



## Some reflections on the expansion and quality of higher education in public universities in Kenya

Daniel N. Sifuna

**To cite this article:** Daniel N. Sifuna (2010) Some reflections on the expansion and quality of higher education in public universities in Kenya, *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 15:4, 415-425, DOI: [10.1080/13596748.2010.526803](https://doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2010.526803)

**To link to this article:** <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2010.526803>



Published online: 13 Dec 2010.



Submit your article to this journal [↗](#)



Article views: 196



View related articles [↗](#)



Citing articles: 2 View citing articles [↗](#)

## Some reflections on the expansion and quality of higher education in public universities in Kenya

Daniel N. Sifuna\*

*Department of Educational Foundations, School of Education, Nairobi, Kenya*

*(Received 27 July 2010; final version received 17 September 2010)*

This article explores the socio-economic and political factors which have contributed to the rapid expansion of education in the public universities in Kenya and how it has impacted on the quality of education in these institutions. It mainly focuses on the response to insatiable public demands for university education in the country as well as historical and regional inequalities and how the expansion has affected the quality in terms of facilities and teaching and learning technologies, staffing and instruction. Finally, the article proposes some measures of improving the quality of education in the public universities in the country.

**Keywords:** expansion; quality of higher education; public universities

### Introduction

Since the achievement of independence 1963, Kenya has experienced an unprecedented expansion of university education. This was largely influenced by the country's decision to place considerable importance on the role of education in promoting economic, social and political development as well as a response to historical and regional inequalities. These factors resulted in the rapid expansion of education at all levels, but especially at the university level to provide qualified personnel for the growing public and private administrative institutions. The rapid growth in university education in particular has had a far reaching effect on its quality.

It has been noted that the notion of quality is hard to define precisely, particularly in the context of tertiary education where institutions have broad autonomy to decide on their own visions and missions. Any statement about quality implies a certain relative measure against a common standard in tertiary education, which generally does not exist. Various concepts have evolved to suit different contexts ranging from quality as a measure for excellence to quality as perfection, quality as value for money, quality as customer satisfaction, quality as fitness for purpose, and quality as a transformation of the learner (SAUVCA 2002). Some tertiary institutions have gone to the extent of adopting the International Standards Office (ISO) approach in some of their activities, which in many cases hardly address the deterioration of their learning environments. However, depending on the definition or criteria selected, quality implies a relative measure of inputs, processes, outputs or learning outcomes. This is because many institutions, donors and the public need some method for obtaining assurance that the institution is keeping its promises to the stakeholders (Materu 2007).

---

\*Email: [daniel.sifuna@ownresearch.org](mailto:daniel.sifuna@ownresearch.org) or [dnsifuna@jambo.co.ke](mailto:dnsifuna@jambo.co.ke)

Therefore the quality of university education, like other levels of education can be measured through an analysis of: (a) inputs such as teaching and non-teaching staff, curricula, facilities and technologies for teaching and learning arrangements for students' catering and institutional management; and (b) outputs such as tests and examinations. However, the ultimate validation of educational quality is relevance, namely the positive impact of learning on the society. Relevance can only be measured in relation to its objectives. If the programme achieves its objectives then it can be said to be relevant.

### **Origin of university expansion**

The first Kenyan-based institution to provide higher education was the Royal Technical College of East Africa situated in Nairobi. Its establishment followed the recommendation of a committee chaired by G.P. Willoughby in 1949 that the then Kenya Government sets up a technical and commercial institute in Nairobi. The East African High Commission assented to an act establishing the college in 1954 after obtaining a Royal Charter for its establishment. The funds for its construction came from the Colonial Development and Welfare Funds. The Asian community in Kenya had in the meantime started an institution of higher learning in memory of the late Mahatima Ghandhi (Ghandhi Memorial Academy). The two institutions were merged into one college in March 1957, and established departments of commerce, science, engineering, domestic science, architecture and surveying. With establishment of the University College Dar es Salaam in Tanzania and the then Makerere University College in Uganda, a Federal University of East Africa was created in 1963. However, following the dissolution of the federal university in 1970, the University College Nairobi became the University of Nairobi (Watson and Furley 1978).

With the achievement of independence in 1963 Kenya, like many of the African countries, placed considerable importance on the role of education in promoting economic, social and political development. This resulted in the rapid expansion of the education system to provide qualified personnel for the growing public and private administrative institutions and to undertake some reforms to reflect the aspirations of an independent state (Court 1974). There were also external factors which contributed to the expansion of education, especially at the higher levels. Among the important ones was the Report of the Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa which met in Addis Ababa in May 1961. The Report among others recommended that African countries place priority on the expansion of secondary and tertiary education (United Nations Economic Commission for Africa/ UNESCO 1961).

The rapid expansion of education was marked at all levels of the system. At the university level, for example, enrolments rose from 452 undergraduates in 1963 to 5454 undergraduates and 1383 postgraduate students in 1983 (Republic of Kenya, 1983). Further expansion was prompted by a presidential directive in 1980 that the government was to establish a second university to the existing University of Nairobi before the end of the 1979–1983 Development Plan period. In January 1981 a Presidential Working Party on the Second University in Kenya was appointed to make general recommendations on the implementation of the government decision to establish a second university.

The decision to establish a second university in the country without much debate and subsequent ones leading to the proliferation of public institutions of higher

learning should be interpreted in the context of wider policy formulation. The policy formulation style in Kenya has always centred on the person of the president. He sets the pace and tone of government policy through slogans and pronouncements. This style normally applies to all spheres of life, such as social, political, economic and educational matters. Most major policy pronouncements in the country are associated with the president who is supposed to be the source of wisdom and the one who gives the policy drive, blessings and legitimacy.

Since a decision had been taken to establish a second university through a presidential directive, the Working Party was not asked to determine whether a second university should be established, but how it was to be done and what shape it was to take. The Working Party therefore, simply confirmed the social demand for university education and repeated the usual statements about the shortage of highly skilled manpower that was claimed to be hampering Kenya's development efforts. The Working Party was not asked to and did not examine the effective demand for university level skills in the economy, even though this should have been considered essential information for the execution of its terms of reference, especially determining in which areas the new university should specialise (Loubser 1983).

On the basis of a report of the Working Party, the government went ahead with the establishment of a second university near Eldoret, on land donated by the Lohnro Group, and UNESCO assisted with the development of detailed plans. The establishment of Moi University as Kenya's second public university and located in the Rift Valley Province, where the then country's president (President Moi) hailed from, could be seen as a political response to factors related to historical and regional inequality, and the Presidential Working party made no secret about these factors. It was noted:

...Further it is now recognized that while some areas of the nation are well served in terms of primary and secondary schools and so have had the possibility of greater access to university education, there are sections of the nation particularly the arid and semi arid areas which have been at a disadvantage in terms of access to education. Attention is now being focused on ways by which such imbalances of opportunity may be addressed. Also those groups which traditionally did not seek out educational opportunities now have begun to appreciate the needs to enroll their sons and daughters. All these things will surely increase public demand for more post-secondary and university education in the country. (Republic of Kenya 1981, 1)

In the context of historical and regional inequality, a number of public universities were subsequently established in the country to satisfy ethnic interests, especially those of the large ethnic groups. Consequently, a good number of the public universities in the country seem to represent ethnic interests in terms of composition of the echelons of administrative as well as academic staff.

There was also the social demand for university education which was high in the country and the government's decision to establish a second university had wide public support for this reason. The enrolment ratio for the 18–23 age group in Kenya at the tertiary level was only around 1% and the majority of these enrolments were not at university. The great demand for formal education at all levels of the education system had been quite difficult to contain. This was due to a noticeable strong relationship between education and the formal sector employment as well as the strong association between the attained level of education and economic rewards. These have tended to increase the public demand for more educational opportunities. As the lower

levels of education become less and less of a guarantee to formal employment, university-level education has had to be sought by an increasing number of Kenyans. Due to the important role formal education plays in legitimising the distribution of rewards in society, the Kenya government has not found it necessary or even desirable to control public demand for university education (Mwiria and Nyukuri 1992). As matter of fact the government has actively supported increased enrolments in public universities irrespective of the institutions' capacity to accommodate increased student numbers. The government has exploited public demand for higher education to politicise decision-making on the future of university education. Such politicisation of the university system in a large measure has contributed to its unplanned expansion and the inevitable funding crisis continually being experienced by the public universities.

A corollary with the insatiable social demand for higher education, expansion in education in general and university education in particular is seen in many quarters of government as a symbol of development. Numbers of student enrolment and institutions are very much cherished by the political leadership. Little doubt that on important occasions during President Moi's era, the public were often reminded of the significant progress the country had made since 1978 (Moi's ascendancy to power) through the number of students enrolled at university level and an increase from one to five public universities.

The creation of autonomous public universities has also been the result of some administrative problems arising from some colleges operating as constituent colleges of fully-fledged universities. A constituent college tends to feel inhibited in its development because key decisions have to be taken on their programmes, especially on academic matters, by university senate of which the college authorities have little or no control. This is often compounded by issues of personality conflicts between the vice-chancellor of the university and the principal of a constituent college. There are numerous examples of administrative issues and personality conflicts that led some constituent colleges to petition the country's president, who for a long time was also the chancellor of all the public universities, to grant them an autonomous status.

As a result of a combination of various factors, Kenya has seven public universities which include; University of Nairobi – which became a fully fledged university following the dissolution of the Federal University of East Africa in 1970, Moi University in 1984, Kenyatta University – which had been operating as a constituent college of the University since 1972 and became autonomous in 1985, this was followed by Egerton University in 1986. The Jomo Kenyatta College of Agriculture and Technology was granted university status in 1988, followed by Maseno University in 1999 and Masinde Muliro in 2006.

An important dimension of expansion of public universities has been the setting up of constituent colleges and satellite campuses. Following the structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) of the 1980s and 1990s initiated by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) which led to reduced government financial support to the public sector including education, public universities in Kenya as in other parts of Africa have adopted entrepreneurial practices and seem to be generating more revenues than they had when they were depending on financing from the exchequer (Oanda 2010). They are achieving this through increasing student enrolments in the main campuses and establishing constituent colleges and satellite campuses in major towns of the country. This process has been facilitated by some decentralisation of part of the administration when in 2003, the president relinquished the position of chancellor of all public universities and appointed some personalities to take over that

Table 1. Growth in public university student enrolment 2003–2008.

Institution	2003–2004	2005–2006	2007–2008	% Increase
Nairobi	26,711	33,705	36,339	36.1
Kenyatta	15,775	15,683	18,593	17.9
Moi	10,447	12,145	14,832	42.0
Egerton	9,352	8,498	12,467	33.3
Jomo Kenyatta	4,657	5,880	7,962	70.9
Maseno	5,607	4,704	5,686	1.4
Masinde Muliro	-	1,062	1,224	15.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>72,549</b>	<b>81,677</b>	<b>97,103</b>	<b>33.8</b>

Source: Republic of Kenya (2003).

position in the different universities. Table 1, which shows student enrolment in the public universities between 2003 and 2008, reflects the phenomenal growth in the institutions.

## Quality of education

### *Facilities and teaching–learning technologies*

Physical planning in the Kenyan public universities is not commensurate with their rate of growth and expansion because as more students are enrolled, the managers of universities continue to accommodate them in the existing facilities. This has often led to an overstretching of such facilities. As a consequence, there is congestion in lecture theatres, workshops, laboratories, libraries and boarding facilities. Research in many of the public universities reveals that faculties with high enrolments mean that lecturers are forced to repeat the same lecture several times to different groups of students due to the inadequate lecture theatres. There are also situations in which students listen to their lecturers through the windows. With as many as 2000 students registered in one faculty especially in the Schools of Education, public address systems are often mounted to enable students to take their notes outside the lecture theatre. In addition to inadequate physical facilities, teaching materials and technologies are in woefully short supply and often archaic as a result of budgetary constraints (Hughes and Mwiria 1990). Furthermore, there is congestion in halls of residence where rooms designed for two students accommodate as many as six students or more. There is also inadequate space in the dining halls which raises tension between students and authorities, a situation which is not conducive to orderly study.

The situation is most deplorable in the sciences and technologies. The required inputs which include adequate laboratory space and workshops as well as spare parts for equipment maintenance and repair, routine replacement and upgrading of equipment, reagents and other consumable supplies is not normally carried out. The following World Bank Report observation made over 20 years ago still aptly applies to the state of university education and its graduates in Kenyan public universities with regard to facilities and teaching and learning technologies:

...chemists who have not done titration; biologists who have not done dissection; physicists who have never measured an electrical current; secondary science teachers who have never witnessed let alone themselves actually conducted the demonstrations



central to the curriculum they teach; agronomists who have never conducted a field trial of any sort; engineers who have never disassembled the machinery they are called upon to operate; social scientists of all types who have never collected, or conducted analysis of their own empirical data; specialists for whom the programming and use of computers is essential who have never sat before or tested a programme on a functioning machine; lawyers who do not have access to recent judicial opinions; medical doctors whose only knowledge of laboratory test procedures is hearing them described in a lecture hall—qualitatively deprived graduates such as those are now appearing in countries that have been hardest hit by the scarcity of non-salary inputs... (World Bank 1988, 75)

Libraries are among the worst hit facilities in public universities. Despite increased enrolments, universities do not invest much in the acquisition of books. Libraries hold less capacity of the required books, most of which are too old. For example at Kenyatta University a library designed to accommodate 600 students by the British Council in the early 1980s now serves over 10,000 students. Apart from inadequate space, most libraries in the public universities cannot afford to contribute to current journals and other scholarly publications from outside Africa. There is also a scarcity of reference materials. Donor agencies have occasionally donated books to universities, but most donations are of very limited value as they are not informed by the recipients' needs. The pathetic situation of study materials has had two consequences. First, students are increasingly relying on lectures as their main source of knowledge, and second, in the absence of the latest scholarly publications in many departments, the quality of post-graduate study and research, through which universities develop their teaching staff has seriously declined.

### **Staffing and instruction**

The massive expansion of enrolments without corresponding increase in the number of teaching staff has meant that staff to student ratio has risen. The staffing of each public university in the country is the mandate of the relevant university board or council. The right to determine who should teach in these universities is considered to be an integral part of the academic freedom, which universities tend to guard jealously and hence there is no central coordinating authority on the staffing of the public universities. There is usually no fixed staff to student ratios. However, based on full-time staff equivalents, programmes in medicine, engineering and related courses in technology should have the lowest ratio followed by science-based courses. Due to very high enrolments however, staff to student ratios tend to mask unbearably high ratios in some departments.

Normally each university has its own staff development scheme. However, there are many indications that due to financial constraints, postgraduate study, which is the basis of staff development does not meet the demands in the university faculties (Cooksey, Court, and Makau 1994). Furthermore, the rapid expansion coupled with growing enrolments has had a far reaching effect on the quality of the teaching staff. To recruit academic staff for the public universities, the tendency has been towards relaxing the recruitment and promotion criteria. In many universities, a PhD degree is no longer a requirement for tenure and publications are a less important criteria for judging who should be promoted. Consequently, many of the academic staff who in the past would not have qualified for university teaching are now doing so. Moreover, due to very low salaries, it is no longer possible to attract competent staff from abroad to teach in the public universities (Sifuna 1997).

Among the major concerns of academic staff is the area of remuneration and conditions and terms of service. With the downturn of the economies characterised by inflation since the 1980s, the purchasing power of university salaries has declined drastically. Many academics have tried to survive by engaging in consultancies or carrying out activities totally unrelated to their profession. This situation has a demoralising effect on the academic staff. As a result of poor remuneration packages which could insulate them from the ravages of inflation, there has been an exodus of some leading academics to other countries that offer better salaries or to the private sector. Generally, public universities compare very poorly with private universities. Although some universities have made efforts to raise salaries in order to attract, motivate and retain highly qualified staff, such changes have been miniscule to meet the magnitude of the problem (Kilemi et al. 2007).

From the poor situation of the teaching and learning environment and the quality and morale of the academic staff, not much is expected in the way of quality of instruction. Many lecturers in public universities use old material (yellow notes), which means that the courses they teach are also out of date (Rosenberg 1997). Coupled with the flight of the best lecturers from the public universities, the situation has more adversely affected the quality of instruction in the public universities. With lack of reading materials, students prefer the familiar expository method of teaching, as they perceive university education to consist primarily of the reproduction of assimilated lecture materials for the purpose of passing examinations. This attitude is reinforced by the fact that resources are so scarce that 'talk and chalk' methodology is the only viable option. Tutorial/seminar discussions which have characterised university teaching approaches since their founding in the medieval period are not practical due to student numbers and a shortage of rooms and lecturers.

There is also the problem of inefficient utilisation of time in the universities since they adopted the semester system. An academic year in such a system consists of two semesters of 14 weeks each. Before the semester system, the university session in one academic year consisted of three terms each which lasted 11 weeks. Since the adoption of the semester system, considering that two weeks are spent on examinations, one week is spent on revision and one week is normally lost at the beginning of every semester due to registration and a slow take-off of the teaching-learning process, the effective teaching time per semester is reduced to less than 10 weeks. This translates into 20 weeks per year or less compared with the calendar time of 29 weeks. A loss of 4 weeks in a semester means 12 weeks, which is equivalent to a whole semester in an academic year. This situation is exacerbated by the lateness of most lecturers in commencing their lectures, partly because a substantial number of them spend a lot of time shuttling between campuses of the same institution or other universities doing extra teaching for extra money. Consequently, lecturers often resort to poor methods of content coverage, such as focusing only on areas which they intend to examine at the end of the semester (Kilemi et al. 2007).

Another equally problematic trend in the general expansion of universities is the tendency on the part of some universities to offer duplicate courses to both regular and self-sponsored students which, arguably, they are not fully qualified to offer. A good example is the provision of studies in medicine. For a long time, it was the University of Nairobi that had a fully-fledged medical school of high repute. The decision by Moi, Kenyatta, Egerton and Maseno to launch medical programmes without requisite resources and facilities has cast serious doubt on the quality of their medical graduates. The proliferation of professional programmes of dubious quality in most of the



public universities is a vindication of the quality assurance institutions. Due to low funding from the government provided to the public institutions of higher learning, their own quality assurance departments are totally incapable of reigning in the unprofessional behaviour of the institutions. This is not to mention the Commission for Higher Education (CHE) whose mandate is to promote the quality of higher education in the country. Since its establishment in the mid-1980s, the commission has largely been concerned with granting charters to the private universities. Its control of public universities has tended to be limited by the fact that each university is granted a lot of autonomy through an act of parliament by which it was established.

One of the ways in which extra funding has been raised locally to meet the cutbacks in public funds has been through securing increased student enrolment at relatively lower costs and changes from grants to student loans. These developments have led to competition for students as well as revenue. However, many of the ways to generate more funds have been clearly market-like behaviours, some of which are for profit and others not for profit. But the manner in which many universities have been implementing these programmes has raised serious doubts on their impact and sustainability. Major areas of concern have centred on competition-driven higher education, resulting in the lack of institutional focus and mission coherence and even destructive competition in which many institutions exclusively focus on fee paying programmes, excessive marketisation and commodification with little attention paid on social and educational goals and insufficient attention on quality. Most of the concerns relate to the quality of programmes provided, lack of legal protection for students who register at satellite campuses, and lack of basic resources. Concerns have also been raised about the academic staff in the public universities who spend the bulk of their time teaching at private institutions and thus, prejudice their main function in the public institutions which employ them. Another concern has been some cases of open fraud in which students are registered and issued with certificates after a very scanty academic exposure (Kendo 2007; Abagi 2007; Maxwell, Pavron, and Fielden 2003). Abagi (2007), a leading educational researcher, in reference to the quality of education in public Kenyan universities captures the current situation as follows:

In a country like ours where industrialization and use of ICT are key development goals, higher education is critical. University education is expected to provide not only high-level professional skills for the labour market, but also training for doctors, engineers, educationists, accountants, social workers, lawyers and entrepreneurs, among other personnel. But what is happening at universities makes the achievement of these expectations questionable. Institutions of higher learning are in a 'massification race' and compete to acquire middle level colleges in the pretext of meeting higher education demand. Universities have abandoned their core responsibilities and have become 'money machines'.

Each university is doing all it can to acquire a college. They do not discriminate who the partners are and where they are located. Any institution—a secondary school, youth polytechnic, institute of technology, teachers' college—qualifies... The academic programmes on offer range from certificate to degree courses in arts, sciences, engineering, ICT, nursing, management and entrepreneurship...

But why the rush for affiliation on a massive scale? The answer is not to satisfy demand for higher education—it is a desperate strategy to raise additional income... Where does the additional income go? Little is ploughed back to fund the core business of universities—research, creation and dissemination of knowledge and buying new books and journals... The bulk of the money is directed to goods and services, including construction

of more hostels, painting buildings, renovating managers' offices, buying luxury vehicles and funding trips abroad... (Abagi 2007)

A close examination of other proxy indicators of quality point to a very discouraging trend; the high population of students sitting supplementary examinations or retakes, the poor quality of examination answers and the poor remuneration for lecturers all imply low quality of education. There are also indications of a decline not only in the level of participation in class, but also in the quality of verbal and written communication. This has been the reason for mounting of common foundation courses such as development studies and communication skills. Such courses, however, have not had much impact as students do not take them as seriously compared to what they consider to be their core courses. Furthermore, students in the overcrowded classes have limited meaningful interaction with their lecturers. External examinations which are meant to maintain some semblance of quality, have not helped much as some of the external examiners tend to pay more attention to minor issues such as marking and the distribution of marks instead of the quality of students' answers, and end up writing superficial and unhelpful reports (Sifuna and Sawamura 2010).

## Conclusion

This article has shown that socio-economic and political factors have greatly contributed to the rapid expansion of education in the public universities in Kenya. These have included the response to insatiable public demands for university education in the country as well as historical and regional inequalities. The expansion has seriously affected the quality of education, especially facilities and teaching and learning technologies, staffing and instruction.

Measures to improve the quality of higher education through teaching and research remains the principal objective as long-term development goals cannot be met without developments in university education in the country. While it is appreciated that improvements in quality are unavoidably expensive, to a great extent the low provision of resources to public universities stems from weaknesses in planning and management. For some time, long-term planning for the university sub-sector has received little attention, with the government allocating small grants in relation to increased enrolments. Ad hoc decisions affecting university budgets, often reflecting undue response to social demand, led to the erosion of standards as well as uncoordinated expansion. Equally important has been the management within universities that has generally been inefficient. There have been some cases of misuse of funds and a neglect of facilities and equipment, over-establishment of non-teaching staff and others.

The improvement of quality can be achieved through a variety of measures. Urgent attention should be paid to the establishment and gradual implementation of standards of provision for the full range of inputs to teaching and research. The provision of libraries with the necessary books and periodicals should be the highest priority, closely followed by supplying laboratories and workshops with consumables and materials needed for equipment maintenance and repair. The revival of long-term efforts to upgrade the academic qualifications of staff is also quite essential through postgraduate training in masters and doctoral programmes. There is also a need to offer postdoctoral fellowships, faculty exchanges, collaborative research and other professional linkages with foreign and Kenyan universities through which academics

are exposed to new developments in research and curricula in their fields. Equally important is the strengthening of national quality assurance institutions to monitor public universities' academic programmes and ensure an upgrading of delivery systems.

The tendency towards the expansion of public universities through absorptions of middle level institutions needs to be halted. Some tertiary institutions, individual campuses, academic departments, and some teaching programmes need to be amalgamated into larger units of economically viable and efficient units. Personnel reductions, especially of non-teaching staff needs to be further downsized as a way of reducing costs and increasing the average level of relevant training and experience of those who remain, especially those in the academic positions. The tendency to poach academic staff into mainstream university administration should also be halted. The number of students at most institutions needs to be stabilised, by tightening admission and performance standards. Such consolidation in public universities will help in re-establishing an economically and pedagogically viable base from which to expand the number of graduates and the scope of research for intellectual enhancement. There is also the need to recruit and train competent management personnel. At the national level attention should be paid to realistic and effective long-term planning and strengthening partnerships of key stakeholders including university authorities, students, the government, community and the private sector.

### Notes on contributor

Daniel N. Sifuna is a Professor of History of Education and International and Comparative Education in the Department of Educational Foundations at Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya.

### References

- Abagi, O. 2007. Universities' expansion has become a joke. *The Standard*, May 27.
- Cooksey, B., D. Court, and B.M. Makau. 1994. Education for self-reliance and Harambee. In *Beyond Capitalism versus Socialism in Kenya and Tanzania*, ed. J.D. Barkan. London: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Court, D. 1974. Dilemmas of development: The village polytechnic movement as a shadow system of education in Kenya. In *Education, society and development: New perspectives from Kenya*, ed. D. Court and D. Ghai. Nairobi, Oxford University Press.
- Hughes, R., and K. Mwiria. 1990. An essay on the implications of university expansion in Kenya, *Higher Education*, 19, no. 2: 215–37.
- Kendo, O. 2007. Bad planning undermining university programmes. *The Standard*, April 26.
- Kilemi, M., N. Njuguna, C.K. Ngome, V.K. Wawire, D. Wesonga and G. Ouma. 2007. *Public and private universities in Kenya: New challenges, issues and achievements*. Oxford and Nairobi: James Currey and East African Educational Publishers.
- Loubser, J.J. 1983. *Human resource development in Kenya: An overview*. Quebec: Canadian International Development Agency.
- Materu, P. 2007. *Higher education quality assurance in sub-Saharan Africa: Status, challenges, opportunities and promising practices*. Washington: World Bank.
- Maxwell, J., D. Pavron, and J. Fielden. 2003. *State controlled or market driven? The regulation of private universities in the Commonwealth*. Pretoria: SAUVCA.
- Mwiria, K., and M.S. Nyukuri. 1992. *The management of double intakes: A case of Kenyatta University*. Paris: International Institute for International Planning/UNESCO.
- Oanda, I.O. 2010. Neo-Liberalism and the subversion of academic freedom from within: Money, corporate cultures and captured intellectuals in African public universities. Paper presented at the CODESRIA Conference on Academic Freedom and the Social Responsibility of the Intellectuals in Africa, March 9–11, in Oran, Algeria.

- Republic of Kenya. 1981. *Second university in Kenya: Report of the Presidential Working Party*. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya. 1983. *Kenya official handbook*. Nairobi.
- Republic of Kenya. 2003. *Economic surveys, 2003 to 2008*. Nairobi: Government Printer.
- Rosenberg, D. 1997. *University libraries in Africa: A review of their current state and future potential*. London: International African Institute.
- Sifuna, D.N. 1997. *The governance of Kenyan public universities*. Nairobi: Lyceum Educational Consultants.
- Sifuna, D.N., and N. Sawamura. 2010. *Challenges of quality education in sub-Saharan African countries*. New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- South African University Chancellors' Association (SAUVCA). 2002. *Quality assurance in South African universities*. Views from SAUVCA's National Quality Assurance Forum.
- United Nations Economic Commission for Africa/UNESCO. 1961. *Final report: Conference of African states on the development of education for Africa*. Addis Ababa.
- Watson, T., and O.W. Furley. 1978. *A history of education in east Africa*. New York: NOK Publishers.
- World Bank. 1988. *Education in sub-Saharan Africa: Policies for adjustment, revitalisation and expansion*. Washington: The World Bank.