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Ssemugenyi Fred [α] & Amboka Asumwa Augustine [σ]

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Keywords: institutional coma, capitalism, complacence, profit making dogma, sabotage for survival, commodification of knowledge, and consumerlization of learning.

I. Introduction

This article takes readers from the developments of the last quarter of the 19th Century through the contemporary malaise of postmodernism, neoliberalism and the so-called 'knowledge economy' of academic capitalism in higher institutions of learning. The period in question witnessed a chaotic yet radical sweep in the management of higher education and in the attitude of government actors, donors, development partners, parents and guardians across the globe. It was a time for change Kezar (2017); although most universities were ill prepared to address the intensification of the managerialist governance of academia at that time Kezar (2017 and Jesse, 2016). Drawing upon the writings of Henry Heller (2016), it is evident that American universities had become battlegrounds in the struggle between 'liberatory knowledge and commodified learning.' His candid analysis of the evolution of American Higher Education constitutes a significant and timely contribution to the current debate in this article.

In Uganda and Kenya for example, nothing was happening in this regard, for a few public universities were comfortable with the rigid traditional model whose credence was perhaps adequate and fitting to the traditional societies at the time but a blockade to progress and modernization as some scholars put it (Sicherman, 2005). Whatever the case, university education back in the days was prestigious, rewarding and fitting until it was made open after liberalization (Bisaso, 2010; Court, 1999; Kasozi, 2000). Noted with evidence is the fact that higher education in the recent past was associated with the creation of a community of scholars with a certain degree of freedom, independence and unity (Sintayehu, 2018). However, this submission seems idealistic in the face of the pragmatists who believe that university education in the days of old was free from innovations, creativity, discoveries and knowledge creation (Ssemugenyi 2019, Assie Lumumba 2006). Samoff & Bidemi (2003) and Obamba (2009) aver that Africa's higher education has largely remained a peripheral appendage to the global knowledge architecture for years. Innovation does not happen in a vacuum, but requires openness and interactions between systems and their environments OECD (2016), the old higher education system seemed less capable of creating space for new innovations (Sintayehu, 2018). It was so closed, far from knowledge creation and access, and infested with complacency (Ssemugenyi 2019). No wonder little or no remarkable

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discoveries can be sighted in our local universities since time immemorial.

In an effort to establish a competitive edge governments of Uganda and Kenya opened up higher education system through liberalization reforms of the early 1990s (John et al 2012). The intention was to develop a motivated workforce, well equipped with skills and knowledge to meet the demands of the day (Ruth 2014 cited in Les 2014). Innovations of varying degree started emerging from this time across universities, demand for higher education bulged, universities grew in size and number, inter-university competition and thirst for dominancy among universities took a central focus in the affairs of higher education (John et al 2012). The entrance of private individuals and organizations into higher education to compliment governments' effort and entertaining private sponsored students in public universities commercialized higher education to a great deal. In one of her interviews, Ruth Mukulu a the then distinguished academic at Makerere University, reported that quality had drastically gone down due to big enrollments that over stretched resources too thinly in pursuit of academic excellence. This observation corroborates with Lumumba (2006) whose conclusion claims that the current major problem of higher education in Kenya is inadequate funding.

Drawing from this observation, Makerere University diversified its financial base by encouraging privatization, commercializing service units and institutionalizing consultancy arrangements (David 1999). This alone moved the university from non-paid for institution to one where over 70% were paying. This radical sweep was not only limited to Makerere University alone but rather, a practice that consistently engulfed most universities in the region such as; Nairobi University, Moi University, Jomo Kenyata University of Agriculture and Technology and so on (Otieno 2010).

Changes in education provision for relevance have not been easy to initiate or sustain. It is one thing to desire change, yet quite another to know how to go about it. This deliberate move to open up higher education was in itself a good idea, but no appropriate mechanism was put in place to assure quality compliance (Les 2014). University education became education for all, almost 'free to everyone' and free from knowledge, lecturer-student ratio bulged beyond the desired level, lecturer contact time reduced significantly since they had to attend to so many students and at the same time offer lectures in private universities, attend to their private consultancies and so on. The same period witnesses the emergence of student strikes in demand for better services, accountability and value for money (Bunoti 2010). The era of capitalism had ushered in quietly and unnoticeably (Ssemugenyi 2019). The thirst for profit maximization in both public and private universities widely opened the gates of higher education to decadence. Inter-university competition shifted from problem solving through innovations and discoveries to dirty games of elimination and survival. Institutions became centres of political battlefields where the weak is eliminated from the race through sabotage; a practice that has infested private universities until recently (Kyolaba, 2012). Oversight institutions such as National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) for Uganda and Commission for University Education for Kenya which are meant to ensure quality compliance are run by senior academics who have direct and indirect association with the universities they are supposed to supervise (Jon, 2015). This with no doubt breeds conflict of interest which impairs their regulatory mandate.

Despite these unhealthy practices, higher education remains a necessary pathway for social mobility as well as meeting the workforce demands of the knowledge economy (Findler, 2019). In part, the system empowers workers and citizens while on the other hand balances the delicate economic space between demand and supply (Shin 2019). This seems to be the common denominator in the perceptual reasoning of the present day elites and those parents and guardians whose education status is questionable but think that it is only higher education that can empower and equip their children with the necessary tools to excel in life. Much as a sizable body of literature conforms to this kind of reasoning in most societies across the world, there is no sufficient evidence to qualify it as a pre-condition for success in most African societies (Brannelly et al, 2011)

a) Research Problem

Much as it is observably valid to imagine higher education as a source of progress, growth and development, it is completely unwise to lock your imaginations down to the results of the system rather than to the processes through which such results are processed. Higher education seems to have lost the script in the case of Uganda and Kenya, massive production of half-baked graduates time and again is a testimony to this dilution. The system is infested with compounded mediocrity, limited funding, infringement of academic freedom, and complacence, (Cooper, 2015). Consistently, Paul (2018) submits that most African universities have become neo-liberal institutions characterized by corporatization of management, consumerization of students, casualization of faculty, commercialization of learning, and commodification of knowledge. This observation fits the candid historical scholarly work of Henry (2016) whose analysis reduces Africa's higher education to nothing but rather battlegrounds for profit making.

In Kenya, the increased commercialization of higher education is a theme that has attracted considerable attention (Awiti, 2017). In response to changes in traditional sources of funding, many universities, public and private, have opted to source

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revenue from the marketplace, a practice that has exposed higher education to deficiency (Martin, 2018). This study is purposely conceptualized to contribute to the ongoing debate and to share with the world the danger of reducing higher education to commodities for sale.

b) Research Objectives

i. To determine the effect of complacence among regulatory bodies' on the quality of higher education systems in Kenya and Uganda.
ii. To examine the effect of profit maximization dogma on the quality of higher education systems in Kenya and Uganda.
iii. To assess the effect of inter-university competition for students on the quality of higher education systems in Kenya and Uganda.
iv. To analyze the effect of inter-university sabotage on the quality of higher education systems in Kenya and Uganda.

II. Literature Review

This literature review is undertaken to bring out the gaps in the existing body of literature and enhance knowledge related to the effect of capitalism on the quality of higher education in Kenya and Uganda.

a) Capitalism in Higher Learning

University education has been crucial for economic growth and poverty eradication among other benefits (Akyol, 2016). However, in the absence of right systems, procedures and execution frameworks, university education may promote social unrest and political instability although this is subject to debate (Jury.M et al, 2017). In Africa in particular, there have been some arguments against the idea that university education is the route to development based on the contention that the greater the investment in university education, the greater the burden to the African states (Uetela, 2017). This is practically true in Uganda and Kenya; (Kiptoo, 2013), 'massification' of higher education is not matched with employment creation in the region and it is undoubtedly correct to assume that the social and political instability in these two countries is triggered by these groups whose critical examination of systems is nurtured into them right from the university. The students action is not however simply reactionary, as they too, as change agents have their own agenda that evolves over time as they seize opportunities created by the policy shortcomings to pursue it (Kiptoo, 2013).

In contrast to these views, a sizable body of literature suggests that university education is still a major denominator in determining income, production of public and private benefits (Fred 2019). This seems to agree with (D. Black and J. Smith 2004, Kent Hill *et all* 2005), whose remarks suggest that higher education is a cornerstone for individual and society development. However, one thing that can be said with a lot of confidence is the fact that these remarks irrespective of the sense imbedded in them, are too minor to have influenced what could be referred to as the 'misguided commoditization' or commercialization of higher education in the region.

The World Bank remarks are in themselves fitting and adequate to explain this move (Fred 2019). The Bank claimed that the rate of return on investment in higher education was much lower than that in secondary or primary education, and that the benefit was mainly private (Mahmood Mamdani, 2008). The Bank further advised African states to reduce funding to higher education. The period 1990s witnessed the emergency of reforms in higher education that were in line with the World Bank directive.

In an attempt to socialize herself with this directive, the government of Uganda through Makerere University aggressively opened up higher education to privately sponsored students (Kasozi, 2016). The era of capitalism had begun at this time (Olivier, 2014); massive introduction of new academic programs began, unhealthy competition among faculties to who owns students and courses (Mahmood Mamdani, 2008), duplication of courses and programs, dilution of research culture, and so on. This was not only synonymous to Makerere University; it was the same case in Nairobi University too in the later years.

Private universities which also came into the picture by the same reforms of 1990s following the implementation of neo-liberal policies deserve mention in this paper, for the commercialization of higher education became more intense with their entry (James, 2016). Higher education was reduced to merchandise only to be traded for profits (Paul Tiyambeza, 2018). Financial support limited to tuition fees makes private universities run variety of programs as a strategy expand their financial base and chances of survival (National Council for Higher Education, 2012).

Again, reports indicate that many private university owners in Kenya at the expense of quality; recruit junior academics whose bargaining power is low as a strategy to reduce operational cost (Otieno, 2010). In Uganda on the other hand, private universities are fond of mixing ownership and management (Kasozi, 2016). Reports indicate that, institutional owners often interfered in the management of universities, especially in the financial affairs of institutions, in hiring, firing of staff and in protocol areas, Kasozi adds.

b) Inter-University Competition for Student Enrollment

With privatization, governments cut down their financial support to public universities on the assumption that money collected from private students is enough to support operations. Whereas this may be theoretically valid both in style and design, practically it

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is far from the reality (Katusiimeh, 2020). Student enrollment has gone down due to stiff competition for students among universities. In 2018, it was reported by one of the local newspaper in Kenya (The Standard) that some institutions of higher learning were scrambling to enroll more students into their certificate and diploma courses as a strategy to remain afloat (The Standard Team, 2018). On the same account, Prof Laban Ayiro, acting Vice Chancellor of Moi University, said: "Universities will have to accept that resources from privately sponsored students have decreased and are no longer dependable in implementation of great developments."

The situation is getting worse as the number of private education providers increases against a slow production rate from primary and secondary schools (Katusiime, 2020). Survival of private universities is questionable as most of them can't recruit a sizable number of students to sanitize their financial base (Katusiime, 2020 & Tibarimbasa, 2010). This is consistent with (Dei Daniel, 2019) whose claims allude to the fact that, due to the shrinking revenue, universities have resorted to all possible shroud ways to remain financially sound. This alone has gotten adverse consequences on the quality of service offered by these universities at the end of the day.

The drive for profit maximization among the executive leaders of universities, and the heads of entrepreneurial units in research and teaching, is perceived as the major cause of 'academic capitalism (Aduda, 2017). A more thoroughgoing entrepreneurial mindset has emerged, where academic products and tradition are subordinated to profitability and market share (Kasozi 2016).

c) Profit Making Dogma

In Kenya, commercialization of higher education is widespread and many services are for sale (Edwards et al, 2016). This practice is not synonymous to Kenya and Uganda but rather, a wide spread phenomenon driven by the North (John, 2012). In Nigeria for example, it is reported that proliferation of degree mills or "universities" operating in the country without the authorization of the National University Commission of Nigeria are growing in number (Mohmood Mamdani, 2008). Okojie (2010) in response to this reiterates despite the criteria set by the Federal Government of Nigeria, there are quite a number of illegal tertiary institutions operating in the country with one central focus of profit making. In the United Kingdom for example, universities' focus has shifted from 'just for money' to value for money or fit for purpose with much attention to adequate student preparation for the Fourth Industrial Revolution, ideal citizenry, academic excellence, employability, and purposeful learning for the desired change (House of Commons Report, 2018).

The marketization of higher education has led to the term "value for money" becoming embedded in public discourse. Whereas this may be true in some parts of the world like the UK and so on, in Africa it is still rhetorical, it is one of the statements widely said across higher education with no meaning attached to it (Neave Guy, 2006). This is justified in what universities charge visa vie what they offer to students (Dei Daniel, 2019).

Whereas it is claimed by Kasozi (2016) that church founded universities are more focused and nonprofit-driven as opposed to individual owned universities, his observation is not guided by any empirical evidence, but rather mere sentiments which may be in our opinion undeserving in any serious discourse. In fact attention is placed on evangelism and discipleship than providing higher education (Francis Otto & benon Musinguzi, 2013). Well on the account of evaluation, one may look at this counter response as biased too, but what is unchallenged at the moment is the fact that, some secular private universities are very competitive and far better than most faith-based universities in the country.

In the first place, there is evidence that Kampala International University one of the biggest private universities in Uganda has been consistently ranked highly (2010-2020 web metrics) than any of those on religious foundation. However, this doesn't dispute the fact that some faith-based universities are also doing well; in fact, they compete with Kampala International University. To say that religious based universities are more organized using idealistic evidence is a dreadful undertaking which is not only unwarranted but misguiding at the same time.

In Kenya, Strathmore a privately owned university is regarded as the Harvard of Africa, due its differentiation models of operation (Carlos Sotz, 2004) Fit for purpose and value for money are some of the key principles wired within its culture (Carlos sotz 2004). True it makes profits but doesn't compromise on the desired quality (Strathmore University Annual Report 2018). This alone may shift the position of the argument, and faults claims that privately owned universities by and large are profit making machines. We think, the focus should not be limited to whether they make profits or not, but rather to examine whether they offer what they promise and slightly go beyond it.

d) Sabotage for Survival

Sabotage is detrimental to productivity and to the image of organizations, yet over 85% of employees consider sabotage to be an 'everyday occurrence' in their organizations (Korn et al, 2019). Sabotage in the manufacturing sector has been a central focus of analysis for decades -it incorporates actions such as the destruction of machinery or goods, theft, blocking production, absenteeism, or reducing the amount of work done. Sabotage behaviors range from individual

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intentional anti-collegial behavior, to strategic non-compliance with organizational policies or procedures. In the academic sector, saboteurs are people or organizations seeking their own achievement over others' accomplishment (Zeleza, 2020).

Deceit and abuse of power may also be used for impression management as academics seek to highlight their relative position for promotion purposes (Nyangau, 2004). The sabotage among institutions of higher learning include taking credit for others' work, and lying about research output. Such deception was also identified by (Jurkiewicz et al, 2016) who describe 'dupery', 'outright lying', or more subtle 'impression management' as characteristics of sabotage behavior. Moreover, abuse of power may facilitate free-riding, where employees take advantage of the system at the expense of colleagues, thereby lowering general motivation (Kallio et al, 2014).

In other extreme cases, universities have connived with the oversight institutions to intimidate, close, and stop other universities from coming up, while in other cases corrupt government officials have continued to issue registration certificates to colleges which do not meet the minimum requirements to operate (Gilbert, 2010). In Uganda, the story is not far from this, reports indicate that the executives of the National Council for Higher Education are members of these competing universities and by this design some universities with no representation on the Council may be disenfranchised in one way or the other (Agness Nandutu, 2005). One of the local investors in higher education, while interfacing with the Council for Higher Education at the floor of parliament accused the Council of witch-hunting and frustrating the effort of his university (Agness Nandutu, 2005).

e) Complacence of the Regulating Bodies

Complacency refers to self-satisfaction that may result in non-vigilance based on an unjustified assumption of satisfactory system state (Parasuraman, 2010). The consequence of complacency is usually a system malfunction, anomalous condition, or out-right failure to produce intended results. Complacency was abundant in the financial services industry during the time period leading up to the financial crisis in 2008 (Soltwisch, 2015). Today's competitive global environment and education sector in particular is more dynamic than ever and is one in which regulators of higher education sector cannot ignore. At the regulatory level, policy frameworks and structures built around higher education investment activities have created tremendous rigidity, allowing the regulators to overlook the growing systemic risk in the market (Morrish, 2016).

As a result regulatory complacency, higher education institutions have continued to produce sub-standard qualities despite the growing demand for excellence, ultimately leading to some of the worst products of tertiary education (Wallace, 2018). Reports indicate that in 2010 Kenya had over 592 but only 445 were fully registered by the Council for Higher Education (Gilbert, 2010). This is one of the justifications that the Council failed on its mandate, how could universities and colleges illegally operate under their watch without action? Likewise, in Uganda, the National Council for Higher Education was once criticized for failing to closely supervise universities and only wait to show face when matters are worse and uncorrectable (Kyolaba Sarah, 2012). This kind of complacence has disenfranchised many universities in the country to the extent that some have completely closed operation.

f) Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is an analytical tool with several variations and contexts (Richard, 2010). It sets the stage for the presentation of a particular research question that drives the investigation being reported based on the problem statement. It further represents the researcher's synthesis of literature on how to explain a phenomenon. Drawing from this explanation, the following frame shows how the independent variable relates with the dependent variable through a causal chain.

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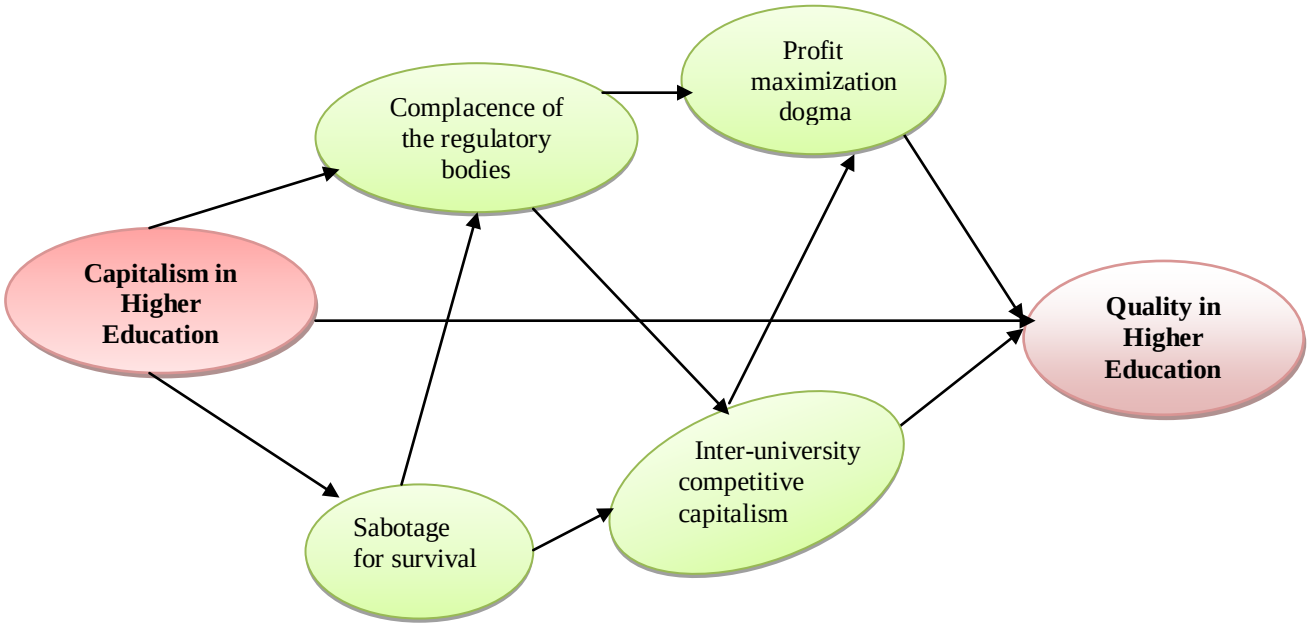

Source: Mapped on the ideas of Ssemugenyi Fred 2019, Henry Heller 2016 & Mahmood Mamdani 2008.

Figure 1: A Conceptual Framework Showing the Link between the Independent and the Dependent Variables

III. Research Methodology

a) Research Design

The study followed a cross-sectional survey design because the data required could only be collected at one point in time (Jude 2007). Given the nature of the study context, data could only be sufficiently obtained through a triangulated approach where both interview and questionnaire methods were applied. This was deemed fit in the sense that, the weaknesses of one approach were offset by the strength of another. This complementarily enriched the data collected and thence contributed to the reliability and validity of the study findings.

b) Target Population

The target population consisted of universities in Kenya and Uganda. These included 32 public and chartered private universities with campuses in Nairobi and Kampala respectively. In this regard, the target population for this study comprised of the vice chancellors, deputy vice chancellors, registrars, deans of schools, heads of department, and professors, making a total of 360 target population.

c) Sample Size and Sampling Method

This research used stratified random sampling and simple random sampling. The study applied a simple random sampling technique to select the universities involved in the study. Simple random sampling which involves dividing the population into distinct non- overlapping subgroups according to characteristics of roles was applied. This was used to obtain a study sample, as this ensured that a statistical representative sample is picked from each stratum to ensure that the research findings are generalizable (Amin 2005). Using Krejcie and D. W. Morgan 1970, sample determination matrix, the study obtained data from 186 sample size.

d) Data Collection Instruments

These included a questionnaire for Deputy vice Chancellors, Registrars, Deans of schools, Heads of department, and Professors; and interview guides for Vice Chancellors.

e) Data Analysis

Before processing the primary data, the completed questionnaires were edited for completeness and consistency. The raw primary data collected were coded prior to being input into Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) software for analysis. At the univariate level, descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, means, and standard deviation were used to analyze data, while at the multivariate level; multiple linear regression analysis was applied to determine the total impact of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

IV. Results and Discussion

The regression model summary presents the *r value* which is the measure of association between the dependent and the independent variables, the r^2 which is the coefficient of determination, measures the extent at which the independent variables influence the dependent variable while the *adjusted* r^2 measures the reliability of the regression results. In fact it is statistically claimed that the adjusted r^2 is a better measure of

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goodness of fit and as such, it should be used as a basis to determine the impact of the independent variables on the dependent. Whereas such claims may be valid, on the contrary this study utilized r^2 as a best fit of determination.

Table 1: Model Summary Showing the Overall Impact of IVs on the DV

Model	*r*	r^2	adjusted r^2	Std. error of the estimate
1	0.792	0.627	0.303	0.125

a. *Predictors: (Constant), Complacence of the regulating bodies, profit making dogma, inter-university competition for student enrollment, and sabotage for survival*

The findings in table 1 above show that *r* which is the multiple correlation coefficients that shows the strength of the predictor variables over the predicted is 0.792. The r^2 which is the coefficient of determination shows that when the four independent variables in the model are taken together explain 62.7% variation in the dependent variable. This implies that, the excluded variables in the model summary stand at 37.3% which is a weak influence as opposed to 62.7% predicting force of the included independent variables.

Additionally, the multiple linear regression matrix below shows how the individual independent variables predicted the dependent variable.

Table 2: Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	4.778	0.453		10.547	0.0429
Complacence of the regulating bodies	-0.619	0.145	0.103	4.2690	0.0339
Profit making	-0.755	0.126	0.054	5.9921	0.0210
Inter-university competition	-0.879	0.108	0.029	8.1389	0.0133
Sabotage for survival	-0.712	0.137	0.064	5.1971	0.0264

Table 2 above indicates that all the independent variables had a significant and negative effect on the dependent variable since the *p.* values were less than (0.05) which is the minimum level of significance required in this study to declare a significant effect. However, it should be noted with emphasis that although the effect was significant, it had an inverse relationship. This suggested that a 1% increase in the predictor variables was accompanied by a decreased variation in the predicted variables. The analysis gave rise to the following model:

$$Y = \beta_0 - \beta_1 Crb_1 - \beta_2 Pm_2 - \beta_3 luc_3 - \beta_4 Ss_{4...} \quad \ldots\ldots 1$$

$$Y = 4.778 - 0.619X_1 - 0.755X_2 - 0.879X_3 - 0.712\,X_4 \quad \ldots\ldots 2$$

The results shown in Equation 1 reveal that, holding the predictor variables constant, the quality of higher education would be 4.778. Suggesting that the quality of education systems in Kenya and Uganda is not only a function of capitalism but rather set of myriad factors beyond capitalism. Results further indicate that taking all the independent variables at zero, a unit increase in complacence of the regulating bodies will lead to a 0.619 decrease in quality of higher education systems, while a unit increase in profit making will lead to a 0.755 decrease in quality of higher education and a unit increase in inter-university competition for student enrollment will lead to a 879 decrease in quality of higher education. Finally, a unit increase in sabotage for survival will lead to a 0.712 decrease in quality of higher education in higher leaning institutions.

These results infer that inter-university competition for student enrollment (B. = -0.879, sig. = 0.0133) strongly and negatively affects quality of higher education more than any other sub-variable, followed by profit making dogma (B. = -0.755, sig. = 0.0210), then sabotage for survival (B. = -0.712, sig. = 0.0264), while complacence of the regulating bodies had a weak negative effect (B. = -0.619, sig. = 0.0339). A part from creating bedrocks for policy review and debate, these findings corroborate with the scholarly works of (Zeleza 2020, Morrish 2015, & Soltwisch 2015), although differ from Tibalimbasa (2010) who alludes that the quality of education provided in higher institutions depends on the quality of the student's enrolled, financial support and the human resources quality and motivation. Whereas this observation may be valid both in space and time, it does not render nullity to the major findings of this study, but rather compliments the study findings and further raises a red flag that demands attention from the actors.

V. Conclusion

The study concludes that, whereas it is common knowledge that capitalism in the American and European universities has staged a new era of discoveries through knowledge creation and

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innovations, in African-based universities the story seems to be far from the truth. African 'ivory towers' have comfortably assumed a back seat in the struggle for knowledge creation and inventions. Capitalism in East African universities is limited to unhealthy competition comprising of sabotage, profit maximization at the expense of quality, commoditization of learning and so on. If left unaddressed by the oversight institutions which at the moment are suffering from high degree of complacence, there may come a time when universities are perceived as glorified secondary schools. Given the findings of this study, the question raised by Henry 2016, on whether ivory towers can rise above capitalism, receives a No for an answer!

VI. Recommendations

Observably seen is the fact that, the regulatory bodies which in this case are the quality assurance agents have long lost the script, complacence has infested these institutions to the extent that illegal universities recruit, train, and graduate students under their watch. Recommended with emphasis is a creation of taskforce to do an audit of these regulatory bodies first before streamlining university operations.

An appeal is hereby made to the governments of Kenya and Uganda to identify at least two model universities (private and public) where sound investments in areas of research and teaching can be guaranteed. These can guide innovations and inventions in the region while preparing other universities to follow suit.

Revisiting the reforms which gave birth to private universities is critical at the moment. The current dynamics in the social, political and economic spheres that are partly triggered by the emergence of the Fourth Industrial Revolution demand a review of the reforms. Differentiation model that segregates universities in terms of their offerings is needed, that is; technology-based, social sciences, pure science and so on other than having a mix of academic programs in one university.

External institutional audit framework should be developed and strengthened across universities, and the audit panel should consist of renowned international, regional and national experts in higher education quality assurance such as the International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education (INQAAHE), Quality Assurance Agency UK (QAA-UK), the International Association of Universities (IAU), and the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA).

Recommended to the Councils is the adoption of a National Qualification Framework (NQF) that describes in explicit terms what teaching and learning should constitute in terms of content, knowledge, attitude, and skills, thereby setting minimum standards under which university academic programs are expected to be delivered.

One-size-fits-all funding model has completely failed in public and private universities. Academic programs should be financed according to how expensive they are in terms of material, time, manpower, technology, equipment, and so on. In the same vein, for effective monitoring and quality enforcement, budget of the regulatory bodies need a revisit.

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Statement of Competing Interests

We declare as authors of this work that there is no existing competing interest in this study.

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