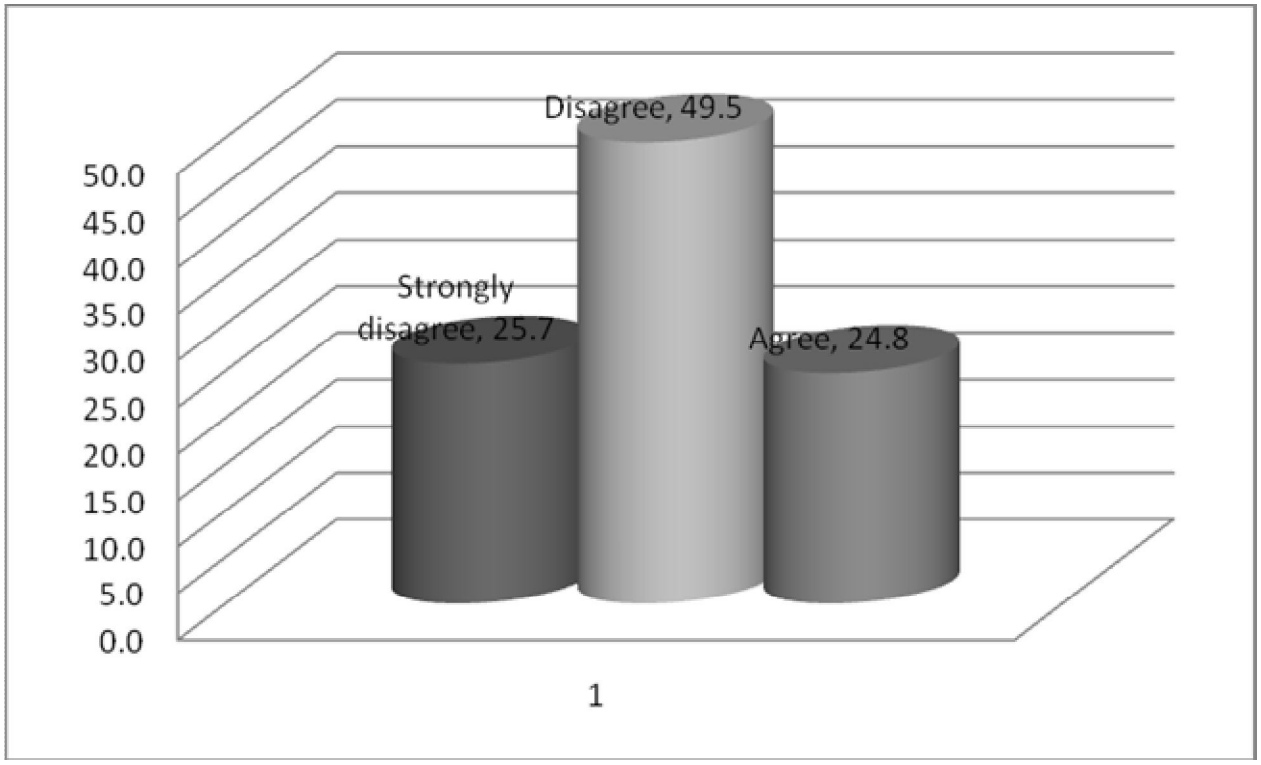

Figure 4.9 Feedback

Factor analysis was run on the human resource management practices contribution in improving quality of teaching staff at universities, using the principal component analysis, rotation method, varimax with Kaiser Normalization (Table 4.3.2).

Table 4.3.2 Factors Analysis on HRM practices

	Component		
	1	2	3
B15	.853		
B14	.809		
B13	.694		
B17	.655		
B4	.614		
B8	.553	.447	
B16	.527		
B3	.472	.426	.464
B12		.843	
B10		.793	
B11	.489	.710	
B7		.443	
B2			.871
B1			.761
B6			.557
B9		.461	.532
B5		.444	.458

The rotation converged in 5 iterations, resulting into three factors relating to reward/sanctions; compensation; and university management style (Figure 4.10).

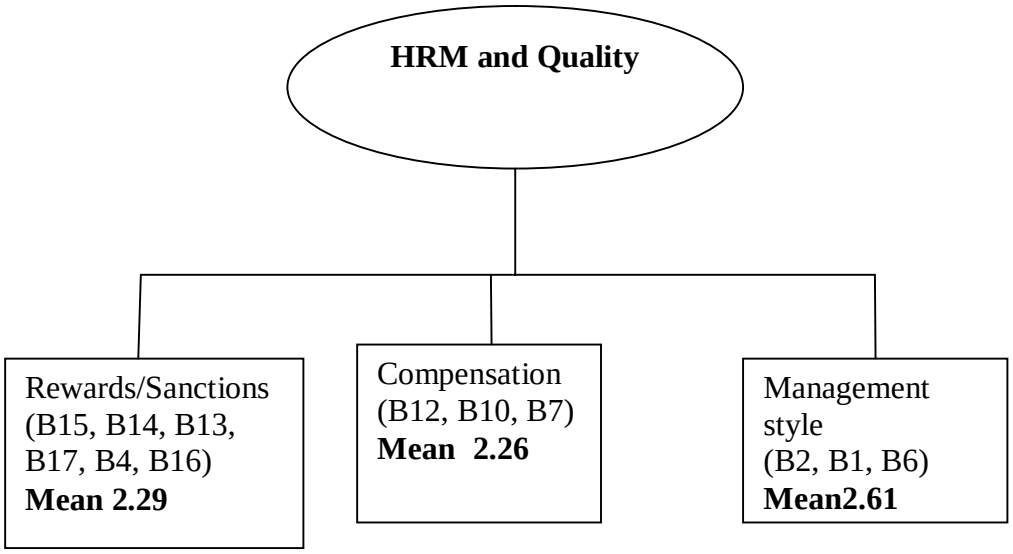

Figure 4.10 Factor Analysis on HRM Practices

From the results of factors analysis, the compensation factor is the least rated with a mean of 2.26 followed by reward/sanctions with mean of 2.29 and management with mean of 2.61. The two factors of compensation and reward/sanctions are rated below the average of at least 2.507. The biggest challenge on compensation is that it is never equitable and fair (Table 4.3.2). Also compensation received is not very attractive as compared to earnings in other places. As also earlier researched by Tettey (2006), academic staff are also affected by the internal brain drain where the teaching staff move from institutions of

[7] The interpretation of means is as follows: strongly disagree (1.00-1.74), disagree (1.75-2.49), agree (2.50-3.24), strongly agree (3.25-4.0)

higher education to other sectors within the same country. The reasons for these outflows from academia are varied, but are largely economic.

In fact, academic staff are also lured away by a variety of Government agencies, where salaries are often better and the working environment more comfortable. In many cases, the salaries and benefits in universities are lower than comparative positions in and outside of the civil service. For instance, a comparative salary analysis in Kenya currently reveal that salary levels in sectors such as energy, finance, revenue collection, and the media are all higher than those of the universities.

From the reward/sanctions factor, items on the university systems for recognizing low performers for training and couching, reward systems, feedback and appraisal were all scored very low. Of interest here is failure to give feedback on performance on time and also failure to recommend the low level performers for further training. The resulting impact is that these same teaching staff continues to teach even though they may be weak therefore compromising on quality as good quality at universities is an important avenue towards nurturing the teachers needed for universal primary education, the experienced doctors, nurses and community workers needed for better water and health facilities, the accountants, economists, and journalists required for better private business and better governance.

Factor analysis on the university management system however, had positive responses on management understanding university goals and objectives and also on their responsiveness on employee concerns and questions. The management style that has in place mechanisms that ensure the nurturing of intellectual potentials, and providing the environment that sustains them, is vital to the development and maintenance of a competitive edge in the global market place of ideas, which recognizes teaching staff as an important human resource in higher education. However, the challenge on promotions for teaching staff needs to be addressed as most of the respondents were negative on this subject.

As also earlier recommended by Tettey (2006), management should avoid the frustration and tardiness of appointment and promotion processes and foster transparency, by ensuring that they are devolved to faculties, and anchored in a representative committee system at every level. University management should also give cognizance to the weighting of teaching against research, in promotions and permanent appointment decisions. With the current university setups however, lecturers sometimes get overloaded with the teaching work load and have little time to research and provide the minimum required papers for promotion. There is therefore need to consider such exceptional cases for promotions so as to motivate the teaching staff.

4.4 Continuing Professional Development and Quality

From the analysis results, the university lecturers actively participate in the development of departmental and faculty polices with 39.2% strongly agreeing and 45.1 % agreeing. As also suggested by Griffiths (1993), a comprehensive and positive staff development policy is essential in helping staff deal with a changing demands and circumstances.

positive responses were also seen in the selection of syllabus and the teaching methods with 15% strongly agreeing and 55% agreeing; in curriculum/programme development with 23.5% strongly in agreement and 65.7% in agreement and in the formulation of national curricula and examinations with 49.2% agreeing and 22.2 strongly agreeing (Figure 4.11).

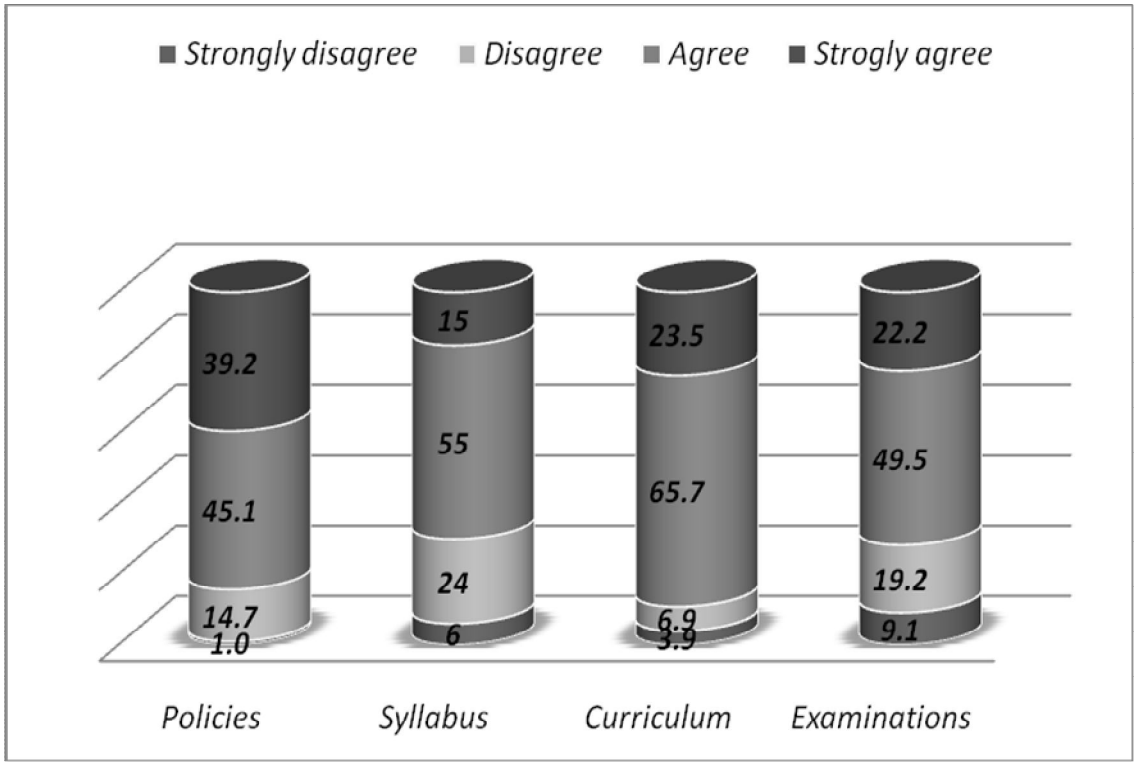

Figure 4.11 Policies,Syllabus, Cirriculum and Examination Involvement

The commitment to staff development and the belief in the performance appraisal and planning process is the integral part of individual and institutional development. This process is designed to improve job understanding on the part of the staff and the promotion of more effective job performance, and establish future goals for career growth. Staff development programmes also assist staff in understanding their job responsibilities and leaders' performance expectations (Anyamele, 2007). The good responses on staff development as well as provision for continuous growth of the lecturers (Table 4.4.1) are a strong commitment to job performance by the universities.

Indeed, only 8% of the respondents feel that there is no policy providing for growth of teaching staff. the high ratings on policy for growth of teaching staff also supplements the earlier continuous professional development model by Farrugia(1996), that provided that for teaching staff, professionalism is measured through the acquisition of knowledge and understanding of educational theory ; application and refinement of validated pedagogy for tertiary-level teaching and learning; practice of instructional and managerial autonomy coupled with accountability and exercising organizational authority governed by internalized control.

However, with their active participation in teaching and learning, there exists a mismatch between their earnings and performance. For example, remuneration, work environment and their involvement in decision making is low as represented by the low percentages of 41.9%, 52.9% and 46.1 respectively. The salaries paid to staff are not standard and are not matched with their qualifications. The level of empowerment and job satisfaction, through attractive rewards and incentives is yet to be embraced in universities as supported by these results

In modern institutions, job satisfaction for staff takes the course of making staff feel satisfied in their academic work. One way of doing this is to provide the staff the necessary rewards and incentives, as a way of empowerment that enhances job performance. It is only when the staff in the university are satisfied in their work that quality teaching can be ensured, which in turn can raise the level of student learning in the university. However, with the low percentage of staff appreciating the teaching and working environment, their conditions of work, remuneration, degree of dialogue and degree of collective decision-making suggests that universities have not adequately addressed job satisfaction incentives for staff.

As also suggested by Anyamele (2007), lecturer participation in decision making in the university boards, as a form of staff development suggests the availability of democratic values and principles in the campus in which staff learn from the freedom to make decisions in matters that concern them, and affect their work and well being. The

participation in meetings held by their respective departments and faculties prepare them for future challenges in the administration of their units. Participation of staff in curriculum development and in the department/ faculty issues is highly re-emphasized by the respondents' outcomes.

While staff development satisfies individual learning needs as well as the enhancement of institutional capacity to manage and thrive in a new environment, many staff are never given opportunities to develop. The learning and change that are required must take place within individuals but as a result, the organization develops. In its capacity to engage with and adapt to new circumstances, organizational learning occurs. From the results however, rarely are teaching staff, other than heads of departments and other staff assigned administrative duties involved in management decision making, with only 46.1% of the respondents agreeing that the degree of collective decision-making and peer group selection is good.

Table 4.4.1: Effect of Staff Development on Quality

Item[8]	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	%	%	%	%
There exists a policy for staff development	8.0	18.0	64.0	10.0
The university provides for continuous growth for lecturers	7.8	25.5	52.0	14.7
Lecturer are involved in curriculum/programme development	3.9	6.9	65.7	23.5
Lecturer participate in departmental and faculty policies	1.0	14.7	45.1	39.2
Lecturer participate in formulation of national curricula and examinations	9.1	19.2	49.5	22.2
Lecturer participation in the selection of syllabuses and teaching methods	6.0	24.0	55.0	15.0
The teaching and working environment is good	14.7	32.4	48.0	4.9
lecturers' conditions of work are reasonable	11.8	39.2	44.1	4.9
Remuneration is reasonable and commensurate with qualifications	15.3	42.9	38.8	3.1
The degree of dialogue of staff with the institution's administration is cordial	9.2	37.8	51.0	2.0
The degree of collective decision making and peer-group selection is good	9.8	44.1	42.2	3.9
Lecturers contribution to the community's welfare	8.4	29.5	57.9	4.2
The degree of self-control and regulation is high	11.2	24.5	57.1	7.1
Level of appreciation of lecturers work by the community is modest	14.4	24.7	55.7	5.2

On curriculum development alone, 66% of the respondents agree on their participation in curriculum development with 23% strongly agreeing. This is a strong test of staff

[8] 1= strongly disagree;2= disagree; 3=agree;4=strongly agree

commitment to their core business of teaching with a deserving high cumulative of 89 as opposed to 11% as given in Figure 4.12.

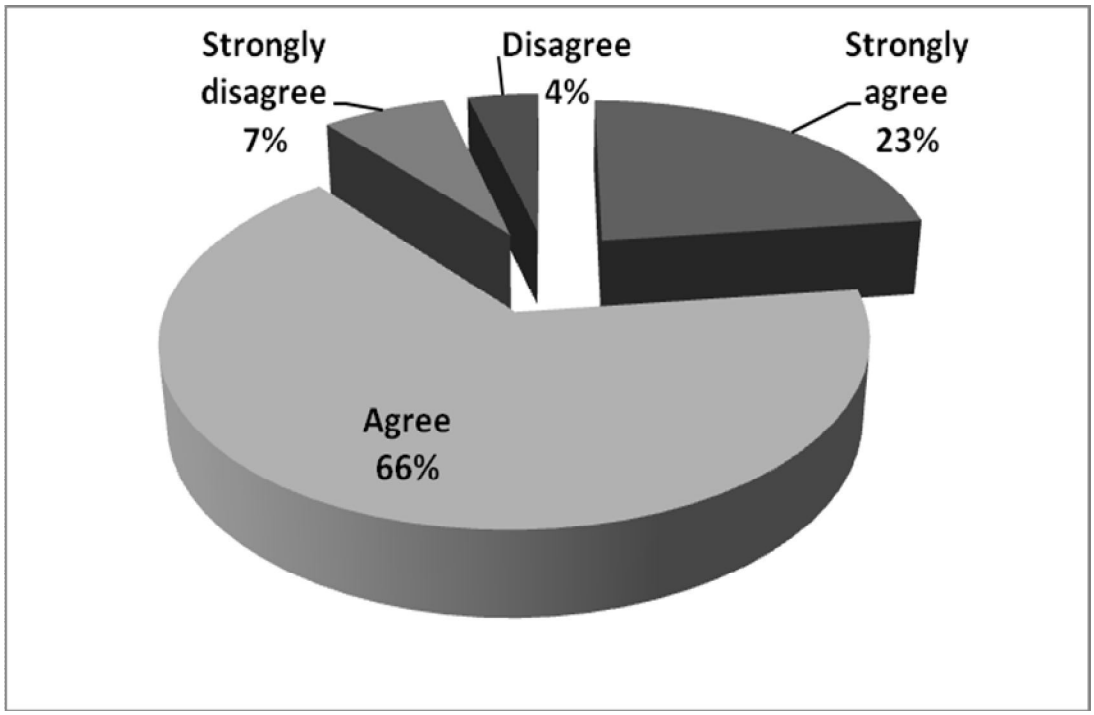

Figure 4.12 Curriculum Development

Staff participation in development projects is also as a form of staff development. The lecturer's contribution to community welfare, the degree of self control and regulation and their level of appreciation by the community is high. From the results, 55.7% of the respondents agree lecturers contribute to the community with 5.2% strongly in agreement. For self control and regulation, 57.1% of the respondents agree that it is high with 7.1% strongly agreeing. Also the level of appreciation of lecturers work by the community is considered as modest by with 57.9 % agreeing and 4.2% in strong agreement (Figure 4.13).

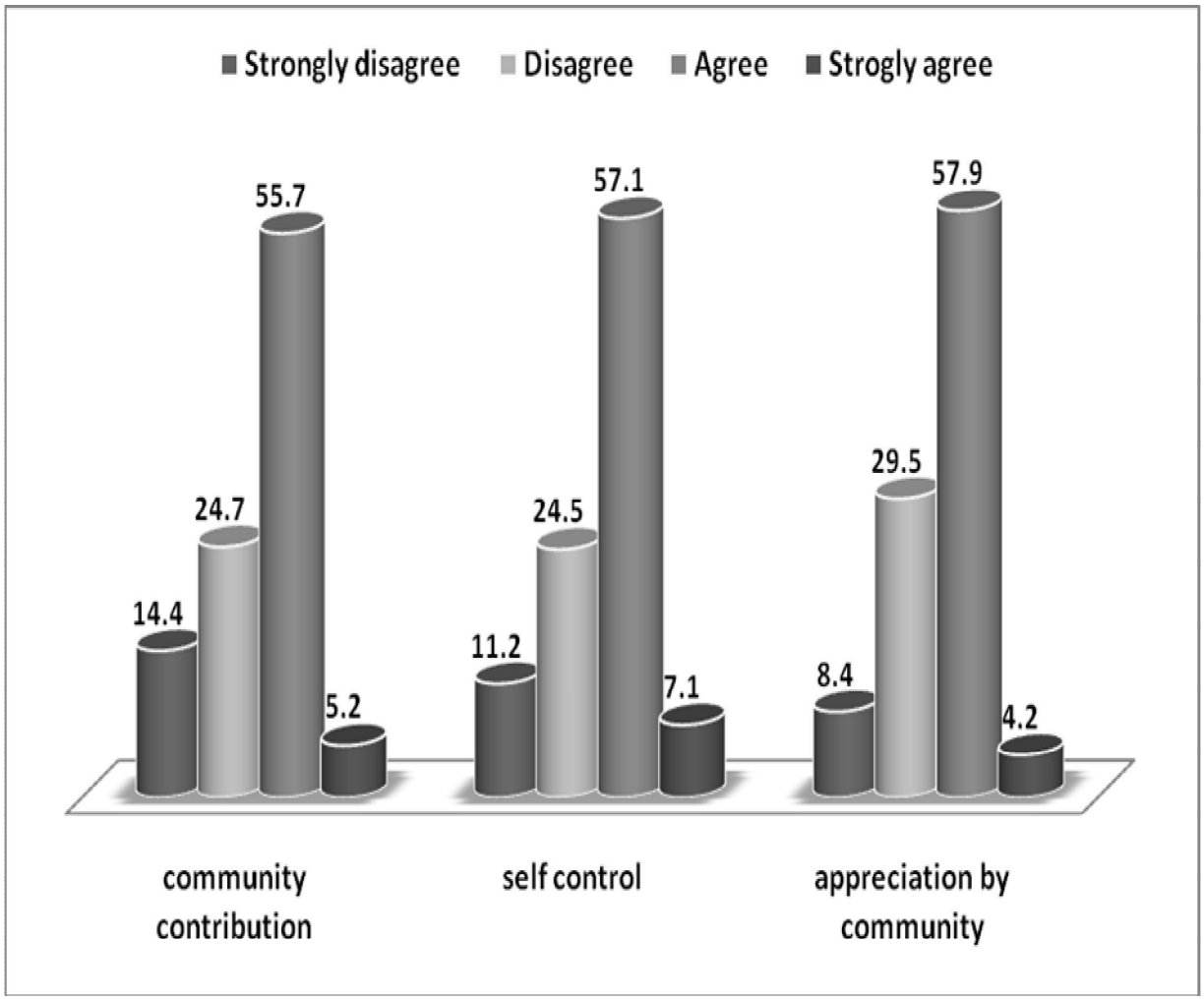

Figure 4.13 Community Relationships and Self Control

To test the respondents' opinion on the relationship between what the lecturers are paid against their qualification, 38.8% of the respondents agree that the remuneration is reasonable and commensurate with their qualifications while 3.1% strongly agree. For work environment, 44.1% of the respondents agree that the conditions of work are reasonable with 4.9% strongly agreeing. For both work environment and remuneration however, this is below the 50% (Figure 4.14). While emphasis may be given on quality

and quality assurance for teaching staff standing to profess their contribution to humanity, as earlier suggested by Farrugia in 1996, material or financial rewards is also a big contributor to quality.

Generally, academics are likely to leave an institution where they feel that their autonomy is compromised, their desire for innovation is not supported, and collegiality a mirage. In effect, the nature of the institutional climate within which these academics work will strongly influence the extent to which they are willing to remain at an institution (Tettey, 2006). As found in this research, the work environment for teaching staff at universities is still a challenge (Figure 4.14). Forty seven percent (47%) of the respondents were dissatisfied with the existing work environment.

Some lecturers still have no access to some of the basic teaching facilities like offices, desks, computers and internet. This is much more so in the public universities where resources have not been adequately matched with facilities. This confirms what was observed earlier by Abagi (1999) that in many cases the increase in student numbers over the years is not matched by a corresponding expansion in teaching/learning facilities. Quality can therefore only be assured if such disparities are addressed.

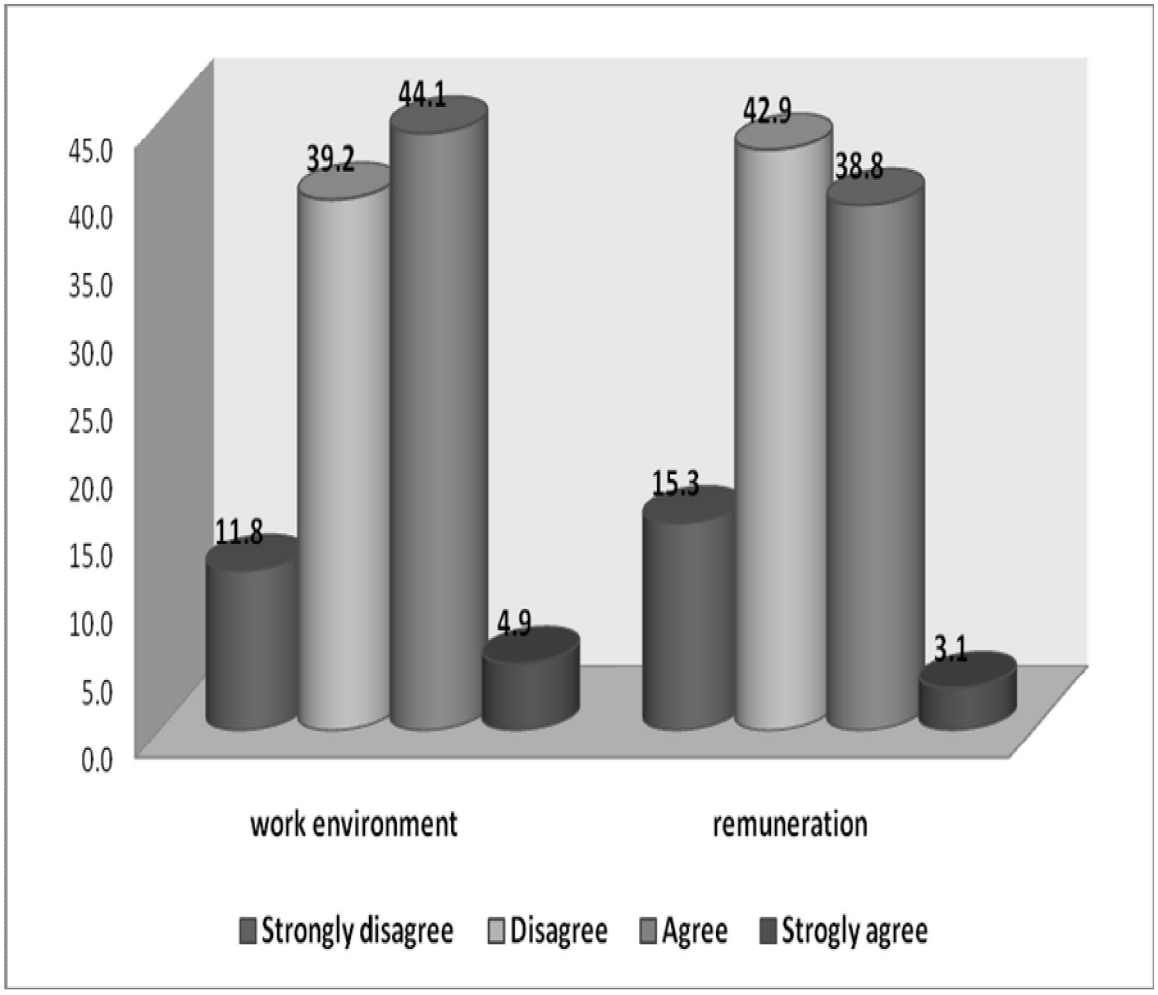

Figure 4.14 Work Environment and Remuneration

As also found in the research, university teaching staff actively participates in the development of departmental and faculty polices, in curriculum development, in the review of syllabus and also in examinations. This constitutes the Continuous Professional Development for a professional teaching staff, a person exercising institutional authority governed by internalized control to fulfill educational objectives and growth of a professional ethics in an institution of higher learning. The positive performance on

continuous professional development supports an earlier study by Farrugia in 1996, which provided for enhancement of professionalism through the educational theory, application and the refinement of validated pedagogy, instructional and managerial autonomy, lecturers' development and professional ethics.

The nature of governance within an institution goes a long way in influencing satisfaction or lack thereof among academics. Participation by academics in decision-making help them feel part of the organization and give them a sense of ownership in the outcomes of those decisions. From the respondents, 74% agree that they participate in the faculty and departmental policies (Figure 4.11).

Factor analysis was done on the effect of continuing professional development on quality of teaching staff, using principal component analysis, rotation method, varimax with Kaiser Normalization (Table 4.4.2).

Table 4.4.2 Factor Analysis, Continuous professional development

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
C8	.854			
C9	.848			
C7	.847			
C11	.601			
C3		.818		
C2		.768		
C1		.706		
C4		.588		
C6		.533	.491	
C12			.797	
C5			.726	
C13			.643	
C14				.761
C10				.736

Using the principal component method, one of the items (C6) was excluded as it was cutting across two factors. The factor analysis resulted into four factors that contain items relating to policy, terms and conditions of work, contribution to society and relationship with the stakeholders as shown in Figure 4.15 below.

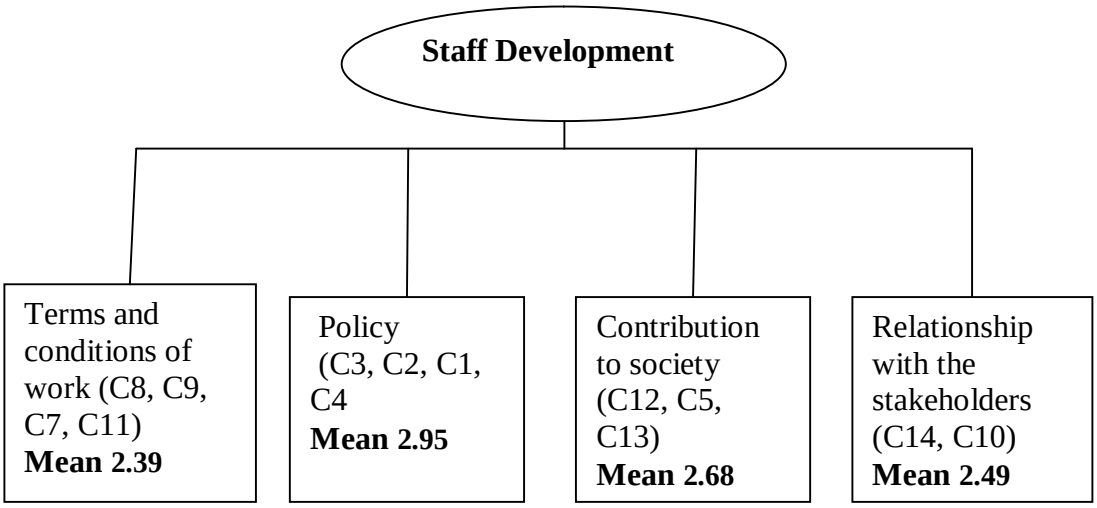

Figure 4.15 Factor Analysis on Staff Development

From the factor analysis on the relationship of continuous professional development to quality, policy factor, terms and conditions of work, contribution to society and relationship with stakeholders had mean scores of 2.95, 2.39, 2.68 and 2.49 respectively[9].

The mean for terms and conditions of work is the least (2.39). Under this factor, the subject considered included the teaching and working environment, lecturers' conditions of work, remuneration and the degree of collective decision making and peer group selection. Contemporary theory on human resource management agitates for the exploitation of existing synergies among employees as opposed to individualism. In this

[9] The interpretation of means is as follows: strongly disagree (1.00-1.74), disagree (1.75-2.49), agree (2.50-3.24), strongly agree (3.25-4.0)

case, the lecturers were asked to shed the light on degree of collective decision making and peer group selection. Good remuneration increases job satisfaction among the staff and enhances the quality of service expected from them (Chimanikire et al, 2007). With the high percentage of respondents indicating that remuneration is not reasonable and is not commensurate with qualifications, there is need for universities to address this subject.

Another factor that received low rating was interaction with community and stakeholders (2.49). The interpersonal relations within the universities are low with most of the respondents negative on the degree of dialogue of staff with the universities administration.

4.5 Effect of Teaching Facilities on Quality of Teaching Staff

The existence of teaching facilities had a direct bearing on quality. From the analysis, majority of the respondents accept that e-leaning is a major resource for knowledge dissemination and the existence of internet teaching facilities and use of computers provides opportunities for greater service delivery giving high positive rates of 97% and 98% respectively.

From the research, it came out clearly that the large class sizes, inadequate teaching and learning facilities, delays in procurement of teaching materials, use of substandard teaching and learning materials and the limited financial resources affect effective service delivery. These results are similar to the earlier one by Ngware & Ndirangu in 2005 that showed that the teaching of large classes and marking many scripts is still very common, while also poor teaching facilities and inadequate teaching/learning resources in all public and private universities is still a challenge. This calls into question the quality of learning provided by the universities.

Table 4.5.1: Teaching facilities and Quality

		1	2	3	4[10]
		%	%	%	%
1	[11]E-learning is an important resource for knowledge dissemination	2.0	1.0	24.8	72.3
2	Existence of internet teaching facilities provide opportunities for greater service delivery	2.0		24.5	73.5
3	Use of computers and computer accessories facilitate service delivery	2.9		30.4	66.7
4	The large class sizes affect effective teaching	2.0		36.6	61.4
5	The inadequate teaching and learning teaching facilities affect effective teaching	2.9		19.6	77.5
6	Delays in procurement of teaching materials affect the teaching process	1.0	5.0	30.7	63.4
7	The use of sub-standard teaching materials affect quality	4.0	1.0	26.7	68.3
8	Mismatch of services with financial compensation affects quality	5.9	9.8	30.4	53.9
9	The limited Government support to universities has affected quality	3.9	8.8	35.3	52.0
10	The physical teaching facilities are visually appealing	16.2	24.2	39.4	20.2
11	The Faculty/School has up to date equipments	35.7	36.7	16.3	11.2

[10] 1= strongly disagree;2= disagree; 3=agree;4=strongly agree

[11] appendix 1

The declining Government support towards higher education is a serious hindrance to quality. From the results for example, 52% of the respondents strongly believe that the limited Government funding to the universities over the years has a serious impact on quality with also 35% of the respondents in support. With the limited financial support for example, institutions have opened up for more students without necessarily matching with the existing teaching facilities (Figure 4.16).

An earlier survey by World Bank in 2002 also indicated the Government neglect in investment in higher education in developing Countries. According to World Bank report, institutions of higher education were chronically under-funded in spite of escalating demands for higher education. Out of the limited funding, the universities end up purchasing cheaper materials for teaching and learning. From the responses received, 68.3% strongly believe that the substandard teaching materials affect quality, 26.7% agree and only less than 5% disagree (Figure 4.16).

With such limited funding from the Government and the inability of the institutions to sustain their operations through the internally generated funds, the institutions of higher learning are also facing another challenge of inability to adequately compensate their staff for the services rendered. This therefore means that the financial compensation to the teaching staff is not matched to the services rendered. From the study findings, 53.9% of the respondents strongly agree to this challenge facing the universities and 30.4% agree (Figure 4.16).

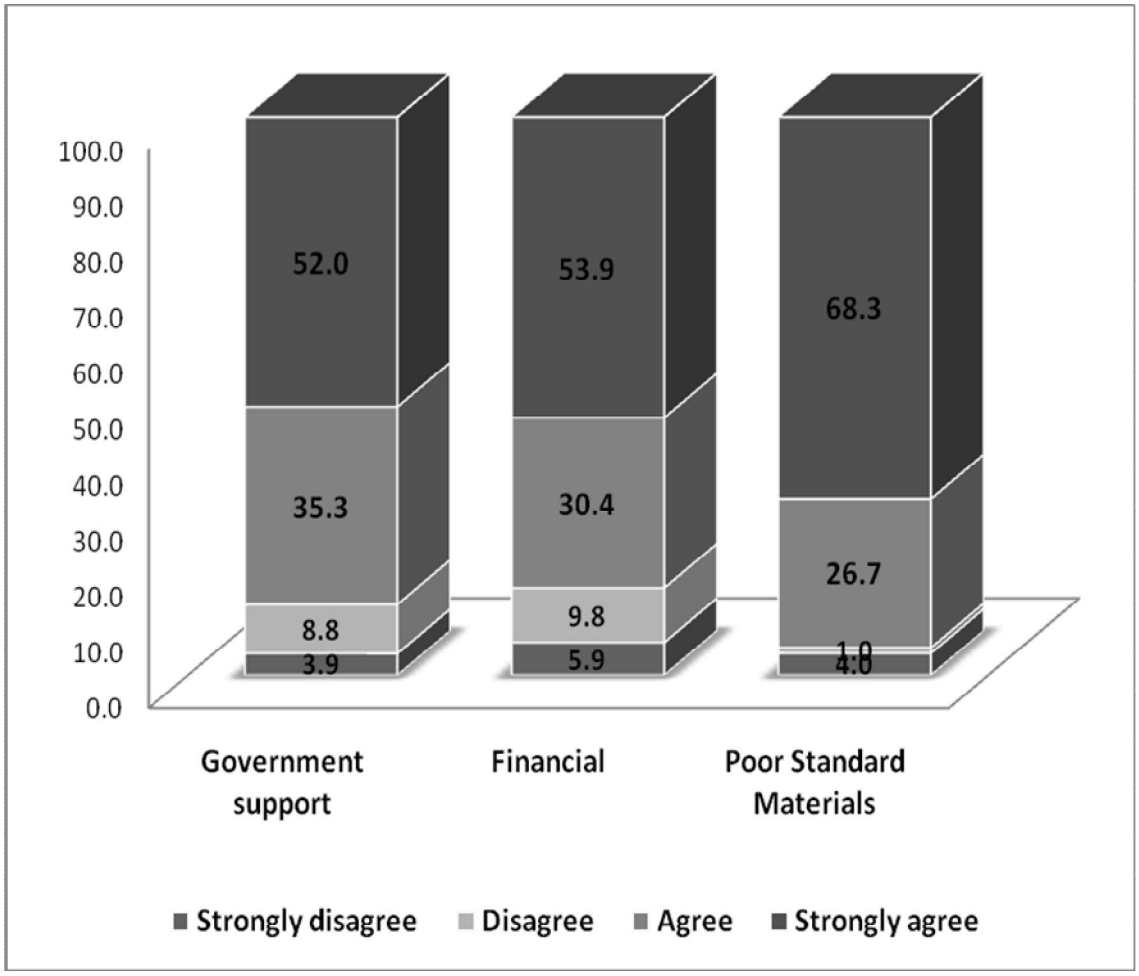

Figure 4. 16 Government Support,Financial Compensation, Poor Materials

The physical teaching facilities also pose the biggest challenge to quality at institutions of higher learning. From the results, only 39.39% of the respondents appreciate the state of these teaching facilities with 20.2% strongly appreciating.

Cumulatively, 40.4 % of the respondents have reservations of the status of physical teaching facilities at universities, giving a strong indication of the existing mismatch between the current condition of teaching facilities against the market needs(Figure 4.17).

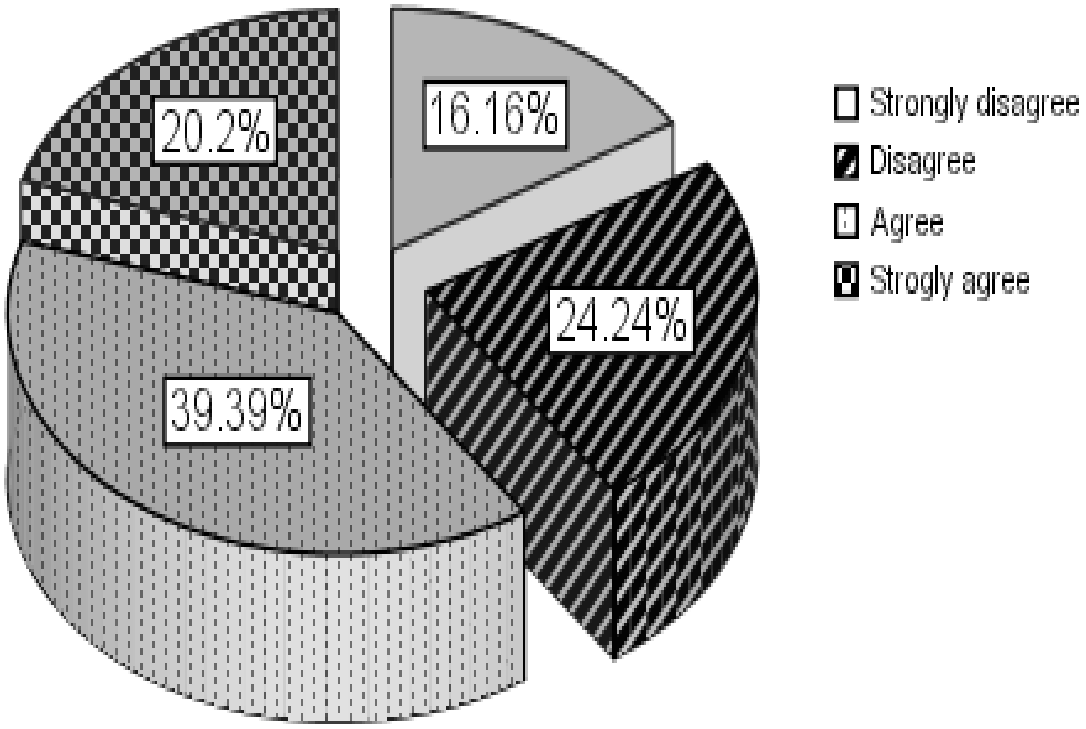

Figure 4.17 Physical Teaching facilities are visually appealing

Factor analysis was undertaken on the lecturers' response to the effects of teaching facilities on quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya using Principal Component Analysis, Rotation method, varimax with Kaiser Normalization (Table 4.5.2).

Table 4.5.2 Factor Analysis, Teaching Facilities

	Component		
	1	2	3
D6	.885		
D7	.829		
D4	.826		
D8	.822		
D5	.656		
D9	.545		
D2		.951	
D3		.932	
D1		.867	
D11			.864
D10			.863

The analysis resulted into three factors on e-resources, financial resources and physical facilities, as can be seen in Figure 4.18.

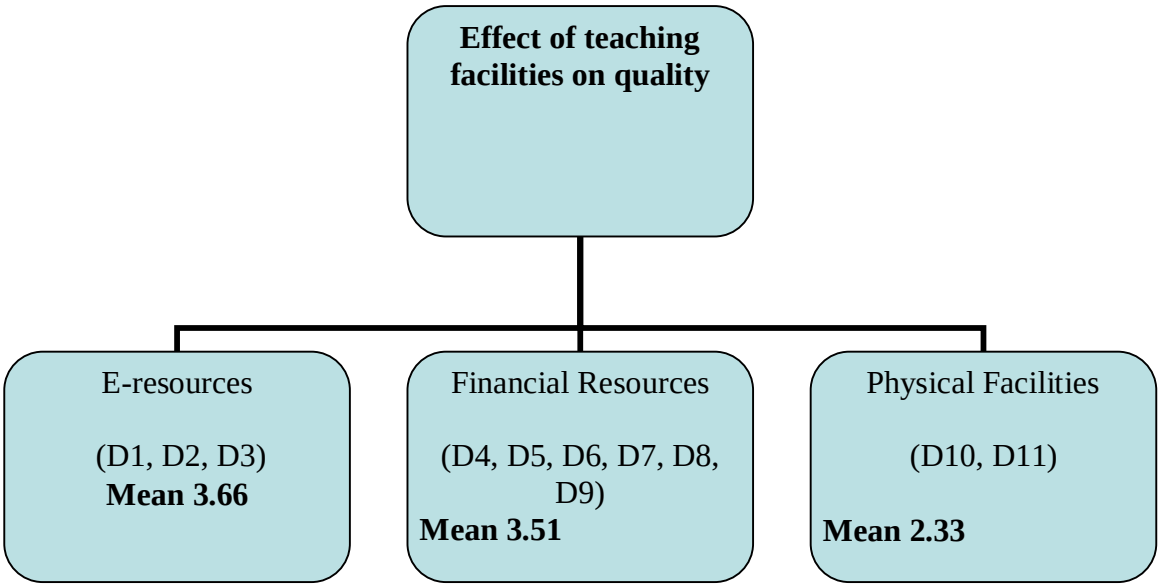

Figure 4.18 Factor Analysis on effect of Facilities.

The mean of the scales constructed on the basis of these three factors are 3.66 for e-resources, 3.51 for financial resources and 2.33 for the physical facilities[12]. From these results, the physical teaching facilities pose the biggest challenge to the quality of service by lecturers. The positive impact of e-resources and financial resources towards quality of the teaching staff as well as the quality of academic programmes were recognized (Figure 4.18).

[12] The interpretation of means and all other means for this study is: strongly disagree (1.00-1.74), disagree (1.75-2.49), agree (2.50-3.24), strongly agree (3.25-4.0)

On the e-resources factor, an analysis was undertaken to test the relationship between e-learning as resource for knowledge dissemination (D1); the availability of internet teaching facilities in providing opportunities for greater service delivery (D2) and the use of computers to facilitate service delivery (D3). A correlation was run using Pearson correlation. From the results, there exists a strong correlation of 0.714, 0.695 and 0.739 respectively (Table 4.5.3), implying that there is a strong relationship between e-learning as a resource and the availability of computers and internet teaching facilities to facilitate the e-learning process.

Table 4.5.3: Correlations between E-Learning, Internet and Computers

		E-learning	internet teaching facilities	Accessible computers
E-learning	Pearson Correlation	1	.714(**)	.695(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	101	101	101
internet teaching facilities	Pearson Correlation	.714(**)	1	.739(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	101	102	102
Accessible computers	Pearson Correlation	.695(**)	.739(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	101	102	102

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.6 Challenges in Maintaining Quality

From the results of the survey, a number of factors have strained the quality of human capital at universities. These includes financial constraints, lack of professional expertise, the ineffective communication channels, political interference, cross-border higher education, mushrooming of universities in Kenya, the inequities and economic disparities across the East African region, brain drain, self interest and political motives of some universities, lack of harmonized accreditation and quality monitoring systems in the region and lack of harmonized admission criteria in the region. These were rated as the major challenges that affect quality by over 75% of the respondents (Table 4.6.1). Others include low levels of independence of the senior managers, lack of logistic policies for quality assurance staff development, transnational education and the recent opening of regional constituent colleges across the Country.

Table 4.6.1: Quality Challenges

		1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %
1	[13]Financial constraints on HR	1.0	5.1	26.5	67.3
2	Lack of Professional expertise on HR	1.0	9.0	50.0	40.0
3	Ineffective communication channels for HRM		4.9	42.2	52.9
4	political interference on appointments	2.0	11.1	56.6	30.3
5	low level of independence of senior managers	3.2	17.9	60.0	18.9
6	No harmonized/standard model of reference for HRD	1.0	13.4	61.9	23.7
7	Effects of cross border higher education on quality	6.3	15.6	47.9	30.2
8	Effect of many universities in Kenya	3.9	30.4	24.5	41.2
9	Inequity, economic disparities and social tensions within E.A.	5.1	13.1	48.5	33.3
10	Lack of logistic policies for quality assurance	3.0	21.8	51.5	23.8
11	Brain drain effects of staff at universities	3.9	13.7	41.2	41.2
12	Effect of transnational education on quality	19.0	30.0	27.0	24.0
13	Opening up of many constituent colleges across Kenya	4.1	30.6	37.8	27.6
14	Effect of self-interest and profit motives	5.0	9.9	40.6	44.6
15	The cultural diversity	20.8	32.3	34.4	12.5
16	Lack of a single HRM model for quality	6.3	21.9	52.1	19.8
17	Diverse education systems within East African region	13.1	34.3	36.4	16.2
18	The non-harmonized accreditation and quality monitoring systems	1.0	22.9	45.8	30.2
19	Effects of Diverse admission criteria within the region	6.9	15.8	46.5	30.7

[13] appendix 1

The results also indicated that brain drain remains a major challenge in Kenya, with over 82% of the respondents listing it as threat to quality. The responses are as given in Figure 4.19. Since 2008, the drain is becoming significant with the opening of constituent colleges and award of more charters to new private universities.

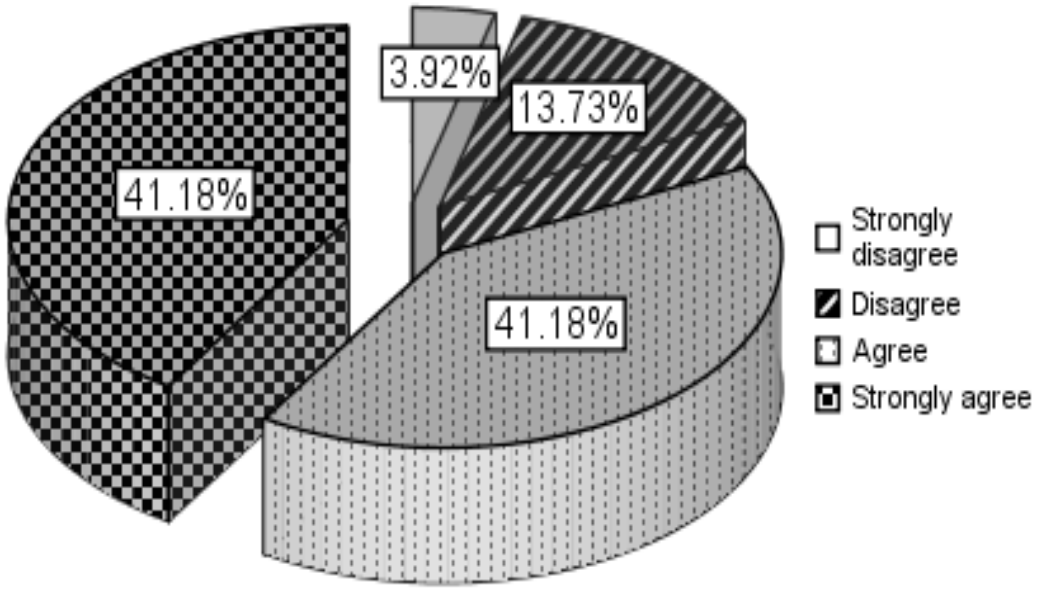

Figure 4.19 Brain Drain challenges

From the research, it is patent that there is a growing mobility of academics, especially given the usually less attractive terms and conditions of service, salary structures and work environments in Kenya, a developing country. From the results, it is also evident that the assumption that both developed and developing economics compete fairly in an open market for lecturers and that developing Countries have equal chances of attracting highly skilled human capital cannot be supported. This is similar to earlier research by

Magagula (2005) that also indicated the same. Therefore, Kenya is yet to competitively attract teaching staff at institutions of higher learning. This growing mobility of academics, professional and skilled workers, has really impacted on public universities in Kenya as found in this study. This is because training of teaching staff takes longer to complete and some staff undergo specialized training outside the country for programmes that universities in Kenya have no capacity to run.

In public universities, the salaries and salary structures have in the past been based on civil service precedents. Yet now there is competition from private sector institutions of higher education with deeper pockets and differing reward systems. How realistic it is to consider relating pay to performance and what effect will this have on the demand for staff development in Kenyan universities is a choice to be made to reduce the drain.

Since retention of staff has been a major challenge as shown in this research, the questions that the stakeholders and managers of the universities need to ask themselves include the ability of the Government to compete by stressing on non-pay benefits such as the status of a professorial title; the ability of institutions to retain good people; the possibility for incentive systems, as institutions' earnings from the commercial sector increase. Others include compensating staff for the extra income generated from non-Governmental sources, proportionate with potential for such earning. This will probably address the brain drain challenges that universities continue to face as supported by this research.

The study also sought to check on the effect of financial constraints on staff development. As given in Figure 4.20, over 67% of the respondents strongly agree that staff development is dependent on the existing financial resources at universities. Research, innovation and staff training are dependent on the availability of funds as highly supported in this research. This therefore means that institutions of higher learning must identify alternate sources of financial resources to facilitate their staff development, on top of what the Government and University internal resources are able to offer / generate.

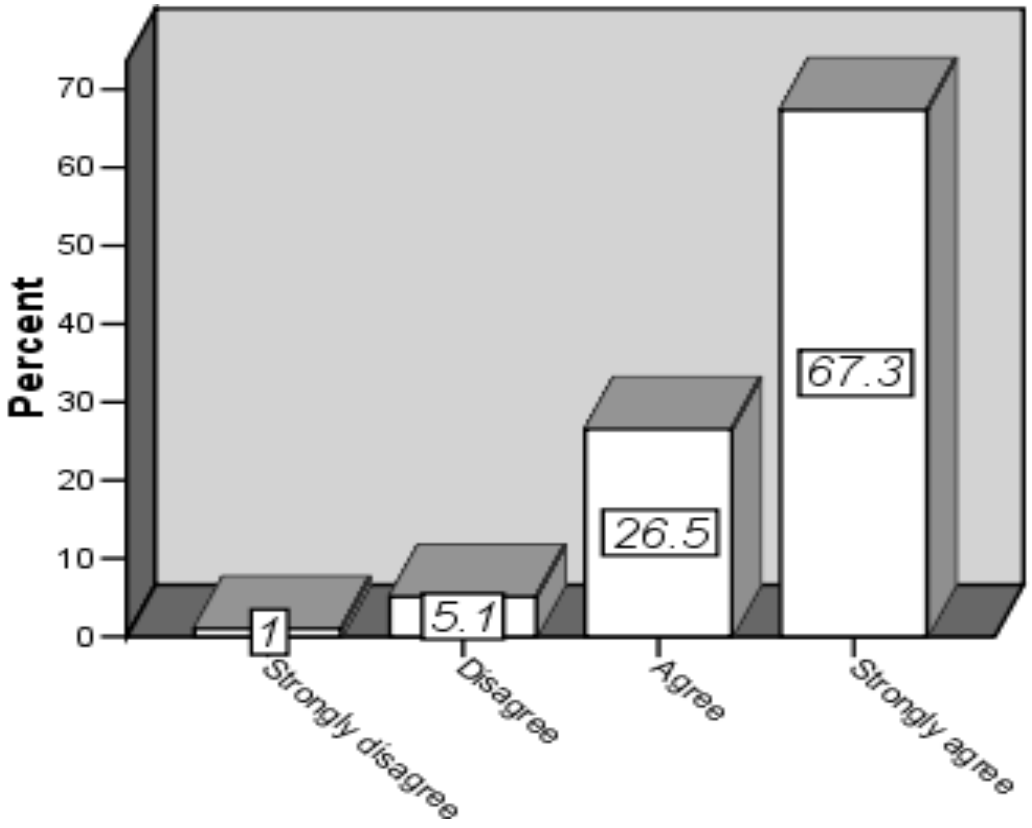

Figure 4.20 Financial Resources and Staff Development

Using principal component analysis, rotation method, varimax with Kaiser Normalization, factor analysis was undertaken on the responses to the quality challenges at universities in Kenya (Table 4.6.2).

Table 4.6.2 Factor Analysis, Quality Challenges

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
E14	.789					
E8	.746					
E12	.618					
E7	.534					
E11	.426					
E15		.795				
E17		.783				
E13		.688				
E3			.751			
E10			.727			
E5			.620			
E6			.601			
E1				.817		
E9				.658		
E16		.516		.569		
E19					.877	
E18					.650	.444
E4						.857
E2						.510

For statistical reasons, three items relating to human resource model for quality assurance, the effects of diverse admission criteria and the non harmonized accreditation and quality monitoring systems were excluded. The factor analysis resulted into five factors that contained the effects, diversity, management, economic and professional expertise (Figure 4.21).

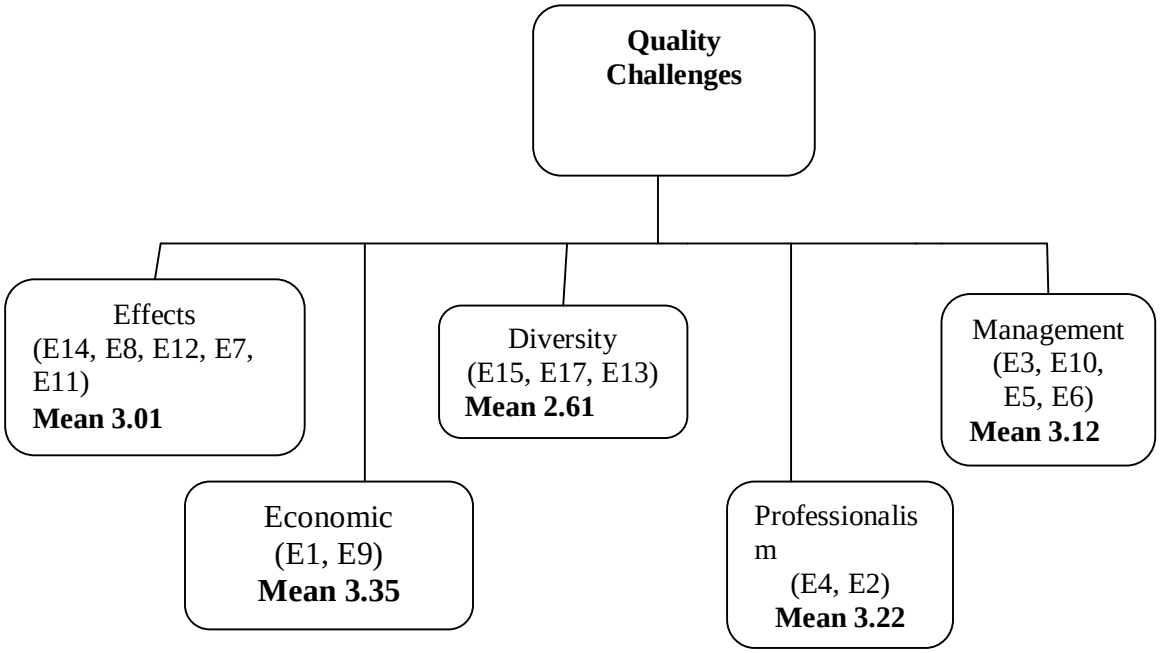

Figure 4.21: Quality Challenges

The means of scales constructed on the basis of these six factors are 3.01 for effects, 2.61 for diversity, 3.12 for management, 3.32 for economic and 3.22 for professionalism[14]. From the results, majority of the respondents agree that financial limitation and the economic

[14] strongly disagree (1.00-1.74), disagree (1.75-2.49), agree (2.50-3.24), strongly agree (3.25-4.0)

disparities, in-equity and social tensions are the biggest challenges to the quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya. From the results however, the opening of many constituent colleges across the country, the different educational systems within the region and the cultural diversity in Kenya and within the region has not diluted quality of teaching staff (Table4.6.1) but has provided opportunities for growth for the teaching staff. This is against the earlier research by Magagula (2005) on cross border higher education challenges where the mushrooming of the many universities, the different admission criteria and varied education systems were listed as a compromise to quality. As to whether these results could have been dissimilar if respondents included non-teaching staff is not known.

In establishing the relationship between the four factors relating to effects, diversity, Management and economic factors, a correlation was run on cross border higher education (E7); the opening of many universities in Kenya (E13); logistical policies for quality assurance (E10); the inequity, economic and regional disparities and logistic polices for quality assurance (E9)[15] giving results as indicated in Table 4.6.3, using Pearson correlation coefficient. The results indicated that there is significant correlation at both 0.01 and 0.05 levels, implying a strong relationship on these factors.

[15] see appendix 1

Table 4.6.3: Correlations Between Cross Border Higher Education, growth in number of Universities, inequity/economic Disparities and Transnational Education

		Cross border higher education	High number of universities	Inequity ,economic disparities	Logistic policies
Cross border higher education	Pearson Correlation	1	.377(**)	.420(**)	.322(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001
High number of universities	Pearson Correlation	.377(**)	1	.292(**)	.183
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.003	.067
Inequity ,economic disparities	Pearson Correlation	.420(**)	.292(**)	1	.453(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003		.000
Logistic policies for quality assurance	Pearson Correlation	.322(**)	.183	.453(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.067	.000	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To ascertain the ranking by the respondents on each of the research objective(research question) on the factors that affect service quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya, a mean percentage of responses was taken using descriptive statistics. From the results, human resource management practices, as a factor to service quality, remains

the least addressed at universities in Kenya. This is revealed by the low level of scores manifested in HRM as compared to other factors (Table 4.6.4). Out of a possible minimum score of 20 and a maximum score of 80[16], HRM practices were given a rate of 47, just below the 50% mark..

Table 4.6.4: Factors Affecting Service Quality

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	102	32.73	80.00	66.9430	7.97347
Challenges	102	40.00	80.00	60.3305	9.21648
Government and CHE	102	33.00	67.00	53.4880	7.16415
Staff development(CPD)	102	27.14	77.14	53.1457	8.86646
HRM	102	22.35	74.12	47.2265	9.85727

From this research therefore, human resource management remains the least addressed factor by universities and the highest risk to service quality at universities. As a key resource, the human resource factors such as compensation, recognition and reward management styles and performance management needs to be addressed. From the motivational view, highly values employees are willing to invest much of their time in their teaching and also providing service quality to their customers (Tzafrir & Gur, 2007).

[16] The mean are as follows: strongly disagree(20-34),disagree(35-49),agree(50-64),strongly agree(65-80)

Teaching facilities were the highly rated in this study (66.94%).While the demand for higher education has overstretched the existing teaching facilities at universities, efforts to embrace e-learning as an important resource for knowledge dissemination and also the expansion of internet and internet teaching facilities positively contribute to service quality. As also earlier researched by Chimanikire et al (2007), the existence of teaching facilities had a direct bearing on the quality of service of the teaching staff.

The study also shows a strong relationship between Government and Government agency, Human Resource Management practices, Staff development and teaching facilities. This is demonstrated by a dominant correlation between these independent variables as shown in Table 4.6.5. The results therefore indicate that while some of the factors may have a higher input to quality, a balance between all these factors is necessary for effective quality service by the teaching staff. There is no one factor that can independently enhance high quality without the others.

Table 4.6.5: Correlations between Government, HRM, Staff Development, and Teaching Facilities

		Government and CHE	HRM	Staff Development	Facilities
Government and CHE	Pearson Correlation	1	.489(**)	.444(**)	.200(*)
HRM	Pearson Correlation	.489(**)	1	.751(**)	.227(*)
Staff development	Pearson Correlation	.444(**)	.751(**)	1	.334(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.001
Teaching Facilities	Pearson Correlation	.200(*)	.227(*)	.334(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the key elements of the study, the conclusions reached based on the information gathered and recommendations for ensuring quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya as well as recommendations for further research.

5.2 Summary

The purpose of this study was to establish the factors that affect quality of teaching staff at universities with an emphasis on the role of Government and Commission for Higher Education (CHE) in promoting quality at universities in Kenya; the effect of the HRM practices on quality at universities in Kenya ; the effect of continuing professional development on quality service at universities in Kenya; the effect of teaching facilities on quality and the challenges in maintaining quality at universities in Kenya.

In this research, a descriptive study in form of a survey describing a phenomenon associated with subject population or estimating proportions of the populations with certain characteristics was undertaken. The target population was university teaching

staff from all the public and private universities in Kenya totaling to 3,000. Stratified random sampling was used so as to achieve desired representation from various sub-groups in the population generating a sample of 120 teaching staff members distributed across the universities and a total of 102 questionnaires were received.

Data was analyzed using quantitative techniques including reliability tests, descriptive statistics, factor analysis, correlation, analysis of variance (ANOVA), pareto tests, chi-square tests, paired sample test, t-test and paired sample correlations. From the analysis, Tables, Figures, frequencies, charts and graphs representing various research questions were drawn. Qualitative data was also analyzed and summarized based on frequency of responses to the various items in the questionnaire.

Financial constraints in Kenya mean that the Government can no longer fund higher education to the same extent as previously. The Government contribution to institutions of higher learning has been demeaning over the years. Apart from asking students and their parents to share the cost, the Government's response has been to call for continued efficiency savings (or simple cuts) in institutional budgets, which has led to more severe staff student ratios and heavier workloads for academic staff. For example, the Government of Kenya has committed all public agencies including public universities in cost savings through the cost savings as their targets in the performance contracts that were introduced in the year 2005. One incongruity of the situation is that institutional budgets for human resource development are often the first to be cut, just when they are

most needed, in times of severe financial difficulty.

Another Government response on the limited financing is the encouragement of the institutions of higher learning to generate more of their income from non-Governmental sources such as through running the self sponsored programmes, involvement in internal income generating units, generation of revenue through research outputs, consultancies and technology transfer. This places new demands on academic staff that are expected to master entrepreneurial skills in converting their specialist knowledge into market-oriented services. With such internally generated funds however, the staff expect to share part of the income as bonus, honorarium or consultancy.

From the results of the research, the Kenya Government is yet to seriously meet its obligations as required to the institutions of higher learning. For example, even with the demeaning financing, the disbursement of these resources to the public universities is not prompt. This implies that in most scenarios, universities are not be able to meet their obligations if full reliance is on Government disbursements. Such delays have trickle down effects on quality of staff as compensation and monthly remuneration is delayed, thus providing a window for staff to think beyond the box.

While the Kenya Government has embraced free primary and free secondary education, such demeaning levels of contribution to the universities for facilities, operation and maintenance and salaries makes education at the universities far from free. This is

because the potential students are unable to further their studies out of the high cost of learning at universities.

The commission of higher education, which is a regulatory Government agent for private universities, is challenged in enhancing quality. From the results, it is clear that with the growth in number of public and private universities in Kenya, the Commission has not been keen in fulfilling its mandate as defined by universities Act and has not developed enough human resource capacity to check on quality of programmes at these universities. Notably in this research is the inability of the commission to vet programmes on offer at public universities, a situation that may impact on quality of such programmes at the expense of the customers and the industry.

It has also not been possible for the commission to fully implement its mandate of making better provisions for the advancement of university education in Kenya and for connected purposes. Emphasis by the commission has been as per the universities Act, Cap 210B, legal notice number 112 of 15th October 2004 that includes validation of programmes, preparation for course standards, upgrading of programmes and approval for collaborations with other established institutions. Most of the commission's effort has been in private universities.

The research also indicates that the hiring of senior managers at universities by the Government is not competitively handled and that Government's role in the attraction and retention of staff at public universities is minimal. For example, representation in major council meetings by the Government, including during times of hiring senior university staff at public universities, has not been consistent and in some situations, such representation is by low level managers who cannot bind the Government on decisions made in such forums. There is no aggressive intervention mechanism by the Government to retain staff in the public universities as supported by this research.

The research also indicates that though the commission of higher education (CHE), as a Government agency, is involved in the regulation of programmes by private universities, their contribution in curriculum development is minimal. For instance, the commission involvement during curriculum development so as to align them to industrial or market needs, or at least to provide guidelines for such programme development is nominal. The small direct contribution to quality improvement of university programmes; provision of quality and quality assurance guidelines for university resources and facilitation of external quality assurance by the commission indicates that Interaction between the Government, the commission of higher education and the universities on quality related issues is still short.

The university managers understand the university goals and objectives and provide employees with the information necessary to promote high quality service. However, the level of application of most of the management concepts such as employee resourcing, performance based management, recognition and reward is however low. This is indicated by the low means given on promotion criterion, on training needs assessment, compensation, performance appraisal systems, and performance feedback. There is, therefore, a need to review the entire appraisal system in order to improve quality.

The university teaching staff are very active in their official assignments including development of departmental and faculty polices, in curriculum/programme development, development syllabus and examinations. Policies for staff development exist and universities provide /support lecturers' growth. However, remuneration of lecturers, their working environment and their involvement in decision-making process is low.

The study also considered E-leaning as a major resource for knowledge dissemination at universities. With the growth in application of e-resources, university teaching staff are able to share with their students online and provide prompt feedback on assignments and continuous assessment tests. Through e-learning, the teaching staff are able to share with students who may be disadvantaged by their geographical location and also provide opportunities for increased access to higher education. This is a good strategy especially for Kenya where the surge for higher education has tremendously grown with the recent introduction of free primary and secondary education.

The revolution associated with internet has also impacted positively on the quality at institutions of higher learning, as students and staff are able to work and share with their colleagues at all times and from any location. However, the increasing trend towards large class sizes, inadequate teaching and learning teaching facilities at universities, the delays in procurement of teaching and learning materials, and use of substandard teaching and learning materials has negative impacts on quality.

5.3 Conclusions

From the results of this study, human resource management practices, as a major factor that contributes to quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya, remains the least addressed. As a key resource, the human resource management practices such as recruitment and selection, training, promotion, career development, performance, motivation and compensation requires more focus.

The motivational perspective that will encourage teaching staff to invest much of their time in faculty activities as well as deliver quality services to their customers needs to be strengthened. Also adopting HRM practices that employees will perceive as positive and considerate, such as employment security, better remuneration or compensation system that acknowledges employee efforts and contributions, rewarding/recognizing the high performing staff and creating opportunities for continuous learning will result in

more service committed employees. This supports our second hypothesis that effective human resource management (HRM) practices at universities contribute to good quality of teaching staff

Career development and acquisition of new knowledge and skills is one of the key responses to the imperatives of surviving, adapting and evolving. Investment in training, career/professional development at universities needs to be enhanced so as to improve quality. Universities also need to have clear and unbiased training policy to provide equal opportunities for qualifying and deserving staff. Career development and training prepares faculty for better teaching and research that will allow staff to grow and be judged in the context of organizational learning and development. This is in agreement to the hypothesis that effective continuing professional development practices contribute to quality of teaching staff.

The study also indicates a growing mobility of teaching staff to the newly created constituent colleges, now being refereed as internal brain drain. This has caused panic in the public universities, with some ignoring the growth path in promoting internal staff so as to ring fence them from joining competitors. The new colleges have brought uneven and unfair competition in the market for faculty staff at institutions of higher learning, thus creating unequal chances of attracting highly skilled human capital. The effect of such internal brain drain on academic quality cannot be underestimated. The challenge, still remains on having adequate staff and teaching facilities at these new colleges to

teach and supervise students, especially at postgraduate level. If unchecked, this will result into falling academic standards across the country. With the limited financial and human resources, most of these constituent colleges are yet to establish quality assurance units, responsible for monitoring teaching and learning.

Improving or enhancing the professional competencies of academic staff of the university is of crucial importance. As a way of keeping staff current in their respective fields, the most forward thinking institutions must incorporate staff development into budget and performance expectations. Such activities are significant in the face of increasingly diverse campuses and in the light of scholarship and global diversity that has transformed the knowledge base. Staff development will open the lecturers for such dynamics as policy development, curriculum review/ development, adoption of the modern teaching methodologies and contribution to the society.

As a result of demeaning financing to universities, staff development through research and publication has not been spared either. This challenge is especially so in the private universities where staff have to sponsor themselves for research as well as for conference proceedings. As a consequence, such faculty looks for alternative revenue streams to finance research, resulting to high teaching workloads. The non participatory approaches to new research and research outputs have other consequences that may also contribute to poor quality. Similarly, the teaching staff will have no opportunities for growth and

advancement as staff development is traditionally tied on the number of publications made.

To strengthen quality at universities in Kenya and across the region, the university management must be committed to staff development and have to acknowledge the crucial role it will play in assisting the delivery of the academic plan; for staff development is among a clutch of institutional innovations thrust upon the universities in managing the professional competencies of their academic staff. The resulting output of such commitment are high student completion rates, quality graduates, high academic standards, low cost of running programmes, high research outputs and greater impact on society.

The Government role in promoting quality of the teaching staff at universities also requires to be improved. Worth consideration is the prompt disbursement of funds to universities by the Government. Delayed disbursement implies that the universities are not able to meet their obligations in a timely manner. Also, resource disbursements to universities have not been matched with the high demand for higher education in Kenya. For example, while the funding for education in Kenya is high as compared to other Government activities, most of this funding is directed to basic education. Whereas this is the case for many developing countries, the effect on universities will continue to be a challenge. An increase in the number of students at universities without a corresponding growth in other teaching facilities and human resources will create a gap providing for

low quality levels. There is therefore a strong relationship between the government financial contribution to universities, the teaching facilities and quality output by the teaching staff.

With such gaps in financing, the commitments in the Kenya vision 2030 to achieving a higher adult literacy rate; school enrolment rate and transition rate to universities by the year 2012 may take a little longer to realize. This is because it may not be possible to increase this transition rates without reducing the cost of higher education, improving the human resource capacities, delinking student learning with accommodation capacities and facilitating expansion of teaching facilities at these institutions. All the public universities and constituent colleges for example limit their admission to bed capacities.

Most of the universities are overstretched by the growing demand for higher education in Kenya and the continuous decline in Government budget for expansion of university facilities. The Government is yet to finance public universities based on unit cost, thereby discouraging running of some expensive programmes especially in Agriculture, Architecture, Science, Engineering, Medicine and Technology. This for instance has made most of the private universities to only roll out programmes in social science and other related areas, leaving the other programmes to the publicly owned universities. For example, even with the growth in student population across universities in Kenya, there is no private university that has ventured into Agriculture, Architecture, Engineering and Medicine programmes.

The public Universities are themselves not able to admit more because of the limited and overstretched facilities. The numbers admitted for programmes that are expensive to mount are still very low because of the recommended student lecturer ratios. In some programmes, classes are merged due to the limited space and students admitted through the joint admission board (JAB) are getting alternative accommodation as bed capacities are overstretched. To a large extent, most of the universities are not able to continuously sustain these ratios, thus diluting quality. For social sciences in both private and public universities, the class sizes are swelling and the lecture-student ration becoming un-proportional. With such emerging challenges, the impact of the planned double intake for the 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 academic years for all public universities and constituent colleges is still a tall order.

Based on the hypothesis and results of this study, effective quality and quality teaching by faculty is four dimensional, taking recognition of Government, human resource management practices, continuous professional development and teaching facilities. Although the level of significance differs, all the factors considered have a considerable influence on quality of teaching at Universities in Kenya.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1 Areas for Improvement

From this research, quality of teaching staff is still a challenge that must be addressed by all the players, and in particular, ensuring that proper human resource management (HRM) practices are in place as well encouraging continuous professional development of the teaching staff. With the increased demand for higher education, universities need to set aside proportional amount of funds for staff development. This will encourage staff to continuously undertake research so as to be able to present relevant papers in international conferences and seminars. Also, the need to therefore address the working conditions of teaching staff is necessary, including provision of furnished offices.

At most universities, up to two-thirds of university lecturers have had no initial pedagogical training. Most of these institutions are relying on individuals who have not acquired their highest level of academic training as lecturers. To improve their efficiency and effectiveness in delivering their services, the academic staff must be trained continuously in relevant areas. The universities must therefore, have clear training policies, outlining their strategy for human resource development, instead of the ad- hoc procedures currently followed in most of these institutions.

The need to recognize staff as important resource in the university set-up is also important. In this study, most of the HRM issues including ways of hiring of staff, professional development, performance management, compensation, recognition and reward were lowly rated. For instance, staff appraisal system came out uniquely low. Universities must therefore improve their HRM practices and recognize the performers as well as ensure that the approaches used for attracting and retaining staff are above board. Motivation of staff will reduce levels of brain drain. It is also recommended to review the appraisal system to enhance objectivity and enrich acceptability by the staff.

Expansion of teaching facilities is also necessary to enhance quality. The existing physical teaching facilities as well as their status were a point of reference by the respondents. With growth in student numbers, increase in provision for capital projects is necessary to cater for expanded library facilities, lecture halls, recreational facilities, catering and accommodation facilities, modern laboratory equipments, modern teaching aids and increased access to internet facilities. It is therefore recommended that the Government and the various university council boards to increase budget for facility expansion.

The Commission for Higher Education needs to come out strongly in regulation of programmes at private universities and enhancing quality of programmes across all universities. The commission should also ensure that only competent and qualified staff are allowed to teach. The diverse entry levels into university programmes in the region

are still a challenge and many are the times that Kenyan students cross borders to access the same programmes that they did not qualify for in the country. As a result of commercialization of university education, some private universities, though having been approved to offer specific programmes with specific programme centred guidelines, often flexi their admission criteria to attract more students. This needs to be discouraged by all universities since the quality of graduates remains differentiated.

5.4.2 Areas for Further Research

In this research, human resource management practices, as an instrument for improving quality at universities in Kenya remained below the minimum standard. The relationship between HRM, as a key element to quality was not strong. There existed a big vacuum on the appraisal system for staff, especially for recognition or reward and for identifying training needs.

With the growth in university education in Kenya, internal brain drain is becoming common and a challenge across all universities. While universities have adopted retention strategies for teaching staff, mobility of staff has grown over the last few years. A relationship between staff development and job mobility requires further consideration.

In the research, e-leaning was rated as a major resource for knowledge dissemination at universities. However, even with the current Information and Communication Technology (ICT) infrastructure in most of the universities, e-content development is yet to take root in Kenya. E-content is a clear driver that will justify greater investment in computers by universities so as to facilitate self guided materials for students, as well as reach remote localities therefore making university education easily accessible.

Building capacity for e-content is an investment that will address the current lecturer shortages that cannot be adequately addressed in the long-run. Also there is a pressing

need to design ICT based curricula rather than treating ICT as a separate education product. With the trend towards embracing ICT and e-content for universities, this area will also require further research so as to balance e-content as a model for knowledge delivery, as an HR quality improvement and also as a resource to the Kenyan student/learner.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Mr. Joseph Obwogi, a PhD Student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. I am conducting a research on the factors that affect quality (service delivery) of teaching staff at universities in Kenya. This has been facilitated by the fact that with dynamic industrial and market needs, quality at Kenyan universities must be well balanced and benchmarked with successful and excellent global institutions so as to assure customer satisfaction. As a teaching staff of the university, you are requested to participate in this study by kindly answering the following questions. The information you provide shall be treated with utmost confidence. Please provide responses to the following questions.

PART ONE

University (please tick as appropriate)

(a) University of Nairobi (b) Kenyatta University

(c) USIU (d) KCA University.

(e) Egerton University (f) Narok University College

(g) Kabarak University (h) JKUAT

Age (please tick as appropriate)

(a) 18-24 (b) 25-30 (c) 31-36 (d) 37-42 (e) 43-48 (f) 49-54 (g) Over 55

Gender

(a) Male (b) Female

Designation ……

Department……..

PART TWO

1.0 Role of Government and Commission for Higher Education (CHE) in promoting quality at universities in Kenya

1.1: Indicate the degree to which you agree with each statement relating to role of Government/CHE in promoting quality of teaching staff by using the following scale: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), agree (3), strongly agree (4)

	Statement	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
A1	Universities in Kenya are semi- autonomous				
A2	Though semi-autonomous, the universities are accountable to the Government				
A3	The Government, through the Ministry of Higher Education has a direct hand in the day to day running of universities				
A4	The Government is involved in the attraction and retention of senior managers in public universities				
A5	The hiring of managers in public universities is competitively handled by the Government				
A6	Salary scales and other benefits for managers are competitive				
A7	The Kenyan Government supports key projects in public universities				
A8	Disbursement of financial resources is prompt to universities				
A9	The Governments supports student learning in public universities				
A10	The Governments supports student learning in private universities				
A11	Through performance based contracts, the Government is able to monitor performance of key managers of universities				
A12	The Government monitors curriculum development, implementation and evaluation				
A13	Universities provide quarterly /annual returns/reports to Government on performance				
A14	The Government is adequately represented in major decisions of universities				

A15	The Government encourages staff development at universities				
A16	Through the commission for higher education, the Government is able to regulate both private and public universities				
A17	The commission accredits all programmes offered at universities in Kenya based on resource capacities declared				
A18	The commission is directly involved in quality improvement of university programmes				
A19	The commission for higher education facilitates external quality assurance of all university programmes				
A20	The commission issues from time to time guidelines on quality and quality assurance of human and teaching facilities of universities				

1.2: List other roles of Government and Commission for Higher Education (CHE) in promoting quality of service at universities in Kenya

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2.0 Human Resource Management (HRM) practices and Quality

2.1: In a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree), tick your degree of agreement to the following statements relating to human resource management practices on improving quality at universities:

	Statement	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
B1	The university managers clearly understand university goals and objectives				
B2	The university managers are responsive to employees'				
B3	University managers provide employees with the information on quality				
B4	The university leaders enhance the quality of service given by employees				
B5	The managers care for career development for employees				
B6	Promotions are based on merit at the university				
B7	Only qualified and competent staff are hired				
B8	The university invests in professional development for staff				
B9	Training needs assessment is clear and unbiased				
B10	Compensation is attractive compared to other training institutions				
B11	Compensation is performance based				
B12	Compensation is equitable and fair				
B13	Employees are regularly appraised/evaluated				
B14	Employees receive feedback on their performance				
B15	Feedback is prompt				
B16	There is recognition/reward for high performers				
B17	Low performers are recommended for training/couching				

2.2 List other HRM tools used for improving quality at your institution

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3.0 The effect of continuing professional development (staff development) on quality at universities in Kenya

3.1: In a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (Strongly agree), indicate your degree of agreement to the following statements on continuing professional development of staff and their involvement in social and other related activities.

	Statements	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
C1	There exists a policy for staff development				
C2	The university provides for continuous growth for lecturers				
C3	Lecturer are involved in curriculum/programme development				
C4	Lecturer participate in departmental and faculty policies				
C5	Lecturer participate in formulation of national curricula and examinations				
C6	Lecturer participation in the selection of syllabuses and teaching methods				
C7	The teaching and working environment is good				
C8	lecturers' conditions of work are reasonable				
C9	Remuneration is reasonable and commensurate with qualifications				
C10	The degree of dialogue of staff with the institution's administration is cordial				
C	The degree of collective decision making and peer-group selection is good				
C11	Lecturers contribution to the community's welfare				
C12	The degree of self-control and regulation is high				
C13	Level of appreciation of lecturers work by the community is modest				

3.2 List other key continuing professional development issues at your institution

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4.0 Effect of teaching facilities on quality of service at universities in Kenya.

4.1: Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements

	Statement	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
D1	E-learning is an important resource for knowledge dissemination				
D2	Existence of internet teaching facilities provide opportunities for greater service delivery				
D3	Use of computers and computer accessories facilitate service delivery				
D4	The large class sizes affect effective teaching				
D5	The inadequate teaching and learning teaching facilities affect effective teaching				
D6	Delays in procurement of teaching materials affect the teaching process				
D7	The use of sub-standard teaching materials affect quality				
D8	Mismatch of services with financial compensation affects quality				
D9	The limited Government support to universities has affected quality				
D10	The physical teaching facilities are visually appealing				
D11	The Faculty/School has up to date equipments				

4.2: In your opinion, what are the teaching facilities that affect quality of teaching and learning?

5.0 Challenges in maintaining quality

5.1: In a scale of 1(Strongly disagree) to 4(strongly agree), please tick your feelings on the following challenges about quality of teaching staff at universities in Kenya.

	Challenges	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
E1	Financial constraints have strained the development of human capital at universities in Kenya				
E2	Professional expertise on maintenance of quality human resource is missing in most universities				
E3	Ineffective communication channels affect human resource quality				
E4	There is a lot of political interference on appointment of senior staff at universities				
E5	The level of independence of senior managers is low				
E6	There lacks a harmonized/standard model of reference for human capital development				
E7	cross border higher education affects quality of university human capital				
E8	Mushrooming of many universities in Kenya has affected quality of teaching staff at universities				
E9	The inequity , economic disparities and social tensions within East African region affects quality of teaching staff at universities				
E10	Staff quality at universities is affected by lack of logistic policies for quality assurance				
E11	Brain drain in Kenya has affected quality of staff at universities				
E12	The introduction of transnational education(i.e. universities from other countries opening branches in Kenya) has negatively impacted on quality of staff				
E13	The opening up of regional constituent colleges across the				

	country has diluted quality learning at higher education				
E14	The self-interest and profit motives of some universities affect quality of academic resources				
E15	The cultural diversity in Kenya and across the region affects quality				
E16	Lack of a single human resource model for quality assurance affects quality				
E17	The diversity in education systems within the East African region affects quality				
E18	The accreditation and quality monitoring systems in Kenya and within the region is not harmonized				
E19	The admission criteria in Kenya and within the region is not harmonized				

5.2: What are the other challenges associated with maintenance of quality at universities in Kenya

---

6.0 kindly give your comments on factors affecting quality (service delivery) of teaching staff at universities in Kenya

---

Thanks for your responses

APPENDIX 2

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS TABLES

1. Reliability tests

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	64	62.7
	Excluded(a)	38	37.3
	Total	102	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.831	20

Reliability

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	86	84.3
	Excluded(a)	16	15.7
	Total	102	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.918	17

Reliability

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	85	83.3
	Excluded(a)	17	16.7
	Total	102	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.858	14

Reliability

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	91	89.2
	Excluded(a)	11	10.8
	Total	102	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.739	11

Reliability

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	68	66.7
	Excluded(a)	34	33.3
	Total	102	100.0

a Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.856	19

2. Descriptive and correlations

		Government and CHE	HRM	Staff development	Facilities	Challenges
Government and CHE	Pearson Correlation	1	.489(**)	.444(**)	.200(*)	.010
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.044	.924
	N	102	102	102	102	102
HRM	Pearson Correlation	.489(**)	1	.751(**)	.227(*)	-.120
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.022	.231
	N	102	102	102	102	102
Staff development	Pearson Correlation	.444(**)	.751(**)	1	.334(**)	-.090
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.001	.366
	N	102	102	102	102	102
Facilities	Pearson Correlation	.200(*)	.227(*)	.334(**)	1	.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	.022	.001		.629
	N	102	102	102	102	102
Challenges	Pearson Correlation	.010	-.120	-.090	.048	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.924	.231	.366	.629	
	N	102	102	102	102	102

Correlations

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	102	32.73	80.00	66.9430	7.97347
Challenges	102	40.00	80.00	60.3305	9.21648
Government and CHE	102	33.00	67.00	53.4880	7.16415
Staff development	102	27.14	77.14	53.1457	8.86646
HRM	102	22.35	74.12	47.2265	9.85727

Correlations

Gender			Government and CHE	HRM	Staff development	Facilities	Challenges
Male	Government and CHE	Pearson Correlation	1	.502(**)	.434(**)	.258(*)	.020
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.028	.866
		N	72	72	72	72	72
	HRM	Pearson Correlation	.502(**)	1	.782(**)	.249(*)	-.211
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.035	.075
		N	72	72	72	72	72
	Staff development	Pearson Correlation	.434(**)	.782(**)	1	.363(**)	-.211
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.002	.075
		N	72	72	72	72	72
	Facilities	Pearson Correlation	.258(*)	.249(*)	.363(**)	1	-.033
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.028	.035	.002		.784
		N	72	72	72	72	72
	Challenges	Pearson Correlation	.020	-.211	-.211	-.033	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.866	.075	.075	.784	
		N	72	72	72	72	72
Female	Government and CHE	Pearson Correlation	1	.441(*)	.472(**)	-.003	-.055
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.015	.008	.988	.772
		N	30	30	30	30	30
	HRM	Pearson Correlation	.441(*)	1	.640(**)	.141	.068
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.015		.000	.456	.720
		N	30	30	30	30	30
	Staff development	Pearson Correlation	.472(**)	.640(**)	1	.229	.200
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000		.224	.290
		N	30	30	30	30	30
	Facilities	Pearson Correlation	-.003	.141	.229	1	.237
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.988	.456	.224		.208
		N	30	30	30	30	30
	Challenges	Pearson Correlation	-.055	.068	.200	.237	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.772	.720	.290	.208	
		N	30	30	30	30	30

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptives

Gender = Male

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	72	32.73	80.00	66.6919	8.36245
Challenges	72	40.00	80.00	59.1843	8.88594
Government and CHE	72	33.00	66.00	53.2437	7.44137
Staff development	72	27.14	77.14	52.9389	9.30382
HRM	72	22.35	74.12	46.8158	10.33279
Valid N (listwise)	72				

a Gender = Male

Gender = Female

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	30	54.55	80.00	67.5455	7.04838
Challenges	30	40.00	80.00	63.0813	9.56203
Government and CHE	30	44.21	67.00	54.0745	6.53283
Staff development	30	35.71	68.57	53.6422	7.84267
HRM	30	30.59	62.35	48.2124	8.69407
Valid N (listwise)	30				

a Gender = Female

DESCRIPTIVES

University of Nairobi

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	12	65.45	74.55	68.6818	3.11862
Staff development	12	60.00	67.69	61.9830	2.08767
Challenges	12	51.25	66.32	60.5396	4.63904
Government and CHE	12	49.00	64.44	58.6520	5.06270
HRM	12	45.00	62.35	57.7827	5.35874
Valid N (listwise)	12				

Kenyatta University

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	18	58.18	76.36	66.2626	5.44463
Challenges	18	49.47	78.89	62.6650	8.51296
Government and CHE	18	36.00	64.00	53.3216	8.23136
Staff development	18	41.43	68.57	52.8095	8.69891
HRM	18	30.59	58.82	42.5893	8.24932
Valid N (listwise)	18				

Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Techonology

Descriptive Statistics(a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	19	32.73	76.36	67.9330	9.86543
Challenges	19	47.37	76.67	59.6008	9.99884
Staff development	19	32.86	68.57	52.3511	10.78487
Government and CHE	19	41.05	66.00	51.2715	6.85025
HRM	19	22.35	64.71	43.8431	12.14564
Valid N (listwise)	19				

United states International University

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	4	78.18	80.00	79.5455	.90909
Challenges	4	44.71	80.00	61.7320	19.22091
Staff development	4	45.71	67.69	57.6374	9.03708
HRM	4	45.88	56.47	52.0588	5.29412
Government and CHE	4	45.00	54.00	48.8947	4.60459
Valid N (listwise)	4				

KCA University

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	11	58.18	80.00	65.2893	6.26967
Challenges	11	42.35	70.53	56.0354	8.23419
Staff development	11	27.14	77.14	52.5108	12.45780
Government and CHE	11	44.00	64.71	51.6862	6.31214
HRM	11	26.00	74.12	49.1529	12.14501
Valid N (listwise)	11				

Egerton University

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	18	42.00	76.36	64.0101	9.37222
Challenges	18	40.00	80.00	61.5218	11.55720
Government and CHE	18	33.00	65.00	53.3384	8.19622
Staff development	18	40.00	64.29	52.2423	5.33783
HRM	18	40.00	64.29	49.1809	6.82612
Valid N (listwise)	18				

Narok University College

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	13	54.55	80.00	66.8531	7.27855
Challenges	13	45.56	64.21	56.8376	5.78211
Government and CHE	13	43.00	67.00	54.4453	5.17218
Staff development	13	35.71	62.86	47.1851	7.54830
HRM	13	34.12	62.35	43.7104	7.05631
Valid N (listwise)	13				

Kabarak University

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	7	54.55	76.00	66.1299	10.37358
Challenges	7	57.89	70.53	65.3216	5.39630
Government and CHE	7	47.00	66.00	55.1429	8.31522
Staff development	7	50.77	56.92	52.8414	2.35981
HRM	7	38.82	63.53	45.9544	8.36848
Valid N (listwise)	7				

Descriptives

Age = 18-24

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	2	68.00	69.09	68.5455	.77139
Government and CHE	2	50.00	60.00	55.0000	7.07107
Challenges	2	47.37	62.35	54.8607	10.59566
Staff development	2	47.14	61.82	54.4805	10.37702
HRM	2	31.76	61.33	46.5490	20.90818
Valid N (listwise)	2				

Age = 25-30

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	19	54.55	80.00	66.0766	6.91050
Challenges	19	44.21	78.89	63.0233	9.49320
Government and CHE	19	36.00	64.44	50.2256	8.02416
Staff development	19	35.71	77.14	49.0064	11.05104
HRM	19	22.35	74.12	43.5547	12.91401
Valid N (listwise)	19				

Age = 31-36

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	29	54.55	80.00	67.7868	7.47970
Challenges	29	40.00	75.79	55.8164	9.58058
Government and CHE	29	33.00	67.00	55.0110	8.05739
Staff development	29	27.14	68.57	54.4087	9.11736
HRM	29	26.00	64.29	48.7959	9.68901
Valid N (listwise)	29				

Age = 37-42

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	22	60.00	78.18	66.8678	5.62950
Challenges	22	49.47	80.00	61.2695	7.60368
Staff development	22	32.86	67.69	52.8605	9.51023
Government and CHE	22	41.05	62.00	51.7751	5.35120
HRM	22	32.94	61.18	47.0624	7.81397
Valid N (listwise)	22				

Age = 43-48

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	12	56.00	76.36	68.0000	7.34509
Challenges	12	46.32	76.84	62.5195	7.72065
Government and CHE	12	46.00	65.00	57.3523	5.36153
Staff development	12	44.29	68.57	56.4835	5.99389
HRM	12	30.59	64.71	51.8321	9.51685
Valid N (listwise)	12				

Age = 49-54

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	16	32.73	76.36	64.6250	12.85957
Challenges	16	49.47	80.00	63.5234	8.57387
Government and CHE	16	46.00	66.00	53.9934	6.84674
Staff development	16	44.29	65.71	53.5577	5.74462
HRM	16	31.76	61.18	45.8088	7.44646
Valid N (listwise)	16				

Age = Over 55

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	2	72.73	76.00	74.3636	2.31417
Challenges	2	45.56	67.78	56.6667	15.71348
Staff development	2	51.43	53.85	52.6374	1.70949
Government and CHE	2	50.00	55.00	52.5000	3.53553
HRM	2	42.86	48.24	45.5462	3.80293
Valid N (listwise)	2				

Descriptives

Designation = Assistant lecturer

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	31	54.55	76.36	63.4663	6.44398
Challenges	31	40.00	76.67	57.4980	8.39413
Government and CHE	31	36.00	66.00	53.4865	6.80602
Staff development	31	35.71	68.57	50.3145	8.80963
HRM	31	22.35	60.00	43.7979	8.95294
Valid N (listwise)	31				

Designation = Graduate assistant

Descriptive Statistics(a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Challenges	3	62.35	78.89	72.6362	8.97458
Facilities	3	68.00	70.91	69.3333	1.46962
Government and CHE	3	47.00	60.00	55.6667	7.50555
Staff development	3	35.71	61.82	49.8442	13.18481
HRM	3	22.35	61.33	45.5145	20.50131
Valid N (listwise)	3				

Designation = Lecturer

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	56	32.73	80.00	67.5714	8.59944
Challenges	56	42.35	80.00	61.1276	9.10991
Staff development	56	27.14	77.14	53.7953	8.82331
Government and CHE	56	33.00	67.00	53.4589	7.87209
HRM	56	26.00	74.12	48.1794	9.94766
Valid N (listwise)	56				

Designation = Professor

Descriptive Statistics(a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	5	63.64	80.00	72.0000	8.19191
Challenges	5	44.71	71.58	60.0172	13.73990
Staff development	5	51.43	58.57	54.2857	3.91230
HRM	5	47.06	56.47	52.0000	4.73520
Government and CHE	5	45.00	54.00	49.2000	3.19374
Valid N (listwise)	5				

Designation = Senior lecturer

Descriptive Statistics (a)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facilities	7	67.27	76.36	72.6753	3.25537
Challenges	7	52.94	69.47	61.4477	6.28411
Staff development	7	51.43	68.57	61.0884	5.29346
Government and CHE	7	49.00	62.00	55.8571	3.80476
HRM	7	44.71	64.71	52.1120	7.42919
Valid N (listwise)	7				

Test

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Government and CHE	53.4880	102	7.16415	.70936
	HRM	47.2265	102	9.85727	.97602
Pair 2	Government and CHE	53.4880	102	7.16415	.70936
	Staff development	53.1457	102	8.86646	.87791
Pair 3	Government and CHE	53.4880	102	7.16415	.70936
	Facilities	66.9430	102	7.97347	.78949
Pair 4	Government and CHE	53.4880	102	7.16415	.70936
	Challenges	60.3305	102	9.21648	.91257
Pair 5	HRM	47.2265	102	9.85727	.97602
	Staff development	53.1457	102	8.86646	.87791
Pair 6	HRM	47.2265	102	9.85727	.97602
	Facilities	66.9430	102	7.97347	.78949
Pair 7	HRM	47.2265	102	9.85727	.97602
	Challenges	60.3305	102	9.21648	.91257
Pair 8	Staff development	53.1457	102	8.86646	.87791
	Facilities	66.9430	102	7.97347	.78949
Pair 9	Staff development	53.1457	102	8.86646	.87791
	Challenges	60.3305	102	9.21648	.91257
Pair 10	Facilities	66.9430	102	7.97347	.78949
	Challenges	60.3305	102	9.21648	.91257

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Government and CHE & HRM	102	.489	.000
Pair 2	Government and CHE & Staff development	102	.444	.000
Pair 3	Government and CHE & Facilities	102	.200	.044
Pair 4	Government and CHE & Challenges	102	.010	.924
Pair 5	HRM & Staff development	102	.751	.000
Pair 6	HRM & Facilities	102	.227	.022
Pair 7	HRM & Challenges	102	-.120	.231
Pair 8	Staff development & Facilities	102	.334	.001
Pair 9	Staff development & Challenges	102	-.090	.366
Pair 10	Teaching facilities& Challenges	102	.048	.629

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Government and CHE - HRM	6.26149	8.91025	.88225	4.51135	8.01163	7.097	101	.000
Pair 2	Government and CHE - Staff development	.34230	8.57812	.84936	-1.34260	2.02720	.403	101	.688
Pair 3	Government and CHE - Facilities	-13.45492	9.59548	.95009	-15.33965	-11.57019	-14.162	101	.000
Pair 4	Government and CHE - Challenges	-6.84246	11.61954	1.15051	-9.12475	-4.56016	-5.947	101	.000
Pair 5	HRM - Staff development	-5.91919	6.67491	.66091	-7.23027	-4.60811	-8.956	101	.000
Pair 6	HRM - Facilities	-19.71641	11.18379	1.10736	-21.91312	-17.51971	-17.805	101	.000
Pair 7	HRM - Challenges	-13.10395	14.27764	1.41370	-15.90834	-10.29955	-9.269	101	.000
Pair 8	Staff development - Facilities	-13.79722	9.74393	.96479	-15.71111	-11.88333	-14.301	101	.000
Pair 9	Staff development - Challenges	-7.18476	13.35465	1.32231	-9.80786	-4.56165	-5.433	101	.000
Pair 10	Teaching facilities- Challenges	6.61247	11.89157	1.17744	4.27674	8.94819	5.616	101	.000

Paired Samples Test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									L	Upper
Government and CHE	Equal variances assumed	.430	.514	-.532	100	.596	-.83077	1.56238		2.26894
	Equal variances not assumed			-.561	61.491	.577	-.83077	1.48043	-3.79060	2.12906
HRM	Equal variances assumed	.545	.462	-.650	100	.517	-1.39665	2.14820	-5.65862	2.86532
	Equal variances not assumed			-.698	64.110	.488	-1.39665	2.00061	-5.39319	2.59989
Staff development	Equal variances assumed	.914	.341	-.363	100	.717	-.70339	1.93507	-4.54252	3.13574
	Equal variances not assumed			-.390	63.994	.698	-.70339	1.80346	-4.30623	2.89945
Facilities	Equal variances assumed	.130	.720	-.491	100	.625	-.85354	1.73924	-4.30414	2.59706
	Equal variances not assumed			-.527	64.001	.600	-.85354	1.62088	-4.09161	2.38454
Challenges	Equal variances assumed	.196	.659	-1.973	100	.051	-3.89702	1.97471	-7.81478	.02074
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.914	50.931	.061	-3.89702	2.03578	-7.98416	.19012

One-way Anova

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Government and CHE	25-30	19	50.2256	8.02416	1.84087	46.3581	54.0931	36.00	64.44
	31-36	29	55.0110	8.05739	1.49622	51.9461	58.0758	33.00	67.00
	37-42	22	51.7751	5.35120	1.14088	49.4025	54.1477	41.05	62.00
	43-48	12	57.3523	5.36153	1.54774	53.9458	60.7589	46.00	65.00
	49-54	16	53.9934	6.84674	1.71169	50.3450	57.6418	46.00	66.00
	Total	98	53.4773	7.26153	.73353	52.0215	54.9332	33.00	67.00
HRM	25-30	19	43.5547	12.91401	2.96268	37.3303	49.7790	22.35	74.12
	31-36	29	48.7959	9.68901	1.79920	45.1104	52.4814	26.00	64.29
	37-42	22	47.0624	7.81397	1.66594	43.5979	50.5269	32.94	61.18
	43-48	12	51.8321	9.51685	2.74728	45.7854	57.8788	30.59	64.71
	49-54	16	45.8088	7.44646	1.86162	41.8409	49.7768	31.76	61.18
	Total	98	47.2747	9.82073	.99204	45.3057	49.2436	22.35	74.12
Staff development	25-30	19	49.0064	11.05104	2.53528	43.6799	54.3328	35.71	77.14
	31-36	29	54.4087	9.11736	1.69305	50.9407	57.8768	27.14	68.57
	37-42	22	52.8605	9.51023	2.02759	48.6439	57.0771	32.86	67.69
	43-48	12	56.4835	5.99389	1.73029	52.6752	60.2919	44.29	68.57
	49-54	16	53.5577	5.74462	1.43615	50.4966	56.6188	44.29	65.71
	Total	98	53.1289	8.98183	.90730	51.3281	54.9296	27.14	77.14
Facilities	25-30	19	66.0766	6.91050	1.58538	62.7458	69.4073	54.55	80.00
	31-36	29	67.7868	7.47970	1.38894	64.9417	70.6320	54.55	80.00
	37-42	22	66.8678	5.62950	1.20021	64.3718	69.3637	60.00	78.18
	43-48	12	68.0000	7.34509	2.12035	63.3331	72.6669	56.00	76.36
	49-54	16	64.6250	12.85957	3.21489	57.7726	71.4774	32.73	76.36
	Total	98	66.7588	8.05693	.81387	65.1435	68.3741	32.73	80.00
Challenges	25-30	19	63.0233	9.49320	2.17789	58.4477	67.5988	44.21	78.89
	31-36	29	55.8164	9.58058	1.77907	52.1722	59.4607	40.00	75.79
	37-42	22	61.2695	7.60368	1.62111	57.8982	64.6408	49.47	80.00
	43-48	12	62.5195	7.72065	2.22876	57.6140	67.4250	46.32	76.84
	49-54	16	63.5234	8.57387	2.14347	58.9547	68.0921	49.47	80.00
	Total	98	60.5169	9.15504	.92480	58.6814	62.3524	40.00	80.00

Descriptives

ANOVA

		Sum of squ.	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Government and CHE	Between Groups	517.304	4	129.326	2.616	.040
	Within Groups	4597.488	93	49.435		
	Total	5114.792	97			
HRM	Between Groups	614.651	4	153.663	1.635	.172
	Within Groups	8740.686	93	93.986		
	Total	9355.337	97			
Staff development	Between Groups	509.980	4	127.495	1.621	.176
	Within Groups	7315.332	93	78.659		
	Total	7825.311	97			
Facilities	Between Groups	131.090	4	32.773	.494	.740
	Within Groups	6165.573	93	66.296		
	Total	6296.663	97			
Challenges	Between Groups	965.303	4	241.326	3.132	.018
	Within Groups	7164.720	93	77.040		
	Total	8130.023	97			

APPENDIX 3

FACTOR ANALYSIS

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.677
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	499.167
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
A1	1.000	.557
A2	1.000	.655
A3	1.000	.437
A4	1.000	.594
A5	1.000	.737
A6	1.000	.576
A7	1.000	.673
A8	1.000	.788
A9	1.000	.828
A10	1.000	.618
A11	1.000	.848
A12	1.000	.717
A13	1.000	.608
A14	1.000	.628
A15	1.000	.763
A16	1.000	.710
A17	1.000	.644
A18	1.000	.697
A19	1.000	.660
A20	1.000	.730

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumul. %	Total	% of Variance	Cumul. %	Total	% of Variance	Cumul %
1	5.116	25.582	25.582	5.116	25.582	25.582	2.842	14.211	14.211
2	2.296	11.480	37.062	2.296	11.480	37.062	2.679	13.393	27.604
3	2.012	10.058	47.120	2.012	10.058	47.120	2.643	13.217	40.821
4	1.421	7.104	54.223	1.421	7.104	54.223	1.934	9.669	50.489
5	1.352	6.759	60.983	1.352	6.759	60.983	1.737	8.683	59.172
6	1.272	6.359	67.341	1.272	6.359	67.341	1.634	8.169	67.341
7	.987	4.933	72.275						
8	.926	4.628	76.903						
9	.865	4.326	81.228						
10	.622	3.109	84.337						
11	.502	2.512	86.849						
12	.461	2.306	89.155						
13	.374	1.872	91.027						
14	.369	1.847	92.874						
15	.321	1.607	94.482						
16	.288	1.442	95.923						
17	.281	1.407	97.331						
18	.216	1.081	98.412						
19	.191	.953	99.365						
20	.127	.635	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix (a)

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
A18	.681					
A20	.665					
A15	.649					
A19	.615					
A12	.614			-.428		
A14	.605					
A5	.585				.544	
A17	.580		.450			
A10	.552					
A4	.535		-.438			
A13	.527					
A7		.644				
A3		-.552				
A1		-.540				
A6	.428	.536				
A11			.720			
A2			.495			
A8				.713		
A16	.476					.617
A9					.458	.552

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a 6 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix (a)

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	.583	.581	.502	.131	.230	.014
2	.024	-.231	.190	-.682	.466	.477
3	-.570	-.143	.685	.390	.081	.165
4	-.020	.284	-.253	.223	-.296	.847
5	-.510	.591	-.319	-.029	.524	-.115
6	.271	-.399	-.278	.562	.601	.120

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.841
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx.Chi-square	865.754
	df	136
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
B1	1.000	.596
B2	1.000	.789
B3	1.000	.620
B4	1.000	.475
B5	1.000	.497
B6	1.000	.549
B7	1.000	.417
B8	1.000	.672
B9	1.000	.512
B10	1.000	.717
B11	1.000	.766
B12	1.000	.841
B13	1.000	.512
B14	1.000	.775
B15	1.000	.754
B16	1.000	.537
B17	1.000	.558

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumul %	Total	% of Variance	Cumul. %	Total	% of Variance	Cumul. %
1	7.556	44.444	44.444	7.556	44.444	44.444	4.220	24.822	24.822
2	1.893	11.138	55.582	1.893	11.138	55.582	3.393	19.958	44.780
3	1.138	6.695	62.278	1.138	6.695	62.278	2.975	17.498	62.278
4	.997	5.863	68.141						
5	.870	5.119	73.261						
6	.750	4.413	77.674						
7	.673	3.959	81.633						
8	.614	3.611	85.244						
9	.544	3.197	88.441						
10	.415	2.444	90.885						
11	.344	2.024	92.909						
12	.283	1.664	94.572						
13	.256	1.504	96.077						
14	.220	1.293	97.370						
15	.194	1.142	98.511						
16	.150	.882	99.394						
17	.103	.606	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix (a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
B8	.818		
B11	.814		
B14	.797		
B3	.778		
B12	.765		-.485
B16	.725		
B10	.707		-.464
B6	.688		
B15	.676		
B5	.672		
B17	.652		
B7	.612		
B13	.584		
B4	.529	-.440	
B1		.642	
B2	.471	.622	.425
B9	.431	.514	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a 3 components extracted.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	.665	.593	.455
2	-.571	.010	.821
3	.482	-.805	.345

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.766
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Qualityuare	536.857
	df	91
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
C1	1.000	.660
C2	1.000	.683
C3	1.000	.711
C4	1.000	.551
C5	1.000	.600
C6	1.000	.615
C7	1.000	.782
C8	1.000	.817
C9	1.000	.758
C10	1.000	.641
C11	1.000	.691
C12	1.000	.746
C13	1.000	.625
C14	1.000	.773

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of Qualityuared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Qualityuared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.083	36.310	36.310	5.083	36.310	36.310	2.980	21.289	21.289
2	2.095	14.963	51.274	2.095	14.963	51.274	2.707	19.339	40.628
3	1.386	9.898	61.171	1.386	9.898	61.171	2.149	15.348	55.976
4	1.090	7.782	68.954	1.090	7.782	68.954	1.817	12.978	68.954
5	.799	5.710	74.663						
6	.743	5.310	79.974						
7	.596	4.258	84.232						
8	.485	3.461	87.693						
9	.420	2.999	90.693						
10	.365	2.610	93.303						
11	.325	2.323	95.626						
12	.251	1.794	97.420						
13	.221	1.580	99.000						
14	.140	1.000	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix (a)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
C11	.804			
C6	.722			
C8	.698	-.520		
C7	.697	-.435		
C13	.697			
C2	.644			
C10	.550			-.481
C5	.496			.433
C3	.484	.657		
C9	.508	-.642		
C4		.556		
C14	.587		-.619	
C1			.550	
C12	.582			.585

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a 4 components extracted.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	.587	.505	.501	.386
2	-.679	.733	.028	.035
3	.424	.441	-.429	-.665
4	-.124	-.113	.751	-.639

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.574
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Qualityuare	580.942
	df	55
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
D1	1.000	.783
D2	1.000	.905
D3	1.000	.883
D4	1.000	.707
D5	1.000	.484
D6	1.000	.784
D7	1.000	.688
D8	1.000	.693
D9	1.000	.400
D10	1.000	.748
D11	1.000	.750

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.822	34.749	34.749	3.822	34.749	34.749	3.593	32.665	32.665
2	2.477	22.516	57.265	2.477	22.516	57.265	2.621	23.823	56.488
3	1.527	13.880	71.145	1.527	13.880	71.145	1.612	14.657	71.145
4	.897	8.155	79.300						
5	.551	5.012	84.312						
6	.514	4.676	88.989						
7	.416	3.779	92.768						
8	.315	2.860	95.628						
9	.268	2.434	98.061						
10	.158	1.439	99.501						
11	.055	.499	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix (a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
D6	.816		
D4	.766		
D7	.759		
D8	.751		
D5	.687		
D9	.590		
D2		.839	
D3	.485	.761	
D1	.476	.737	
D10			.811
D11			.807

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a 3 components extracted.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	.915	.403	.017
2	-.389	.871	.299
3	.106	-.280	.954

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.580
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	565.038
	df	171
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
E1	1.000	.733
E2	1.000	.505
E3	1.000	.649
E4	1.000	.750
E5	1.000	.619
E6	1.000	.698
E7	1.000	.579
E8	1.000	.755
E9	1.000	.761
E10	1.000	.657
E11	1.000	.497
E12	1.000	.556
E13	1.000	.669
E14	1.000	.711
E15	1.000	.705
E16	1.000	.761
E17	1.000	.756
E18	1.000	.733
E19	1.000	.839

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.619	29.575	29.575	5.619	29.575	29.575	2.609	13.733	13.733
2	1.817	9.563	39.137	1.817	9.563	39.137	2.555	13.446	27.179
3	1.723	9.067	48.205	1.723	9.067	48.205	2.501	13.165	40.344
4	1.476	7.769	55.974	1.476	7.769	55.974	1.928	10.145	50.490
5	1.257	6.614	62.588	1.257	6.614	62.588	1.740	9.159	59.648
6	1.043	5.488	68.077	1.043	5.488	68.077	1.601	8.428	68.077
7	.951	5.004	73.081						
8	.873	4.596	77.677						
9	.740	3.895	81.572						
10	.711	3.743	85.315						
11	.579	3.050	88.365						
12	.485	2.551	90.916						
13	.447	2.352	93.268						
14	.356	1.875	95.143						
15	.288	1.516	96.658						
16	.278	1.464	98.122						
17	.167	.877	98.999						
18	.106	.556	99.555						
19	.084	.445	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix (a)

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
E16	.798					
E9	.723					
E8	.694				.445	
E7	.692					
E14	.596					
E13	.580					
E11	.552					
E17	.542	-.482			-.426	
E2	.515			.452		
E12	.504				.491	
E5	.461					
E6	.459					
E15	.483	-.594				
E10	.535	.591				
E3	.486	.559				
E19			.729			
E18	.456		.687			
E4				.579		
E1						.560

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a 6 components extracted.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	.553	.497	.470	.396	.128	.230
2	-.113	-.638	.699	.233	.019	-.193
3	-.245	-.014	.062	-.176	.906	.291
4	-.124	-.020	.328	-.482	-.377	.709
5	.718	-.563	-.300	-.111	.110	.231
6	-.301	-.172	-.298	.717	-.092	.519

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

APPENDIX 4

DESCRIPTIVES STATISTICS FOR FACTOR ANALYSIS

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Low performers are recommended for training/couching	98	1	4	1.98	.746
There is recognition/reward for high performers	102	1	4	2.23	.782
Feedback is prompt	101	1	3	1.99	.714
Employees receive feedback on their performance(either formal or informal)	98	1	4	2.34	.930
Employees are regularly appraised/evaluated	100	1	4	2.49	.732
The university leaders enhance the quality of service given by employees	99	1	4	2.70	.706
Valid N (listwise)	91				

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Compensation is equitable and fair	99	1	4	2.16	.696
Compensation is attractive compared to other training institutions	98	1	4	2.35	.826
Only qualified and competent staff are hired	101	1	4	2.28	.885
Valid N (listwise)	95				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Promotions are based on merit at the university	102	1	4	2.24	.835
The university managers are responsive to employees' questions and concerns	98	1	4	2.52	.776
The university managers clearly understand university goals and objectives	95	1	4	3.07	.703
Valid N (listwise)	93				

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Through the commission for higher education, the Government is able to regulate both private and public universities	101	1	4	3.05	.684
The commission issues from time to time guidelines on quality and quality assurance of human and teaching facilities of universities	91	1	4	2.67	.746
The commission for higher education facilitates external quality assurance of all university programmes	98	1	4	2.55	.761
The Government is involved in the attraction and retention of senior managers in public universities	98	1	4	2.51	.900
Valid N (listwise)	84				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The Government encourages staff development at institutions of higher learning	100	1	4	2.61	.803
The hiring of managers in public universities is competitively handled by the Government	100	1	4	2.11	.695
The Government is adequately represented in major decisions of universities	92	1	4	2.52	.858
Valid N (listwise)	89				

Descriptives
Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The Government monitors curriculum development, implementation and evaluation	101	1	4	2.36	.795
Through performance based contracts, the Government is able to monitor performance of key managers of universities	99	1	4	2.59	.756
The Governments supports student learning in private universities	100	1	4	2.58	.741
Valid N (listwise)	96				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Universities in Kenya are semi- autonomous	102	2	4	3.35	.574
Though semi-autonomous, the universities are accountable to the Government	102	2	4	3.23	.595
The Government, through the Ministry of Higher Education has a direct hand in the day to day running of universities	102	1	4	2.49	.909
Valid N (listwise)	102				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The Governments supports student learning in public universities	102	1	**4**	3.15	.604
The Kenyan Government supports key projects in public universities	102	1	4	2.76	.734
Valid N (listwise)	102				

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistic

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Disbursement of financial resources is prompt to universities	98	1	4	2.29	.799
Valid N (listwise)	98				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The self-interest and profit motives of some universities affect quality of academic resources	101	1	4	3.25	.830
Mushrooming of many universities in Kenya has affected quality of teaching staff at universities	102	1	4	3.03	.938
The introduction of transnational education(i.e. universities from other countries opening branches in Kenya) has negatively impacted on quality of staff	100	1	4	2.56	1.057
cross border higher education affects quality of university human capital	96	1	4	3.02	.846
Brain drain in Kenya has affected quality of staff at universities	102	1	4	3.20	.821
Valid N (listwise)	94				

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The cultural diversity in Kenya and across the region affects quality	96	1	4	2.39	.956
The diversity in education systems within the East African region affects quality	99	1	4	2.56	.917
The opening up of regional constituent colleges across the country has diluted quality learning at higher education	98	1	4	2.89	.860
Valid N (listwise)	90				

Descriptives
Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Ineffective communication channels affect human resource quality	102	2	4	3.48	.593
Staff quality at universities is affected by lack of logistic policies for quality assurance	101	1	4	2.96	.761
There lacks a harmonized/standard model of reference for human capital development	97	1	4	3.08	.640
The level of independence of senior managers is low	95	1	4	2.95	.705
Valid N (listwise)	92				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Financial constraints have strained the development of human capital at universities in Kenya	98	1	4	3.60	.638
The inequity , economic disparities and social tensions within east African region affects quality of teaching staff at universities	99	1	4	3.10	.814
Valid N (listwise)	95				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The admission criteria in Kenya and within the region is not harmonized	101	1	4	3.01	.866
Valid N (listwise)	101				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Professional expertise on maintenance of quality human resource is missing in most universities	100	1	4	3.29	.671
There is a lot of political interference on appointment of senior staff at institutions of higher learning	99	1	4	3.15	.691
Valid N (listwise)	97				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The teaching and working environment is good	102	1	4	2.43	.802
The degree of collective decision making and peer-group selection is good	102	1	4	2.40	.721
lecturers' conditions of work are reasonable	102	1	4	2.42	.763
Remuneration is reasonable and commensurate with qualifications	98	1	4	2.30	.763
Valid N (listwise)	98				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
There exists a policy for staff development	100	1	4	2.76	.740
The university provides for continuous growth for lecturers	102	1	4	2.74	.807
Lecturer are involved in curriculum/programme development	102	1	4	3.09	.676
Lecturer participate in departmental and faculty policies	102	1	4	3.23	.730
Valid N (listwise)	100				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lecturer participate in formulation of national curricula and examinations	99	1	4	2.85	.873
Lecturers contribution to the community's welfare	95	1	4	2.58	.708
The degree of self-control and regulation is high	98	1	4	2.60	.783
Valid N (listwise)	91				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The degree of dialogue of staff with the institution's administration is cordial	98	1	4	2.46	.691
Level of appreciation of lecturers work by the community is modest	97	1	4	2.52	.805
Valid N (listwise)	95				

APPENDIX 5
BUDGET FOR RESEARCH

Activities	Items	Cost	Total Cost
1:Research instruments	Development of data collection(research) instruments	10,000	10,000
2: Data collection	Application of the research instruments Field costs miscellaneous	20,000 50,000 5,000	75,000
3: Data analysis	Coding of data Data editing and cleaning Data validation and checking	10,000 10,000 10,000	30,000
4: Report writing	Presenting data using statistical tools, generation of Tables and graphs Descriptive report writing	10,000 10,000	20,000
5:Thesis compilation	Thesis edit Miscellaneous	5,000 10,000	15,000
6. Transport	Travel costs to all universities listed in the sampling frame		91,000
7. Other	Stationery, telephone costs		10,000
Grand total			**251,000**

APPENDIX 6
WORK PLAN

S/no	Activity	Time (proposed)	Remarks
1	Identification of supervisors	November 2008	Done
2	Thesis proposal : Introduction, Literature Review, Research Methodology and development of instruments of data collection	Dec 2008 to February 2009	Done
3	Presentation/ defense of the proposal	March 2009	Done on 20th May 2009
4	Review of Changes/ recommendations to proposal	March 2009	Completed on 22nd September 2009
5	Data collection	September 2009-November	Done
6	Data analysis and discussions	November 2009	a. Done in May 2010 b. Reviewed in July 2010
7	Summary , conclusions and recommendations		a. First draft completed in May 2010. b. Second draft (revision) completed in July 2010. c. Third draft completed in September 2010 d. fourth draft completed in October 2010 e. fifth draft completed in November 2010 f. 6th draft completed in December 2010 g. 7th draft submitted in January 2011
7	Final defense	December 2010	June 24th 2011
8	Review of changes /recommendations to final research	December 2010 –January 2011	June 28th 2011
9	Submission of the final research to the board of postgraduate studies and issue of letter of award	February 2011	June 30th 2011
10	Graduation	July 2011	July 28th 2011