

**THE EFFECTS OF ACCESS POLICIES ON THE QUALITY OF HIGHER
EDUCATION IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA**

BY

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife: Elizabeth Anyona Kataka and: Collins Wekesa Soita, Gladys Namukhosi Wekesa, Joy Vakhoya Wekesa and Mary Khakoni Wekesa (children).

ABSTRACT

Quality higher education in Kenya appears to be influenced by several factors which include but is not restricted to policies on quality education; admissions, funding, inclusion and constitutional requirements. These policies were said to affect access to higher education in Kenya. However, the extent to which the identified policies impact on access to higher education in Kenya had not been extensively studied. The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected Kenyan Universities. The following objectives guided the study; to determine the effects of admissions policy on quality of higher education, to find out the effect of funding policy of higher education on the provision of quality education, to establish the impact of inclusion policy on quality higher education, and to determine the perceived impact of the constitutional requirements on quality of higher education. The study was based on the Theory of Change Typology and employed the descriptive survey design. The target population in this study was 233, where 113 respondents were top managers of the selected universities while 120 respondents were students. Simple random sampling technique was used to select students who participated in this study. The sample size of the study was 192 of 233 respondents where top managers of the selected Universities were 100 while students were 92. The research instruments used were questionnaire and interview schedules. The questionnaire was administered to the Admissions Officers, Deans, Deputy Vice Chancellors (DVCs), Directors of Quality Assurance (DQA), finance officers, Heads of Departments (HODs), and the interview schedule was used on students. Data was analyzed using (questionnaire) both descriptive and inferential statistics. The study established that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between admissions policy and access to quality higher education, there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between funding policy and access to higher education, there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between inclusion policy and access to higher education and last but not least there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between constitutional requirements of access on quality of Higher Education and access to higher learning. The study concluded that although universities tried to provide quality education in Kenya, there was still much to be desired, universities were not embracing inclusion policy hence denying capable students access to higher education and that public universities did not have enough resources to provide quality education in Kenya. The study recommended that: Universities should employ lecturers with PhD certificates to be at par with student enrolment, Universities must be funded - government allocations to public Universities should be increased. Inclusion Policy- Public Universities should strive to make Universities environment inclusive and since the Universities in existence are under strain to transform and change, no more Universities should be opened.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

- AD: Academic Development
- DVSs: Deputy Vice Chancellors
- DQA: Director of Quality Assurance
- HODs: Heads of Departments
- CUE: Commission for University Education
- EFA - Education for All
- FPE: Free Primary Education
- HE: Higher Education
- HEFCE: Higher Education Funding Council for England
- HEI: Higher Education Institution
- HI: Hearing Impaired
- IQA: Internal Quality Assurance
- KIE: Kenya Institute of Education
- KISE: Kenya Institute of Special Education
- KNBS: Kenya National Bureau of Standards
- KSL: Kenyan Sign Language
- KU: Kenyatta University
- KUCCPS: Kenya Universities and Institutions of higher learning Central Placement
Service
- MDGs: Millennium Development Goals
- MOE: Ministry of Education
- MOEST: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
- OCR: Office for Civil Rights
- OCR: Out Compliance Reviews
- PSIs: Post- Secondary Institutions
- PSSP: Privately Sponsored Students Program
- RPL: Recognition of Prior Learning
- SNE: Special Needs Education
- UNESCO: United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization

UPE: Universal Primary Education

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the introductory account of the topic: Assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected Universities. The chapter highlights the following areas: the background information to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study; objectives of the study; research questions; justification /rationale; significance of the study, assumptions of the study, the scope and limitations of the study, theoretical framework, conceptual framework and definition of operational terms.

1.2 Background to the Study

The Study was designed to examine the Background to access policies on quality higher education. According to UNESCO (2015), higher learning systems and institutions currently are exposed to quick transformation and change. In the US four gatherings developed interlaced roles in quality assurance. To start with, state governments had a legal obligation regarding the provision and oversight of learning, including advanced education. Some had executed their own accreditation and appraisal techniques to ensure quality. Most had depended on programmatic and regional accrediting association to guarantee quality. Besides, voluntary regional accrediting associations (local institutional, national institutional and national automatic) perceived diverse institutions and programs in the US, its regions, and at least ten different nations. This was officially acknowledged as a quality assurance system by law in a few states. Third, present US federal laws require 'listing' of institutions and programs to determine the eligibility of establishments and people going to them to get federal monetary help. Finally, some federal organizations authorized specific programs directly. For instance, the Federal Aviation Administration certified schools for flight mechanics and air traffic controllers, and the US Department of Agriculture authorized veterinary prescription programs.

According to the different studies done in quality assurance in the various Universities all over the world, it has been explicitly mentioned that quality assurance is the heart of quality service delivery in higher learning institutions. Quality assurance in Universities provides a basis for training in higher education, implementation and monitoring policies and procedures, and streamlines assessment procedures and standards. It ensures that the general program validation standards and procedures for internal quality assurance are in place, among others (Stella & Bhushan, 2011). Therefore, it should be within the mandate of every University to promote a quality assurance culture within all their departments and units, and involving all its stakeholders to achieve its desired goals (Henard & Roseveare, 2012).

According to The Universities Act, No. 42 of 2012, the Commission for University Education (CUE) was found as the successor to the Commission for Higher Education. It is the Government office commanded to direct university training in Kenya. The Commission has made incredible steps in guaranteeing the maintenance of standards, quality, and relevance in all parts of training, University education and research. The Commission proceeds to standard quality confirmation in higher learning institutions by encouraging persistent improvement in the quality of programs and Universities.

The Universities' Guidelines, 2014 were gazetted on 12th June 2014 and are presently in force. In line with Section 28 (4) of the Act, CUE shall cause to be published, the list of Universities accredited to provide University education in Kenya. External quality confirmation bodies that occasionally survey the nature of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) as well as their programs through accreditation, quality review, or assessment have turned into a well-known component of the advanced education scene. Some of them were guided by territorial integration processes, for example, the Bologna Process in Europe, with its overwhelming approach emphasis on quality affirmation, others were inspired by national changes, and still, others presented as a major aspect of advancement collaboration. Based on the now-far reaching suspicion that HEIs bear the main duty regarding the nature of their administrations, inward quality confirmation components have been built up in numerous HEIs over the globe.

Assessment is the process of defining, selecting, planning, gathering, dissecting, translating, and using data to expand student's learning and development. It incorporates discussions concerning what ought to be evaluated and how data will be utilized, not simply the hands-on examining of students). Appraisal, assessment, and estimation are utilized in confounding and opposing ways. Measurement is the process of gathering and quantifying data. It serves as the reason for appraisal and assessment. Assessment happens when measurements are examined. Assessment happens when decisions are connected to appraisal endeavors. Access is defined as an opportunity to enter and/or use university facilities as a student. In various studies, quality is determined as a measure of perfection, fitness for purpose, adherence to standards, customer satisfaction, and value for money, among others (Nyangau, 2014). Though definitions such as customer satisfaction are used in several studies, it is difficult to know who the customer is in an education setting; that is, employer, students, or the University where the students study. However, quality is not uniform in all universities as universities might differ in their missions, visions, and philosophies. A quality institution is that which is accountable and satisfies the demands of the different stakeholders (Mishra, 2006; IBAT, 2011). At the same time, University programs which meet quality standards should be able to meet the standards, approaches, criteria, and should be able to cover adequate skills, attitudes, and knowledge required by the students, lecturers and labor market.

Other terms utilized in the implementation of quality delivery systems in Universities include; Quality Assurance, which is the guarantee given by an educational institution that it is confident and certain that the quality, as well as the standards in its educational programs, are maintained and enhanced. Quality Control refers to procedures of monitoring standards and quality to achieve the intended standards (ISO, 1994). Quality Assessment which is the external evaluation undertaken to test the quality of programs and systems in an institution. Quality Culture is the creation of a high level of internal institutional quality assessment mechanisms within an institution, and Quality Audit which is the process of examining institutional procedures for assuring quality and standard are done in the required way to achieve the programs objectives (ISO 1994). Universities are set up to

meet explicit goals. If these goals are not met, at that point they can't legitimize enormous open consumption on them. Today, the Kenya Government is pursuing Vision 2030. Kenya Vision 2030 is one of the nation's new improvement plan covering the period 2008 to 2030. It plans to change Kenya into a newly industrializing, "middle income nation giving a fantastic life to every one of its residents by the year 2030" (the Republic of Kenya, 2007). Basic players in accomplishing Kenya Vision 2030 are the higher learning institutions. The affirmations strategy in Kenya has moved away from bed-space where colleges used to demand for students according to the limit of the individual college to massive of advanced education where colleges target pulling in as many students as possible paying little respect to space.

Universities have played a basic role in training the society all through hundreds of years by training professionals in different fields of knowledge. The importance of these Universities had been re-empowered, particularly with the development of globalization. As indicated by Sessional Paper No 14 of 2012, the definite implications of the Rights Approach to free and compulsory teaching and related services needed to be determined, plainly, residents would progressively request for their rights through an increasingly enabled populace. The provisions of Article 46 (1 a, 9 b) were significant as they granted customers the right to services and goods of sensible quality. Education was to satisfy minimum quality guidelines, which recommended that there would be an expansion in pressure for improved training service, educating individuals was educating the society; truth be told, it is broadly agreed to advance national development. Indeed, even with this accord about the significance of advanced education at that point, a wide range of conclusions had turned out regarding who is advantaged from and who should support higher education? Such questions emerged in light of the fact that it was not clear regarding whether advanced education was a private or social benefit. Consequently, institutions of higher learning came out plainly as beneficiaries while students got a raw deal. This was on the grounds that at no time policies of access had been balanced with quality.

In the 2009/2010 academic year, most private institutions of higher learning recorded a decrease in student enrolment. Some pulled in just about half or as low as 11.62% of

previous year's enrolment. This showed an abnormal state of the delicacy of private institutions of higher learning. In a similar scholarly year, state-funded institutions of higher learning encountered a precarious increment in student enrolment. This was credited to the development of limit among the current state-funded institutions of higher learning. This development was related to the establishment of new fundamental schools as well as grounds. Increase in student enrolment has been considered as an income stream for state-funded institutions of higher learning and business open door for private segment speculators in advanced education. Since 2002/2003 academic year, this expansion has been high and is accepted to have been joined by a decrease in nature of college instruction (Gudo et al, 2011).

Universities Joint Admissions Board (JAB) regularly concedes new KCSE qualifiers who qualify for direct entry to institutions of higher learning depending on individual execution and the concurred cut-off points at whatever year. In any case, one-self supported students to apply legitimately to separate institutions of higher learning, which settle on whether to admit the students or not. The Joint Admissions Board (JAB) presently Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service (KUCCPS), through a legitimacy based determination criteria, gives the best students the opportunity in public institutions of higher learning. Limited chances, in institutions of higher learning, are caused by increment in the number of school graduates who qualify for university education. While university development has prompted expanded access, the quality of instruction raised genuine concern. Educationists like Christoph, Stefan, and Mayunga (2009); have contended that the increase in enrolment of students was actualized without explicit staff establishment and extension of resources for learning at the institutions of higher learning, therefore antagonistically influencing the quality in state-funded institutions of higher learning.

Universities have moved away from bed-space to the massive higher education. These led to CUE, being the only legal body allowed to regulate the quality of higher education recommending a number of universities to close down their campuses due to quality-related issues. These Universities, for example, Kisii, Kenya Methodist Universities among others, exploited the admissions policy by over-admitting students at the expense of

quality. This steered rapid increase of University education in response to high demand (from Universities) hence the quality of higher education in relation to market demand was still questionable. This was because there was no commensurate improvement in quality-related parameters. According to CUE's definition of quality, low quality of education entails low lecturer-student contact hours, inadequate facilities, inadequate/unqualified lecturers, limited reading materials, and non-inclusive environment, low ratio of full-time to part-time lecturers, insufficient number of offices against officers, high student –lecturer ratio among others.

The perpetually-growing need for higher learning by then had left many institutions of higher learning in the country with many challenges of limited space while upholding quality. The government of Kenya had invested a lot of money in universities as part of its Gross Domestic Product. The 2018 Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS, 2018) economic survey indicated that the 2017/2018 budget for the sector would rise by 31.6 percent to Sh415.3 billion from Sh315.6 billion in the previous financial year. Recurrent expenditure, which included teachers' and lecturers' salaries, would increase by 30.7 percent (to Sh385.2 billion). Expenditure on university education was expected to be Sh 96 billion followed by basic education which would get Sh85 billion. The supplementary budget indicated that Sh5.7 billion had been set aside for universities. University Education had been allocated Sh5.4 billion while TSC had Sh118 million (KNBS 2018). Nevertheless, the higher learning participation rate was much less in the country in terms of the labor market.

By 2019, Kenyan Universities had two admission bodies_ government-sponsored (KUCCPS) and privately sponsored students (PSSP). The government admits and sponsors a fraction of the students to universities and the remaining half is left to individual universities and these students have to sponsor themselves. This policy compromises quality in that quality parameters like infrastructure, number of lecturers, availability of facilities, quality of teaching staff, ratio of full-time and part-time lecturers, special needs students, safety, number of offices versus officers, E-books or journals, playgrounds among

others are not put into consideration during admission. Universities are commercializing higher education at the expense of students who get a raw deal.

The Government of Kenya pumps more than 30% of its budget to the development of education in the country in terms of recurrent and non-recurrent expenditure but the education system has not solved major challenges of the nation (Graduate Unemployability). Today, government financing for Kenya's 33 state-subsidized establishments of higher learning continues declining. This financing crunch plainly unfavorably influences quality, which shows in inadequately arranged academic staff, lacking libraries, there are once in a while increase in enrolment of 400 students in one class – and hence, low-quality alumni.

The planning of students with special needs prompted the foundation of Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) and branches at Kenyatta, Moi, Maseno and Kenya Methodist Universities. In view of the above mentioned, this circumstance calls for a re-examination of accessible approaches to expand Special Needs Education benefits in order to accomplish an enrolment rate at par with that of other students. To achieve this, Kenya needs to guarantee the acknowledgment of comprehensive education and all the while create and execute rules that mainstream special needs education at all levels of the education system.

The Kenyan Constitution requires that every county with a thresh-hold should have a University. While the nature of institutions of higher learning was obvious when they were serving a little tip-top, institutions in the present massive advanced education frameworks are under enormous strain to change and adjust. In this specific situation, inquiries concerning graduate employability and quality remain at the center point of advanced education approach in many nations (Altbach, Rumberg and Reisberg, 2009). While concerns with quality and relevance in high education institutions are not new, over the last 25 years, more comprehensive and systematic approaches to control and enhance them had been introduced in many countries. By 2019, Kenya was facing hurdles of rising demand for university education with limited vacancies in the institutions coupled with lack of

resources as well as limited policies. This study examined the effects of access policies on quality of higher education.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Expansion in higher education experienced by many countries has highlighted the dichotomy between quality and quantity of education (Malechwanz & Mbeke 2016). Kenya is no exception to this dilemma. Quality improvement has therefore emerged as one of the most important issues in global higher education policy. In Kenya, the higher education sector has expanded greatly both in terms of the number of institutions and in student enrolments. Enrolments to state universities rose by 41 per cent from 195,428 students in 2012 to 276,349 by end of 2013 (Nganga 2014). According to the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) (2015), the combined student enrolment in public universities and private accredited universities in Kenya in the academic years 2009/2010–2014/2015 grew from 142,789 to 446,183 representing a whopping increase of 213 per cent. The number of institutions of higher education in Kenya has also expanded from one institution, the University of Nairobi (UON) in 1970 (Sifuna 2010) to seventy- one universities comprising thirty-five public universities and thirty-six private universities in 2017 (CUE 2017). Ogeto (2015) contends that the high student enrolment in universities has led to a shortage of facilities and services. Hence, provision of quality education is questionable.

As articulated in Kenya's education 'master plan' (MOEST 2007), quality education should demonstrate a shift in focus away from simply passing exams towards an approach that encompasses the discovery of talents and the development of analytical, cognitive and creative potential, enhanced by the prudent utilization of resources. This probably explains why Ludeman *et al.*, (2009) asserted that universities in Kenya now need to focus on students and put their needs at the center of all that they do. Universities are focusing on admitting as many students as possible (Massive education) in responds to the population's demand. Access policies seem to be so limited that they do not give priority to the needs of the students. This is because there is no balance between access policies (admissions, funding inclusion and constitutional requirements) and quality related parameters like

human, physical and monetary resources). All the student needs on completion of university education in Kenya is employment (relevance and quality education as per the market demand). The labor market finds the Kenyan universities' alumni's skills irrelevant. These access policies are said to be some of the factors affecting the provision of quality education in universities. However, the extent to which the identified access policies affect quality of education in Kenya has not been extensively studied. This study, therefore, set out to determine the effects of access policies on quality of higher learning in selected Universities.

1.4 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to determine the effects of Access Policies on the Quality of Higher Education in Selected Universities in Kenya.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

1.5.1 The main objective

To determine the effects of Access Policies on the Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities in Kenya.

1.5.2 Specific Objectives

- 1) To determine the effects of admissions policy on the provision of quality education in selected Universities in Kenya.
- 2) To find out the effect of funding policy on the provision of quality education in selected universities, in Kenya.
- 3) To establish the impact of Inclusion Policy on the provision of Quality Education in selected universities in Kenya.
- 4) To determine the perceived impact of the Constitutional Requirements on the Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities in Kenya.

1.6 Research questions

1.6.1 The Main Research Question

How do the policies of access affect quality education in selected Universities in Kenya?

1.6.2 Specific Research Questions

- i. What are the effects of Admissions Policy on the provision of Quality Education in selected Universities in Kenya?
- ii. What is the effect of the Funding Policy on the provision of Quality Education in selected Universities in Kenya?
- iii. What is the impact of Inclusion Policy on Quality Education in selected Universities in Kenya?
- iv. What is the perceived impact of the Constitutional Requirements on Quality of Education in selected Universities in Kenya?

1.6.3. Research Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between admissions policy and quality of higher education.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between funding policy and the quality of higher education.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between inclusion policy and quality of University education.

H₀₄: There is no statistically significant relationship between constitutional requirement policy and quality of University education.

1.7 Justification of the Study

As Kenya's higher education sector has grown in terms of student enrolment and number of institutions, the need to regulate its quality has correspondingly been growing. As a result, the government established the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) in 1985 for regulating quality assurance in higher education with its initial focus being regulation of private universities to ensure they met academic quality standards. However, Universities Act 2012, all universities in Kenya must be chartered and their programs accredited under the regulation of the CUE which serves as the external quality assurance mechanism. Universities are expected to come up with their own internal quality assurance mechanisms (CUE 2014). Wanzala (2013), notes that despite the existence of regulatory agencies, quality control remains one of the most critical issues in the management of higher education in Kenya.

No study has been done to conform to quality practices with respect to student learning and teaching as well as academic offerings in selected universities in Kenya. This study was therefore meant to unearth and fill gaps in the existing literature on the access policies affecting quality education in selected universities in Kenya.

1.8 Significance of the study

This study helps Kenya as a nation and other developing countries, to gain from each other's challenges and strength of getting to higher education. It also helps lecturers and policy makers see how to change the university education framework to address the present difficulties. Subsequently, the study helps educational policy makers, interested parties and educational planners in making correct choices concerning the availability and nature of University education.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

The study was undertaken under the following assumptions;

- i. That the admissions policy to access higher education affects the provision of quality education in selected Universities, in Kenya.
- ii. That there is a laid down procedure of funding higher education in selected Universities, in Kenya.
- iii. That there is an impact of inclusion policy on quality of higher education in selected Universities, in Kenya.
- iv. That Constitutional Requirements to access higher education are adopted in selected Universities, in Kenya.

1.10 Scope of the Study

The study was carried out in parts of Rift Valley and Western Kenya Regions. The study dealt with the public Universities in the selected regions because these were the institutions that adopted government access policies. CUE also recommended that there was to be no further opening of campuses. This research site was chosen as a result of many upcoming Universities and University Campuses in these regions. More so, most of these being newly established Universities (like Kibabii and MMUST), more logistical and infrastructural

structures were yet to be put in place to ensure quality education was provided. The study only dealt with the Admissions Officers, Deans, Directors of Quality Assurance, DVCs, Finance Officers, HODs, and at least 10 students from each of the schools/ faculties (three departments from the school of education) per University. The study also looked at the effects of admissions policies on quality education, the effect of funding policy of higher education on the provision of quality education, the impact of inclusion policy on quality of higher education, and determines the impact of the perceived constitutional requirements to access higher education on quality education. The study dealt with undergraduate students only.

1.11 Limitations of the Study

The number of sampled Universities and respondents might not give us meaningful generalized results for the whole country. However, the researcher employed highly validated and reliable instruments of data collection thereby increasing the credibility of the findings to allow for generalization. The items under each objective were many to adequately capture all necessary aspects of data.

1.12 Theoretical Framework

The study was anchored on the Theory of Change Typology by Serena, Masino, Miguel, and NinoZarazua, (2016). The theory talks about three main drivers of transformation of quality of education: supply-side capabilities intercessions that worked through the arrangement of human and physical resources, and learning materials; strategies that through motivating forces try to impact conduct and intertemporal inclinations of educators, family units, and students; top-down and bottom up participatory and network the executives mediations, which worked through decentralization changes, information dispersion, and expanded community participation in the administration of training frameworks. NinoZarazua et al (2016), thought about arrangement of physical and human resource, and learning materials inclinations of instructors, families, and students and decentralization changes, information dispersion, and network cooperation and proposed that intercessions were increasingly powerful at improving student execution and realizing when social standards and intertemporal decisions were calculated in the plan of training approaches, and when at least two drivers of progress were joined.

This Theory is applicable to the study in that supply-side interventions alone were found to be less effective than when complemented by community participation or incentives that shifted preferences and behaviors. Thus, quality of education was more achievable with a combination of supply-side, interventions and incentives that shifted preferences and behaviors. The Theory also encourages community participation in the management of higher education. This could be done through the respective Boards of Management (BoM) and government policy.

1.13 Conceptual Framework

This section presents the conceptual framework that shows the relationship between the dependent and independent variables that were investigated in this study. This is shown in Figure 1.1

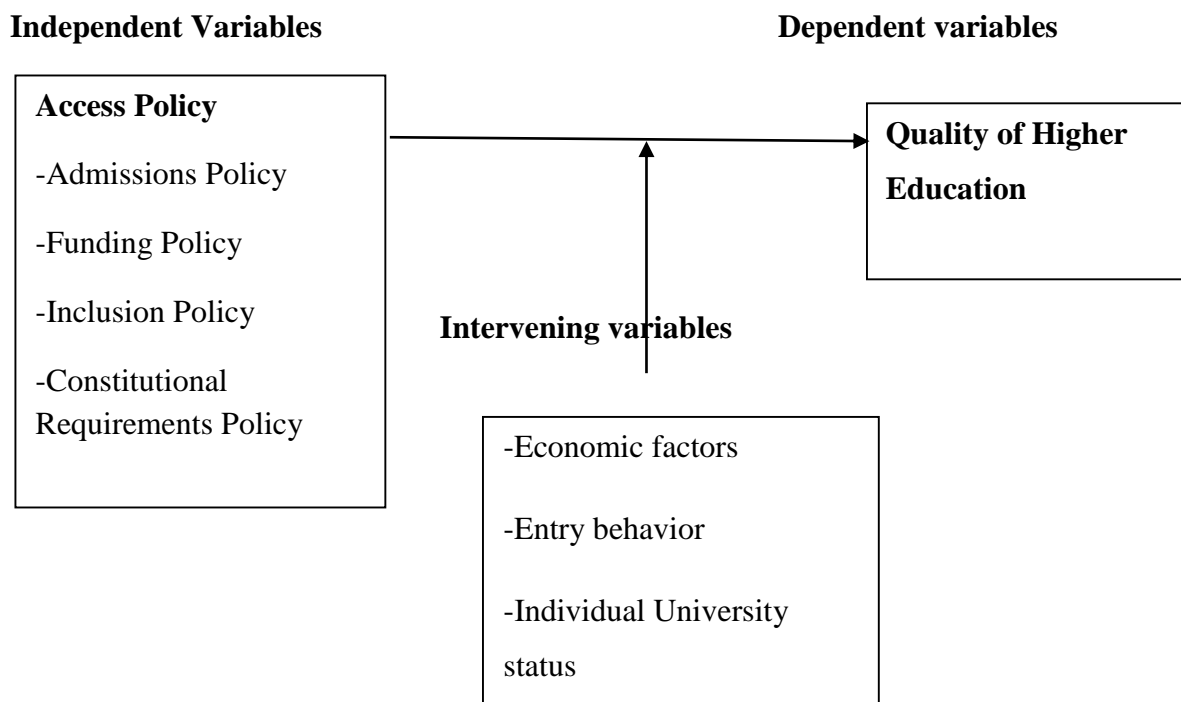


Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework

If admissions policy, funding policy, inclusion policy, and constitutional requirement policy were well balanced with quality parameters, there would be quality education in higher learning institutions. Quality of higher education is the dependent variable (which included: lecturers' qualifications, student enrolment ratio of full time lectures to part-time

lecturers, special needs students-facilities, number of offices against officers, fields-playgrounds, lecturers contact hours with students, and students-lecturer ratio) which depended on Access Policy independent variable (which comprises of admission policy, funding policy, inclusion policy, and constitutional requirement policy). For the quality of higher education to improve, there was to be a balance between access policies and quality. Intervening variables might interfere with the acquisition of quality of higher education if not controlled by research instruments.

1.14 Operational Definition of Terms

Access: An opportunity to enter and/or use university facilities as a student

Access Policy: Those students with qualifications and ability to access higher education

Admissions Policy: Kenya government uses both government-sponsored and individual sponsored bodies to admit students to higher education.

Assessment: the process of defining, selecting, designing, collecting, analyzing, interpreting and using the information to increase students' learning and development.

Constitutional Requirement Policy: Every County with a threshold should have a university.

Disability: This is need or confinement of capacity to play out a movement in the way inside the range considered typical in the social setting of the individual.

Effects: outcome or result of a given situation

Inclusion: This is a viewpoint which emphasizes on the procedure of altering the home, the school, and the general public so every one of the people, paying little mind to their disparities, can have the chance to interface, play, learn, work and experience the sentiment of having a place and examination with create as per their possibilities and challenges.

Inclusive Education: This is a strategy in which students with special needs and disabilities, regardless of age and disability, are provided with appropriate education within regular higher learning institutions...

Inclusion Policy: No child will be left out of any learning institution due to the disability of any kind but base on academic capability.

Integration: This is a procedure through which students with or potentially without extraordinary needs is instructed together to the greatest degree conceivable in the least prohibitive condition. The tyke is required to adjust to the earth

Measurement: the process of gathering and quantifying information as the basis for assessment and evaluation.

Policy: a political or cultural principle of behavior set by the government or CUE

Quality: standard of the education system in Kenyan universities as compared to other education systems outside the country-indicators of quality are contact hours, facilities, qualified staff, among others.

Special Needs Education: This is learning which offers suitable adaptation in syllabus methods of delivery, the mode of communication, educational resources, or the education setting in order to furnish distinct dissimilarities in education.

Special needs education teacher: This is a teacher trained to teach as well as support students with special education needs.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed relevant literature to the topic of study. The main objective of the chapter was to identify gaps within the relevant literature which the study intended to fill. The chapter categorized namely; Effects of Admissions Policy on Quality of Higher Education, effect of Funding policy of higher education on the provision of Quality, impact of Inclusion policy on the provision of quality education, and the perceived impact of the Constitutional Requirements on the provision of Quality of higher education.

2.2 General Literature

This section reviewed relevant literature on Access Policies on Quality Education in Universities outside Kenya. It also tried to identify the existing gaps within the literature in question.

2.2.1 Admissions Policy on Quality of Higher Education

According to Segrera (2010), globalization exerts considerable pressure on governments of the day to reclassify their roles in connection to education. In the world today, educational policies have progressively been thought about and made within the context of the pressure and requirements of globalization. Carnoy (2005), states that the two fundamental bases of globalization have been recognized as information and innovation, which are exceptionally information intensive. Education in this case has been connected to the procedure of globalization via a learning economy. In the knowledge economy, training is a pivotal factor to guarantee financial profitability and intensity in the global setting. This concurred with Nogueira & Jaana, (2013). Therefore, education has turned into an apparatus for financial development as opposed to a device to get students ready to adjust to their very own society. Cultural and social qualities have lost importance and have been supplemented with business values.

Numerous fields of learning in campuses that don't convert into significant benefits are underestimated and underfunded or disposed of. Weight has been taken to resources to be

progressively beneficial and educational programs are presently intended to connect the enterprises. Globalization has presented significant issues and furthermore made open doors for University education improvement. Advanced education has prospective monetary and social advantages for people and society, and for the most part determined by the social and political moves of a nation.

Advanced education has been directly connected to monetary and social improvement as observed by expanding financial giants like China, while most developing nations still battle with trade shortfalls. Numerous analysts on Chinese advanced education have seen that the University education framework in China has been shaped by market needs with an emphasis on structure of a communist market economy that has Chinese qualities. In quest for a fair exchange, many developing nations have increased their spending on training in order to deliver a working power that can make progressively advanced innovations.

Academic development (AD) programs have been created in South African public higher education institutions in different forms since the mid-1980s, when white organizations started admitting little quantities of African students from Department of Education and Training schools, it moved towards becoming clear that most of such under-prepared required extra learning chances to set them up to prevail in advanced education. Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) is a method for perceiving what people definitely know and can do. As indicated by the Council on Higher Education (2001), RPL, depends on the premises that individuals learn both inside and outside formal learning structures (counting gaining from work and beneficial experience) and this learning can be deserving of acknowledgment and credit. RPL is utilized broadly by those looking for: admission to a course; propelled representing a course; or credits towards a capability. It can likewise be utilized by those looking for passage to a specific field of employment; advancement or self-improvement. University education arrangement, driven by access requests, expect institutions to expand access through faultless passage testing methodology (choice and position), to upgrade achievement rates in advanced education through scholarly improvement (connecting and establishment programs) and through RPL (Recognition of

Prior Learning). One of the generally acknowledged perspectives is that entrance to HE (the authors allude to get to post-secondary instruction – PSE, which can be reflected to be like HE) "is the result of a complex set of connections involving not just money related factors, for example, the expenses of tutoring and student aid but also student's mentalities to PSE, their arrangement, their goals, and different components established in family foundation that begin right off the bat in a person's life" (Finnie et .al., 2008.).

The writers Rodriguez and Wan (2010) stated that the term access requires the removal of obstructions that have restricted the entrance of all students to Higher Education (HE) for some time. The authors recognize three major obstructions that have been addressed by research and discussions on policies: poor academic preparation, lack of money related assets and lack of information about application and enrolment in higher education (HE). The authors mention that academic rigor and the students' accomplishments during secondary school are solid indicators for their consequent accomplishment at the University (Rodriguez and Wan, 2010, after Adelman, 1999 Allensworth, (2006), yet that entrance to rigorous high-quality courses is presently unevenly distributed in secondary schools. Regarding monetary assets, the authors noted that their shortage influences both "readiness for and perseverance in advanced education" (Rodriguez and Wan, 2010). Characterizing access as far as disparity, there have been distinguished (Vukasoviü and Sarrico, 2010) different hindrances or obstructions to quality, for example, placement tests and expenses paid for preliminary courses for selection tests kept running by campuses; placement tests are typically composed at the home office of the resources, which involves extra costs for movement and convenience for those living outside the regions in which the colleges are; placement tests are usually organized at the headquarters of the faculties, whose charges are critical expenses for those with low salary.

A hindrance that is habitually alluded to in the particular writing is that of financial status. It has been featured that, even with qualification for the most renowned tracks, youngsters from lower financial foundations will in general settle on less driven educational choices." (Tieben and Wolbers, 2010,); these choices are not just due to the budgetary and social assets that are accessible, yet in addition to the impression of the likelihood of progress

(Tieben and Wolbers, 2010; Boudon, 1974 ApudTieben and Wolbers, 2010). Likewise, guardians need to keep the status of their families, which means giving at any rate a similar degree of education as their very own for their youngsters (Tieben and Wolbers, 2010, after Erikson and Jonsson, 1996; Breen and Goldthorpe, 1997; Stocké, 2007; van der Werfhorst and Hofstede, 2007). Other than the enthusiasm for getting HE, contemplates additionally refer to various different viewpoints that impact the probability that a youngster to consent in HE, for example, social class, sex and the parents' Affirmative arrangement was first presented by President John F. Kennedy in the United States (Shirley, 2012). His point was to review the separation that still endured in spite of social equality laws which were established. The request taught government temporary workers to make confirmed move ventures to guarantee that candidates were dealt with similarly regardless of race, color, religion, sex, or national starting point. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 stretched out Kennedy's structure to non-administrative contractual workers, making almost all business separation unlawful based on, color, religion or some other ground. Kennedy presented the policies of the government on minorities in the community in the United States to all legislative and non-administrative contractual workers making about all business separation unlawful yet overlooked that it was likewise material to learning. In Kenya, segregation of any structure, incorporating into access to advanced education, is restricted (Article 27 of the constitution of Kenya, 2010).

Studies following the expanding demand of University education frameworks globally have underlined the way that while there was high increase in admissions, such development has profited social gatherings that have consistently had an edge in access and cooperation rates (Altbach, Rumbley and Reisberg, 2009). While states like North America and Western Europe record a support pace of 70%, the most astounding on the planet, Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) registers 5%, the least on the planet (UNESCO, 2011; Pityana, 2009). In spite of the fact that there is more prominent incorporation, the special classes have held their relative bit of leeway in about all countries prompting disparities in admission and interest in advanced education.

For instance, in the UK, youngsters from the most astounding communal groupings are accounted for to have around 50-60% a greater number of opportunities to go to university than those from the most distraught foundations (HEFCE, 2006). Such imbalances will in general invalidate one of the roles of advanced education which is to elevate access and investment to the marginalized other than learning, and research (Thomson, 2008). The cooperation of the poor communities will in general be below national standards because of obstructions of access, maintenance and achievement which begin from the developmental long periods of formal learning. Campuses in developed nations like UK, USA and Australia, use affirmative strategies to select students from every social gathering through a measure that does not benefit one community over others. This applies to both public and private colleges with the end goal that the level of students from marginalized populaces admitted to the Universities is utilized as a benchmark for the measure of sponsorship that the establishments get from public supports, for example, the instances of Higher Education Funding Council of England (HEFCE) and South Africa (Scott, 2009). Widening access suggests that intentional techniques are received by institutions to guarantee that as enrolments extend, the social cause of students is fairly spread over all financial classes. The confirmation policies utilized are put together both with respect to validity and policies of the government on minorities in the community in an endeavor towards mixing ethnicities, societies, races, religions and sexes.

Detailed mediations that have been generally utilized incorporate pre-section assessments, least cut-off points, compensatory and financing academic approaches. Increasing access is wanted since the previous comprehensively goes for positive decrease of obstructions that are predominantly encountered by students from oppressed communities while the last centers around numbers conceded (James, 2007). Thus, the center has moved from value in educational assets to impartial educational result (World Bank, 2009). The objective of concentrating on result is intended to accomplish greater equality between the numbers of college students and nationwide populaces. This is in accordance with one of the more across the board institutions of value in building up optimistic targets (Gale, Tranter, Bills, Hattam, Furthermore, Comber, 2010). In developing nations, value in advanced education gives good personal advantages regarding human asset improvement, societal position,

vocation potential outcomes and lifetime profit. While personal equity has been the real basic behind many value activities, there has for some time been a struggle, particularly in the USA, that enlightening the University education investment of individuals from burdened homes is basic for the long life financial end of these gatherings (James, 2007). Furthermore, it likewise depends on the sort of work openings offered by the program sought after to help in human asset development. In an approach announcement enlisted by a team of the International Association of Universities (IAU) on value, accentuation was on three issues: How admission to advanced education ought to be made feasible for all paying little heed to race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, monetary or language, age, social class, religion, area or handicaps, the objective of access policies ought to be full support in advanced learning, as admission without a sensible shot of achievement is a vacant guarantee, and impartial access and scholarly greatness are basic and good parts of value advanced learning (IAU, 2008).

It is in this setting that increasing admission and investment for the marginalized to high learning through agreed approaches can be said to upgrade incorporation and social equity without trading off models in University learning. All inclusive, policies of the government on minorities in the community have been received by nations and instructive foundations to enlarge access and support of marginalized backgrounds to advanced learning (Gale et. al., 2010).

The support for confirmed policies is on the premise that it very well may be an apparatus which can be both increment assorted variety and assignment of assets to the moderately burdened and marginalized communities (Bertrand, Mullainathan and Hanna, 2009). It is likewise a method for utilizing social capital worldwide over social backgrounds since it is expected that the expanding numbers of people from lesser social gatherings that admission and complete University education, particularly in expert courses, event multiplier effects in the communities they originate from. A portion of the agreed upon policies incorporate confirmation criteria which take into consideration crossing over courses, lower cut-off points, budgetary guide, tutoring and educational program audits for successful conveyance of teaching methods. In any case, there are existing difficulties that have

hindered the adequacy of these policies among the discriminated groups of people. These hindrances incorporate inadequate execution of the strategies like deficient financing, inability to recognize successful educational courses and absence of inspiration (Yagan, 2011). Because of these difficulties, occasional researches are done to decide the viability of confirmed policies to guarantee that the marginalized students don't just get entrance but come out of these learning institutions successfully. In Australia, for instance, the Division of Occupation, Learning and Training (DELT) was entrusted with quality approaches in instruction in acknowledgment of the way that imbalance in high learning had been a tireless issue (Gale et al., 2010). In a time of over 20 years, the possibility of imbalance was extended to incorporate the training of young ladies, Aboriginal learners, students with special needs, and learners from non-English talking foundations. In executing these arrangements, the rationale of neighborhood school mediations moved from compensatory programs for the handicapped students to critical educational plan and academic changes. Investigation done from certain colleges proposed that a quality networking including impact for students conceded from marginalized backgrounds, regularly with low college entry points, would in general perform well when they picked up induction (Gale et al., 2010). Thus, colleges in developed nations have embraced Academic Agencies (AA) to review cultural disparity by executing strategies, for example, get to, money related guide, scholastic intercessions in order to improve learning advantages to all without separation (Edwards, 1995).

Kapur and Crowley, (2008), noted that, one-way policy-makers have attempted to close the gender parity hole is via policies of the government on minorities in the community., Kenya, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Ghana, and Tanzania, for example, have all brought down their confirmation cut-off points for feminine competitors. Lamentably, be that as it may, regardless of such strategies, low female enrolment in Africa exists. Other advanced education frameworks have utilized budgetary systems, for example, grants and awards to actuate ladies into advanced education and specifically, into customarily male-ruled areas. Hafkin and Taggart (2001), affirms that the Carnegie Corporation gave \$1 million to Makerere University of Uganda to finance young ladies from burdened regions to consider science. At last, a few foundations and governments have created programs focusing on

gender issues inside schools. These incorporate building up sexual orientation based effort, workplaces and reinforced administrations, female just organizations or course areas, and projects to forestall sex cruelty.

Shockingly, notwithstanding, the minor policies of assets are not regular enough to accomplish larger amounts of college investment among females. An instance of University of Dar-es Salam, an enormous extent of grants made accessible for ladies wound up being occupied to men on the grounds that insufficient ladies connected for the funding of marginal students. At the point when interrogated concerning why they didn't seek after the assets, numerous ladies referred to family duties and child raising commitments as two of the essential purposes behind not proceeding with their education (Masanja, 2010). Understanding these gender parity limitations, just as different variables that may block the learning of ladies in developing nations, for example, viciousness or social frames of mind towards pregnancy, is consequently likewise important.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, examines demonstrate that communal piece of admissions at colleges turned into an impression of the pioneer legacy which created as an elitist foundation. This implied after some time the instructive stepping stool packed as one moved uphill (Morley et al., 2006). The image that came to portray instruction over the most recent four decades since most nations achieved autonomy was one of expanded mass elementary school training, inadequately supported by the administration, a gradually growing auxiliary training and a little elitist advanced education which was exceptionally financed by the state.

This situation created an advanced education framework that forgot about enormous populaces like ladies, ethnic minorities, country and urban ghetto inhabitants, people with incapacities and networks occupying ASAL areas that had been deserted or minimized regarding instructive arrangement when Western training spread in the majority of SSA. These gatherings are viewed as burdened in light of the fact that they face difficulties, for example, neediness, socio-social boundaries, low cooperation and degrees of consistency in tutoring, under-interest in advanced education in addition to other things (Kwesiga,

2002). It is visualized that policies of the government on minorities in the community approaches can extend access by going past the arrangement of admission and convert this progress to help both the marginalized and the tip top. In fact, the utilization of AA in Kenya contrasted with the remainder of the developing nations shows that these arrangements have been principally used to increase the under-portrayal of female learners more than other burdened communities (JAB, 2010; MOE, 2008). In SSA, support in advanced education is still low averaging about 5% of the qualified companions with that of ladies and other distraught gatherings even lower (World Bank, 2009). Access to advanced education is frequently reliant on financial status, where enrolment at colleges and other higher instructive foundations is ruled by students from the most noteworthy pay quintiles. Regularly, public funding systems act to compound such disparities by giving free higher education to students whose scholarly presentation is higher, and who constantly originate from the higher financial status foundations.

In Kenya, for instance, the basic reason for irregular access to instruction is because of political and financial intensity of decision making on ethnic gathering that use state assets to serve their very own ethnic networks (Schechand Alwy, 2004). Because of absence of political power and insufficient financial assets, students from ASAL locales experience low quality education at primary and secondary school level which further compels odds of change to advanced education and preparing. Subsequently, access and value for the burdened students to advanced education call for intercessions that can provide food for insufficient nature of fundamental training (O'hara, 2010). It is in this light a few nations in SSA have distinguished confirmed approach driven plans at institutional level to upgrade value and access in advanced education. The structure is outfitted towards presenting important undergraduate programs and helping burdened communities join the more pertinent professional learning options among different concerns (World Bank, 2009).

The certifiable strategies in Africa University education have occupied structures, for example, medicinal courses, share frameworks, funding (grants, bursaries) as well as lower affirmation cut-off points. Medicinal courses are offered by an institution (at the University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania) to a student who neglects to meet necessities in a given course

especially expert courses in Science, Mathematics and Technology (SMT). Lower affirmation cut-off points is the place where various points are brought down by a specific edge in order to concede a student who met the base college section yet did not qualify on minimum points required set by the college in a given year (essentially rehearsed in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda). Portion framework is the place a fixed level of spots is given to minority students (Uganda and Ghana) to get confirmation at college (Ahikire and Kwesiga, 2006). Subsidizing in type of credits and grants is positively given to the students from marginalized areas (South Africa) utilizing means testing' to those from the lower financial foundations (Kapur and Crowley, 2008).

In most Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) nations, the impeded gatherings that have fundamentally profited by the different types of certifiable methodologies at college level are female students (Bunyi, 2003). For instance, in Tanzania, positive approach has been utilized to augment access of female students to science and specialized courses by utilizing crossing over courses, bringing down cut-off focuses and subsidizing the students. The subsidizing angle is utilized to help the female students to finish the courses tried out. The usage of certifiable arrangement has enlisted blended outcomes. For example, in Tanzania the bringing down of cut-off focuses at the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) saw the enrolment of female increment from 20.4% in 1998 to 33.1% in 2005 (Kapinga, 2010; Luhanga and Mashalla, 2005). In Uganda, policies of the government on minorities in the community has been done at institutional level by concentrating on bringing down affirmation focuses for female students at Makerere University.

The execution was finished utilizing cover approach which expected that female students were a homogenous gathering. Subsequently, when the certifiable strategy was in force, the greater part of the recipients was female students from the high financial status but no cure was taken to invert the imbalance (Kwesiga, 2006). Different nations like Ghana have utilized shares focusing on developed students, the handicapped, poor people and female students to extend access and interest. The administration approach in regards to affirmation actions goes for a 50-50 enrolment for female and male. For sure, the Joint Admissions Board at University of Cape Coast focuses on the level of female enrolment

not to fall underneath 35% of all out enrolment (Morley, Leach, Lugg, Lihamba, Opare, Bhalalusesa, Forde, Egbenya, Mwaipopo, 2007). Ghana and Mozambique had additionally utilized confirmed strategy to expand and yet did not widen the social bases of classes from where students were enlisted. To be sure, projection done after execution of the approach showed that over 70% of specialists, researchers, designers, engineers and different experts were to be delivered from 10% of the populace (Addae-Mensah, 2002).

In South Africa, to improve value and access, the administration built up a national advance plan as a type of agreed approach focusing on greater part of the discriminated students joining advanced education. The advances were dispensed utilizing a 'means testing' for motivations behind value. The results of this intercession uncovered that the greater part of the distraught at national level were not come to because of unpredictable of strategies. At institutional level, clear procedures to help the hindered students were yet to be founded (Griesel, 1999). In Zimbabwe, certifiable approach on the honor of credits dependent on 'means testing' to improve value did not accomplish much because of absence of authorization systems. The preparing of advances confronted escape clauses, to such an extent that unintended recipient figured out how to get to the assets (Kariwo, 2007). Rising up out of a Pan African setting is the way that confirmed arrangements have not been successfully used to improve the odds of less advantaged communities to get to colleges and join proficient courses. One of the difficulties that face institutions when structuring certifiable strategies to build access is that students from such communities fail to meet expectations in fundamental learning, which is a prelude to joining advanced education foundations. Consequently, while it is basic to establish intercessions at college level it is significantly increasingly friendly to concentrate on primary education which is the establishment to advanced education. The usage of these arrangements has confronted difficulties like absence of access ways, lacking financing, poor execution and partiality as far as who benefits (Kwesiga & Ahikire, 2006).

Because of these difficulties, various students surrender to finish their programs on time prompting low yield. Also, passage to proficient degree programs is turning into a selective space of a couple of well-resourced from both primary and secondary schools. One

gathering of impeded students who are once in a while referenced in the writing with respect to access to advanced learning in SSA is those from pastoralist (ASAL) people group in Nigeria and Kenya. Giving instruction to these communities is one of the difficult issues that training policy producers, specialists and different partners inside the field have looked after some time. These difficulties are anyway verifiable and are established in the improvement approaches that were embraced by the pilgrim governments and which progressed toward becoming settled in even in the post-border period. Directly from the provincial time frame, government policy focused on giving administrations and other monetary exercises in a way that encouraged the digestion of inactive communities and propelled the pioneer interests in the territories of manor agribusiness and mining (Hodgson, 2001).

The total effect of the border and post-pilgrim ways to deal with learning policies or ASAL people group was that such communities were then not served by sufficient instructive frameworks both as far as quality and amount were concerned. During an era that there was expanding worldwide spotlight on advanced education as basic to financial improvement; these networks' cooperation in essential training was beneath the national midpoints in many nations. However, accomplishing the two instruction Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): widespread essential training (UPE-Universal Primary Education) and taking out gender parities in primary and secondary schools by 2015 were subject to focusing on and coming to people from ASAL who were not able to access instructive public doors at all levels. Inability to accomplish Universal Primary Education (UPE) and gender equality equality in Arid and Semi-Arid Land (ASAL) counties would affect adversely on the acknowledgment of Kenya's Vision 2030 which imagines decrease in regional social disparities particularly in learning and business (Republic of Kenya, 2009).

Demand for University learning has risen quickly of late. In 2009, there were about 153 million students taken to colleges around the globe, an expansion of more than 50 percent in only nine years (Labi, 2009). Remarkably, an enormous part of this development has amassed in the developing countries, with the end goal that today 50% of students at present

took a crack at advanced education foundations are from developing nations (Bloom et al., 2000). As indicated by Lee and Healy (2006) and Abeli (2010), a significant part of the fast development in the advanced education divisions of creating nations happened during a time of declining government spending plans encouraged basically by the Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP) forced by multilateral loaning associations like the World Bank and IMF. Abeli (2010), and Lee and Healy (2006), states that, notwithstanding restricted assets for public advanced education, governments and foundations built up various components to keep up access to advanced education. Explicit systems incorporate need-based grants and expense arrangements, large scale student advance projects, and grants for students concentrating both locally and abroad.

Increments in student charges and diminishes in quality cleared manner for the private segment to enter the market for advanced education in developing nations. Various courses of action rose including public and private associations, separation or virtual learning, cross-fringe arrangement, and consortia or institutions with foundations from the North. As indicated by Lee and Healy (2006), Abeli (2010), and Miranda (2008), private and revenue driven foundations additionally quickly extended over the developing countries. As of late, there has been resurgence in help for advanced education as a pivotal instrument for improvement. It is ending up progressively perceived that a strong advanced education part is expected to foresee cerebrum channel and build up tomorrow's pioneers. Residential spending plans for advanced education have expanded over the developing countries, and there is recharged support for increasing access to advanced education by bringing down or taking out students' expense. In addition, Creed et al (2012) takes note of that there is recharged support from conventional contributor offices like USAID, DFID, AusAid, Nuffic, and NORAD. These organizations are progressively putting resources into programs to advance access and increase quality. Explicit programs for expanding access incorporate grants, instructional classes, separation learning activities, and extension of organizations in underserved regions. Projects pointed basically at increasing quality incorporate the sponsorship of consortia and systems with Northern organizations, and institutional advancement and limit building programs (Creed et al 2012).

According to Materu (2007), insufficient statistics of scholarly staff with understanding and information in acting assessments and friend audit; strain on senior scholastic staff in organizations of higher learning as they need to help both their very internal quality frameworks as well as external quality confirmation procedures of their national offices. This issue exists in all nations even in monetarily well-off nations like South Africa. Another issue is guaranteeing the nature of separation learning and new methods of conveyance remains a challenge. Materu (2007), proposes the accompanying answers for the difficulties: limit building capacities ought to be coordinated to building a culture of quality inside advanced education institutions; Involvement of companion analysts from different foundations inside or outside the nation in self-appraisal works out; association with poor institutions and quality confirmation offices with sound quality affirmation experience can enhance nearby limit for the time being and furthermore get pertinent experience from different areas; specialized help to create quality standard particularly as respects guideline of e-learning and cross-outskirt conveyance of tertiary instruction since mastery here is constrained in Africa, outer help might be required; staff ought to be prepared in self-assessment and friend research, governments and national offices are encouraged to consider exploring tertiary education financing approaches to such an extent that distribution of public assets to tertiary institutions is connected to quality parameters as a procedure for urging institutions to attempt quality upgrades.

Gender disparities are amplified at higher quality and public Universities. There are generous gender disparity imbalances in colleges also. For instance, females are considerably less prone to select mathematics, science and business, and bound to take a crack at teaching and nursing. There are likewise huge gender disparities sexual irregular characteristics on college resources. Other real concerns incorporate issues of sex based brutality and far reaching sexual separation in some developing nations (Mama, 2003).

2.2.2 Funding Policy of Higher Education on Quality

Human resources execute a critical role in enhancing development of labor hence growth of the economy. Nations, firms and individuals have in the last years left income and invested in the initial costs of education such as fees and tuition hoping to increase their productivity and earnings in the coming years (Jebaraj et.al, 2011). According to Chou

(2003), 42% of economic growth of Australia between 1960 and 2000 was linked to the improvement in attainment in education. It has been reported that for Sub-Saharan Africa to gain the profits of human capital then, higher learning institutions must be adequately funded to provide sound professional development and quality training (Gudo, 2014).

Financial hardship and increasing demand for advanced education have pushed governments and institutions of higher education figuring out how to look for elective wellsprings of income to subsidize advanced education exercises. Public subsidizing in China has remained a key wellspring of fund for public advanced education; in any case, its relative extent is step by step lessening as an enhanced framework is being set up. By 2004, the national contribution to advanced education was US\$ 15.5 billion which was 2.6 occasions more than 1998; with the quicker development of enrolment, consumption per student declined by 23%. Such patterns caused the Chinese Government to present cost sharing, and inside a similar period, educational cost and charges expanded from 14.8% to 30.4% (Fengliang, 2012). As educational cost and expenses expanded by multiple occasion family unit, salary just expanded averagely at 1.6%. As of now, educational cost and charges differ as indicated by the organizations, programs and area. The Ministry of Education has built up rules for educational cost dependent on per student's operational cost, neighborhood monetary improvement and family unit pay. To facilitate the weight of educational cost, the government of China familiarized the money related guide framework with students that incorporate state award programs for poor students, merit-based grants, work study, educational cost waiver and student advances. In an offer to follow borrowers after they complete examinations, the individuals' Bank of China built up a national coordinated individual credit database framework.

Mohamedbhai (2002) noticed that, generally, advanced education in the developing nations has been to a great extent a public undertaking. During the Twentieth Century, developing nations quickly extended huge state funded college frameworks displayed after conventional Western college frameworks. These organizations kept on giving tertiary education to a huge and moderately assorted number of students in developing nations. After some time, a large number of these institutions, similar to the Universidad Autónoma

de Mexico in Mexico City, and Peking University and others in China, have come to match establishments in developed nations. In different cases, fading spending plans have left open establishments with moderately poor assets and personnel. Significantly, most of the public institutions in developing nations try to give widespread access to advanced education.

Customarily, a large portion of these institutions offered advanced education programs for nothing out of pocket, and many offered their students liberal appropriations for nourishment and lodging. After some time, as spending plans have wound down, huge numbers of the appropriations have been decreased or disposed of, and much of the time, public Universities were compelled to begin charging student expenses. Regardless of the need to move a portion of their working spending plans on students, most public Universities keep up a solid spotlight on access, and have created need based grants and student credit projects to guarantee access to needy students.

The generally low funding that many governments in developing nations have accommodated tertiary training since the 1980s has prompted the development of elective types of policies and financing, as confirmed by Birdsall, (1996). One of the most widely recognized techniques for students in developing countries to win an advanced education is through cross-border learning. Cross-border learning is characterized as the development of individual training courses and programs over national boundaries through up close and personal, separation learning models, or a mix of the two. Knight, (2005), takes note that Credits towards a degree can be granted by the supplier in the sending local nation, by a funding local accomplice, or together. Explicit techniques for cross-border instruction incorporate diversifying, twinning, and twofold or joint degrees.

As indicated by research on Higher Education, in 2006, more than 2.5 million students sought for tertiary training outside their nations of origin, contrasted with 1.75 million out of 1999, speaking to an expansion of 43 percent in seven years. China and India top the rundown of developing nations with the biggest outpouring of students, with 1.8 and 1.2 percent of tertiary students concentrating abroad, separately. In spite of the fact that the

assets required so as to access abroad make worldwide training public basically to the more favored groups of developed nations, grant and credit programs for the most splendid students from developing nations to seek after advanced education in surely understood higher education institutions over the globe are moderately normal and progressively common.

Fischer, (2010), declared that among poor students wanting to access advanced education in the United States, for instance, those whose essential money related source is a home government or college grant expanded by 27% in 2009-2010. Government supported grants for students abroad from countries, for example, China, moreover, are likewise expanding. Cross-border education adds to "cerebrum channel" as students are probably going to stay in the nation where they concentrated to begin their vocations (Miyagiwa, 1991). In addition, the advantages of cross-border instruction fall essentially on the special classes.

In later years, different types of cross-border training have risen in developing nations. With an end goal to grow their University education contributions, many developing nations Universities and consortia with Northern institutions, which are setting up branch grounds or different plans over the globe. Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, the United Arab Emirates, Hong Kong, Vietnam all try noteworthy endeavors to energize remote scholastics, projects and organizations to offer their administrations in their nations. Duty, (2008), noticed that various organizations among private and public advanced education institutions have likewise emerged. In a few South Asian nations, for instance, state funded colleges manage and award degrees for "associated" private foundations of higher learning which give the genuine guidance. In many nations, such associations are intentional, while in others they are lawfully commanded. India, for instance, has had its very own type of private school state funded college game plans for quite a long time. Such associations likewise exist in China, Malaysia, Russia, and South Africa).

The absence of subsidizing and diminishing quality opened the entryway for private suppliers to create suitable and practical options in contrast to the conventional public high

education. Starting during the 1980s, developing nations started officially supporting Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) to grow new or extend existing advanced education organizations and frameworks (Abeli 2010; Tefferra and Altbach 2004). Simultaneously, universal private and revenue driven organizations started to grow quickly over the developing scene. Now and again, foundations set up formal organizations and consortia with establishments from the North (Tefferra and Altbach 2004; Knight 2005). Researchers have frequently alluded to this time of higher learning improvement as the "Period of Internationalization," and the decision on its prosperity is still yet to be resolved (Knight 2005). In addition, Pieres and Lemaitre (2008), noticed that the quick extension of the private division prompts worries over quality and checking, and as of late, the fast improvement of universal accreditation and appraisal bodies for advanced education have been seen.

In later years, developing nations and funding organizations alike have completed the cycle, again grasping the idea that advanced education is essential for development (Tafferra and Altbach 2004; Abeli 2010; Creed, Perraton and Waage (2012). Statement of faith, Perraton and Waage (2012), noticed that, higher instruction spending plans have expanded significantly simultaneously as contributor offices have restored their interests in advanced education. In particular, benefactor offices have put intensely in instruction and preparing programs, educational plan improvement grant programs, consortia and systems, and institutional advancement and limit building. Masanja (2010) additionally noticed that different arrangements that have developed to address gender and other sex related issues in high education incorporate sex based policies of the government on minorities in the community approaches, grants, and stipends. A portion of these projects are intended to expand generally speaking female enrolment, while others are focused on enrolment in customarily male overwhelmed controls like math, science, designing, and business. At long last, various arrangements have been developed to address explicit sex issues, for example, sex brutality and reintegration of females after pregnancy.

The importance of human capital and its positive externalities have been made evident in growth theories such as Lucas (1988). A country stands to benefit extensively from

education in such ways as economic growth and political and increased social progress. Globalization and the changing nature of technology have further brought to light the importance of higher education especially for developing nations. A major problem that faces the provision of higher education is its funding. Increasing fiscal pressure combined with increased demand for higher education and the significant private benefits that it accrues to an individual has shifted focus to alternative ways of funding higher education. Central to these alternative policies is the concept of cost sharing.

Moreover, the public funding strategy of financing higher education has been characterised by discrimination against students from poorer homes. Espinoza (2008) in a review of the educational policies implemented in Chile from 1987 to 1998 concludes that upper and upper-middle income students gained access to higher education disproportionately compared to lower, lower-middle and middle income groups. A similar conclusion is reached in the case of Egypt (Fahim and Sami, 2011) and Tunisia (Abdessalem , 2011) educational reforms targeted at increasing access to poor students despite most of the public spending on higher education goes to students in the richest quintiles. The limited availability of funds for these public Universities has crippled expansion activities thus resulting in intense competition for the available places. Most of the institutions admit students based on generalised performance tests which have been found to be highly correlated with family income thus discriminating against the poor, (Franco, 1991). This makes the tax financing system generally regressive as the poor pay proportionately more of their earnings but less higher education participation. Psacharopoulos (1994) drew attention to the fact that higher education has the lowest social returns to education and that the private returns significantly exceeds that of the social returns to higher education than other levels of education. For example, the private rate of return to education is 27.8% compared with 11.3% for the social rate of returns, Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2004).

Increasing fiscal pressures coupled with these emerging works on rates of returns amongst other reasons led to the increasing acknowledgment by most developing countries that students in higher education institutions must contribute to the costs of their degrees. This has since resulted in a constant search and subsequent adoption of different policy

alternatives to the funding of higher education. Due to the vast scope of developing countries and policies adopted this discussion is limited to the common ones that have been adopted by most countries. Diversifying higher education financing has caused an increase in private sector participation. In most of the developing countries there has been a magnified growth in private higher education institutions following the 1990s. For example, in Malaysia between 1992 and 2001 the number of private higher education institutions increased from 156 to 706 with student enrolment increasing from 55,111 in 1992 to 294,600 in 2002, (Marimuthu, 2008). In Brazil, the number of private higher education institutions rose from 689 to 1652 between 1997 and 2003 while student enrolment increased from 970,000 to 2.4million between 1994 and 2002, (Bertolin and Leite, 2008). This indicates the growing importance of private institutions in increasing the participation rates in University education. In terms of efficiency, private higher institutions have been generally more efficient in the use of resources than public institutions. Al-Salamat et al. (2011) note that the cost per student in the public Universities in Jordan averaged at about 14% higher than the corresponding cost in the private sector.

Barr (2005) asserts that the increase in the number of private institutions need to be accompanied by an increase in quality of the education offered by these institutions due to increased competition. However, this has not been the case in some countries such as Brazil where Bertolin and Leite (2008) note that despite the growing private sector contribution in terms of participation rates, the sector consistently presented the worst performance in terms of qualitative indicators related to value and effectiveness. In developing countries, “the policies focusing marketization do not necessarily result in quality improvement”. A contributing factor to this decrease in the quality of private education has been the emergence and growth of falsified operators. This has been especially pronounced in developing countries where there is little or no effective regulation of the activities of the private sector. Teferra (2007) notes the increasing popularity of contemptible advertisement such as “University degrees for sale!” and “Get your bachelor’s, master’s, or doctorate in days!” by some so called Universities in the sub Saharan region, though majority of these countries are taking steps to curtail this effect such as setting up of national accreditation boards and councils. Franco (1991) notes that, private institutions

particularly the profit-seeking ones tend to specialise in mostly undergraduate courses that are less expensive to deliver and require little capital expenditures. This has resulted in the neglect of postgraduate programs and negligible investments in research and development.

Also, in terms of equality, the private sector generally discriminates against students from poorer backgrounds due to the high tuition fees charged by these institutions. Tuition fees make up a considerable proportion of income for most private institutions and usually reflect the operational costs of these institutions (Johnstone et al. 2008). The increasing need for cost sharing has also resulted in the charging of tuition fees in most of the public institutions. The charging of tuition fees provide some of the much needed funds for these Universities as well as shedding some of the burden of financing education to students and their families. Tuition fees will increase efficiency and quality due to increased competition amongst Universities in order to attract more students, (Barr, 2003). Also, Johnstone (2002) argues that tuition fees are a more equitable way of financing education especially in developing countries where higher education is partaken by few, and disproportionately by the children of high income parents as this reduces the regressiveness of tax financing. Though more equitable than tax financing, tuition fees increases the direct costs of higher education and may further limit enrolment to only those students who are able to afford these fees. Otieno and Menene (2007) indicate that a highly subsidised fee of \$693 per year is charged by public Universities in Kenya. However, given that the per capita income of Kenya is \$390, it is still expensive for poor households. Some countries have opposed tuition fees and its implementation has been slow due mainly to political reasons. For instance, in Nigeria, Eboh and Obasi (2002) note that the introduction of cost sharing policies led to two very violent student demonstrations between 1976 and 1986 which claimed the lives of students and swept away two Vice-Chancellors from office.

Efforts to avoid the introduction of tuition fees mainly due to its unpopularity and further combined with the increased demand for higher education has led to the introduction of the 'dual track' system in many countries (Johnstone et. al, 2008). This is a system whereby 'less-qualified' students are enrolled on the basis of the payment of full tuition costs. Though this system contributes revenue for these Universities, Johnstone (2002) notes that

it may elicit favouritism towards the enrolment of these full-fee paying students thus further reducing the already limited places for governmentally supported students. In order to mitigate the negative impact of tuition fees and other cost sharing mechanisms on especially poor students, various loans and grants schemes have been introduced across many developing countries. These loans have either been on merit basis or on need basis. Either ways, Psacharopoulos (1986) notes that loans will increase efficiency since students will enrol in the courses with the highest return. Also, this will improve participation rates amongst the economically less privileged in the society since in effect they pay less or nothing during the duration of their study (Woodhall, 2004). However, Johnstone (2005) argues that any effective loan scheme should be largely need based in order to promote equality since solely merit based loan schemes would run the risk of being awarded mostly to middle-income students.

Unfortunately, in most developing countries, loan schemes face challenges such as poor recovery rates, high migration rates of graduates and ineffective implementation and administrative policies (Barr, 2003). In addition, Barr (2008) argues strongly against the use of blanket subsidies which are common with loan schemes in developing countries. He indicates that blanket subsidies tend to make the scheme expensive in fiscal terms and less sustainable especially for low income countries. Atuahene (2007), for example, in an assessment of the SSSNIT National Loan scheme implemented in Ghana, notes that one of the main challenges it faced was the large sums of debt owed by the government as part of the interest subsidy it provided. This amount was estimated at \$23.9 million between 1998 and 2001. Also, loan schemes have been generally limited to cover only tuition fees and in some cases limited to only students in the public sectors. These features have undermined the capacity of loans to increase access to education. As noted by Johnstone and Marcucci (2007) other costs such as accommodation and feeding are usually higher than tuition payments thus such loans contribute very little to reduce the financial burden to attending higher education institutions. Similarly loans limited to only students in the public institutions will restrict the options of students who cannot afford private education to the highly-competitive public institutions.

In addition, Mingat and Tan (1986) point out that the success of cost recovery of a loan scheme depends on the future incomes of graduates. The higher the future incomes of graduates the more likely the scheme will be able to recover its cost. They note that in Africa, loan schemes are unlike to perform as compared to Asia and Latin America since the proportion of loan costs in terms of future salaries is higher and thus much more difficult to bear. Other forms of student loans such as graduate taxes and income contingent loans have been adopted with varying degrees of success in many developing countries. For instance in Ethiopia a graduate tax collected as 10% of annual income which is automatically deducted from salaries was introduced in the 2003/2004 academic year (Chapman, 2005). An increasingly popular form of student loans is the income-contingent loans (ICLs). These are loans for which repayments are expressed as a percentage of future earning rather a fixed scheduled amount of repayments (Barr, 2003). ICLs have the advantage of promoting and protecting access since the loan has in-built insurance to compensate for years in which earning are weak or inability to repay. Though ICLs are a relatively new area for developing countries, with the notable exception of some countries such as South Africa and Chile where income contingent loan schemes were introduced in 1991 and 1994 respectively, there have been increased debates and attempts at ICLs in countries such as Namibia, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Mexico and the Philippines indicating its growing importance (Chapman, 2005).

However, Chapman and Lounkaew (2010) point out that, as in the case of subsidised type loans with fixed payments, the main challenges faced by this approach for many countries relates to the efficiency of collection and the high administrative costs associated with ICLs. Most developing countries have neither the fiscal nor the administrative capacity for the successful collection of repayments with the added problem of corruption in their existing institutional structures. Complementary to the introduction of a loan scheme of any form has been the introduction of grants and scholarships. These awards and scholarships are awarded both on needs basis and merit basis. They are awarded to high performance students who cannot afford higher education without assistance. Such schemes are intended to increase access amongst low income students while mitigating the

negative impact a loan scheme will have on equitable access to higher education. Nonetheless, Munene and Otieno (2008) note that these schemes have been limited in their ability to meet such fulfilments due to certain factors such as inefficiencies associated with the selection process and corruptive practices. Abdessalem (2011) identifies this as a peculiar problem in Tunisia where grants are currently provided to about 30% of all students whilst only about 10% of students are covered by loans. Also, though these schemes are intended for the poor they usually have no or little knowledge of their existence.

Another feature that has sprung up in financing higher education due to the increased liberalisation of the education market is the internationalisation of education. Though a broad concept, a component of its definition is the delivery of education to other countries through new types of arrangements such as branch campuses or franchises, and using a variety of face-to-face and distance learning techniques (Knight, 2007 pp. 207). Certain regions especially Asia has been increasingly characterised by the setting up of branches by prestigious Universities from mainly developed countries. Altbach (2009) indicates that over 200 institutions have programs in China and at least 150 foreign academic institutions had various kinds of collaborative arrangements in India. However, Teferra (2007) notes that this concept is still unpopular in Sub-Saharan Africa with the exception of South Africa largely due to economies of scale, financial and infrastructural issues.

To improve efficiency in the entire educational system as well as reducing the financial burden on public finances, a welcoming atmosphere should be created for the involvement of the private sector, (Pscharopoulos, 1986). A number of reforms could be put in place to create such an environment. The education market should be less regulated and greater autonomy given to these institutions. Also, there could be some public-private sector collaboration in the delivery of certain courses and in the use of available infrastructure. In order to reduce the negative impact privatization might have on equality, supportive measures including tax incentives for the undertaking of independent research and for the enrolment of students from less privileged backgrounds could be initiated. An interesting

example is that of Prouni in Brazil. The Programa Universidade para Todos (University for All Programme) or Prouni as it has become known was implemented in 2004. Under this initiative, private universities are encouraged “to allocate their unfilled places free of charge to low-income students, in return for exemption from tax payments” (McCowan, 2007).

Most developing countries, if not all, have established accreditation institutions or boards in order to regulate and eliminate fraudulent operators and maintain quality in the higher education. However, reforms should be put in place to enhance the activities of these boards such as equipping them with the right infrastructure and skilled professionals needed to effectively execute their duties. Altbach (2009) suggests that the system of ranking which is more popular in the developed nations should be introduced. The board should publish a regular ranking of all higher education institutions based on certain indicators such as quality of teaching and research. Historically the financing of higher education in many developing countries has been borne mainly by the government through tax financing. However, such a strategy is not sustainable due to increasing fiscal stringency, increasing demand for education and resulting falling in quality of teaching. This coupled with the idea that students must contribute to the costs of their education due to the high private benefits they stand to gain has fuelled the idea of cost sharing. Cost sharing measures such as the introduction of tuition fees is becoming increasingly popular. Loan, grants and scholarship grants have been initiated in order to limit the negative impact cost sharing is likely to have on access and equality in access to higher education. Also, private sector involvement in the provision of higher education has increased though with the negative emergence of fraudulent operators.

No one policy option can be adopted in financing higher education but rather a carefully designed set of options. Institutions should be given a greater level of autonomy in the setting of tuition fees to reflect their differing internal costs and costs of programs offered. To ease the political and social tensions that sometimes accompany implementing cost sharing initiatives, such reforms should be gradually phased in and all stakeholders should be involved in the decision making process. Loans and other assistance programs should

be implemented. However, the implementation of the more effective income-contingent loan scheme would not be viable in the poorer countries due to inefficiencies and insufficient collection infrastructure. For such countries, a small scale private loan scheme would be a more feasible option. In addition, the private sector should be supported with a more deregulated market environment. Tax incentives can be given for participation in research activities and for enrolling less privileged students. Nevertheless, the affairs of higher education institutions should be monitored by enhanced autonomous accreditation boards. Admittedly these proposals may not completely solve the issue of financing higher education but as noted by Psacharopoulos (1986) “beginning to reform the financing of education – is better than continuing the existing situation [of public tax financing] in most countries”.

2.2.3 Inclusion Policy on quality of higher education

The Department of Education through its higher education department has the responsibility for defining national policies for a considerable length of time, England had a cradle body (HEFCE - Higher Education Funding Council for England), which was responsible for apportioning public assets to colleges and other tertiary institutions. HEFCE was nullified in 2017 and supplanted with the Office for Students, which is the new advanced education controller. Advanced education Policy Documents incorporate the important authority report (characterizing England's national advanced education methodology) is the Higher Education and Research Act 2017. The United Kingdom 2010 Equality Act sets the parameters for desires for equivalent treatment and equivalent open doors crosswise over divisions.

The inclusion policy in higher education are communicated by means of all advanced education suppliers who charge an expense above £6000 or who wish to be enlisted through the Office for Students giving what is called an Access and Participation Plan. In the UK, (2017), the Department of Education distributed a direction note for advanced education suppliers that spotlights on making a comprehensive learning and showing condition for students with inabilities: Inclusive education and learning in advanced education as a course to magnificence. Value target institutions recognized in the arrangement reports are; Low-pay students, Gender gatherings, Minority gatherings: in light of ethnicity, religion,

and Students with inability. Secured statuses under the UK 2010 Equality Act are: age; handicap; sex reassignment; marriage and common organization; pregnancy and maternity; race; religion or conviction; sex; sexual direction. Britain intends to twofold the quantity of students entering HE from low investment territories from 2011 to 2020. Britain does not have an independent approach record committed to value advancement in advanced education. The fundamental monetary instrument to advance value is the pay unexpected student credit plan set up by the legislature. As a feature of Access and Participation Plans, HE suppliers are obliged to contribute an extent of their education cost pay on grants/bursaries and the sort of non-money related work. The principle non-financial instruments to advance value are: Outreach and extension projects, Academic and vocation direction and guiding, Flexible pathways and moves/Recognition of earlier learning, Reformed confirmation methods/Affirmative activity projects, and Retention programs.

The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education anticipates that advanced education establishments should: "work evenhanded, substantial and dependable procedures of evaluation, including for the acknowledgment of earlier realizing, which empower each student to show the degree to which they have accomplished the proposed learning results for the credit or capability being looked for." The UK Quality Code states in the majority of its various segments that the general code promotes and thinks about uniformity of chance and comprehensive learning in Higher Education organizations: "A comprehensive domain for learning foresees the differed necessities of students, for instance, on account of an announced inability, explicit social foundation, area or age, and expects to guarantee that all students have equivalent access to instructive chances. Advanced education suppliers, staff and students all have a job in and duty regarding advancing correspondence."

The Office for Students has by and large obligation to screen the effect of value advancement measures in the interest of the Department of Education. The Office for Students substituted the Office for Fair Access. OFFA shut in March 2018. HE suppliers themselves lead on this work by means of their Access and Participation Plans. They utilize the standard scope of assessment instruments including the following of students who have

attempted effort exercises driven by HEIs into HE. Britain does not have an organization committed to value advancement in advanced education. Value advancement is one of the obligations of the Office for Students. The focal spending plan dedicated to the work is low, yet that is on the grounds that in England the expense of learning and educating in HE is met in the primary by student charges.

According to Mutanga (2017), there has been an expanding world-wide advancement of and promise to comprehensive and fair quality instruction for all (UN, 2016). Change in South African high education has concentrated principally on race and sex issues, and incapacity has been disregarded notwithstanding the way that South Africa is among the couple of nations on the planet (164 starting at 2017) to have marked and approved one of the most acclaimed worldwide shows on handicap, the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disability (CRPD) in 2007. It has been 10 years since South Africa marked and endorsed the CRPD. The show is a global human rights arrangement that should ensure the rights and poise of individuals with handicaps. In any case, very little appears to have changed or the almost 2.9 million South Africans – around 7.5% of the complete populace - who live with some type of handicap. For instance, individuals with inabilities make up lower than 1% of the student populace conceded at South African University education foundations. At the season of the exploration study, there was no national arrangement for students with inabilities in South African advanced education. All things considered, there were impromptu ways to deal with inability issues both at and inside these two colleges and at one of these colleges there was no composed handicap arrangement. Besides, the exploration demonstrates that the couple of students that are conceded at South African colleges still feel rejected in connection to: accommodation, class and timetable arrangements; access to spaces; teaching and learning; assessment; attitudes of staff and students; and funding arrangements.

Winzer & Mazure (2000), note that acknowledgment of all students is the obligation of each educator, not all have the right stuff required for effective consideration nor are open to the standards and requests of incorporation. The movement to integrate students into the education mainstream according to Winzer et al (2000) did not begin with the students who

had disabilities. He noted for example, in 1779, Thomas Jefferson began the struggle to include students from poor families in the education system. Thomas proposed the first state supported educational plan in Virginia in an attempt to allow children other than those from wealthy families, an opportunity to receive education services. In Kenya, comprehensive training is a subsection of the general instruction, and is characterized as: Education which gives suitable adjustment in educational plan, showing techniques, instructive asset, and mode of correspondence or the learning condition so as to provide food for individual contrasts in learning (MOE. 2008).

Education policy is defined by Bell and Stevenson (2006) as the standards and government strategy making in learning circle just as the accumulation of laws and principles that oversee the activity training frameworks. Haddad (1995) set forward the possibility of strategy as an express or understood single choice or gathering of choices which may set out orders for managing future choices, start or retard activity, or guide execution of past choices. A scope of worldwide human rights instruments has since quite a while ago settled the privilege to instruction for all. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) immovably settled as a human appropriate for all individuals. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), the main explicit instrument worried about the privilege to instruction, depends on the standards of non-separation and equivalent open doors in training. The Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990), the most generally sanctioned universal human rights arrangement, features the requirement for governments to guarantee access to training for handicapped youngsters. The Salamanca Statement (1994) stresses the significance of comprehensive learning, approaching governments to 'give the most noteworthy arrangement and budgetary need to empower them to incorporate all kids paying little heed to singular contrasts or troubles and to 'receive as an issue of law or strategy the standard of comprehensive training, enlisting all youngsters in standard schools. Myers and Bagree (2011); Winzer et al (2000) characterized instructive incorporation in Encarta Encyclopedia (1998) as the way towards permitting all kids, paying little respect to inability, race, or some other contrast the chance to remain an individual from the normal homeroom. In South Africa for instance, since 1994, as per

Dalton, McKenzie, Kahonde (2012) when majority rules system was built up, there has been an extreme redesign of government approach from a politically-sanctioned racial segregation structure to giving administrations to every South African on an impartial premise.

The arrangement of training for students with incapacities has been a piece of that procedure and the advancement of a comprehensive instruction framework can be followed back to the country's establishing report, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act No. 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa (1996). In Section 29 (the Bill of Rights) it is expressed that everybody has the option to 'an essential training, including fundamental grown-up instruction; and to assist training, which the state through sensible estimates must make continuously accessible and open'. It further expresses that the state may not segregate legitimately or in a roundabout way against anybody on at least one grounds, including inability. The structure for a comprehensive instruction framework is spread out in Education White Paper 6: Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System (Department of Education 2001). An area of this strategy endeavors to address the different needs of all students who experience obstructions to learning (African Journal of Disability, 2012).

Comprehensive instruction is concerned about all students, with an attention on the individuals who have customarily been rejected from learning institutions, for example, students with exceptional needs and incapacities, kids from ethnic and etymological minorities. Incorporation is about the child's entitlement to take an interest and the school's obligation to acknowledge the child and to dismiss the utilization of extraordinary schools or study halls to isolate students with inabilities from students without handicaps. A premium is set upon full investment by students with inabilities and upon regard for their social, common, and instructive rights. Comprehensive schools never again recognize "general training" and "custom curriculum" programs; rather, the school is rebuilt with the goal that all students adapt together (Scheyer, Jubala, Bishop, and Coots (1996). Cortiella (2009) demonstrates that comprehensive training is significant as it gives chance to all students adapt together. She says all students can take in and advantage from learning.

Schools can without much of a stretch adjust to the necessities of students, as opposed to students adjusting to the requirements of the school. Individual differences between students are a wellspring of wealth and decent variety, and not an issue.

Tefferra and Altbach (2004) noticed that encouraged by a perplexing trap of social, mental, monetary, chronicled, and political components, gender in high education is boundless over the developing countries. As indicated by Mama (2003), by and large, sexual orientation uneven characters are amplified at higher quality and public institutions. Various governments and organizations have created projects and strategies explicitly to address sex issues. A few African nations including Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe, and Malawi have organized express sexual orientation based policies of the government on minorities in the community arrangements, a considerable lot of which work through the cutoff score for admission to public Universities (Tefferra and Altbach 2004).

Others have founded gender based grants and stipends so as to actuate females to try out school. Masanja (2010), states that some particular approaches focusing on female issues have been grown, for example, programs focusing on sex based viciousness or the readmission of female students after pregnancy. Regardless of additions in enrolment shares for females over the creating scene, there are considerable sexual orientation imbalances inside establishments too. For instance, females are significantly less liable to try out math, science and business, and bound to take on instructing and nursing. Mother (2003), noticed that, there are additionally huge sexual orientation uneven characters on college resources. As confirmed by Masanja (2010), at times, governments and establishments have founded policies of the government on minorities in the community and grant projects built to drive females into generally male commanded fields. This efficient audit expects to orchestrate the proof on the adequacy of different ways to deal with high education arrangement in increasing access, quality and fruition for students in developing nations. Given the unpredictable idea of advanced education projects and strategies that frequently work at the national or framework level, a significant part of the exploration on advanced education arrangement and projects in developing nations is

subjective. In any case, more as of late, various quantitative effect assessments of specific projects and approaches have been directed.

Perkinson, (2006), takes note of that, Virtual or separation learning has likewise extended given the immense mechanical progressions as of late, and is currently a noteworthy vehicle of advanced education arrangement in developing countries. In 2006, non-inclusive learning represented 15 percent of all tertiary enrolment around the globe. As verified by Muangkeow, (2007), In Thailand, for instance, Information and Communications Technology (ICT) has been perceived as a significant vehicle for advancing long lasting instruction, separation, and grown-up training. Utilizing ICT, the Thai government made the Inter-University Network (UniNet), a fast data system connecting more than 180 national and worldwide colleges and Universities. It likewise settled Thailand Cyber University (TCU), an e-learning system for both degree and non-certificate looking for students. By decreasing overhead time and financial costs in respect to grounds based training, instructive learning gives students compelled by work or comfortable commitments with greater adaptability to get to instructive assets and learning openings. Ruler and Hill (1998), additionally noticed that Distance learning may likewise turn into a practical choice for expanding female access to advanced education, particularly in nations where nonappearance of secure convenience is regularly the essential factor stopping young ladies from seeking after advanced education.

Project definitions were influenced by the local contexts such as that outlined by the University of Salford where they noted the quality of their previous engagement with their local community and a strong tradition of humanity. This was also exemplified by other institutions such as York St John, which has historical roots within the church and is still heavily influenced by the local church community. In many senses, for some of the institutions at least, inclusion is not a new activity but is actually enshrined within their very foundations: St George's understanding of inclusive learning culture is to embrace the diverse community and provide an environment that facilitates inclusivity. It might be argued that there is a sense in which the discourse around inclusion has been captured by the times and the political and legislative frameworks which currently exist, although it is

still beholden on these institutions to ensure that their values and principles are converted into demonstrable practice and experiences of equity among the student populace.

Another ongoing pattern is the development in private and revenue driven suppliers of high education. Revenue driven foundations have perceived open doors in creating nations and extended quickly as of late. Significant players incorporate Laureate Education, the Kaplan University System, and the Whitney International University System. Kinser (2010), affirms that, The Apollo Group, which runs U.S- based University of Phoenix, as of late ventured into Mexico and has plans for huge scale global extension. Nwuke, (2007), noticed that these establishments have likewise been instrumental in extending access to customarily minimized gatherings, for example, ladies. In Ethiopia, for instance, ladies represented just 16 percent of enrolment in state funded colleges in the 2001/2002 school year, while in 2003/2004 ladies established in excess of 50 percent of private tertiary organization enrolment.

2.2.4 Constitutional Requirements on Quality of Higher Education

Authorization of the government social equality laws has achieved significant changes in American education and improved the instructive chances of a large number of students. Numerous barriers that once kept people from openly picking educational opportunities and professions have been expelled. Many educational systems are presently making it workable for students who are not capable in English to take an interest viably in their education projects. Many more students with incapacities are currently capable, with the arrangement of advantageous guides and administrations, to take an interest in regular education classes. The civil rights laws have opened the ways to schools, classrooms, theaters, athletic fields, and arenas. Accordingly, individuals from the numerous differing foundations that represent present America are getting through these doors, while in transit to turning into our future chiefs in business, government, science, expressions of the human experience, and training. The civil rights laws guarantee that the doors stay open to all.

The Office for Civil Rights (OCR) in the U.S. Division of Education (Department) is a law authorization organization accused of implementing government social equality laws to guarantee that educational institutions accepting bureaucratic money related help don't

participate in discriminatory conduct. OCR implements the government civil rights laws that disallow separation on the bases of race, national beginning, sex, color, inability, and age in projects and exercises that get bureaucratic money related help from the Department. Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (precludes inability segregation by open substances, including government funded school regions, open establishments of higher learning and colleges, open professional schools, and open libraries, regardless of whether they get administrative money related help). Also, OCR upholds the Boy Scouts of America Equivalent Access Act, which is a piece of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Under this law, no public rudimentary or optional school or state or nearby education organization that gives a chance to at least one outside youth gatherings or local gatherings to meet on school premises or in school offices will deny equivalent access or a reasonable chance to meet to, or victimize, any gathering officially affiliated with the Boy Scouts of America, or some other youth gathering recorded in Title 36 of the United States Code as an enthusiastic culture, that desires to meet at the school. OCR is made out of a base camp office, situated in Washington, D.C., and 12 requirement workplaces speaking to 12 districts in the United States and its regional jurisdictions. In Washington, D.C., the Office of 4 The Laws Apply to Students and Employees. The civil rights laws secure students visiting or applying to visit, educational foundations, as pursues: about 55.5million students going to basic and auxiliary schools; and about 19.1million understudies going to establishments of higher learning and Universities. In certain circumstances, the laws likewise ensure people who are utilized, or are looking for work, at instructive organizations. OCR Receives Discrimination Complaints.

From the General Public, one significant way that OCR completes its duties is by settling protests recorded by students, guardians, and others. The individual or association documenting a protest need not be a casualty of the supposed separation but rather may grumble in the interest of someone else or gathering. For the most part, OCR will make a move just on objections that have been recorded inside 180 schedule days after the last act of the alleged segregation, or on grumblings that claim a proceeding with biased policy or practice. OCR gets in excess of 6,000 complaints every year. The protests include probably the most significant issues influencing equivalent access to top notch instruction. Under

Title VI—race, national origin separation and color — grievances incorporate such issues as: utilization of racial or ethnic classifications, counting capacity gathering; access to elective language benefits by English language students; disciplinary practices; understudy task approaches, including task to skilled and gifted projects; between locale understudy moves; school integration; racial badgering; understudy lodging on school grounds; and scholarly reviewing. Sex segregation — objections incorporate such issues as: lewd behavior; equivalent open door in interscholastic and intercollegiate sports; treatment of understudies who are pregnant; and admission to post -secondary organizations. — handicap segregation — grumblings incorporate such issues as: accessibility of school offices and projects; fitting specialized curriculum administrations; assessment and situation of understudies who may require custom curriculum administrations; showing students at all prohibitive condition predictable with their instructive needs; suspension and removal of understudies with incapacities; inability badgering; scholarly changes and adjustments; and exceptional help for learners with hindered sensory, manual, or talking skills. Under the Age Discrimination Act protests incorporate such issues as: learner treatment; program necessities; and admissions.

OCR endeavors to determine complainants' charges of segregation fairly, suitably, and promptly. OCR has discovered that the most ideal approach to determine issues is through a collaborative methodology among learners, guardians, local education agencies, state and neighborhood training offices, and schools or organizations of higher learning. OCR utilizes many techniques to determine grumblings, extending from early grievance goals to investigating and coming up with agreements with beneficiaries for intentional consistence. On the off chance that OCR can't verify intentional consistence, it might look for consistence through the regulatory hearing procedure or through referral to the U.S. Division of Justice. This adaptable methodology permits OCR to: give timely and effective intercession toward the start of the grumbling procedure; center around accomplishing consistence with hostile to separation rules; and make learners, guardians, and school authorities key to the goals of protests. OCR Carries Out Compliance Reviews. Notwithstanding settling individual grumblings, OCR frequently starts cases, called "consistence surveys," with the goal that it might target assets to consistence issues that are

especially intense, national in degree, or recently developing. Directed consistence audits augment the effect of OCR's assets and equalization the authorization program. Consistence surveys guarantee the security of the social equality of powerless gatherings, for example, non-English talking people or the exceptionally poor, who might be less mindful of the laws. OCR's experience additionally demonstrates that cautious focusing of consistence surveys about consistently brings about beneficiaries making arrangement or program changes that advantage enormous quantities of understudies. Conversely, the goals of an individual protest regularly benefit just the griping party.

Albeit Higher Education has extended a few times since independence, issues of equity, access, quality still keep on being the regions of concern (JBS Working Paper Series, 2008. The Gross Enrolment Rate (GER), measures, the entrance level by taking the proportion of people in all age gatherings joined up with different projects to add up to populace in age gathering of 16 to 23. For Higher Education GER has ascended from 0.7 per penny in 1950-51 to 1.4 percent in 1960-61, and 8 percent in mid-2000. The current GER which is about 13.8 percent stands low when contrasted with the world normal of 23.2per penny, and a normal of 54.6per penny for developed nations, 36.3per penny for nations experiencing significant change, and 11.3 percent for developing nations. The focused on GER in high education was fixed at 15% before the part of the arrangement FYP and is imagined to be 30% by 2020 (UGC twelfth FYP 2012-17).

The higher educational organizations experience the ill effects of huge quality variety in to such an extent that a NASSCOM-McKinney Report-2005 has said that not more than 15per penny of alumni of general education and 25-30per penny of Technical Education are fit for work. The different administrative bodies directing high education have comprised autonomous bodies for observing quality benchmarks in the organizations under their domain. For instance, National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC) by UGC, National Board of Accreditation (NBA) by AICTE, Accreditation Board (AB) by ICAR, Distance Education Council (DEC) and many others. However, there exists self-ruling bodies for appraisal and checking quality gauges in the establishments of advanced education they experience the ill effects of two noteworthy lacks. To begin with, the quality

standards of such gatherings are not practically identical with universal principles. Besides, the requirement procedure isn't stringent. Further political impedance and debasement weaken the job and effect of these instincts in guaranteeing the ideal quality norms.

2.3 Specific Literature

This is the literature that is related to the topic of study from within the country.

2.3.1 Admissions Policy on Quality of Higher Education in Kenya

The education framework in Kenya, following the foundation of few institutions previously, during and the beginning of post- colonial time, was implied just to give the nuts and bolts in life to ease correspondence between the colonial bosses and Africans who gave the genuinely necessary work power (Mwangi, 2012). Moreover, higher education was a reserve for just a couple of favored learners who scholastically exceeded expectations (Wachira, 2013) and at the freedom time, this kind of training was to be gotten abroad through intensely restricted western-based grants. Since autonomy time, major changes and changes in Kenyan education framework were made and centered round its entrance, relevance, quality, equity, and affordability (Ministry of Education, 2012; Wanjohi, 2011) and hugely extended institutions at all levels to meet the desires of quickly developing Kenyan populace. As a feature of financial column, the requirement for talented work power, which requires skilled preparing at degree level, was acknowledged and required the improvement and extension of college training. This was notwithstanding, further reinforced by the expanding Kenyan populace and because of the way that it was likewise perceived as a fundamental fixing in accomplishing the nation's vision 2030, the principle national flagship project for financial improvement plan.

According to Munene (2016), small classes in higher learning institutions are unhappily unusual in Kenya's often congested, over-subscribed campuses. There are many Universities' branch campuses in at least most of Kenya's larger cities. These modest, low-quality satellite grounds don't have even the most essential offices. They have no libraries, nor internet access. While in January 2011, the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology distributed a rundown of 110 post- secondary school organizations countrywide to be shut down due to working without enlistment with the

service and accreditation from CUE (Lime et al., 2011). Further it was noticed that CUE had just certified 61 out of 350 high learning institutions of getting the hang of working countrywide (Anon. 2012). Most shockingly, it is assessed that there were around 83 tertiary Institutions by 2013, which are working together with nearby as well as global colleges to offer degree programs without accreditation from CUE (Ngure, 2012).

While trying to react to this sort of acts of neglect, CUE had in the previous three years, strengthened the crackdown on such establishments working illicitly, an activity that had seen, Busoga and Bugema Campuses of mother colleges in Uganda, purportedly teaming up with Tracom and Elgon View Institutions of higher learning in Kenya, separately, close down in January 2011. Other tertiary establishments, over a 100 of them, were declared to be shut down in Eldoret and Kitale towns (Ndanyi, 2010). In spite of such endeavors by CUE, fake education, preparing and learning organizations kept on rising; the instance of Dream line College in Nairobi, Kenya, the Campus of Kampala International University in Uganda (Anon., 2012). Tragically, such endeavors with the end goal of subduing false and mushrooming instruction, preparing and learning establishments are not kept up and spread consistently the nation over, especially in remote and much confined towns where it was difficult to recognize such acts of neglect. This pace of advancement and extension of education in foundations for advanced education, preparing and learning requires the need to create solid organizations to help manage, co-ordinate and guarantee quality and relevance of education, preparing and discovering that is tandem with and responsive to the necessities of the general public. The nature of Kenya higher institutions, regardless of whether at branch level or at major, built up grounds is slipping. This procedure has quickened in the previous 20 years and it requires earnest work from the advanced education sector and government to capture the decrease.

The CUE, which was set up in 1995, at first, it centered on the accreditation of private higher learning institutions. Its powers were extended in 2013 to cover public institutions – however, at that point, these institutions had gone unchecked for years. The CUE needs the hierarchical, specialized and human capacities to screen and implement quality consistence. Expert bodies have attempted to venture into the gap left by the CUE's

inadequacies, intervening to shut down college programs they guarantee are not up to industry benchmarks. Unfortunately, these bodies have no statutory powers and have been sued for their mediations. It will take a number of methodologies to reestablish quality, especially at Kenya's public Universities. In this manner, the state, administrative experts and the establishments themselves should be included.

The historical backdrop of high education in Kenya can be followed route back in 1956 when the Royal Technical College was set up in Nairobi as a constituent college of Makerere University, Uganda. With the foundation of University of East Africa, Royal Technical College turned into the University College of Nairobi in 1963, offering programs and degrees of University of London till 1966. It is in this period that Kenya got freedom from Great Britain. In 1970, the University of East Africa was broken down making University of Nairobi full-fledged University and first University in Kenya. The legislature of Kenya kept on reinforcing and growing University of Nairobi with an end goal to build up a world class society. With expanding student enrolment, the then President Daniel Moi formed a commission which suggested the foundation of a second state funded college that is increasingly mechanical arranged, Mackay Report 1981 referred to by Amutabi, (2003). In 1984, Moi University was built up pursued by Kenyatta University (1985).

From that point forward, the framework has experienced impressive extension by 2009, 7 state funded Universities, 12 newly settled organizations of higher learning and more than 22 private colleges with shifting degrees of accreditation enlisting 122,874 learners. This is in concurrence with the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2010), and the Kenya statistic and solid overview 2008–09, Nairobi, Kenya. The quantity of colleges expanded definitely from 21 in 1998 to 52 in 2012, up by 147.6%. In 2013, the quantity of colleges expanded to 22 state funded colleges with 80 campuses spread the nation over, 13 church-associated colleges and 18 private Universities. Student enrolments have additionally expanded with most recent enrolment figures for 2014 demonstrating that there were 443,783 understudies selected in Universities crosswise Kenya, more than double the 2012 enrolment number. Around 215,000 of those understudies were enlisted at private

establishments. From 1998 to 2014, the quantity of advanced education establishments expanded by 148% and undergraduates' enrolment expanded by seven overlap.

By 2015, advanced education enrolment number in Kenya soar because of the effect of free and compulsory primary instruction in 2003 and financed secondary training, since the underlying cohort had started enlisting for advanced education and the presentation of double admission and privately supported students in every single state funded college to fulfill this demand. The quality affirmation system of advanced education in Kenya has been organized into internal quality confirmation, external quality confirmation and accreditation which are performed by the Commission for University Education (CUE) set up in 1995 under the University Act. The Commission for University Education is authorized to accredit higher learning institutions, facilitate long term planning ready for college training and advice the government of establishment of state funded Universities, among numerous different functions. The government has additionally made a Directorate of Higher Education which is under the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to address issues of significance in advanced education segment. The government further settled National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation planned for advancing developments in science and innovation through giving awards to academic work and organizing shows, exchange fairs, and symposiums.

The Kenyan Government presented Performance Contract and Quality Management Systems in state funded Universities, planned for improving the quality of administration conveyed to students. There is a pledge between the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and higher education establishments that they ought to apply ISO principles and pursue the ISO model. This was utilized to give feedback about the exhibition of both the teaching and non-teaching staff as indicated by international benchmarks and accommodates remedial measure for future improvement. The legislature of Kenya has set out on new policies to oversee colleges. By 2005, there was a move from president as the chancellor of every state funded college to arrangement of chancellors for state funded colleges. Besides, top administrators are currently enrolled through a thorough determination process which has incredibly improved initiative and the executives of state

funded colleges. While addressing the chancellors of different state funded colleges in Kenya in May 2015, the forth leader of Kenya said that, "advanced education is developing at a mind boggling pace; this isn't simply because of demand yet in addition as a result of the pace of development". Business banks have now ventured in to help government constrained assets through giving education advances to students and advanced education foundations to improve quality. It should also be noted that 2016/ 2017 and 2017/2018 changed the enrolment issue in the country whereby all students who scored a mean grade of c+ and above in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education were selected. This means that the admissions policy in Kenya has moved away from bed-space where Universities used to request for students as per the capacity of individual University to massification of higher education where Universities aim at attracting as many students as possible regardless of space.

The Constitution of Kenya (2010, Article 27 (8)), accommodates policies of the government on minorities in the community where the State is required to take legislative and other measures to guarantee that not more than 67% of the individuals from elective or chosen bodies are of a similar gender. Article 81 further repeats that a similar standard should be relevant in elective public bodies. In Kenyan, public Universities and specifically the National Assembly, sexual orientation parity is skewed against ladies, along these lines the sex rule for the most part attempts to get ladies into the lime light.

Policies of the government on minorities in the community implies a conscious move to transforming or disposing of over a wide span of time segregation utilizing a lot of open strategies and activities intended to help based on belief, land area, color, race, birthplace and sex among others (WiLDAF, 2010). Policies of the government on minorities in the community consider under-portrayal and unimportant control of positions by certain minorities in the general public. The fundamental thought process in policies of the government on minorities in the community is the rule of equivalent chance, which holds that all people reserve a right to equal access to self-development.

Lee (1999) defines affirmative action as a policy of the government on minorities in the community. Emphasis is set on the way that policies of the government on minorities in the community is to profit a burdened gathering and isn't restricted to harmed people of segregation. In spite of the fact that those legitimately harmed too may profit, policies of the government on minorities in the community approaches are not set up to change their complaints. In Kenya, policies of the government on minorities in the community essentially take a gender point of view. It is an idea that has made considerable progress. The vast majority know about policies of the government on minorities (affirmative action) in the community in connection to college admissions where evaluations for female college candidates are put much lower than those of the young men in order to urge more young ladies to get to training. At this, nature of these young ladies by the end of the day may not merge that of young men in a similar evaluation. In 1997, Hon. Phoebe Asiyo suggested a plan on policies of the government on minorities in the community to build ladies' cooperation in administration and basic leadership in parliament and neighborhood experts to at any rate 33%, a movement which was sufficiently crushed (Amnany. 2013). In 2000 Hon. Beth Mugo again postponed a similar plan which was to some degree effective as it was allude to the Constitution Review Commission of Kenya (CRCK) which was checking on the constitution at the Bomas of Kenya. The arrangement was fused under the Bomas Draft, which ended up into the Wako Draft that was crushed in the 2005 submission. The Constitution of Kenya, 2010 has in any case, been gender cognizant as it stipulates systems of policies of the government on minorities in the community to carry ladies into the spotlight.

As indicated by MOE (2004), an examination done on young men in secondary schools in Mbita region planned for researching the impacts of policies of the government on minorities in the community in instruction tried to decide if the execution of the policies of the government on minorities in the community arrangement had affected adversely on the enrolment and consistency standards of young men in optional schools, and to decide if there is need to rethink of the usage of the policies of the government on minorities in the community approach in higher learning institutions to improve sexual orientation correspondence. The results showed that there is requirement for a move in center from

girl focused affirmative action to a more inclusive version similar to the same policy of the boy child both in learning institution and in the public eye all in all. While there is reasonable need to proceed with the mission to lift the status of the girl child in issues of development, the boy child is by all accounts gradually escaping everyone's notice. Approach mediations area practically sure method for guaranteeing the scale does not tip to the impediment of either sexual orientation. The administration of Kenya has made a stride towards accomplishing this objective by drafting and implementing the Gender Policy in Education (MOE, 2004) to streamline sexual orientation correspondence in learning establishments. Basing on the 2016/2017 and 2017/2018 admission trends, where Universities were receiving less students than expected due to students' performance at KCSE examination, we need to revive the affirmative policy on admissions if it continues. Thus, students from marginalized areas should be given admission to higher education at lower entry grades. This will likely raise eyebrows over the quality of these students as compared to other students. In Kenya, like the rest of SSA, policies of the government on minorities in the community has been connected to hindered bunches that incorporate ladies, ethnic minorities, country and urban ghetto occupants, physically tested and networks occupying ASAL districts.

In Kenya, confirmed mediations have been essentially used to ease the under-portrayal of the female understudies whose cooperation is insignificant in science, arithmetic and innovation zones directly from fundamental to college levels and even in expert courses (MOE, 2008:23; African Union, 2006). As of late, arrangement archives in Kenya have shown the need confirmed intercessions for the hindered understudies from ASAL districts which face difficulties, for example, high destitution and lack of education levels in the midst of deficient strategy rules on augmenting access (MOE, 2008; MDG Africa Steering Group, 2008). Certifiable arrangement intercessions so far utilized in Kenyan educational framework have mostly centered round expanding as opposed to extending access and cooperation countrywide. So also, these arrangements have basically centered round essential level and somewhat optional school level. In the ASAL counties of Kenya, the arrangement intercessions so far utilized have had some effect in grade school enrolment. The basic concentration for such approach mediations has been to raise scholarly

accomplishment, certainty and desire, maintenance and fulfillment. At University level, inquiries about discoveries on Kenya demonstrate that regional imbalances influence the financial status of students as far as access to college training. In an investigation done by British Council (1996), utilizing studies, field perceptions and substance examination from five colleges, discoveries demonstrated that greater part of the college understudies at college level were from counties and groups of higher financial foundation.

The examination likewise uncovered that parental degree of learning affected an student's entrance to college. For instance, the examination found that state funded college training progressively supported children and little girls of the world class Kenyan culture. Nonetheless, as far as gender is concerned, female students were less and they were principally joined up with Arts-based courses. The investigation prescribed that inclination ought to be given to the poor however skilled understudies to upgrade value in college instruction. With respect to the training of ladies, the examination proposed the definition of strategies to limit the hindrance of this classification directly from the family, school and employment advertise. Late information show that somewhere in the range of 1999 and 2005 just 0.5% females selected into colleges in Kenya were from the ASAL counties and 83.4% from higher salary locales (Griffin, 2007).

Another observational study concentrate done by Achola (1997) on territorial and financial starting points of understudies in Kenyan state that; funded colleges found that most understudies in colleges originated from verifiably and instructively advantaged territories with great County schools, Extra-County schools and national schools. These learners were likewise observed to know about attractive degree programs and their importance. The investigation prescribed the need to improve access to Universities' through bursaries and other material assets. In any case, it was not explicit as far as certifiable techniques are concerned. The two observational examinations (Achola, 1997; British Council, 1996) demonstrated that lion's share of the understudies getting to public funded institutions and aggressive courses were overwhelmed by those from high financial foundations, explicitly understudies whose guardians had optional training or more.

In such manner, most understudies from ASAL areas were hindered given that they didn't access schools with imperative framework because of high neediness levels experienced by their folks. This prompted lackluster showing which limited their interest in college training. The positive criteria for understudies from ASAL locales focused on the individuals who did not meet the minimum points required for college passage. Confirmation was finished by bringing down focuses by between 1 and 3 for the fundamental affirmation and between 1 and 5 for the aggressive courses (JAB, 2005). In a review by Nungu (1997) on AA at three state funded colleges in Kenya, utilizing record investigation, talk with guide and survey, discoveries showed that on the sex basis, ladies were under-spoken to in the vast majority of the orders aside from in Bachelor of Education and Home Economics notwithstanding agreed mediation. Least under-portrayal of ladies was noted in science based courses like designing. Investment in college instruction by area showed that high potential locale overwhelmed in college puts over the impeded ASAL areas of North Eastern. The ASAL locales were specifically under-spoke to in expert degree courses in designing and prescription. The investigation presumed that despite the utilization of AA in Kenya's state funded colleges, provincial and sexual orientation imbalances endured. This was on the grounds that confirmed strategies were foolish, unfocused and remained un-observed.

The investigation prescribed the improvement of instructive open doors for ladies and for the hindered districts. Yet, it was constrained to the period somewhere in the range of 1974 and 1994 when confirmed criteria for understudies from ASAL locales were taken care of under other impeded regions in Kenya. The confirmed intercession for ladies in Kenya was acquainted in 1992 without respect with the financial foundation of the recipients (Nungu, 1997). The requirement for colleges to have a positive arrangement for understudies from ASAL areas getting to state funded colleges, similar to that of female understudies, exuded from political weight and not institutional reactions to a social concern. It was in this light JAB after origin in 1989 on impromptu premise built up a sub-advisory group, as from 1995, to survey confirmation criteria of understudies from ASAL districts. In 2005, the Kaimenyi Report completed a noteworthy audit of the four past reports on the confirmation of impeded understudies (1989, 1995, 1997 and 2001). The Kaimenyi Report, guided by

these reports on the arrangement of AA in the affirmation of understudies from distraught locale, suggested that the ASAL districts be isolated into Pure Arid and Semi-Arid (JAB, 2005). The areas were as per the following: Pure Arid (Tana River, Turkana, Moyale, Marsabit, Isiolo, Wajir, Mandera, Garissa and Ijara) and Semi-Arid (Kwale, Kilifi, Lamu, TaitaTaveta, Machakos, Kitui, Mwingi, Makueni, Mbeere, Tharaka, Narok, West Pokot, Kieni, Laikipia, Kajiado, Keiyo, Marakwet, Baringo, Koibatek, Samburu). The division was done dependent on the degree of aridity (Republic of Kenya, 2004).

The scholarly contemplations of the ASAL agreed strategy included angles like bringing down the confirmation cut-off focuses between 1-5 points for general affirmation and bringing down the degree weighted bunch focuses by 1-3. In the regions delegated Pure Arid, the bringing down of slice off focuses was to be finished by 1-5 points beneath the set cut-off focuses and the degree weighted group by 1-3. With respect to the Semi-Arid, the affirmation and degree weighted bunch slice off focuses were to be brought down by 1-3. Both the general and explicit degree slice off focuses was to be connected when the quantity of competitors conceded from ASAL zones was under 10%. Bringing down of the cut-off focuses depended on the recreations accomplished for the year 2002 which demonstrated that bringing down of focuses for the ASAL locale could have expanded understudies as pursues: general cut-off focuses by five points could have expanded the number from 196 to 235 while in twelve chose aggressive courses at the UON could have expanded the numbers in any event by one in many courses and at most by twelve (in Bachelor of Commerce). Be that as it may, the bringing down by five did not profit a solitary understudy in Mechanical Engineering (JAB, 2005). Consequently, the bringing down of cut-off focuses in the two circumstances insignificantly expanded the quantities of ASAL understudies to state funded colleges.

To beat the weaknesses of AA as rehearsed, it has been suggested that there is have to plan arrangements which can limit the level of hardship among understudies from burdened foundations directly from the family, school and occupation advertise (Griffin, 2007). Explicit proposals include: need to enhance school accomplishment before college affirmation, inclination to be given to the poor however skilled understudies, changes in

the school selection tests to help understudies in the rustic locales, monetary help to those from low financial status, improvement of prospects for alumni work.

In spite of the fact that foundations for advanced education, preparing and learning in Kenya produce an extensive extent of work power at national, local and global levels, the poor positioning of these organizations (especially colleges), most likely can help clarify and convey their poor state (Tairo, 2006). Colleges, which are viewed as focuses of brilliance in instruction, preparing and learning, information age and scholarly and financial and - social improvement in the general public, are sadly not filling these foreseen needs in Kenya. The poor circumstance of school personnel intensified with their low installments, does not enable them to get focused on giving quality execution in the foundations. Unrefined techniques for instructing that speakers use in asset constrained conditions contrarily impacts understudies, accordingly bargain for quality and applicable advanced education, preparing and learning in Kenya: a review missing the nature of alumni.

Administration in advanced education includes the specialist who settle on choices about basic approaches and practices in a few basic zones concerning organizations of higher learning and colleges: their number and area, their main goal, their enrolment size, the entrance of understudies to their instructional projects and the entrance of natives to different administrations, degree necessities, the quality gauges expected in understudy execution, the nature of research and open administration exercises, the opportunity accessible to singular employees in their instructional and look into exercises, the arrangement of staff, inside hierarchical structure, the designation of accessible assets to working and Governance of Kenyan Public Universities Research in Post-Compulsory Education, Vol. 3, No. 2, 1998, bolster projects and budgetary help.

Administration in advanced education is inseparably connected to college independence and scholastic opportunity. From the soonest beginnings of the college in the medieval times, down to the present century, self-governance or self-government has been the key fixing in the philosophy of organizations of higher learning (Perkins, 1978). Ajayi (1990),

takes note of that this belief system imagines the opportunity or self-rule of the foundation to settle on its own choices on an expansive complex of issues without impedance from outer, non-college organizations. The customary thought of scholastic administration focuses on the significance of independence, and scholarly foundations have frequently utilized it to protect themselves from direct control by outer organizations. Altbach, (1991), asserted that, with the expansion in size, extension, significance and cost of advanced education, there have been enormous weights from those financing advanced education, for the most part the state, for responsibility from foundations of higher learning. It has likewise been seen that, from one viewpoint, an excessive amount of independence may prompt advanced education being lethargic to society; and then again a lot of responsibility may obliterate the vital scholastic ethos (Lee, 1997).

Berdahl (1990), Scholastic opportunity as that opportunity of the individual researcher in his/her instructing and research to seek after truth at whatever point it appears to lead unafraid of discipline or end of work for having irritated some political, religious or social conventionality. Scholarly opportunity is coordinated more at the individual level, though grounds self-rule works at the institutional level. Institutional self-rule can be additionally separated into substantive self-sufficiency and procedural self-sufficiency (Berdahl, 1990). Substantive self-rule is the intensity of the scholarly organization in its corporate structure to decide its very own objectives and projects, while procedural self-sufficiency is the ability to decide the methods by which these objectives and projects will be sought after.

The belief system of self-rule and scholarly opportunity has been for long an argumentative issue with respect to African Universities. At the time many were built up, in spite of the fact that independence and scholarly opportunity were seen as useful essentials for compelling advanced education, such old style thoughts of general opportunities ensured via self-sufficient foundations couldn't get away from the progressions that were occurring in the African mainland (Court and Ghai, 1990). Yesufu, (1973), takes note of the call over the landmass was for a basic redefinition of the job of colleges. Colleges were being called upon to imply their dedication to learning for the good of its own as well as to the quest for information for, and for the improvement of, the states of the normal man and lady in

Africa. Consequently, African colleges were to be particularly not quite the same as the conventions of Western colleges by advancing various demeanors and ways to deal with their issues. This observation was fortified by the thought of institutional responsibility and formative significance. A later pattern that has influenced colleges and demeanors towards their self-governing goals has been the weight on instructive spending plans occasioned by the way that the economies of the landmass have not developed quickly as was initially foreseen. As the financial conditions have crumbled, governments have turned out to be less generous towards their colleges than in the previous time. The amazing development of understudy numbers in numerous nations in the previous decade or so has been accomplished without a proportionate ascent in assets accessible to advanced education. Due to the decrease in per capita reserves, colleges have been compelled to diminish consumptions which they would have gotten a kick out of the chance to convey in such zones as staff improvement, books, postgraduate preparing and gear.

Monetary severity worsens an atmosphere of reliance which isn't cordial to the quest for institutional independence or individual opportunities (Court and Ghai, 1990, p. 4). It ought to likewise be qualified that colleges' independence and scholastic opportunity especially rely upon the predominant political framework, since majority rule government by its tendency ensures independence while dictator type of political association prevents the ideas from securing self-governance and scholarly opportunity. Albornoz, (1991), in a dictator framework, the exercises of the state are ordinarily concentrated and the college is treated as an extremity of the legislature. Since the African mainland has been portrayed by dictator systems for quite a while, they have not supported a political climate for the presence of self-rule and scholastic opportunity in colleges.

Mwiria, (1992) claims that, as per the stipulations of the different African colleges acts, these colleges should be self-ruling of government control. The foundation of new establishments of higher learning is relied upon to pursue set down government systems through explicit enactment. Albeit numerous colleges have appreciated some level of self-sufficiency as to understudy affirmations and scholastic staff enlistment, just as in the

assurance of their lessons and research plan, government inclusion in the running of colleges has been a typical component of government-college relations.

There has been a steady pattern towards the multiplication of colleges to fulfill gathering and network interests with no respect to accessibility of sufficient offices and assets. Emenyonu (1990) claims that, the foundation of colleges in some African nations has all things considered been government or private Presidential activity or order. In the hands of many, a legislature in power, the college gains a similar status as an industry which is utilized as a charity to remunerate political supporters and followers. Essentially logical method of reasoning and plausibility ponders which decide cost adequacy is ignored. Such colleges stay filled with lack of plans and absence of vision. The territory of the executives is the second degree of government inclusion in college undertakings in Africa. Notwithstanding the way that legislatures delegate and designate key college directors and individuals from college boards, government contribution is featured by mandates on the quantity of understudies to be admitted to colleges, requesting terminations, the assurance of terms and states of administration for college staff and now and again the controlling of scholastic staff individuals research, instructing and travel motivation by expecting them to get official research and travel expert (Mwiria, 1992).

Mwiria (1990), noted that the drawn out conclusion of the University of Nairobi and its campus (Kenyatta) was a noteworthy explanation behind the 1987/88 scholarly double consumption. On 1 August, 1982 in the midst of expanding political suppression, the Kenya Air Force organized a bombed overthrow which appeared to have prevalent help by areas of the Kenyan culture including college understudies who straightforwardly exhibited their help. In response, the government requested an inclusive conclusion of the University which went on for about a year. This implied around 8000 candidates who qualified for college confirmation by part of the bargain not be chosen for affirmation in the 1983/84 scholastic year. This drawn out conclusion adjacent to other shorter term terminations added to an accumulation of qualified students due for admission. To clear the overabundance, colleges were coordinated to set out on a twofold admission of understudies beginning with 1987/88 scholastic year.

As most senior government authorities conceded, the quick development of college training beginning from the mid-1980s were never arranged. One of them put it as follows: There has been no arranging in college instruction for an impressive time allotment. The last arranging exertion in college training was there before quick extension began. From that point forward arranging was tossed in a mess. College improvement is by all accounts guided by mandates from segments of the services of Education or Finance and Economic Development and the Chancellor of the state funded colleges who was the President. The fault in any case, was on absence of anticipating mainstream interest for advanced education. The quick extension of college training was an unconstrained reaction to the extreme interest. With expanding huge progressions of students from schools, well known interest for advanced education expanded. Individuals appear to have put a great deal of expectation in advanced education and this seemed one of a kind in the nations of this area.

Following the administration order on twofold admission of understudies, college enrolments expanded considerably in 1987/88 scholarly year with two approaching classes beginning the year at both colleges of Nairobi and Kenyatta University. As indicated by the Republic of Kenya (1988), the administration built up four state funded colleges to give expanded chances to college instruction and preparing. Be that as it may, there keeps on being an increase in demand for university training as more school leavers, particularly from the multi-year optional training of the 8-4-4 arrangement of training look towards entering colleges. The administration intends to proceed with the expansion and the improvement of university training to fulfill this demand. Truth be told the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training (Kamunge Report) declared in August 1988 that continuously 2000 state funded colleges would enlist 50 000 learners. The second twofold admission of understudies happened in 1990/91. This was provoked by the move in the nation's training cycle from 7-4-2-3 cycle to the 8-4-4 cycle. The fundamental changes that occasioned the move were the grade school cycle which was reached out to eight years after the propelled endorsement of optional instruction 'A' level had been abrogated, diminishing the quantity of auxiliary training from 6 to 4 years and the college undergraduate cycle stretched out from 3 to 4 years.

By abrogating the 'A' level section of the training framework, the Presidential Working Party had made a circumstance where more than 170 000 candidates for college passage were accessible instead of close to 20 000 potential candidates in the 'A' framework. The 1990/91 confirmation procedure had to suit both 'O' and 'A' level candidates for passage into college. As indicated by Achola (1990), the huge enrolment of college understudies was a key end product to the foundation of progressively state funded colleges. In 1984 Moi University Act built up that foundation as the second national college based on what we have depicted in the past segment. Kenyatta which had been a constituent school of the University of Nairobi for certain years, turned into all self-sufficient institution with the institution by Senate of the Kenyatta University Act of 1985. On 30 July 1986 Egerton College which had been a farming preparing establishment since 1939 turned into a constituent school of University of Nairobi through an Act of Parliament and turned into a full-fledged college on 23th December 1987 after the authorization of the Egerton-college Act. In late 1988, parliament made the Jomo Kenyatta College of Agriculture and Technology a Constituent school of Kenyatta University. It turned into an autonomous college through the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology Act of 1994.

There are numerous elements that decide the area and updating of these institutions. These variables incorporate; first as a major aspect of the public interest for advanced education certain networks straightforwardly through their pioneers request the President for opening of a college or college school in their locale. Obviously not in all cases is the solicitation allowed and that is the reason some Coast Province legislators have been accused for taking long to press hard enough for opening of a college in Mombasa, the second biggest town in the nation. Besides, extension in training when all is said in done and college instruction specifically is seen in numerous quarters of government as an image of advancement. Quantities of understudy enrolment and organizations are especially appreciated by the political initiative. Little question that on significant events, the individuals are helped to remember the critical advancement the nation has made since 1978 (Moi's domination to control) through the quantity of understudies enlisted at college and an expansion from one to five state funded colleges. No notice is made about the nature of instruction offered at

such establishments. Thirdly, the formation of free colleges has been the consequence of some authoritative issues emerging from foundations of higher getting the hang of working as constituent organizations of higher learning of an undeniable college. A constituent school will in general feel hindered in its advancement since key choices must be taken on their projects especially on scholarly issues, by a senate over which the school experts have practically no control by any stretch of the imagination. Regularly there are additionally issues of character strife between the Vice-Chancellor of the college and a head of a constituent school. There were various instances of regulatory issues and character clashes that drove Kenyatta, Egerton and Jomo Kenyatta College of Agriculture and Technology to appeal to the President who was likewise Chancellor to allow them free status.

2.3.2 Funding Policy of Higher Education on Quality in Kenya

In Kenya, the development of funding couldn't adjust with the regularly rising enrolments, prompting quality issues identified with clogged offices that were at first intended to suit just a couple of learners just as poor working conditions in many institutions. Accordingly, numerous guardians liked to take their youngsters to ponder in developed nations, for example, USA, UK, etc. As indicated by UNESCO's information, in 2012, 13,573 Kenyan understudies were concentrating abroad, with 3,776 in the USA, 2,235 in the UK and 1,191 in Australia (Wenr, 2015) however the number has altogether decreased after some time. Luckily, this issue got the consideration of the central government of Kenya to make a move and reinforce the nature of advanced education. The blend of high enrolments and low financing has hit even settled Universities hard. They neither have enough scholastic staff nor enough average educating or learning offices or access to inventive innovation like projectors. This implies educating regularly doesn't progress past traditional strategies.

The sub-par scholarly atmosphere has additionally observed a flood in scholastic extortion: copyright infringement, manufactured references, and understudies imitating each other in exams. Also in the early-1990s, the administration received another market-based strategy of financing public funded colleges. This introduced a time of decreased state support for advanced education. Today, government financing for Kenya's public colleges keeps on declining. The normal per capita income per student has additionally fallen enormously.

This financing crunch clearly has an unfavorable effect on quality, which shows in deficient libraries, stuffed study halls – there are now and then upwards of 400 understudies in a solitary class – and low-quality alumni. Colleges are relied upon to raise additional income through education costs, cost-recuperation measures and by commercializing their exercises. Some have taken a pioneering course to collect more cash they've set up shopping centers, memorial service homes, modern parks, leased property or wandered into providing food. These are clearly inconsequential to scholastic projects; they produce next to no cash and put colleges' funds in danger.

Indeed, even as financing drops, enrolment numbers take off. Kenya's public funded university framework has expanded greatly: there was only one at the season of autonomy and there are 33 (by 2016). About 70% of those were set up during 2012 and 2013. Understudy development has additionally been noteworthy. Only 1000 individuals were selected 1963 and by 2013 there were in excess of 300,000 college understudies in Kenya, both full-time and low maintenance. The blend of high enrolments and low financing has hit even settled colleges hard. They need more scholarly staff-some part-timers are being utilized. They don't have not enough learning offices or access to creative innovation (not many projectors assuming any). This implies instructing regularly doesn't progress past customary strategies.

Kenya just like the other African states had its own arrangement of instruction before the coming of the Arabs and Europeans. Indigenous training was substantial, distinct and obviously coherent. Learning needed to occur with regards to genuine encounters in one's very own condition. Customary training was functional and given by society, which bore any coincidental expenses. The happening to the Europeans carried with it the formal arrangement of training. It was essentially created to show the Africans European societies, which by and by depended on elitism, where the general public was partitioned into upper, center and lower classes (Bunyi 1999, Ntarangwi 2003). The idea of formal instruction has enormously disregarded the standard of the social capacity of training and overemphasized on the scholastic skyline of the student, as a rule in anticipation of an open assessment. This propensity has carried with it the issue of wastage in instruction. The government sees

instruction arrangement and preparing to all its citizens as basic to its improvement methodology.

In Kenya, public funded colleges have customarily depended on government financing to do their exercises. The government paid understudies' educational cost and everyday costs essentially to make exceptionally prepared labor that could supplant the leaving pioneer heads. As number of understudies looking for advanced education kept on developing quickly and the brutal monetary circumstance experienced by the nation, it was hard for the government to sufficiently back advanced education. In the budgetary year 2004/2005, the national contribution to advanced education was US\$ 122 million which expanded to US\$ 160 million out of 2008/2009 speaking to 31% while enrolment rates developed by 51% in a similar period. The administration further brought about chopping down college spending and presented cost sharing where students were to pay educational cost and charges and pay for their everyday costs. Since numerous students couldn't bear the cost of the expense of advanced education, the government presented the understudy advance plan Higher Education Loans Board (HELB).

A test of recuperating advance from understudies who have finished examinations brought about the foundation of Higher Education Loans Board (HELB). Be that as it may, the test of joblessness migration still represents a danger to credit recuperation. Notwithstanding credits, the HELB gives bursaries to destitute understudies. Understudies in both public and private colleges can likewise apply for bursaries from the Constituency Development Fund (CDF) kitty (Ngolovoi, 2008). A few colleges have brought about setting up pay creating exercises to enhance their financial limits, for instance, University of Nairobi has built up a constrained organization under the name University of Nairobi Enterprise Service Limited that handles all pay creating exercises, though Baraton University has set up horticultural firms to bridle from agrarian items.

Kenya's advanced education framework has changed altogether in the long time since independence. Following autonomy, the administration set up world class national colleges that provided food just for the blessed few. At that point, after 1990, additional Kenyans

requested access to college and the framework opened up quickly. Private colleges went onto the scene, alongside increasingly public organizations. Likewise, in the mid-1990s, the government embraced another market-based strategy of financing state funded colleges. This introduced a period of decreased state support for advanced education. Sifuna (1998) asserts that during the previous decade or thereabouts, Kenya's public funded college framework has encountered exceptionally high paces of development which have not been joined by a comparable ascent in the degree of subsidizing. This development of colleges even with budgetary shortages and labor surpluses is to a great extent a result of the unquenchable demand for ever more elevated degrees of learning. The administration appears to have misused such request and politicized basic leadership in the extension of college instruction whose impact has all the earmarks of being a genuine decrease in the nature of training in public funded colleges because of an intense deficiency of offices and educating staff. The politicization of basic leadership diminished the viability of the Commission of Higher Education which had been set up with a duty to design the advancement of college training. There had been practically zero research archiving issues in college administration that added to the fast development of colleges and its effect on the nature of instruction. At the degree of college, the board, stipulations by the demonstrations of the five state funded colleges, these organizations should be self-governing of government control.

Despite the fact that the colleges appreciate some general proportions of self-sufficiency, government contribution in their administration has been a typical component. Such association will in general have the antagonistic impact of restricting powerful discussion and cooperation in basic leadership by the different structures of college organization and individuals from the college network. Mwaniki (2010) says that during the college understudy's enlistment in 2016/17 scholastic year, top positioned colleges in Kenya had more understudies' applications contrasted with inadequately positioned colleges. For instance, Mt. Kenya University (MKU) had more than 15,000 understudies wishing to go along with it contrasted with Tangaza University which had below 2,000 applications for a similar timeframe. This prompted explicit colleges, for example, MKU accepting more research assets when contrasted with other private colleges under the DUC framework for

Financial Year 2017/18 (Bundi, 2017). As per a review by CUE in 2016, state funded colleges got more state capitation contrasted with private colleges by virtue of expanded admission for science understudies and STEM courses (CPS International, 2016). This state subsidizing was utilized halfway to help their exploration programs.

CUE's report (2015), is that administration reserves for the most part science and innovation related research studies: in 2014/2015, it distributed Ksh 53.8 billion only for innovative work in science and mechanical advancement. Out of this sum (Ksh 53.8b), 32 states funded colleges and college establishments of higher learning got Ksh 47 billion. The rest of the sum was infused into other research organizations like NACOSTI and Research Endowment Fund as per the Ministry of Education incidental paper no. 2, 2010. The Government coordinated less assets towards research because of stressed money related responsibility (Treasury reports 2015). This has prompted worldwide offices to intercede in financing research in Kenya. There are constrained neighborhood analysts at under 230 for each a million occupants to lead explore activity among nearby inquires about because of absence of subsidizing (UNESCO, 2017).

Training in higher learning foundations, and particularly scholarly inquire about, has turned into the focal point of serious strategy and geopolitical enthusiasm around the globe as it identifies with cultural improvement and development. Fruitful economies are considered to be those which can create and abuse new learning for 'upper hand and execution through interest in information based and scholarly resources – innovative work (examine) programming, structure new process advancement, and human and authoritative capital. According to the UNESCO overview of 2017, the ascent in status and impact of different positioning frameworks (intending to assess brilliance in scholarly inquire about) has affected this circumstance. In such manner the Shanghai Jiao Tong Rankings' yield can be genuinely estimated (for example quantities of top researchers, distributed articles, references and so on.). The Higher Education Evaluation and Accreditation Council of Taiwan (HEEACT) utilizes a comparable methodology. Conversely, The Times Higher Education - QS World University Rankings (2008) embraces a more extensive scope of

criteria including peer evaluation, graduate employability, showing quality, and the nearness of worldwide staff and understudies, some of which are a lot harder to survey.

National rankings exist in more than forty nations. Worldwide rankings are an ongoing advancement yet they are additionally persuasive; the SJT ARWU started in 2003, trailed by Webometrics and Times QS World University Ranking in 2004, the Taiwan Performance Ranking of Scientific Papers for Research Universities in 2007, and US News and World Report's (USNWR) World's Best Institutions of higher learning and Universities in 2008. The Center for Science and Technology Studies (CWTS) at the University of Leiden has built up its own worldwide biblio-metric positioning while the European Union (EU) has upheld the improvement of U-Multi-rank, 'another multi-dimensional college positioning framework with worldwide effort' as demonstrated in UNESCO databases. These all inclusive positioning approaches have been compelling in deciding worldwide positions for colleges over the world. This is the situation for colleges in EU zone, American States, Continental Asia, India and African nations. Truth be told, Kenyan colleges are presently positioned dependent on the Web metrics, Shanghai and Times QS World University. These rankings have been perceived by CUE, college affiliations and even Kenyan business network with regards to payment of research reserves (Mutiso, 2012).

The UNDP report of 2012, the examination capacity of the scholarly community remains a prime wellspring of learning and development at national, local and global levels. However, over the previous decade, most industrialized states have been obliged to address the twofold challenge of giving more extensive access to postsecondary instruction and offering preparing and guaranteeing sufficient interest in abnormal state inquire about exercises. This is demonstrating to be a fragile exercise in careful control, which depends on visionary arrangements and an increasingly differentiated subsidizing base. As indicated by CUE (2015), current level pace of Ksh 120,000 for each undergraduate for every year is granted. In the new plot, dentistry understudies will be assigned Ksh. 600,000; Medicine will have Ksh 576,000; Medicine store will be Ksh 432,000; Arts (general) will be Ksh. 144,000; and connected humanities will get Ksh 180,000. It is in this way clear

establishments will get assets dependent on projects they educate and number of understudies enlisted for the projects. This suggests a portion of the colleges will have a reduction in financing from government while others will pick up. A completely executed Differentiated Unit Cost (DUC) implies all out financing of Ksh. 65 billion from the treasury towards training in Kenya, in spite of the fact that the treasury decides the rate that the administration will give. The remainder of the subsidizing originates from different sources like grants, gifts, industry, self-supported students' expenses and college ventures.

2.3.3 Inclusion Policy on Quality of Higher Education

The government of Kenya perceives the significance of Special Needs Education as an urgent subsector for quickening the achievement of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Sessional Paper No 1 of 2005 on "A Policy Framework for Education, Training and Research" plots the vision of our learning segment as a noteworthy empowering influence of our childhood. This vision will be accomplished through the provision of quality training that is accessible and pertinent to the lives of all youngsters incorporating those with Special Needs. Such instruction will contribute essentially towards provision of work openings (employment). Our approach system came about because of active participation of all part partners in Kenya and represents an accord of partners on the provision of Special Needs Education. It addresses some of the basic issues which decide delivery of quality and significant training to these and different students. Effective execution of this provision structure is relied upon to improve the quality and access to training furnished to children with exceptional needs. It additionally addresses issues of value and improvement of learning conditions in all schools. This will guarantee that comprehensive instruction turns into a reality and thusly improves the investment and association of individuals with exceptional needs in national advancement by and large.

Training assumes a significant job in tending to the issues that obstruct the instruction of youngsters with unique needs in Kenya. The general objective of the Ministry of Education is to give equivalent access to education to all students regardless of their physical or mental state in quest for the administration's duty to accomplishing Education for All

(EFA) by 2015. Among the real achievements in uncommon needs education are the Disability Act 2003, the Report of the Taskforce on Special Needs Education examination exercise of 2003, expanded funding to SNE and expanded help to educator preparing for SNE at KISE. The Ministry of Education together with partners and accomplices has built up the National Special Needs Education (SNE) provision structure to deliver basic issues identified with training for students with unique needs. The reason for this strategy is to give direction to the Ministry of Education staff and different partners in the provision of training to these students. It targets guaranteeing that students with exceptional needs completely take an interest and are dealt with similarly in learning exercises at all levels.

Individuals with handicaps make up 10% of the all-out populace of Kenya, roughly 3.5 million individuals (WHO 2006). They are the most impeded and underestimated gatherings and experience segregation at all levels of society. A perplexing trap of financial and social issues including sex disparity, make hindrances inside standard instruction, social and monetary life to students with uncommon needs and incapacities. In this way, a good number of youngsters and grown-up with unique needs can't get to quality instruction and are ignorant. Debilitated people, particularly youngsters, face a large group of issues because of their uncommon needs. Numerous children with extraordinary needs live in antagonistic, disheartening conditions, where their wellbeing and security is undermined and their future endangered. They are undermined and minimized, have no open door for headway and to a great extent stay voiceless because of inbuilt social, financial partialities, savagery and misuse. Their rights are generally damaged since existing enactment endures moderate usage.

Kenya early efforts for sorted out consideration and provision of uncommon needs training goes back to the late 1940s, with much contribution of the religious foundations, prominently the Salvation Army Church and a lot later the Anglican, the Catholic, the Methodist and the Presbyterian places of worship in setting up unique schools and organizations for youngsters with visual, hearing, physical and mental incapacities in different parts of the nation where they had their mission. From that point forward the administration of the majority of these organizations has been taken over by the Ministry

of Education. In 1986 the Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) was set up to construct the limit of Special Needs Education (SNE) specialist co-ops through instructor preparing/educator in-adjusting and research. Since the introduction of FPE in 2003 the Ministry of Education has attempted a few measures to empower youngsters with unique needs access to training.

Education is an essential to national advancement. Found in this light, training is an essential method for opening and ensuring human rights since it gives nature required to verifying good health, freedom, security, financial prosperity, and support in social and political exercises. Great execution in instruction, preparing and inquire about segments enormously adds to any nation's national improvement. Performing training segments produce proper human asset capital that is vital in spurring efficiency. Improved national efficiency is a significant direct in the disposal of destitution, illness and numbness, henceforth improving human welfare. The Government of Kenya is focused on the provision of equivalent access to quality and significant education and preparing chances to all Kenyans. Towards this objective, the legislature has sanctioned and tamed different worldwide strategy systems in training. The administration marked Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), subsequently perceiving and conceding to one side of each youngster to get to instruction.

Different advancements incorporated the readiness of instructors of students with unique needs and inabilities that have prompted the foundation of Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) and divisions of extraordinary needs training at Kenyatta, Moi, Maseno and Methodist Universities. In perspective on the above mentioned, this circumstance requires a re-evaluation of accessible ways to deal with Special Needs Education benefits in order to accomplish an enrolment rate at standard with that of other youngsters. To achieve this, Kenya needs to guarantee the acknowledgment of comprehensive instruction and at the same time create and actualize rules that standard exceptional needs training at all degrees of the training framework. According to May and Thomas (2010), there are huge variety regarding the key center offered inside the definitions examined in the task reports. Towards one side of the range, ventures were pushing ahead with work around

handicap or started the program in a setting where this was the overall course of crafted by the foundation and subsequently could be said to characterize consideration in those terms, for example consideration concentrated on one explicit gathering of understudies who generally would be characterized as the key gathering for this work.

The principal record to make reference to all inclusive free essential instruction was the Kanu Manifesto (1963) which proclaimed arrangement with the expectation of complimentary training, trailed by the Education Act (1968) – Cap 211 (amended in 1980) that expressed that no one would be declined affirmation or barred from school based on race, shading or some other grounds (MOE, 2009, p15). This was the first run through comprehensive training was referenced in Kenyan schools' arrangement, an issue the Kenyan government is as yet battling with to date. The supporting reports and commissions included: The Kenya Education Commission-Ominde Commission (Republic of Kenya, 1964) suggestions stipulated that there would be no segregation as in the colonial period between White, Asian and African residents (Republic of Kenya, 1965b). This came about in Sessional Paper No. 5 of 1965 which talked of education as a financial instead of a social administration and a key way to lightening the deficiency of a gifted local workforce and of making equivalent monetary public doors for all residents (Republic of Kenya, 1965b). Be that as it may, this might be considered as isolating the individuals who might not be able to work because of inabilities.

The Committee on Care and Rehabilitation of the Disabled, Ngala Mwendwa (1964), brought about the plan of Sessional Paper No.5 of 1968. There were 28 proposals which were not actualized until in the mid-1980s' the point at which the administration began to give expanded consideration in this field and the principal draft SNE arrangement was suggested. The National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies (NCEOP), the Gachathi Report (1976), concentrated on co-appointment of early intercession and evaluation of youngsters said to have SEN, making of open mindfulness on reasons for incapacities so as to advance anticipation measures and research on the nature and degree of 'handicaps' for arrangement for these children. This is as yet an issue to date. Early Childhood projects were worried as a significant piece of exceptional schools and

improvement of approach for incorporating students with extraordinary 93 needs. This brought about the foundation of the National Center for Early Childhood Education (NACECE) which offers to-date. The administration has expanded help for early youth instruction training which was recently subsidized by guardians.

The Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond the Kamunge Report (1988) prescribed the organization of SNE reviewers at the locale level and cost partaking in education. The role of these auditors isn't referenced in the current SNE arrangement. This would have filled in as a basic method for keeping up important contact with schools, educators and the network and would include all partners at various levels. This, as indicated by Bronfenbrenner (2005) would improve the move from a therapeutic model to a social model. Be that as it may, the act of the school investigation process in Kenya is related with numerous issues (Wanzare, 2002) which don't improve the quality and principles of the education framework and general educating and learning. The cost sharing framework was presented during the Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) to diminish government use on training and left guardians in charge of educational cost, course books, assessments, building and the support of structures (Omwami and Omwami, 2010; Oketch et al., 2010; Sifuna, 2007).

Budgetary requirements were supposedly expressed as a reason for not actualizing the suggestions. Anyway Ojiambo (2009) and Amutabi (2003) have condemned the inability to actualize the suggestions as flawed and connected the choice to the government issues of the day than to budgetary requirements. By and by, a few suggestions were later acknowledged which prompted the setting up of the Kochung Taskforce (2003). The Kochung Taskforce (2003) likewise alluded to as the Kochung Report (2003) drew a great deal from the Koech Commission Report. The Kochung Report (2003) was set to look at the difficulties people with SEN face. These were featured in Chapter One (1.4 and 1.11). This report prompted the starting of the SNE draft strategy and inevitable dispatch of the SNE arrangement in 2009. Education in Kenya is straightforwardly impacted by government strategies and is thusly always showing signs of change as per financial and political patterns (Oketch and Rolleston, 2007).

During the colonial system, Kenyans as other Africans, experienced extreme separation financially, politically, socially and scholastically (Urch, 1968; Bogonko, 1992; Otiende et al., 1992). Instruction framework was both stratified and isolated in nature and was in this manner offered on racial lines. In such conditions, Kenyan (Africans) profited the least from the framework. Colonial inconsistencies in education are firmly identified with, and regularly exacerbated by other financial components. Starting in the pilgrim time frame a few gatherings, particularly the migrant and pastoralist gatherings have truly been underestimated, while those gatherings that had more cooperation with the British during the frontier rule were introduced to Western-based training and monetary frameworks earlier. At first, formal training was connected to Christianity yet starting during the 1970s, the government made housing for Muslim students. This was finished by recognizing Madras and religious schools, and later during the 1980s by presenting Hindu and Islamic Religious Education and classes in the educational program (Alwy and Schech, 2004; Buchmann (2000). The administration and different NGOs are right now attempting to make boarding for children from, pastoralist, and other under-spoke to bunch by expanding assets, educators, and building additionally all inclusive schools for them.

Today, real changes have been embraced to upgrade, quality, significance and nature of education at all levels. Some unmistakable accomplishment has additionally been figured it out. Exercise learnt while executing new polices in every one of the levels incorporate the mediation for comprehensive education. As characterized by UNESCO (2005) comprehensive education is a persistent procedure of tending to and reacting to the assorted variety of necessities all things considered – paying little attention to elements, for example, incapacity, sex, age, ethnicity, language, HIV status, topographical area and sexuality – perceiving that all individuals can learn. It frequently includes attempting to change the structures, frameworks, arrangements, practices and societies in schools and different organizations in charge of education, with the goal that they can react to the assorted variety of learners in their territory. Incorporation stresses public doors for equivalent cooperation, yet with alternatives for exceptional help and offices as required, and for separation, inside a typical learning structure.

As per the Ministry of Education (2008), National report on advancement of learning, it is asserted that Kenya has grasped comprehensive education that gives quality training to all youngsters, youth and grown-ups through focused help to explicit or defenseless gatherings moving endlessly from the customary perspective on comprehensive teaching as a furnishing instruction for kids with extraordinary needs. Past consideration, instruction is viewed as a principal ideal to each native, and is without given of charge in essential and optional schools for all students in government funded schools. The report further demand that in its pledge to global shows and understandings, the Government of Kenya is focused on giving quality training and related administrations to all, with specific accentuation to minimized gatherings, particularly young lady youngster and those with exceptional needs. Following this approval, Kenya Government has trained the equivalent through administrative and strategy professions. These enactments incorporate; the constitution of Kenya (1962), Educational Act (1968), Child Act (2001), which submitted the Government to the provision of at any rate 12 years of necessary, and persistent tutoring to every single Kenyan youngster incorporating those with disabilities. (Ministry of instruction, 2008) Stainback and Stainback (1995) and Sitwe (2011), contended that albeit comprehensive training is hailed as an approach to expand accomplishment while diminishing costs, full consideration does not set aside cash, decrease students' needs, or improve scholastic results; as a rule, it only moves the specialized curriculum experts out of their own homerooms and into an edge of the general study hall.

To stay away from mischief to the scholastic instruction of understudies with incapacity, a full panoply of administrations and assets is required, including: Adequate backings and administrations for the learners, proficient advancement for all instructors included, general and uncommon instructors alike, time for educators to design, meet, make, and assess the students together, decreased class size dependent on the seriousness of the learners needs, Professional aptitude improvement in the zones of helpful learning, peer coaching, versatile educational program, Collaboration between guardians, educators and overseers and Sufficient financing so schools will most likely create programs for students dependent on learner need rather than the accessibility of subsidizing Gilles, (2004) and

Sitwe, (2011.) Comprehensive training is a requesting errand to the lecturers and the teachers included. For instance, adjustment of educational plan to suit the interest of explicit gathering of students needs a particular sort of preparing, assets, time, and enough faculties to deal with students in a comprehensive setting. An exploration on difficulties confronting usage of comprehensive instruction program in open elementary schools done at University of Nairobi (2012) uncovered that there was an intense deficiency of educating and learning assets to provide food for learning incapacity understudies in comprehensive settings. The discoveries likewise uncovered that the instructors who are available in comprehensive study halls did not have the required preparing and capabilities required to deal with learners with learning incapacities. The examination additionally proceeded to build up that the condition that these students are learning in needs fundamental necessities so as to make it helpful enough for learners in these institutions.

Educator's preparation is similarly significant in the teaching and learning process. The greater part of the instructors doesn't have satisfactory skills in dealing with both the impaired and non-incapacitated students in a single class. This influences the comprehension of a portion of the students of which it is reflected in their exhibition. Proceeded with horrible showing among the crippled students because of the poor instructing aptitudes and capacities of the instructors trigger their poor enlistment in the traditional schools. Angrist and Lavy (2001) see that absence of sufficient and legitimate preparing gotten by instructors lead to a decrease in their learners' test scores. In this way, absence of satisfactory instructor preparing to deal with both the crippled and non-debilitated students in a similar class contrarily influences the achievement of comprehensive training. In comprehensive study hall, a specific prepared educator should have been outfitted with abilities to deal with students with various assorted variety. As exhibited by Saunders and Kardia, (2013) comprehensive homerooms are study halls in which educators and students cooperate to make and continue a domain where everybody has a sense of security, upheld, and urged to express her or his perspectives and concerns. In these study halls, the substance is expressly seen from the various viewpoints and fluctuate encounters of a scope of gatherings. Substance is exhibited in a way that diminishes every one of understudies' encounters of underestimation and, at every possible

opportunity, enables understudies to comprehend that singular' encounters, qualities, and points of view impact how they build information in any field or order. Educators in comprehensive study halls utilize an assortment of instructing strategies so as to encourage the scholarly accomplishment all things considered.

In spite of the fact that aficionados for incorporation have supported for radical changes in instructor duty and many hold that all broad training educators can and ought to suit learners with incapacities, different onlookers are increasingly careful inside the present truth of educator obligations and responsibility. Scientists have discovered that consideration requires broad retraining of both standard and custom curriculum instructors in close to home correspondence, group educating, critical thinking, and curricular systems (Hueffner 1988) as referred to by (winzer & mazurek, 2000). From the above references, it is quite clear that teaching in an inclusive class needs retrained skills to be able to handle all categories of exceptionalities in the same class. In Kenya, according to Benoit (2013) the execution of comprehensive training is moving at a moderate pace as it is blocked by dubious rules that depict the usage of a comprehensive arrangement, deficient information on youngsters with exceptional needs, inadequate evaluation apparatus, educational plan, and an absence of qualified experts. The national improvement plan in Kenya underlines that more prominent consideration be put on a custom curriculum, particularly in development of existing instructive chances and labor preparing organizations for individuals with handicaps, and arrangement of higher learning in anticipation of the activity advertise (ILO.1997).

As indicated by the Ministry's Sessional paper (2012), in trying to address these difficulties on educator advancement, the government will embrace the accompanying strategies: Establish lecturer education and improvement benchmarks, in view of adequate rules that will guarantee ideal conveyance of competency based training to assist the students, Modernize pre-administration and in-administration educator preparing, Enhance the limits of the Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) and colleges which offer preparing programs for extraordinary needs instruction educators over all levels, the administration has taken measures to take into account the nature of a custom curriculum

in the nation and the MOEST has received a combination arrangement that gives youngsters unique needs, both Physical and mental to include in normal learning institutions (Ministry of Education, 2000), Provide specific instructional materials, gear, assistive gadgets and proper ICT programming and equipment to foundations with students with uncommon needs, Improve the physical and social situations in learning organizations; Develop and store projects to make open mindfulness and backing on SNE mainstreaming into the training programs over all levels.

Notwithstanding every one of these vows, the Government of Kenya has done almost nothing in comprehensive training change. The strategy still remains a test to the Government, for example, absence of financing to furnish lecturers with the assets, materials and bolster required to address students' issues, an absence of educational plan adjustments, separation, fitting procedure and qualified work force, unsuitable and one-sided evaluation measures and the misdiagnosis of learning handicaps, which prompts the removal of Students in Special Units.

2.3.4 Constitutional Requirements on Quality of Higher Education

The Commission for University Education (CUE) was set up under the Universities Act, No. 42 of 2012, as the successor to the Commission for Higher Education. It is the Government office mandated to control University instruction in Kenya. The Commission has made extraordinary moves in guaranteeing the upkeep of measures, quality and pertinence in all parts of University education, preparing and looking into. The Commission proceeds to standard quality confirmation rehearse in University education by empowering persistent improvement in the nature of colleges and projects.

In accordance with Section 28 (4) of the Act, CUE will cause to be distributed, the rundown of Universities authority to attempt college education in Kenya. The Commission for University Education (CUE) is authorized to shut down all organizations offering college instruction without its permission. Every single remote University that is teaming up with organizations in Kenya to offer college training ought to apply to the Commission for University Education for power to work together. Reference ought to be made to the Universities Regulations 2014. Recognition of degree capabilities offered by outside

colleges ought to likewise be looked for from the Commission. According to the Kenyan Constitution (2010), each county must have a campus as long as it has a threshold. The Government is relied upon to set up in any event a state funded campus in each of the 47 counties as indicated by Universities Act, 2012; inferring that more foundations for advanced education, preparing and learning are in the offing should any of the 47 counties be found without a college once the lapsed arrangement of administration begins operating. This has added to colleges spreading all through the nation subsequently intense interest for student enrolment from the college side, absence of enough lecturers, absence of quality parameters like space, playfields, well-equipped libraries, among others.

2.4 Literature Review Summary

Wanjohi (2011), talks about significant changes and changes in Kenyan education framework which were made and centered around its entrance, value, quality, moderateness and relevance (Ministry of Education, 2012) and hugely extended organizations at all levels to meet the desires of quickly developing Kenyan populace. Wanjohi further discusses instruction being a piece of financial column, and the requirement for gifted work force, which requires propelled preparing at degree level, but does not talk about how admissions policy to higher education affects the quality of its products. The gap left by colonials in terms of labor market cannot be filled minus quality education which is affected by admissions policy. In Kenya, the development of financing couldn't balance with the regularly rising enrolments, prompting quality issues identified with clogged offices that were at first intended to suit just a couple of students just as poor working conditions in many institutions. Luckily, the issue of Kenyan students concentrating abroad got the consideration of the focal legislature of Kenya to make a move and fortify the nature of higher education. Despite the fact that the number has essentially decreased after some time, Wenr (2015), discusses how the mix of high enrolments and low funding has hit even settled campuses hard.

Quality training in higher learning establishments will be accomplished if funding strategy is updated. Early Childhood projects were worried as a significant piece of exceptional schools and advancement of planning for incorporating students with uncommon 93 needs. This brought about the foundation of the National Center for Early Childhood Education

(NACECE) which offers preparing to-date. The legislature has expanded help for basic education which was recently subsidized by guardians. The Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and beyond, the Kamunge Report (1988), prescribed the provision of SNE monitoring at the county level and cost partaking in education. The job of these auditors isn't referenced in the current SNE provision. This would have filled in as a basic method for keeping up essential contact with learning institutions, lecturers and the link and would include all partners at various levels. This was to be moved up to high learning institutions where comprehensive training is rehearsed at a low rate. The Government is required to set up at any rate a public funded campus in each of the 47 counties as per Universities Act, 2012; suggesting that more foundations for advanced education, preparing and learning are in the offing should any of the 47 counties be found without a college once the lapsed arrangement of administration begins working. This has contributed to campuses spreading throughout the country hence high demand for student enrolment from the University side, lack of enough lecturers, and lack of quality parameters like space, playfields, and well-equipped libraries, among others.

2.5 Research Gap

Based on the literature review summary and literature itself, no specific study had been done on the effects of Access Policies on Quality of higher Education in selected Universities in Kenya. Wanjohi (2011), talks about significant changes and changes in Kenyan education framework which were made and centered around its entrance, value, quality, moderateness and relevance (Ministry of Education, 2012) and hugely extended organizations at all levels to meet the desires of quickly developing Kenyan populace. Wanjohi further discusses instruction being a piece of financial column, and the requirement for gifted work force, which requires propelled preparing at degree level, but does not talk about how admissions policy to higher education affects the quality of its products. The gap left by colonials in terms of labor market cannot be filled minus quality education which is affected by admissions policy. In Kenya, the development of financing couldn't balance with the regularly rising enrolments, prompting quality issues identified with clogged offices that were at first intended to suit just a couple of students just as poor working conditions in many institutions. Wenr (2015), discusses how the mix of high enrolments and low funding has hit even well established universities hard.

This led to rapid expansion of University education responding to high demand (from Universities) hence quality of education in relation to market demand was still questionable. The two researchers never talked about how admissions and funding policies affected the provision of quality education in Kenyan universities. This study therefore set out to determine the effects of access policies on quality of education in selected Universities in Kenya.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the following, the philosophical paradigm of the study, the research design, locale' of the study, target population, sampling procedure and sample size, instruments used, validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis, data analysis plan, and ethical considerations.

3.2 Philosophical Paradigm of the Study

Pragmatism paradigm is used in this study. This paradigm employs both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Dewey (2008), proposed pragmatism as a paradigm for social research emphasizing more on the practical part rather than on the philosophical one. Qualitative research was used because it allowed for rich details and interpretations of access policies for example interviews, and questionnaire. The qualitative research aims to explore issues and gain in-depth understanding of the access policies. The scope of inquiry was broad and thematic in nature.

Quantitative Research method was also used here. This research method was used to confirm numeral events on access policies like number of students admitted, fees paid by students, number of lecturers per program, ratio of full time lecturers to part time lecturers, volumes of books in libraries, number of offices against officers, number of playgrounds against student enrolment, lecturer's contact hours with students, and student -lecturer ratio. This mixed method was applicable here because it would consider the feelings and insights of respondents and answer questions of how many. Also both qualitative and quantitative methods would complement each other to maximize the strengths and minimize the limitations of each.

3.3 The Study Area

The study was carried out in Kenya: parts of Uasin Gishu, Bungoma, and Kakamega counties (see Appendix 1). This research site was chosen as a result of many new public Universities in it like Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST), Kibabii University and university campuses. More so, these being newly established

Universities, more logistical and infrastructural structures were yet to be put in place to ensure quality education was achieved like the case of MMUST, and Kibabii Universities. All these depended on access policies, hence, this study. Each county has its own headquarters thus Uasin Gishu county-Eldoret, Bungoma county-Bungoma, and Kakamega county- Kakamega. It is bordered to the West by Trans Nzoia County, North West by Uganda, ElgeyoMarakwet to the South, Vihiga and Nandi Counties to the East, Busia County to the North, Siaya County to the North East, and Baringo County to the South East. The study area is cosmopolitan with all communities of Kenya residing there. The road network was fair with two main tarmac roads; one from Eldoret to Uganda and another one from Kitale to Kisumu. Other roads most of which are impassable during rainy seasons are murrum. It is mainly an agricultural area growing maize. Sugar-cane beans and rice majorly. Other crops grown include sweet potatoes, cassava, and Irish potatoes. The main activity in the area is dairy farming and business. The area has both private and public Universities and their campuses. The study focused on public Universities. This is because the private universities served to the best of the owners.

3.4 Research Design

Descriptive survey design was employed in the study. It required a description of what had already happened with the variables in a natural setting. The researcher gathered data by interviewing and administering a questionnaire to a sample of people (in accordance with Orodho, 2003). The researcher gathered data on individuals' pieces of mind, sentiments, any instructive or social issues on the Effects of Access Policies in relation to quality education in institutions of higher learning in Kenya, recording their findings, analyzing and interpreting them. This was in agreement with Cohen (1983). This design was applicable to this study because information was collected from the selected Universities and the results generalized over all public universities in the country. It involved administering a questionnaire to; Deans on total enrolment of students both government sponsored students (KUCCPS-Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Structure) and Privately Sponsored Students (PSSP-Privately Sponsored Students Program), number of lecturers per program, number of offices against officers, lecturers contact hours with students, and students- lecturer ratio. Directors of Quality Assurance on lecturers contact hours with students. HODs on number of lecturers per program, ratio of

full time verses part time lecturers, number of lecturers with PhDs and those without PhDs. (DVCs) Deputy Vice Chancellors academic, planning and research on available facilities like playgrounds, classrooms, libraries, Constitutional requirements policy on quality matters among others. Finance Officers on fee payment records, and interviewed students on general status of quality. Those sampled responded to questionnaire and interview schedule.

3.5 Target Population/Study Population

The number of institutions of higher learning in Kenya has expanded from one institution, the University of Nairobi (UON) in 1970 (Sifuna, 2010) to seventy-one Universities comprising thirty-five public Universities and thirty-six private Universities in 2017 (CUE 2017). However, the study targeted the three main public Universities (Moi, MMUST and Kibabii Universities) in Rift-Valley and Western Kenya regions from which it dealt with 3 Admission Officers, 3 Directors of Quality Assurance, 72 HODs, 29 Deans, 3 Finance Officers, 3 DVCs and 120 students. This gave us a total of 233 respondents.

3.6 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure Techniques

Sampling was a procedure of selecting a part of the population on which research could be conducted, which ensured that conclusion could be attributed to the entire population. A census selection was used to include all the public Universities in the study area. The researcher used simple random sampling on schools/faculties and students whereby a list of 29 schools/faculties and 320 students from each school/faculty and a table of random numbers in the selected Universities in the region were prepared and used. This procedure was used because it enabled all schools/faculties, their Deans and students to have an equal and autonomous chance of being designated as respondents.

This approach yielded 3 Admissions Officers, 72 HODs, 29 Deans, 3 DVCs, 3 Finance Officers and the 3 Directors of Quality Assurance. This was because the three Universities in the country were expected to adopt the government's access policies in higher education while the HODs, Deans, the Directors of Quality Assurance Officers, DVCs, Admissions Officers, and Finance Officers were the people who dealt with quality of education in institutions of higher learning. The researcher explained the purpose of research to the respondents and requested for their permission and participation in the research.

Sample size referred to any group on which information is obtained. The sample size for this study was obtained from the table as per Krejcie-and-Morgan-Formula for determining Sample size (2013) of the total number of schools/faculties and students in each University. The population sample size below was calculated according to Krejcie and Morgan (2013) table.

Table 3.6.1: School/faculty per Public University

Univer sity	Scho ol	School Select ed	Dea n	Dean Select ed	HO D	HOD Select ed	Studen ts	DQ A	F. O	DV C
Kibabii	8	8	8	8	18	17	40	1	1	1
MMUS	6	6	6	6	12	11	40	1	1	1
T Moi	15	14	15	14	42	37	40	1	1	1
Total	29	28	29	28	72	60	120	3	3	3

Table 3.6.1 School/ faculty per Public University

Source: Table for sample size by Krejcie and Morgan 2013

The sample frame was shown in table 3.6.2

Table 3.6.2: Sample Frame

Respondents	Population	Sample Size
Admissions Officers	3	3
Deans	29	28
DQA	3	3
DVCs	3	3
Finance Officers	3	3
HODs	72	60
Students	120	92
Total	233	192

3.7 Study Variables

Variables are attributes or qualities of cases that measured or recorded such as age, sex, height, ability if the cases were persons. They are called variables because it is assumed that the cases vary in their scores on these attributes (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). These were the study factors. They include the independent variables, the dependent variables and the intervening variables. Independent Variables are the stable or not easily manipulated ones (causes). In this study, they include; the access policies (the admissions policy, the funding policy, the inclusion policy, and the constitutional requirement policy) on quality of higher education. Dependent variables are the unstable factors which are easily manipulated by the independent variables (outcome variable). Dependent Variable in this study are the quality of higher education; (lecturers per program, student enrolment per program, ratio of full-time to part-time lecturers, volumes of books in libraries, special needs students in terms of facilities, E-books in libraries, number of offices against officers, lecturer's contact hours with students, student-lecturer ratio and number of playgrounds against enrolment). The intervening variables are the factors that are affected by dependent variables. In this study the intervening variables are; economic factors, entry behavior and individual University Status.

3.8 Research Instruments

These are the tools used to influence the procedure of collecting data. There are many instruments that can be used to collect data in research. These include questionnaire, interview schedules, observation guides, document analysis guide, check lists and focus group discussions guide. Questionnaire, and Interview schedule, were used in this study. Document review method was also used to analyze quantitative data.

3.8.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaire is a list of questions in a set form, meant to point to respondents in a prescribed sequence. The questionnaire was self-administered, so the instrument was addressed to the respondents. The researcher chose the questionnaire due to the nature of data that he collected and the diverse respondents used in the study. The researcher had the following advantages in using the questionnaire; collection of information from a large sample, upholding confidentiality, it saved on time for many respondents could respond to the questionnaire at the same time and there was no interview bias (respondents had the same questionnaire). It was applicable here on the admissions officers, Deans, HODs, DVCs, finance Officers and the Directors of Quality Assurance. The researcher prepared a balanced questionnaire with both open and closed ended questions which was designed in the light of the background and objectives of the study. These questions were used because they made data analysis easier. The questionnaire was developed in English language. It was used to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. It was administered to the respondents by the researcher and research assistants, filled and collected.

3.8.2 Interview Schedule

Interview Schedule is a face to face document that the researcher used to collect data from a sample population. It consisted of a list of questions in a set form, meant to point to respondents in a prescribed sequence. They were used on people who might have difficulties in reading and understanding instructions and questions (students). The advantage the researcher had in using the interview schedule was that the individuals managing the instrument (both the researcher and research assistance) had a chance to build up compatibility, clarify the reason for the examination, and the significance of the items that were not clear. Like the survey, English language was used in writing the interview schedule, though both English and Kiswahili were used in explanations for clarity. The

interview was conducted between the researcher/research assistants and the students. This supplemented the questionnaire and counter checked their validity. To control any bias, or inadequacy that might occur, the researcher observed random sampling technique and removed any subjective question items from schedule. This made the question items as objective as possible.

3.8.3 Document Analysis

This study used document analysis strategy to gather information on access policies. The researcher investigated the writings and reports that contained information in accordance with the access policies affecting quality education in institutions of higher learning (Gaborone, 2006). Here the researcher used student attendance records, lecturers' attendance records in the HOD's office, admissions records (in the admissions and Dean's office), fee payment records (in the finance office), reports and periodicals (in the Dean's office) to analyze data. The advantage of document analysis according to Mutai (2000) is that documents generally provided a source of data which was permanent and available in form that could be checked by others. The data were open to scrutiny.

3.9 Piloting of Instruments

The researcher and research assistance gave the research instruments to a sample population before real research. These were questionnaire, and interview schedule. The questionnaire was administered to the top managers of the universities while students were interviewed by the researcher and research assistance. The reason for this was to check if instruments worked well. The group (University of Eldoret) on which piloting was done was not involved in actual research.

3.10 Validity and Reliability

3.10.1 Validity

According to Ary et al. (2010), validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it claimed to measure. In checking the validity of the research instruments, the researcher sought to determine how much the outcomes from the gathered information really spoke to the marvel under scrutiny. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), there are three kinds of legitimacy in information. Build Validity, Content Validity and Criterion Validity.

Develop legitimacy was a proportion of how much information acquired from an instrument genuinely and precisely reflected or spoke to a hypothetical idea. It was often used where no criteria or domain of content was accepted as an accurate measure of concept for example in management/planning, intelligence, creativity, self-esteem, motivation etc. Where the concept could not be directly observed but the effects on the behavior of subjects could be observed. Content validity was a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represented a specific domain of indicators or content of a particular concept for example a test of arithmetic for standard four pupils would not yield validity data if items did not include all four operations thus addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. Criterion-related was a measure in assessing subject's behavior in specific situations for example, performance in a job. Two types of criterion-related validity were recognized; predictive and concurrent. Predictive validity refers to the degree to which data are able to predict future behavior of subjects in the present and not in the future.

The study used construct validity where the researcher constructed two instruments which measured the same concept (the quality of higher education). The two instruments (questionnaire and interview schedule) were administered to groups from the same sample. The two results correlated giving an evidence of validity. The researcher also established validity by consulting the two supervisors who are experts in research.

3.10.2 Reliability of instruments

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), reliability of instrument concerns the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trials. Cohen, Manion, Morrison and Bell (2011) say that reliability is essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents. It also refers to the fact that consecutive studies can build on existing data and arrive at similar conclusions, if conducted along similar methods already employed. To determine the reliability of instruments, a test-retest was done for top managers of the university (1 Admissions Officer, 1 Dean, 1 Director of Quality Assurance, 1 Deputy Vice Chancellor, 1 Finance Officer and 3 Heads of Departments) and the interview schedule was applied to 20 students. The instruments were given to the same group after a period of two weeks. The

reliability of the instruments was estimated by examining the consistency of the responses between the instruments. Creswell (2007), suggests that Pearson product moment correlation (r) is almost often used because of its precision to determine the coefficients of stability. This established the extent to which the questionnaire and the interview schedule elicited the same responses every time it was administered. A correlation coefficient of more than 0.7 was considered reliable for the study. Anything below the coefficient 0.7 means the instrument is unreliable and must be revised. The results obtained from the pilot study assisted the researcher in revising the research instruments to make sure that it covers the objectives of the study. The researcher conducted a pilot study to test for reliability of the data collection instruments. The reliability of the data collection instruments was required before the instruments were to be used to collect data for analysis. Reliability coefficients for the variables investigated are presented in table 3.10.1.

Table 3.10.1. Summary of Reliability Test Results

Variables	Number Of Items	Scale Mean If Item Deleted	Scale Variance If Item Deleted	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Status
Effects of Admissions policy On quality of Higher Education	9	4.56	1.817	0.789	Accepted
Effect of funding policy on quality of Higher Education	7	4.44	1.459	0.826	Accepted
Impact of inclusion policy on quality of Higher Education	9	3.87	1.562	0.789	Accepted
Perceived impact of constitutional requirements of access on quality of higher Education	8	3.28	1.722	0.789	Accepted

As indicated in table 3.10.1. All the variables had correlation coefficient of more than 0.7. This implied that the research instruments were reliable and therefore used to collect data from the respondents who participated in this study. The interview schedule, questionnaire and document analysis was administered to the same respondents twice and obtained the same responses. This proved the instruments to be reliable.

Table 3.10.1. Overall Model of Reliability

Reliability Statistics	
Pearson Correlation	No of Items
0.798	33

3.11 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained an introduction letter from the University of Eldoret which he used to obtain a permit from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). The permit was presented to the County Director of education (Bungoma County, Uasin Gishu County and Kakamega County), the County Commissioners of (Bungoma, Uasin Gishu and Kakamega counties) and the Vice-Chancellors (VCs) of the sampled Universities to be allowed to collect data from sampled respondents. The researcher also made appointments with his respondents who included the HODs, Deans, DQA, Finance Officers, Admissions Officers, DVCs, and Students prior to the material day for purposes of familiarization and distribution of questionnaire. The researcher also explained better the research problem and requested for their permission and participation in the research. During data collection, the HODs, Deans, Finance Officers, Admissions Officers, Librarians, and DQA filled the questionnaire as required while the students were interviewed by the researcher/research assistants. Document analysis method was applied on admissions officers, finance officers and deans to confirm numeral events on access policies.

3.12 Data Analysis /Data Processing

The collected data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential analysis. Descriptive analysis entailed frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation while inferential analysis included correlations.

Table 3.12.1: Data Analysis Plan

OBJECTIVE	INDEPENDENT	DEPENDENT	ANALYSIS
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To determine the effects of admissions policy on the provision of quality education in selected Universities in Kenya.	Admission Policy	Qualities of Higher Education	Descriptive and inferential statistics - Frequencies - Percentages - Mean - STD deviation - Correlations
To find out the effect of the funding policy on the provision of quality education in selected universities in Kenya.	Funding Policy	Qualities of Higher Education	Descriptive and inferential statistics - Frequencies - Percentages - Mean - STD deviation -Correlations
To determine the impact of inclusion policy on the provision of quality education in selected Universities in Kenya	Inclusion Policy	Qualities of Higher Education	Descriptive and inferential statistics - Frequencies - Percentages - Mean - STD deviation - Correlations
To determine the perceived impact of the constitutional requirement on provision of quality education in Selected Universities in Kenya.	Constitutional Requirement Policy	Qualities of Higher Education	Descriptive and inferential statistics - Frequencies - Percentages - Mean - STD deviation - Correlations

3.13 Ethical Issues/ Considerations

The researcher promised confidentiality to the subjects (Admissions Officers, Deans, DVCs, DQA, finance officers, HODs, and librarians, and students). For those respondents who were not concerned with confidentiality, consent was sought before revealing any information. A respondent's name was not to be disclosed when the required information is sensitive for example details of finance records. An individual code would be used in case of a follow up activity (put on the questionnaire). The researcher here was to be honest.

3.14 The Summary

In this chapter the focus was on the paradigm of the study, research design, target population, sampling technique, sample size, variables, data instruments, validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis, and ethical issues. It dealt more on sampling techniques, variables, data instruments, validity and reliability, and data collection procedures.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. Data analyzed was obtained through questionnaire, interviews as well as document analysis method. The purpose of the study was to establish the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected Universities in Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were:

- i. To determine the effects of admissions policy to higher education on the provision of quality education in selected Universities, in Kenya.
- ii. To find out the effect of funding policy of higher education on the provision of quality education in selected Universities, in Kenya.
- iii. To establish the impact of Inclusion Policy on Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities, in Kenya.
- iv. To determine the perceived impact of the Constitutional Requirements of Access on Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities, in Kenya.

The data collected was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.2. Questionnaire Return Rate

Table 4.2.1 shows the return rate for the research instruments that were administered to the different categories of respondents who participated in this study.

Table 4.2.1: Questionnaire Return Rate

Respondents	Population	Sample Size	Returned questionnaire
Admissions Officers	3	3	3
Deans	29	28	22
DQA	3	3	3
DVCs	3	3	3
Finance Officers	3	3	3
HODs	72	60	39
Students	120	92	61
Total	233	192	134

As presented in Table 4.2.1, the questionnaire was administered to 192 respondents. However, 134 were returned and therefore used for the analysis of the findings of the study. This represented 69.8% return rate in relation to 192 questionnaires administered.

4.3. Background Information of the Respondents

It was important for the study to determine the background information of the respondents who participated in this study (Those who filled the questionnaire). The responses were presented in the following sub-sections:

4.3.1 Gender of the Respondents

The respondents (who filled the questionnaire) were asked to indicate their gender and their responses are as shown in Table 4.3.1.

Table4. 3.1: Gender of the respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	24	31.6
Male	52	68.4
Total	76	100.0

Table 4.3.1 indicates that majority 92 (68.7%) of the respondents involved in the study were males. The female gender was represented by 42 (31.3%) of the respondents engaged in the study. Therefore, most of the respondents of access policies on quality of higher education in public Universities were males; an indication that those who were expertise in that field were male. However, 31.3% of the respondents were females; these showed that females could do as well as men in management positions. This implied that the Universities satisfied the gender rule.

4.3.2 Academic Qualification of the Respondents (excluding students)

The respondents were also asked to indicate their academic qualifications. This was an important aspect in the study since the level of one's academic qualification mattered on work performance and their responses were as shown in Table 4.3.2

Table4.3.2: Academic qualifications of the respondents (excluding students)

Qualifications	Frequency	Percent
PhD	41	53.9
Masters' degree	24	31.6
Degree	11	14.5
Total	76	100.0

The results in Table 4.3.2 above revealed that majority 41 (53.9%) of the respondents (excluding students) involved in the study had PhD qualification, 24 (31.6%) had masters' degree while 11 (14.5%) had first degree. This implied that the Universities in Kenya did not have enough qualified staff to run the institutions.

4.3.3 Work Experience of the Respondents

The respondents were asked to indicate their teaching/working experiences (excluding students) and their responses were as shown in Table 4.3.3.

Table 4.3.3: Teaching/working experiences of the respondents

Working experience	Frequency	Percent
Below 3 years	7	9.2
4-6 years	16	21.05
7-9 years	20	26.3
10-12 years	21	27.6
13 and above years	12	15.8
Total	76	100.0

The results in Table 4.3.3 showed that 20 (26.3%) of the respondents had working experience of between 7-9 years, also 21 (27.6%) had working experience of between 10-12 years, 12 (15.8%) had 13 and above years. Based on the results above, it was clear that majority 53 (69.7%) of the respondents had a working experience of 7 and above years. These were experienced workers who had reliable information about access policies on quality education in higher learning institutions. However, 16 (21.05%) had working experience of 4-6 years, and 7 (9.2%) had below 3 years working experience.

The respondents were asked to indicate their current responsibilities and their responses were as shown in Table 4.3.4

Table 4.3.4: Current Responsibilities of the Respondents

Responsibilities	Frequ	%
Admissions Officers	3	3.9
Deans	14	18.
DQAs	3	3.9
DVCs	3	3.9
Finance Officers	3	3.9
HODs	50	65.8
Deans		
Total	76	100

The results in Table 4.3.4 showed that majority 50 (65.8%) of the respondents were HODs. DVCs This was attributed to the fact that HODs were purposively involved in the sample as they Finance Officers had most information that the researcher was looking for. Another 14 (18.4%) were deans, HODs 3 (3.9%) were admissions officers while 3 (3.9%) were DQA, DVCs were 3 (3.9%) and finance officers were 3 (3.9%). These were the top managers of the Universities who were the decision makers at this level. According to Research in Post-Compulsory Education, (1998), administration in advanced education was said to include the specialist to settle on choices about basic arrangements and practices in a few basic zones concerning foundations of higher learning and colleges: their number and area, their main goal, their enrolment size, the entrance of understudies to their instructional projects and the entrance of residents to different administrations, degree prerequisites, the quality guidelines expected in understudy execution, the nature of research and open administration exercises, the opportunity accessible to singular employees in their instructional and research exercises, the arrangement of staff, inner hierarchical structure, the distribution of accessible assets to working and Governance of Kenyan Public Universities.

4.4 Effects of Admissions Policy to Higher Education on Provision of Quality Education

The first objective of this study was to determine the effects of admissions policy to higher education on the provision of quality education in selected Universities, in Kenya. To achieve this objective, information was sought on the number of students admitted through the Privately Sponsored Students Programs (PSSP) and the Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service (KUCCPS), the number of lecturers with PhD and

without PhD certificates, the number of offices and officers and the ratio of part-time and full-time lecturers in the Universities where the study was done. The findings were presented in the following sub-sections.

4.4.1 Number of Students Admitted through KUCCPS and PSSP

As stated in the Universities Act No. 42 of 2012 Part VIII on Kenya Universities and Institutions of higher learning Central Placement Service, a University or a college may independently admit students to its programs in accordance with its approved admissions criteria (R.o.K, 2012). This was why in Universities, there were students admitted through KUCCPS and others through PSSP. Admissions Policy in Kenya stated that there were two bodies in the country (KUCCPS and PSSP) that were allowed to admit students to higher education. Information on the number of students admitted to the three Universities through KUCCPS and PSSP was presented in Table 4.4.1.

Table 4.4.1 (a): Number of Students Admitted through PSSP and KUCCPS

Year → Status ↓	2015/2016			2016/2017			2017/2018			2018/2019			Grand
	Min	Ma x	Av e	Mi n	Ma x	Av e	Mi n	Ma x	Av e	Mi n	Ma x	Av e	Total
PSSP	50	2,752	934	40	2,738	926	30	2,199	743	12	2,079	697	
Sub- Total	2,802				2,778		2,229		2,091				9,900
KUC CPS	900	5,488	2,128	700	5,014	1,904	680	5,218	1,966	650	3,640	1,430	
Sub- Total	6,388			5,714		5,808		4,298		900			22,290
Grand d	9,190			8,492		8,127		6,381		32,190			0
Total													

As shown in table 4.4.1(a), the study established that 2,128 students on average were admitted through KUCCPS in the 2015/2016 academic year in the Universities where the study was done. The minimum number of students admitted through KUCCPS during the same academic year was 900 while the maximum number was 5,488 students making a total of 6,388. Those who were admitted in the 2015/2016 academic year through PSSP were 934 on average, with the minimum number being 50 students and the maximum number being 2,752 students making a total of 2,802 students. The total number of students admitted in the academic year 2015/2016 was 9,190. It was also indicated in Table 4.4.1 that on average 1,904 students were admitted through KUCCPS during the academic year 2016/2017 with minimum being 700 students and maximum number admitted were 5,014 students totaling to 5,714. As for the PSSP students, the Universities admitted 926 students on average during the academic year 2016/2017. The least number of PSSP students

admitted during this year was 40 while the highest was 2,738 students making a total of 2,778 students. Therefore, a total of 8,492 students were admitted in the three Universities during the 2016/2017 academic year.

The table also revealed that during the 2017/2018 academic year, 1,966 students were admitted in each of the Universities through KUCCPS with minimum number admitted in one of the Universities being 680 students and highest number admitted being 5,218 students. Those who were admitted during the same year 2017/2018 under PSSP were 743 students on average. It was also indicated that a total of 5,898 students were admitted through KUCCPS in 2017/2018 academic year while 2,229 students were admitted under PSSP during the same year giving a total enrolment of 8,127 students in the three Universities during that academic year. Also noted was 1,430 students (on average) admitted in the Universities through KUCCPS in the academic year 2018/2019 with a minimum number admitted being 650 students and maximum being 3,640 students. Comparatively, a smaller number 697 of students was admitted during the same academic year 2018/2019 through PSSP. Actually, one of the Universities where the study was done admitted only 12 PSSP students during the 2018/2019 academic year. This implied that the average number of students admitted in each of the Universities where the study was done through both KUCCPS and PSSP was 2,127 students giving a total of 6,381 in the three Universities.

There was a general decrease in enrolment of students over the past four academic years. As revealed in Table 4.4.1, the enrolment decreased from 9,190 students in 2015/2016 academic year to 6,381 students in the 2018/2019 academic year. This was still evidenced even after having two admission bodies in place: (KUCCPS and PSSP) in the Universities where the study was done. Admission of students to higher learning institutions was to be done basing on affordability or bed-space of that particular University. This was in agreement with the Ministry of Education (2012); and Wanjohi (2011), who stated that, “Since independence time, major transitions and reforms in Kenyan education system were made and focused on its access, equity, quality, affordability and relevance and tremendously expanded institutions at all levels to meet the aspirations of rapidly growing

Kenyan population.” If admissions were done according to the social demand of the Kenyan population minus considering quality parameters like number of lecturers per program, number of lecturers with PhDs, lecturer conduct hours with students per week, ratio of full-time lecturers against part-time lecturers, among others will lower the quality of education in these institutions. Even with two bodies admitting students to Universities, enrolment still declined in the last four years (2015/2016 - 2018/2019). CUE (2011) recommends that any candidate scoring a C+ and above in KCSE exam qualifies to join higher learning institutions. Besides, those scoring a c (plain) in KCSE for recognized pre-University qualification holders or recognized diploma holders with a minimum of credit C (of 2.50 on a scale of 4.00) from a recognized institution also qualifies for University education.

4.4.1 Ratio of Students Admitted Through PSSP to KUCCPS.

There were two bodies that admitted students to higher learning institutions in Kenya namely KUCCPS and PSSP. Due to this, there was need for the study to note the ratio of students admitted through both PSSP and KUCCPS. The results were as presented in table 4.4.1(b).

Table 4.4.1 (b). Ratio of PSSP students to KUCCPS students.

Status → Year ↓	PSSP	KUCCPS	Ratio	Total Enrolment
2015/2016	2,802	6,388	30.5:69.5	9,190
2016/2017	2,778	5,714	32.7:67.3	8,492
2017/2018	2,229	5,898	27.4:72.68	8,127
2018/2019	2,091	4,290	32.8:67.2	6,381

The study noted that, the ratio of students admitted through PSSP to KUCCPS was 1:2 on average.

4.4.2 Enrolment (PSSP) and number of Lecturers without PhD

Lecturers in Universities played a vital role in the provision of quality education. It was therefore important for this study to determine the number of students admitted to Universities against lecturers without PhD certificates. This had a negative effect on the quality of education in the Universities where the study was done because only lecturers with PhD certificates qualified to teach in Universities (CUE, 2011). The findings were presented in Table 4.4.2.

Table 4.4.2(a): Lecturers without PhDs and PSSP Students

Academic Year	Lecturers without PhDs	PSSP	Ratio
2015/2016	200	2,802	6.7:93.3
2016/2017	245	2,778	8.1:91.9
2017/2018	262	2,229	10.5:89.5
2018/2019	287	2,091	12.1:87.9
Total	994	9,900	

With regard to lecturers without PhD certificates and PSSP students it was noted from table 4.4.2(a) that as PSSP students decreased in enrolment in the past 4 years (2015/2016_2,802, 2016/2017_2,778, 2017/2018_2,229, and 2018/2019_2,091), the number of lecturers without PhDs was increasing (2015/2016_200, 2016/2017_245, 2017/2018_262, and 2018/2019_287). This lowered the quality of education in higher learning institutions because lecturers without PhDs are not qualified to teach in Universities.

The study went further to find out the number of lecturers with PhD certificates against PSSP students. The results were as presented in table 4.4.2(b).

Table 4.4.2(b): Lecturers with PhDs and PSSP Students

Academic Year	Lecturers with PHDS	PSSP Students	Ratio
2015/2016	85	2,802	2.9:97.1
2016/2017	103	2,778	3.6:96.4
2017/2018	120	2,229	5.1:94.9
2018/2019	158	2,091	7.1:92.9
Total	466	9,900	

Table 4.4.2 (b) showed an increase in the number of lecturers with PhD certificates against a decrease in enrolment. Thus in 2015/2016, the study noted 85 lecturers with PhDs against 2802 PSSP students. In 2016/2017, the number of lecturers with PhDs was 103 while PSSP students were 2,778. There were 120 lecturers with PhDs against 2229 PSSP students in

2017/2018. Finally, there were 158 lecturers with PhDs against 2091 PSSP students in 2018/2019. This was an indication that quality education in Universities was rising because lecturers with PhD certificates make up the qualified staff to teach in Universities.

The study also compared lecturers with and without PhDs and enrolment of students through KUCCPS. The results were as seen in tables 4.4.2(c) and 4.4.2(d).

Table 4.4.2(c) Lecturers without PhDs and KUCCPS students

Academic Year	Lecturers without PhDs	Enrolment KUCCPS	Ratio
2015/2016	200	6,388	3:97
2016/2017	245	5,714	4.1:95.9
2017/2018	262	5,898	4.3:95.7
2018/2019	287	4,290	6.3:93.7
Total	994	22,290	

Table 4.4.2(c) showed the number of lecturers without PhD certificates and KUCCPS students. It was noted that as KUCCPS students decreased in enrolment in the past 4 years, the number of lecturers without PhDs was increased. Thus, in 2015/2016, there were 200 lecturers without PhDs against 6,388 KUCCPS students. In 2016/2017, the study noted 245 lecturers without PhDs against 5,714 KUCCPS students. The study noted 262 lecturers without PhDs against 5,898 KUCCPS students in 2017/2018, while in 2018/2019 there were 287 lecturers without PhDs against 2,091 KUCCPS students. In total, there were 994 lecturers without PhDs in the Universities where the study was done against 22,290 KUCCPS students. This lowered the quality of education in institutions of higher learning due to an increase in the unqualified staff.

Table 4.4.2(d) Lecturers with PhDs and KUCCPS

Academic Year	Lecturers with PhDs	Enrolment KUCCPS	Ratio (%)
2015/2016	85	6,388	1.3:98.7
2016/2017	103	5,714	1.8:98.2
2017/2018	120	5,898	2:98
2018/2019	158	4,290	3.6:96.4
Total	466	22,290	

Table 4.4.2(d) noted an increase in the number of lecturers with PhD certificates against a decrease in enrolment. Thus, in 2015/2016, there were 85 lecturers with PhDs against 6,388 KUCCPS students. In 2016/2017, the study noted 103 lecturers with PhDs against 5,714 KUCCPS students. The study noted 120 lecturers with PhDs against 5,898 KUCCPS students in 2017/2018, while in 2018/2019 there were 158 lecturers with PhDs against 4,290 KUCCPS students. In total, there were 466 lecturers with PhDs in the Universities where the study was done against 22,290 KUCCPS students.

The study investigated further to find out the total number of enrolment in the studied Universities against lecturers without PhDs. The results were as shown in table 4.12.

Table 4.4.2(e) Total Enrolment and number of lecturers without PhDs

Academic Year	Total Enrolment	Lecturers Without PhDs	Ratio
2015/2016	9,190	200	97.9:2.1
2016/2017	8,472	245	97.19:2.81
2017/2018	8,127	262	96.88:3.12
2018/2019	6,381	287	95.71:4.3
Total	32,170	994	

Table 4.4.2(e) showed an increase in the number of lecturers without PhD certificates against a decrease in enrolment. Thus, in 2015/2016, there were 200 lecturers without PhDs against 9,190 students. In 2016/2017, the study noted 245 lecturers without PhDs against 8,472 students. The study noted 262 lecturers without PhDs against 8,127 students in 2017/2018, while in 2018/2019, there were 287 lecturers without PhDs against 6,381 students. In total, there were 994 lecturers without PhDs in the Universities where the study was done against 32,170 students. This lowered the quality of education in higher learning institutions due to an increase in the unqualified staff. As regards the total number of enrolment in the Universities where the study was done, in the past four years against lecturers without PhD certificates, the study noted an increase in the number of lecturers without PhD certificates against a decrease in enrolment.

4.4.2 Enrolment and number of lecturers with PhDs

There was also need to compare the number of students admitted to higher learning institutions with the number of lecturers with PhD certificates. This was because these were the lecturers who were qualified to teach these students. The findings were as shown in table 4.4.2(f) below.

Table 4.4.2(f) Number of students admitted and lecturers with PhDs

Academic Year	Total Enrolment	Lecturers With PHDs	Ratio
2015/2016	9,190	85	99.08:0.92
2016/2017	8,472	103	98.49:1.2
2017/2018	8,127	120	98.55:1.46
2018/2019	6,381	158	97.53:2.42
Total	32,170	466	

The study indicated that enrolment decreased while the number of lecturers with PhDs increased. Thus, in 2015/2016, there were 85 lecturers with PhDs against 9,190 students. In 2016/2017, the study noted 103 lecturers with PhDs against 8,472 students. The study noted 120 lecturers with PhDs against 8,127 students in 2017/2018, while in 2018/2019, there were 158 lecturers with PhDs against 6,381 students. In total, there were 466 lecturers with PhDs in the Universities where the study was done against 32,170 students. CUE as a regulator of University education recommends that the maximum lecturer: student ratio for each course should be; 1:50 in Theoretical based courses while 1:20 in Practical based courses. This is contrary to what is noted in the study (1:90). This lowers the quality of education in higher learning institutions.

There was need to look at ratio of lecturers with PhD and those without PhD certificates and the enrolment (PSSP and KUCCPS). The findings were as shown in the following table 4.4.2(g) below.

Table 4.4.2 (g) Ratio of lecturers with PhDs to those without PhDs

Academic Year	Lecturers with PhDs	Lecturers without PhD	Total Number of Lecturers	Ratio %
2015/2016	85	200	285	29.8:70.2
2016/2017	103	245	348	29.6:70.4
2017/2018	120	262	382	31.4:68.6
2018/2019	158	287	445	35.5:64.5
Total	466	994	1,460	

The findings indicated in Table 4.4.2(g) show that 158 lecturers had PhDs in the academic year 2018/2019 as compared to 287 lecturers who didn't have PhDs during the same academic year. Similarly, in the academic year 2017/2018, there were 120 lecturers with PhDs while those without PhDs were 262, indicating a ratio of 1 to 2. During the academic year 2016/2017, the PhD holders were 103 as compared to an average of 245 lecturers without PhDs. Further, the study established that during the academic year 2015/2016, there were 85 PhD lecturers while 200 lecturers didn't have PhDs in the Universities where the study was done. The general trend as obtained from the Universities where the study was done was that for every PhD holder, there were two lecturers without PhDs. This implied that there were twice as many lecturers without PhDs than those lecturers who were PhD holders. This lowered the quality of education in higher learning institutions. This was against CUE's recommendations which state that the ratio of lecturers with PhDs to that of lecturers without PhDs should be 2:1.

4.4.2 Ratio of Full-time lecturers to Part-time Lecturers

The study sought to determine the ratio of full-time lecturers to part-time lecturers in the Universities where the study was done. The results were categorized into two: enrolment with lecturers with PhDs and lecturers without PhDs. The findings were as presented in Tables 4.4.2(h) and 4.4.2(i).

Table 4.4.2(h): Ratio of Enrolment to Full Time Lecturers.

Academic Year	Total Enrolment	Full Time Lecturers	Ratio
2015/2016	9,190	265	97.2:2.8
2016/2017	8,492	277	96.8:3.2
2017/2018	8,127	289	96.6:3.4
2018/2019	6,381	294	95.6:4.4
Total	32,190	1,125	

Table 4.4.2 (h) showed that as the enrolment decreased, the number of full time lecturers increased slightly. This was necessary because these were the lecturers who were always available for the students by virtue of their employment. Thus, in 2015/2016, there were 265(2.8%) full time lecturers against 9,190 (97.2%) students (Ratio 97.2:2.8). In 2016/2017, the study noted 277 (3.2%) full time lecturers against 8,472 (96.8%) students (96.8:3.2). The study noted 289 (3.43%) full time lecturers against 8,127 (Ratio 96.6%) students in 2017/2018, (Ratio 96.6:3.4) while in 2018/2019, there were 294 (4.4%) full time lecturers against 6,381 (95.6%) students (Ratio 95.6:4.4). In total, there were 1125 (3.38%) full time lecturers in the Universities where the study was done against 32,190 (96.62%) students.

Then, there was need to find out the ratio between full-time and part-time lecturers. The results were as shown in table 4.4.2(i).

Table 4.4.2 (i): Ratio of Full Time to Part Time Lecturers.

Academic Year	Full Time	Part Time Lecturers	Ratio %
2015/2016	265	161	62.2:37.8
2016/2017	277	178	60.9:39.1
2017/2018	289	182	61.4:38.6
2018/2019	294	193	60.4:39.6
Grant Total	1125	714	

The findings indicated in Table 4.4.2(j), shows that there was a total of 294 (60.4%) full-time lecturers in the academic year 2018/2019 while part-time lecturers were 193 (39.6%) giving an average of 65 part-time lectures per university. There were 289 (61.4%) full-time lecturers in the academic year 2017/2018 as compared to 182 (38.6%) part-time lecturers during the same year. Similarly, in the academic year 2016/2017, there were 277 (60.9%) full-time lecturers against 178 (39.1%) part-time lecturers with an average of 60 part-time lecturers in each of the universities where the study was done. The study established that there were 265 (62.2%) full-time lecturers in the academic year 2015/2016 with an average of 89 lecturers while there were 161 (37.8%) part-time lecturers with an average of 54 lecturers per University.

4.4.3 Number of Officers and Offices

It was important for this study to determine the number of officers and offices in the Universities where the study was done. This was believed to have an effect on the quality of education in the Universities. The findings were presented in Table 4.4.3.

Table 4.4.3: Number of officers and offices

Academic Year	No. of Officers	No. of Offices	Ratio %
2015/2016	610	100	85.9:14.1
2016/2017	661	115	85.2:14.8
2017/2018	682	131	83.4:16.6
2018/2019	741	147	83.4:16.6

As shown in Table 4.4.3, about 6 officers shared one office space throughout the 4 years. Hence, CUE as a regulator has given the number of offices against lecturers to be 1:1. From the findings, 147 offices were in the universities in the academic year 2018/2019 against 741 officers. There were 682 officers and 131 offices in the academic year 2017/2018. Further, the study established that in the academic year 2016/2017, there were 661 officers against 115 offices. It should be noted that there were 610 officers sharing 100 offices in the academic year 2015/2016. This gave a ratio of 1:6 in terms of offices to officers respectively. This lowered the quality of education in these institutions because lecturers need space for efficient preparation of (professional records) quality work. Some lecturers operated from their vehicles thus affecting their efficiency.

There was a need to further specify the number of actual contact hours per week with expected contact hours per Semester. The respondents were asked to state the number of contact hours with undergraduate students. The responses were as presented in Table 4.4.4.

Table 4.4.4: Number of Lecturers and Students Contact hours in Universities

Actual Contact hours per week	Per semester	Expected	Min	Max
3-4 hours	36-48 hours	48 hours	40 hours	56 hours

The study went a-head and investigated the actual contact hours between the lecturers and the students. This was done through the attendance sheets. The study revealed what is seen in table 4.4.4 above. The researcher noted that the actual contact hours per week between

lecturers and students as 3-4 hours. Hence, the expected contact hours-per semester was 48-56 hours. Actual-contact hours give us the quality of education in the learning institutions. As per CUE's recommendation (2011) on contact hours; "One lecture hour shall be equated to: one contact hour in a lecture designed session, two contact hours in tutorial designed or open learning, three contact hours in a laboratory-designed or practicum session and five contact hours in a farm or similar practice." A bachelor's academic program shall carry a minimum of the following lecture hours per cluster programme and shall be designed in line with the national standards provided for each programme and professional bodies; Applied Sciences-2240, Arts and Humanities-1680, Medical and Allied Sciences-3960, Pure and Natural Sciences-1785 and Social Sciences-1680.

Further, statistical analysis was done to establish the effect of admissions policy on quality of education in Universities as per the hypothesis of the study. The findings were as presented in Table 4.4.5

Table 4.4.5: Correlation between admissions policy and quality of education in Universities

		Quality of Education
Admissions Policy	Pearson Correlation	.925**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003
	N	76

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

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

Results in Table 4.4.5, showed that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between admissions policy and quality of University education ($r=.925^{**}$, $p<.001$ significant level). This meant that the null hypothesis was rejected which stated

that; there was no statistically significant relationship between admissions policy and quality of University education and took the alternative one which was: There was a statistically significant relationship between admissions policy and quality of education in Universities. The coefficient of determinant R^2 established that admissions policy contributed 85.6% variability to University education when other factors were held constant. This meant that if admission to higher education was done in an equitable manner, quality education would be realized. This was to be done in accordance with availability of physical facilities like space, reading materials in libraries, adequate number of lecturers and lecturer-student contact hours was to be increased among others.

Compelling understudy choice is significant in any advanced education framework in light of the fact that the nature of understudies affect the quality and inside effectiveness of the instructive projects advertised. World Bank report says to instruct their understudies adequately, establishments ought to have the option to enlist just the same number of candidates as they can dependably instruct, and to acknowledge just understudies who have the information and capacity to completely profit by their investigations. Selectivity should help guarantee that enrolment development was identified with instructional limit and if determination criteria had great prescient legitimacy, that open doors for further investigation would be designated to the individuals who were well on the way to profit scholastically. As indicated by Higher Education: Issues and Options for Reform (1993), Learners perform best when they pursued courses of concentrate that coordinated their capacities and premiums.

4.5 Effect of Funding Policy on the Provision of Quality Education in Universities

The second objective of this study was to find out the effect of funding policy of higher education on the provision of quality education in selected Universities, in Kenya. The Funding Policy states that Universities Fund should be established to provide funds for Universities provided by the Government (R.o.K, 2012). To achieve this objective, data was obtained from the finance officers concerning the sources of income of the funds they had in the Universities. The findings were presented in percentages as shown in Table 4.5.1.

Table 4.5.1: Ratio of Total Budget to Higher Education

<u>Total Budget</u>	<u>Higher education</u>	<u>Ratio</u>
3.02T	97.7B	96.8: 3.2%

Source: National Budget 2019/2020

Table 4.5.1 shows that the ratio the country's total budget to higher education in 2019/2020 was 96.8:3.2%.

Table 4.5.2: Ratio of Education to Higher Education

<u>Education</u>	<u>Higher Education</u>	<u>Ratio</u>
208.9B	97.7B	68.1:31.9%

Source: National Budget 2019/2020

Table 4.5.2 showed that the ratio of Education to High Education as per the National Budget of 2019/2020 was 68.1:31.9%.

Table 4.5.3: Sources of Funding University Education

Source	Amount	% of Total Amount
Donor	29603796.00	30.7%
HELB	1213391126.00	5.4%
I.G.U	265130471.00	6.7%
M.O.E	2210240321.00	56%
Others	20136550.00	1%
PSSP	211511300.00	0.24%
Total	3,950,013,564	100%

As shown in Table 4.5.3, a total of Ksh. 1213391126.00 (5.4%) was received from Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) while Ksh. 211511300.00 (0.24%) was received from PSSP. Further, Ksh. 265130471.00 (6.7%) was obtained from internal investment units and Ksh.2210240321.00 (56%) was received from the Ministry of Education. The study also established that the total amount received from donors was Ksh. 29603796.00(30.7%) giving an average of Ksh.14801898.0000 in each of the Universities where the study was done. It was also found that a total of Ksh. 20136550.00 (1%) was received by the Universities from other sources. This meant that the highest funder of the activities in the Universities was the Government through the Ministry of Education. This is in agreement with Universities Act No. 42 of 2012 Part VII on Universities funding board that states that the Universities fund should be established to provide funds for Universities provided by the Government (R.o.K, 2012). The fund also consists of monies obtained through income generated by investments made by the trustees, grants and gifts.

The other concern for this study was to determine the amount paid (percentage) to the lecturers, development, playground, library, security, non-teaching staff, offices and special needs facilities from the funds received by the Universities. The findings were as shown in Table 4.5.2.

Table 4.5.4 Distribution of Income Received

Amount Ksh.	Lecture rs %	Developm ent %	Play groun ds %	Libra ry %	Securi ty %	Non- teachi ng %	Offic es %	Specia l needs faciliti es %
3,370,031, 027	41	9.7	23	0.04	0.4	25	0.0	0.2

The findings shown in Table 4.5.4 revealed that 41% of the total amount was paid to lecturers while 9.7% was set aside for development. Further, 23% was used for playground and 0.04% of the total amount was used for library construction. The study also established that 0.4% was allocated for security whereas a total of 25% of the total amount received by Universities was set aside for non-teaching staff. It should be noted that there was only one University that had allocated 0.2% of its total income for special needs facility and no University had budgeted for the construction of offices. The University policy on funding also emphasized on appropriating funds only on the expenditure that was approved by the trustees for funding of the public Universities (R.o.K, 2012).

The respondents were asked for their opinion concerning the effect of funding policy on the provision of quality education. The responses were as presented in Table 4.5.3.

Table 4.5.5 Effect of Funding Policy on the Provision of Quality Education

Statement	SD		D		U		A		SA		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
University education has a funding system in place	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	50.	3	49.	7	100.
The funding system accounts for all expenditure of students	0	0.0	19	24.	0	0.0	3	48.	2	27.	7	100.
Lack of funds to recruit faculties has made many professors resign for better paying jobs in other countries	0	0.0	21	26.	1	12.	3	39.	1	21.	7	100.
The high level of poverty within many households may force some children to drop out of college to seek employment to support their family's meager resources	0	0.0	7	8.9	2	2.5	2	35.	4	53.	7	100.
There is a shortage of physical facilities for teaching and learning	0	0.0	10	12.	3	3.8	4	58.	2	25.	7	100.
Universities rely on government funding to carry out their activities	0	0.0	25	31.	5	6.3	3	43.	1	19.	7	100.

Key: SA-strongly agree, A-agree, U-undecided, D-disagree, SD- strongly disagree

Table 4.5.5 showed that 39 (49.4%) of the respondents strongly agreed and another 40 (50.6%) agreed that University education had a funding system in place. Altogether, 79 (100%) of the respondents agreed that University education had a funding system in place. It was also indicated that 38 (48.1%) of the respondents agreed and 22 (27.8%) of the respondents strongly agreed that the funding system accounted for all expenditure of students while 19 (24.1%) disagreed. This indicated that cumulatively 60 (75.9%) asserted the statement that the funding system of the Universities accounted for all expenditures of students. This was in agreement with Gudo (2014), who expressed that; for the Sub-Saharan Africa to receive the rewards of human capital at that point, foundations of higher learning were to be adequately financed to give quality preparing and sound proficient improvement. On the off chance that the subsidizing framework in higher learning establishments wasn't streamlined, nature of instruction was brought down.

The results in Table 4.5.5 also showed that 31 (39.2%) of the respondents agreed and 17 (21.5%) of the respondents strongly agreed on the statement that lack of funds to recruit faculties had made many professors resign for better paying jobs in other countries. However, 21 (26.6%) disagreed and 10 (12.7%) were undecided. This meant that more than half 50 (60.7%) of the respondents agreed with the statement that lack of enough funds in Universities caused brain drain. This means that some professors who were not comfortable with current faculties and salaries paid were forced to move out of the country to look for greener pastures (brain drain). This was contrary to Creed et al (2012) who asserted that institutions of higher learning should increasingly invest in programs to promote access and increase quality. This led to some Universities having fewer professors than expected hence lowering quality of higher education.

Regarding poverty within many households it was noted that 42 (53.2%) of the respondents strongly agreed and 28 (35.4%) agreed that the high level of poverty within many households might force some children to drop out of college to seek employment to support their family's meager resources. Altogether, 70 (88.6%) asserted the statement that high levels of poverty within many households forced many children drop out of college to seek employment to out of college to support their family's meager resources. Only 7 (8.9%)

disagreed and 2 (2.5%) were undecided. Students who drop out of college for whatever reason is against Jebaraj et al (2011), who stated that People, firms and countries had in the past inescapable income and put resources into starting expenses of instruction, for example, educational cost and charges planning to build their gaining and efficiency later on. If students continued dropping out of college due to poverty, it would lower the internal efficiency and completion rates of Universities hence reducing quality in that some students might read on their own, do exams and pass but the quality of these students would still be questionable.

The study also established that 46 (58.2%) of the respondents agreed and another 20 (25.3%) strongly agreed that there was a shortage of physical facilities for teaching and learning in higher learning institutions. However, 10 (12.7%) disagreed and 3 (3.8%) were undecided. This implied that cumulatively, 66 (83.5%) of the respondents agreed that there was a shortage of physical facilities for teaching and learning in higher learning institutions in the Universities where the study was done. This was due to the fact that Universities aim at attracting as many students as possible without considering the availability of physical facilities. This was contrary to Ministry of Education, (2012); and Wanjohi, (2011) who stated: “Since independence time, major transitions and reforms in Kenyan education system were made and focused on its access, equity, quality, affordability and relevance and later tremendously expanded institutions at all levels to meet the aspirations of rapidly growing Kenyan population”. This implied that such a state would pose a challenge in the accessibility of quality higher education due to issues of affordability.

Similarly, Table 4.5.5 revealed that 34 (43.0%) of the respondents agreed and another 15 (19.0%) strongly agreed that Universities rely on government funding to carry out their activities. There were 25 (31.6%) of the respondents who disagreed and 5 (6.3%) who were undecided. This indicated that majority 49 (62.0%) of the respondents agreed that Universities rely on government funding to carry out their activities. This meant that even though education remains one of the functions of the central government, Universities require government funding and other sources like internal generating units among others to carry out their activities to meet the expenses of the learners.

Further, statistical analysis was done to establish whether there was a significant relationship between funding policy and quality of University education as per the second hypothesis of the study. The findings were presented in Table 4.5.4.

Table 4.5.6: Correlation between funding policy and quality University education

		Quality university education in Kenya
Funding Policy	Pearson Correlation	.837**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	76

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

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

The results in Table 4.5.6: showed that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between a funding policy and quality of higher education at $r=.837^{**}P<.001$ significant level. This meant that the null hypothesis which stated: there is no statistically significant relationship between funding policy and quality of University education was to be rejected and the alternative one accepted. The coefficient of determinant R^2 established that funding policy contributed 70.1% variability to access of quality higher education when other factors were held constant. Hence, funding policy would affect quality of education if it was not fairly distributed among students. This was in agreement with Gudo (2014), who argued that for Sub-Saharan Africa to receive the rewards of human capital at that point, foundations of higher learning were to be adequately financed to give quality preparing and sound proficient improvement.

4.6 Effect of Inclusion Policy on Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities

The third objective of this study was to establish the impact of Inclusion Policy on Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities, in Kenya. To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked to indicate if the facilities to support inclusive education were in place and if they were adequate. Their responses were as shown in Table 4.6.1

Table 4.6.1: Facilities to Support Inclusive Education

Facilities	2015/2016	2016/2017	2017/2018	2018/2019
Toilet	None	3	3	3
Ramps	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Windows	0	1	1	1
Playground	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Brail	0	0	1	1
Hearing-aids	None	None	None	None
Wheel-chairs	None	None	None	None
Lecturers for special need education	1	1	3	4
Amplification devices	None	None	None	None
Special lighting	None	None	None	None
Preferential sitting	None	None	None	None
Least restrictive environment	None	None	Yes	Yes

The analysis results in Table 4.6.1 showed that the examination likewise proceeded to build up that the condition of these understudies that there were 9 toilets (3 in each University where the study was done), some buildings had ramps, there were three windows and only two brails available in the Universities where the study was done. Lecturers for special education were available but not enough and even some had little or no required skills to handle the hand-capped learners. The study also noted some restricted environment which was not adequate for inclusive education in the Universities where the study was done. However, the study noted that there were no wheel-chairs, amplification devices, special lighting, and preferential sitting areas for students with special needs. This implied that the Universities were not implementing inclusion policy that could facilitate the access to higher education by the challenged members of the society. This agreed with an investigate on difficulties confronting execution of comprehensive training system done at the University of Nairobi (2012), which uncovered that there was an intense lack of educating and learning assets to provide food for learning incapacity understudies in comprehensive settings. The discoveries likewise uncovered that the educators who were available in

comprehensive study halls did not have the required preparing and capabilities to deal with understudies with learning disabilities were learning in needed essential necessities so as to make it helpful enough for figuring out how to happen. A non-inclusive environment in Universities prevented students with disabilities from accessing University education even if they acquired minimum entry grade (c+) in KCSE exam. This disagreed with the Ministry of Education (2008), in the National report on improvement of instruction, which asserted that Kenya had grasped comprehensive training that given quality instruction to all youngsters, youth and grown-ups through focused help to explicit or powerless gatherings moving ceaselessly from the customary perspective on comprehensive training as a giving training for kids with exceptional needs. Universities should advocate for inclusive environment for equitable access to quality education in higher learning institutions. CUE (2011) recommended that each program should be supported by appropriate and adequate number of facilities and equipment.

Table 4.6.2 Effect of Inclusion Policy on the Provision of Quality Education

Statement	SD		D		U		A		SA		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%
With constant changes in human resource market, many graduates find their skills irrelevant to the labor market	0	0.0	26	32.	0	0.0	2	32.	2	34.	7	100.
due to curriculum that is not representative to modern-day needs of labor market coupled with tough structural adjustment programs and recruitment restrictions, many	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	32.	5	67.	7	100.
							6	9	3	09	9	0

students are unlucky to find employment.													
Certain communities in Kenya still maintain some cultural practices that tend to disfavor girls from getting access to education	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	32.	5	67.	0	0.0	7	100.	
university programs meet quality standards required by students, lecturers and labor markets					6	9	3	09			9	0	
Universities promote a quality assurance culture in their departments and involve all stakeholders in achieving their goals.	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	7	100	0	0.0	7	100.	
Students with disabilities are provided with supplementary aids and services to participate in irregular education classes.													
There is equal access to high quality education in Kenya	0	0.0	26	32.	2	32.	2	34.	0	0.0	7	100.	
					9		3	09			9	0	

Key: SA-strongly agree, A-agree, U-undecided, D-disagree, SD- strongly disagree

Table 4.6.2: showed that 32.9% of the respondents in each category; disagreed, and agreed that with constant change in human resource market, many graduates found their skills irrelevant to the labor market. However, there is a general agreement (65.8%) that with

constant change in human resource market, many graduates found their skills irrelevant to the labor market. This implied that there was need for reshuffling of the curriculum so as to be relevant to the labor market.

The results in Table 4.6.2 above revealed that 26 (32.9%), (mean 4.00) of the respondents agreed, 53 (67.1%) of the respondents (mean 5.00) strongly agreed that due to curriculum that was not representative to modern-day needs of labor market coupled with tough structural adjustment programs and recruitment restrictions, many students were unlucky to find employment. Cumulatively, 79 (100%) of the respondents were of the idea that due to curriculum that was not representative to modern day needs of labor market coupled with tough structural adjustment programs and recruitment restrictions, many graduates did not get employment. This left the quality of these graduates questionable.

Table 4.6.2 above also noted that 53 (67.1%) of the respondents agreed and 26 (32.9%) of the respondents were undecided that certain societies still maintain some cultural practices that tend to disfavor girls from getting access to education, 79 (100%) of the respondents agreed that University programs met quality standards required by students, lecturers and labor markets, this was in terms of syllabus completion, duration of students spent in college, among others. 26 (32.9%) of the respondents were undecided and 53 (67.1%) of the respondents agreed that universities promoted a quality assurance culture in their departments and involved all stakeholders in achieving their goals, 32.9% of each category disagreed, undecided and agreed that students with disabilities were provided with supplementary aids and services to participate in irregular education classes and lastly but not least, 26 (32.9%) of the respondents were undecided and 53 (67.1%) of the respondents agreed that there was equal access to high quality education in Kenya. This is contrary to CUE's recommendation (2011) that all each programme in the university should be supported by an appropriate and adequate number of facilities and equipment.

As defined by UNESCO (2005), Inclusive education was a persistent procedure of tending to and reacting to the decent variety of requirements everything being equal – paying little heed to components, for example, handicap, sex, age, ethnicity, language, HIV status, land

area and sexuality – perceiving that all individuals can learn. It frequently included attempting to change the structures, frameworks, arrangements, practices and societies in schools and different foundations in charge of training, with the goal that they could react to the decent variety of understudies in their area. Incorporation underscores opened doors for equivalent support, yet with choices for extraordinary help and offices as required, and for separation, inside a typical learning system.

Further, statistical analysis was done to establish whether there was a statistically significant relationship between inclusion policy and quality of higher education as per the third hypothesis of the study.

Table 4.6.3: Correlation between inclusion policy and quality high education

Quality University Education in Kenya		
Inclusion Policy	Pearson Correlation	.870*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011
	N	76

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

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

The analysis results in Table 4.6.3: showed that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between inclusion policy and quality of higher education at $r=.870^*P<.01$ significant level. This meant that the null hypothesis was rejected which stated that, “There was no statistically significant relationship between Inclusion Policy and quality of higher education,” and accept the alternative one. The coefficient of determinant R^2 established that inclusion policy contributed 75.7% variability to quality of higher education when other factors were held constant.

4.7 Constitutional Requirement Policy of Access on Quality of University Education

The fourth objective of this study was to determine the perceived impact of the constitutional requirements of Access on Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities, in Kenya. The Government was required to set up at any rate a state funded college in each of the 47 counties as indicated by Universities Act, 2012; inferring that more organizations for advanced education, preparing and learning were in the offing should any of the 47 areas be found without a college once the regressed arrangement of administration began working. To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked to establish the impact of the constitution requirement on provision and access of higher education. The responses were as shown in Table 4.7.1

Table 4.7.1: Effect of Constitutional Requirements on Quality of University Education

Statement	SD		D		U		A		SA		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%
Constitutional Requirement Policy will affect Quality of Higher Education if every County will have a University	0	0.0	22	27.9	0	0.0	34	43.0	23	29.1	79	100.0
Funding Policy will be negatively affected if every County will have a University	0	0.0	23	29.1	0	0.0	33	41.8	23	29.1	79	100.0
Inclusion Policy in Universities will help promote Quality of Higher Education	0	0.0	22	27.9	0	0.0	34	43.0	23	29.1	79	100.0

Key: SA-strongly agree, A-agree, U-undecided, D-disagree, SD- strongly disagree

As shown in Table 4.7.1, 34 (43.04%) of the respondents agreed and 23 (29.11%) strongly agreed that constitutional requirement Policy would affect Quality of Higher Education if every County had a University. Cumulatively 57 (72.15%) agreed that implementation of constitutional requirement policy could negatively affect quality of higher education if every county got a University, hence lowering the quality of education. This implied that implementation of constitutional requirement policy was a key factor in facilitating access to quality higher education in Kenya. Table 4.6.4, also showed that 33 (41.77%) of the respondents agreed and 23 (29.11%) strongly agreed that Funding Policy would negatively affect quality of higher education if every county got a University. This meant that 56 (70.89%) of the respondents were assertive over the statement that Funding Policy would negatively affect quality of higher education if every county got a University. This implied

that implementation of funding policy was important in facilitating students' access and Universities' offer of quality high education to students. It should be noted that 34 (43.04%) of the respondents agreed and 23 (29.11%) strongly agreed that Inclusion Policy in Universities would help promote Quality of Higher Education. Altogether, 57 (72.15%) asserted that implementation of Inclusion Policy would affect quality of higher education. This implied that implementation of inclusive policy was important in accessing quality high education by many especially the disabled persons.

It was also important for this study to determine whether there was any statistically significant relationship between constitutional requirements policy and provision of quality education as per the hypothesis of the study. The findings were as shown in Table 4.7.2.

Table 4.7.2: Correlation between Constitutional Requirement and Quality Education

		Quality Education in Kenya
Constitutional Requirements	Pearson Correlation	.915**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004
	N	134

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

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

As shown in Table 4.7.2, there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between Constitutional Requirements Policy of Access and provision of quality higher education ($r=.915^{**}$, $P<.001$ significant level). This meant that the null hypothesis was rejected which stated that: "There was no statistically significant relationship between Constitutional Requirements Policy and quality of higher education," and accepted the alternative one. The coefficient of determinant R^2 established that Constitutional Requirements Policy of Access contributed 83.7% variability to provision of quality University education when other factors were held constant. This meant that implementation of the constitutional requirements policy would lower quality of education. This was because each University would strive to attract as many students as possible yet the qualified human resource was not enough.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations on the assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in parts of the Rift Valley and Western Kenya regions in Kenya based on the objectives of the study.

5.2 Summary of Findings

This section presented summary of the findings as per the objectives of the study.

5.2.1 Admissions Policy to Higher Education on Quality Education

The first objective of the study was on the effects of admissions policy to higher education on the provision of quality education. The study established that there were two bodies in the country (KUCCPS and PSSP) that are allowed to admit students to higher education. The study further established that the ratio (%) of PSSP students to KUCCPS students was as follows: in the year 2015/2016 -30.5:69.5, 2016/2017- 32.7:67.3, 2017/2018-27.4:72.68, and 2018/2019- 32.8:67.2. The ratio (%) of lecturers with PhDs to PSSP students was; 2015/2016-2.9:97.1, 2016/2017-3.6:96.4, 2017/2018-5.1:94.9, and 2018/2019-7.1:92.9. The ratio (%) of Lecturers with PhDs to KUCCPS students was; in the year 2015/2016-1.3:98.7, 2016/2017-1.8:98.2, 2017/2018-2:98, and 2018/2019-3.6:96.4. The ratio (%) of Full Time to Part Time Lecturers was noted as follows; 2015/2016-62.2:37.8, 2016/2017-60.9:39.1, 2017/2018-61.4:38.6, and 2018/2019-60.4:39.6. Regarding ratio of total enrolment to lecturers with PhDs the study noted that in 2015/2016-99.08:0.92, 2016/2017-98.49:1.2, 2017/2018-98.55:1.46, and 2018/2019-97.53:2.42. The ratio of officers and offices was as follows; in 2015/2016-85.9:14.1, 2016/2017-85.2:14.8, 2017/2018-83.4:16.6, and 2018/2019-83.4:16.6.

Last but not least, the ratio of lecturers to students contact hours in universities was noted as follows; actual contact hours per week-3-4 hours, actual contact hours per semester-36-48 hours, expected contact hours per semester-48 hours, minimum contact hours per semester - 40 hours, and maximum contact hours per semester - 56 hours. Admissions to

institutions of higher learning should be done in accordance with availability of physical facilities like space, adequate number of lecturers and lecturer-student contact hours should be increased among others. Admissions policy influences quality education in Universities because enrolment waters quality of education.

5.2.2 Funding Policy on Provision of Quality Education

The second objective of this study (Funding Policy) states that Universities Fund should be established to provide funds for Universities provided by the Government. Regarding funding of University education, the study noted that funds were sourced in the following ratios; Donor-30.7%, HELB-5.4%, IGU-6.7%, MOE-56%, Others- 1%, PSSP- 0.24%. Income received was distributed in the following ratios (%); Lecturers-41, Development-9.7, Play grounds-23, Library-0.4, Security-0.4, Non-teaching-25, Offices- 0.0, and Special needs facilities. The study noted that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between a funding policy and access to higher education at $r=.837^{**}$, $P<.001$ significant level. The study therefore dropped the null hypothesis which states there “There is no statistically significant relationship between funding policy and quality of University education” and accepted the alternative one. The coefficient of determinant R^2 established that funding policy contributes 70.1% variability to access of quality higher education when other factors were held constant. Hence, funding policy would affect quality of education if it was not fairly distributed among students.

5.2.3 Inclusion Policy on Quality of Higher Education

The third objective of this study was on establishment of the impact of Inclusion Policy on Quality of Higher Education. The study noted that there were 9 toilets (3 in each University where the study was done), some buildings had ramps, and there were three windows and only two brails available in the Universities where the study was done. Lecturers for special education were available but not enough and even some had little or no required skills to handle the hand-capped learners. The study also noted some restricted environment which was not adequate for inclusive education in the Universities where the study was done. However, the study noted that there were no wheel-chairs, amplification devices, special lighting, and preferential sitting areas for students with special needs.

This implied that the universities were not implementing inclusion policy that could facilitate the access to higher education by the challenged members of the society. This agreed with the research done on inclusive education done at the University of Nairobi (2012), which noted that there was an intense lack of educating and learning resources to provide for learners in comprehensive settings. The discoveries likewise uncovered that the educators who were available in comprehensive study halls were not enough and some did not have the required skills and capabilities to deal with understudies with learning disabilities. Universities should advocate for comprehensive condition for impartial access to quality training in institutions of higher learning.

On correlation between inclusion policy and access to quality higher education, the study noted that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between inclusion policy and quality of higher education at $r=.870^*$, $P<.001$ significant level. This meant that the null hypothesis which stated, “There is no statistically significant relationship between inclusion policy and quality of higher education” was rejected and accepted the alternative one. The coefficient of determinant R^2 established that inclusive policy contributed 75.7% variability to access of higher education when other factors were held constant.

5.2.4 Constitutional Requirement Policy of Access on Quality of University Education

The last objective of the study was to determine the perceived impact of the Constitutional Requirements of Access on Quality of Higher Education. The study noted that 100% of the respondents agreed that constitutional requirement Policy could negatively affect Quality of Higher Education if every County got a University. This implied that implementation of constitutional requirement policy was a key factor in facilitating access to quality higher education in Kenya. The study also noted that 100% of the respondents asserted that Funding Policy could negatively affect quality of higher education if every County got a University.

The study theory talks about “three focal drivers of transformation of quality of education: supply-side capabilities of physical and human resource, and learning materials; strategies that through motivating forces try to impact conduct of educators, family units, and

students; bottom-up and top-down participatory and network the executives mediations, which worked through decentralization changes, information delivery, and expanded network cooperation in the administration of training frameworks.” This means when each county gets a University, the government should be ready to encounter challenges like supply of physical facilities, human resources, learning materials among others. On statistical analysis, the study noted that there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between Constitutional Requirements of Access and provision of quality University Education ($r=.915^{**}$, $P<.001$ significant level). This meant that we reject the null hypothesis which states that: “There is no statistically significant relationship between Constitutional Requirements Policy and quality of higher education,” and accept the alternative one. The coefficient of determinant R^2 established that Constitutional Requirements of Access contributed 83.7% variability to provision of quality University education when other factors were held constant. This means that implementation of the constitutional requirements policy will lower quality of education. This is because each University will strive to attract as many students as possible yet the qualified human resource is not enough.

5.3 Conclusions

This study assessed the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected Universities in Kenya. Based on the results of the study, the researcher made the following conclusions; that although Universities had tried to provide quality education in higher learning institutions, there was still much to be desired. Thus, the admissions policy the way it was implemented influences quality of education because enrolment waters quality of education. There was a positive and statistically significant relationship between funding policy and quality of education. Public Universities are not embracing the inclusion policy hence denying capable students access to higher education. Public Universities do not have enough material resources, qualified human resources and monetary resources to provide quality education in Kenya.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Admissions Policy-Universities should employ lecturers with PhD certificates to merge with enrolment of students.

- ii. Funding Policy-Universities must be funded - government allocations to public Universities should be increased. Clearly, if the issue of funding is not urgently addressed, then university education in Kenya is on its deathbed.
- iii. Inclusion Policy-Public Universities should strive to make Universities' environment inclusive.
- iv. Constitutional Requirement Policy- institutions in the present massive advanced education frameworks are under enormous strain to change and adjust (the Universities in existence are facing challenges to transform and change), therefore no more Universities should be opened.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

The following areas were suggested for further research:

- i. Implementation of admissions policy in private Universities in developing countries.
- ii. Assessment of inclusive policy in private Universities in Kenya.
- iii. The impact of resources on admission to University education in Kenya.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: INTRODUCTION LETTER

Dear respondents,

RE: Data Collection

The researcher is a student of the University of Eldoret and seeks to assess the Policies of Access on Quality Education in a few selected universities, Kenya.

It is in this regard that the questionnaire and interview schedule have been drawn. You are kindly requested to give your responses with utmost honesty and you are assured that your responses will be treated with strict confidence.

Kindly note that the information being gathered is for academic purposes only as it is not intended by the researcher or the University to publish part or all of the data gathered herein for any economic or otherwise gain other than furtherance of its declared mission.

Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

WEKESA MOSES SOITA.

(Adm. No. EDU/PGPL/002/16.)

APPENDIX II:

Questionnaire for DVCs, Deans, QAOs, HODs, Admissions officers and Finance Officers

This research is meant for academic purposes. It will try to access information on the effects of the Access Policies on Quality Education in selected Universities in Kenya. Kindly, you are to provide answers to these questions as honestly and precisely as possible.

Responses to these questions will be treated as confidential.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS

1 Gender

Male () Female ()

2 Level of professional qualification

Degree () Med ()

PhD ()

Others (specify)-----

3 Teaching experience/Work experience

0-3 years ()

4-6 years ()

7-9 years ()

10-12 years ()

13 and above years ()

4 Current responsibility

DVC () HOD ()

Dean () QASO ()

Librarian () Finance Officer ()

Questionnaire for admissions Officers

1. How many students were admitted through PSSP_____ and KUCCPS for the last 5 years?
(Admissions Records) -----
2. What is the student enrolment per school?
_____?
3. How does Admissions Policy affect Quality of Education in Universities?

Questionnaire for Deans/HODs

1. How many lecturers do we have per program?
_____ Full-Time _____ Part-Time _____
3. How many lecturers have PHDs -----How many don't have PHDs _____
4. How many contact hours do lecturers have with their students (undergraduates) per unit?

5. What is the students-lecturer ratio? _____
6. How many students have disabilities? _____
7. Are students with disabilities comfortable in this University? _____
(Give a brief explanation) _____

Besides each of the statements presented below, please indicate whether you Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD).

Questionnaire for DVCs (Planning and Development)

Facilities For Inclusive Environment				
Facility	Availability (Yes / No)	Adequacy	No. of facilities	Enrolment
Toilets				
Ramps				
Windows				
Playgrounds				
Braille				
Hearing Aids				
Wheel chairs				
Lecturers for Special Needs Education				
Audial Amplification Devices				
Special Lighting				
Preferential Seating				
Least Restrictive Environment				
Others				

No Statement

SA A U D SD

-
1. With constant changes in human resource market, many graduates find their skills irrelevant to the labor market
 2. Due to curriculum that is not responsive to modern-day needs of the labor market coupled with tough structural adjustment programs and recruitment restrictions, many students are unable to find employment.
 3. Certain communities in Kenya still maintain some cultural

practices that tend to disfavor girls from getting access to education

4. University programs meet quality standards required by students, lecturers and labor markets.
5. Universities promote a quality assurance culture in their departments and involve all stakeholders in achieving their goals.
6. Student with disabilities are provided with supplementary aids and services to participate in irregular education classes
7. There is equal access to high quality education in Kenya.
8. This university has adequate libraries, classrooms, playgrounds etc
9. There is a shortage of physical facilities for teaching and learning in Universities.
10. An inferior academic climate in universities has led to academic Fraud (plagiarism, fabricated references, student impersonation etc)
11. Universities rely on government/private funding to carry out their activities.
12. Lack of funds to recruit faculties has made many Professors resign for better paying jobs in other countries as others go on strike for better pay.

13. Stakeholders (DCVs, Deans, HODs, Librarians, Finance

officers, and QAOs) are involved in decision making on

development projects

14. How often do you hold meetings to deliberate on quality of

education in this university? -----.

15. How is the University curriculum tuned for labor market?

16. Is this an inclusive institution? _____ If yes, what physical facilities are

available for the special needs students _____

17. Are these physical facilities sufficient for learners? _____

18. Which accreditation and assessment procedures do you use to ensure quality is

Achieved _____

19. How do you promote a quality assurance culture in this university?

20. Which challenges are facing higher education in provision of quality education in Kenya?

Questionnaire for Finance Officer

Besides each of the statements presented below, please indicate whether you Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree

No	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
----	-----------	----	---	---	---	----

1. University education has a funding system in place

2. The funding system accounts for all expenditures of students

No	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
----	-----------	----	---	---	---	----

3. Lack of funds to recruit faculties has made many

Professors resign for better paying jobs in other countries

as others go on strike for better pay.

4 The high levels of poverty within many households may

force some children to drop out of College to seek employment

to support their family's meager resources.

5. There is a shortage of physical facilities for teaching and learning

in the university

7. Universities rely on government/private funding to carry out

their activities

8. About what % of students pay fees late? _____

Questionnaire for QAOs

Besides each of the statements presented below, please indicate whether you Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree

No	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
----	-----------	----	---	---	---	----

1. CUE maintains standards, quality and relevance in all aspects of

University education in relation to labour market.

2. External quality assurance bodies assess the quality of HEIs

Through accreditation, quality audit or evaluation.

3. Internal quality assurance mechanisms have been put in place in

this university

4. How often do you hold meetings to deliberate on quality of education in this university -

-----.

SECTION D: CONSTITUTIONAL REQUIREMENTS ON QUALITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Besides each of the statements presented below, please indicate whether you strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree

No	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
----	-----------	----	---	---	---	----

5. Admissions Policy will affect Quality of Higher Education if every

County will have a University.

6. Funding Policy will be negatively affected if every County will have

a University.

7. Inclusive Policy in Universities will help promote Quality

of Higher Education.

8. Having a University in every County in the country will positively affect Quality of Higher Education.

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR STUDENTS

1. How many times do you meet lecturers per semester per unit? _____

2. Are you given course outlines per unit?

3. How often do you get a feedback e.g. CATS, Exams _____ -

4. Do you get books you want in the library?

5. Will the establishment of a University in every County affect quality of higher education in any way? _____ (briefly explain)

6. Are professors/lecturers in Universities mostly intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to conduct the research they want or teach the content they like? _____

APPENDIX IV: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION



NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241348, 3310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete
Off Waiyaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/19/2612/28841**

Date: **15th March, 2019**

Moses Soita Wekesa,
University of Eldoret,
P.O Box 1125-30100,
ELDORET

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*Assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected universities , Kenya*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Bungoma, Kakamega and Uasin Gishu Counties** for the period ending **15th March, 2020**.

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, Bungoma, Kakamega and Uasin Gishu Counties** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit a **copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.

G. Kalerwa
GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

[Signature]
COUNTY COMMISSIONER
UASIN GISHU COUNTY
22/03/2019


Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Bungoma County.

The County Director of Education
Bungoma County.

APPENDIX V: RESERCH PERMIT

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT: **Permit No. : NACOSTI/P/19/2612/28841**
MR. MOSES SOITA WEKESA **Date Of Issue : 15th March,2019**
of UNIVERSITY OF ELDORET, 1125-30100 **Fee Received :Ksh 2000**
ELDORET,has been permitted to conduct
research in Bungoma , Kakamega ,
Uasin-Gishu Counties
on the topic: ASSESSMENT OF THE
EFFECTS OF ACCESS POLICIES ON
QUALITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN
SELECTED UNIVERSITIES , KENYA
for the period ending:
15th March,2020



[Signature] *[Signature]*
Applicant's Signature **Director General**
National Commisssion for Science, Technology & Innovation



REPUBLIC OF KENYA
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

State Department for Early Learning & Basic Education

Mobile : 0721820731
 Email: cdeuasingishucounty@yahoo.com
 : cdeuasingishucounty@gmail.com
 When replying please quote:

Office of The County Director of Education,
 Uasin Gishu County,
 P.O. Box 9843-30100,
ELDORET.

Ref: No. MOEST/UGC/TRN/9/VOI. III/78

22ND MAY, 2019

Moses Soita Wekesa,
 University of Eldoret,
 P O Box 1125-30100,
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

This office has received a request from your institution to authorize you to carry out research on "*Assessment of the effects of access policies on Quality of Higher Education in selected Universities, " Within Uasin Gishu County.*"

We wish to inform you that the request has been granted until **15th March, 2020.** The authorities concerned are therefore requested to give you maximum support.

We take this opportunity to wish you well during this data collection.

Michael Psinen
 For: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
UASIN GISHU.





MOI UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR
ACADEMICS, RESEARCH AND EXTENSION

Tel: (053) 43355
(053) 43620
Fax: (053) 43412
Email: dvc_are@moiu.ac.ke or dvcaresearchmu@gmail.com

P.O. Box 3900
Eldoret - 30100
Kenya

REF: MU/DVC/RRB/27B

Date: 4th April, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA -- WEKESA MOSES SOITA

The above subject matter refers.

Mr. Wekesa Moses Soita who is a Doctoral Student at University of Eldoret has applied for authority to collect data at Moi University. We would be grateful if he is permitted to conduct his research on "*Assessment of the Effects of Access Policies on Quality of Education in Selected Universities in Kenya*".


By a copy of this letter authority is hereby granted to him to conduct the research.

After the completion of the research, a complete report both on hard and soft copy will be handed over to the office of Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Academics, Research & Extension.

Any assistance accorded to him will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,


PROF. I. N. KIMENGI, Ph.D.
 DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
 (ACADEMICS, RESEARCH & EXTENSION)



**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2211349, 3310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete
Off Wajaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/19/2612/28841**

Date: **15th March, 2019**

Moses Soita Wekesa,
University of Eldoret,
P.O. Box 1125-30100,
ELDORET

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*Assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected universities, Kenya*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Bungoma, Kakamega and Uasin Gishu Counties** for the period ending **15th March, 2020**.

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, Bungoma, Kakamega and Uasin Gishu Counties** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit a **copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.


GODFREY P. KALERWA MSc., MBA, MKIM
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO


COUNTY COMMISSIONER
UASIN GISHU COUNTY
15/3/2019

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Bungoma County.

The County Director of Education
Bungoma County.



P. O. Box 1125 - 30100, Eldoret, Kenya
Tel: +254 53 2063257 / 2033712/13 Ext. 2352/3
Mob: 0736 493555; Fax: +254 53 206 3257
E-mail: dvicepres@ueld.ac.ke
Website: www.uoeld.ac.ke

**OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
(PLANNING, RESEARCH & EXTENSION)**



**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EARLY LEARNING AND BASIC EDUCATION**

Telephone: 056 - 30411
 Fax : 056 - 31307
 E-mail : wespropde@yahoo.com
 When replying please quote

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
 KAKAMEGA COUNTY
 P. O. BOX 137 - 40100
 KAKAMEGA

REF: KAK. C/GA/29/17 VOL. VI/4

2nd May, 2019

Moses Soita Wekesa,
 University of Eldoret,
 P.O. Box 1125-30100,
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

The above has been granted permission by National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation vide their letter Ref: NACOSTI/P/19/2612/28841 dated 15th March, 2019, to carry out research on "**Assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected universities, Kenya in Kakamega county among other counties** for a period ending 15th March, 2020.

Please accord him any necessary assistance he may require.

DICKSON O. OGONYA
 COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
 KAKAMEGA COUNTY



CC:
 The Regional Coordinator of Education
WESTERN REGION

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



THE PRESIDENCY
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR & CO-ORDINATION OF
NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Office Mobile No: 0707 085260
 Email-cckakamega12@yahoo.com

When replying please quote

Ref No: **ED/12/1/VOL.IV/121**

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
 KAKAMEGA COUNTY
 P O BOX 43-50100
 KAKAMEGA.

Date: 02/05/2019

Moses Soita Wekesa,
 University of Eldoret,
 P.O Box 1125-30100,
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your authorization vide letter Ref: NACOSTI/P/19/2612/28841 dated 15th March, 2019 by NACOSTI to undertake research on "*Assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected universities, Kenya.*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out the research on the same.


 COUNTY COMMISSIONER
 KAKAMEGA COUNTY
V. CHERONO
FOR: COUNTY COMMISSIONER
KAKAMEGA COUNTY.



MASINDE MULIRO UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Tel: 056-31375

Fax: 056-30153

E-mail: rel@mmust.ac.ke

Website: www.mmust.ac.ke

P. O. Box 190

Kakamega

50100

Kenya

Office of the Director Research and Postgraduate Support

MMU/COR: 403008(8)

27th March, 2019

Moses Soita Wekesa,
University of Eldoret,
P.O Box 1125-30100,
ELDORET.

Dear Mr. Wekesa,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

You have been authorized to collect data on your research on "**Assessment of Effects of Access Policies on Quality of Higher Education in Selected Universities Kenya**". You are required to observe ethical issues in the process of data collection. The respondents at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST) are therefore requested to cooperate so as to facilitate the research process to proceed smoothly.

Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology requires you to deposit a copy of the findings of the research to this office once it is completed.

Thank you

Rev. Prof. Achoka, JSK

DIRECTOR, RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE SUPPORT

Copy to: All Deans
Registrar (AA)

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



THE PRESIDENCY
 MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND COORDINATION OF NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Telephone: 055- 30326
 FAX: 055-30326
 E-mail: ccbungoma@yahoo.com
 When replying please Quote

Office of the County Commissioner
 P.O. Box 550 - 50200

BUNGOMA

Date: 2nd May, 2019

REF:ADM.15/13/VOL.11/54

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION - MR. MOSES SOITA WEKESA

Reference is here made on the letter Ref; NACOSTI/P/19/2612/28841 dated 15th March, 2019 from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation on the above subject.

The bearer of this letter Mr. Moses Soita Wekesa who is a student at Mount Kenya University has sought authority to carry out research on, "*Assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected universities, Kenya*" for a period ending 15th March, 2020.

Authority is hereby granted for the specific period and any assistance accorded to him in this pursuit would be highly appreciated by this office.

L.N. Walukhu
 For: County Commissioner
BUNGOMA COUNTY





REPUBLIC OF KENYA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
State Department of Education – Bungoma County

When Replying please quote
e-mail: bungomacde@gmail.com

County Director of Education
P.O. Box 1620-50200
BUNGOMA

Ref No: BCE/DE/19/VOL.III/154

Date: 2nd May, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

**RE: AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH – MOSES SOITA WEKESA
NACOSTI/P/19/2612/28841**

The bearer of this letter Moses Soita Wekesa of Mount Kenya University has been authorized to carry out research on *"Assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of high education in selected universities Kenya"* for a period ending **15th March, 2020.**

Kindly accord him the necessary assistance



JEMIMAH E. MAINA
For: COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
BUNGOMA COUNTY



KIBABII UNIVERSITY

Knowledge for Development

Tel: 020 - 2928660 / 0708 - 085934 / 0734 - 831729
P.O. Box 1699 - 50200
Bungoma
Kenya

E-mail: enquiries@kibu.ac.ke /
administration@kibu.ac.ke
Website: <http://www.kibu.ac.ke>

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY REGISTRAR (ADMINISTRATION & HUMAN RESOURCE)

Ref: KIBU/ADM/CORR.90/VOL.2-2014/3

Date: 28th March, 2019

Mr. Moses Soita Wekesa,

Dear Mr. Wekesa,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA ON ASESMENT OF THE EFFECTS OF ACCESS POLICIES ON QUALITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES

Reference is hereby made to your letter dated 15th March, 2019 on the above subject.

I am pleased to inform you that your request for permission to collect data on assessment of the effects of access policies on quality of higher education in selected universities was approved.

I take this opportunity to wish you success as you undertake this academic assignment within Kibabii University.

Yours sincerely,

Martin Shikuku,

AG. DEPUTY REGISTRAR (ADMINISTRATION & HR)

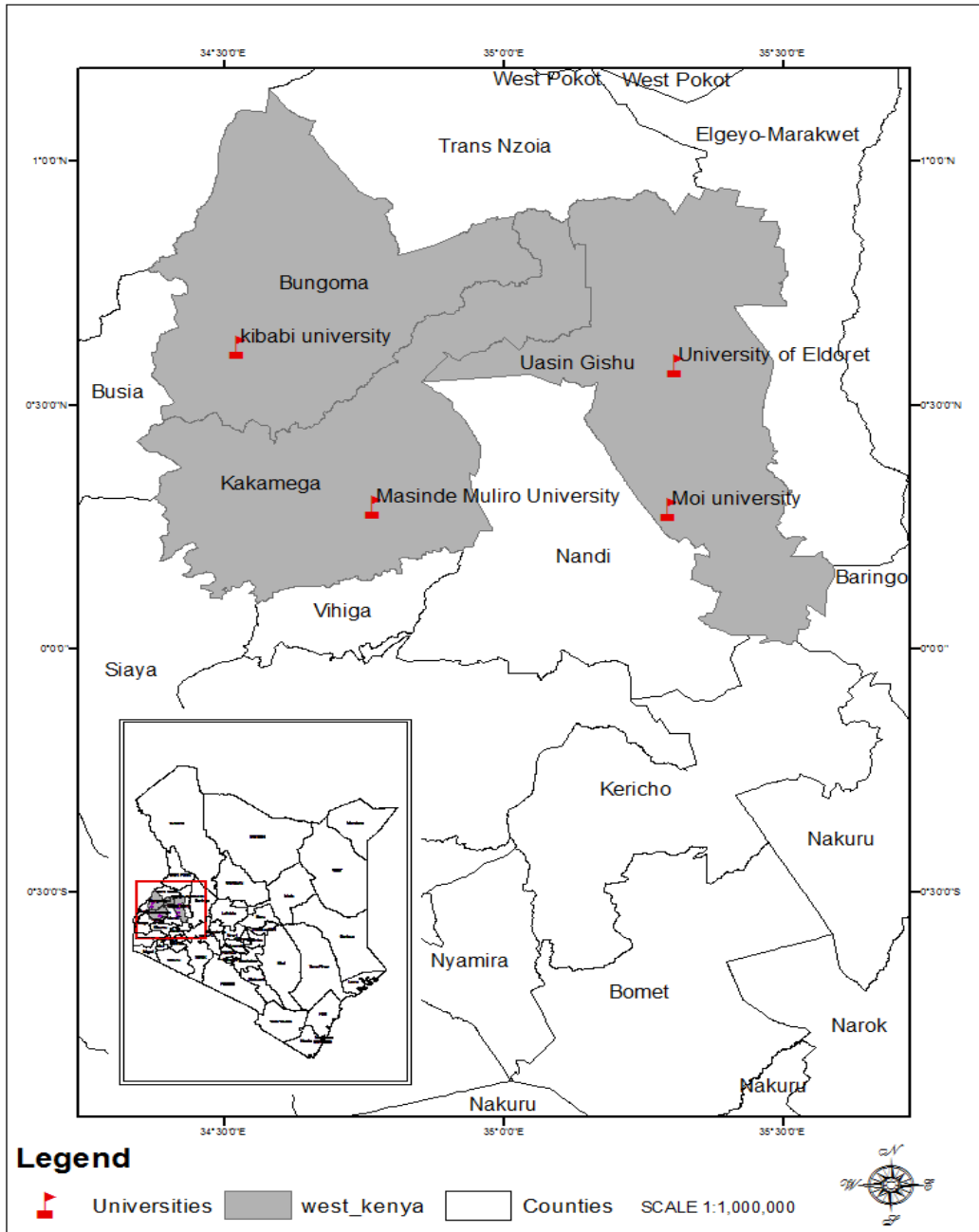
Copy to: - Vice Chancellor
- Deputy Vice Chancellor (AF&D) } To note on file

jw



Kibabii University ISO 9001:2015 Certified
Knowledge for development

APPENDIX VI: MAP OF SITE OF STUDY



(Source: Bungoma county office, 2018)


APPENDIX VII: SIMILLARITY REPORT

Turnitin Originality Report

Processed on: 18-May-2021 09:57 EAT
 ID: 1588606878
 Word Count: 50885
 Submitted: 1

EDU/PGPL/002/16 By Soita Wekesa Moses

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