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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADF: Allied Democratic Forces

AI: Amnesty International

AMISOM: African Union Mission in Somalia

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

APCEIU: Asia- Pacific Centre of Education for International Understanding

AQIM :   Al Qaeda Organization in the Islamic Maghreb

ASIS: American Society for Industrial Security

BICC: Bonn International Centre for Conversion

BMS: Body, Mind and Soul

CAR: Central African Republic

CNDP   National Congress for the Defence of the People

CST: Critical Social Theory

CUE: Commission for University Education

DAAD :   German Academic Exchange Service

DRC   Democratic Republic of Congo

DRC: Democratic Republic of Congo and

ECK: Electoral Commission of Kenya

ECOWAS   Economic Cooperation of West African States

EP   Evaluated Performance

EU: Egerton University

FARDC   Armed Forces of the DRC

FDLR   Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda

FGDs: Focus Group Discussions

FPR   Popular Front for Recovery

HAT   Haute Autorité de Transition

HE: Higher Education

HEdPERF   Higher Education Performance

ICRC: International Committee of the Red Cross

ICTJ: International Center for Transitional Justice

IRTPA: Intelligence Reform and Terrorism Prevention Act

ISO: International Organization for Standardization,

JKUAT: Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology

KDF: Kenya Defence Forces and the US, which backed

KU:	Kenyatta University
LRA	Lord's Resistance Army
M23	March 23 Rebel Movement
MMUST:	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology
MNLA:	National Movement for Liberation for Azawad
MU:	Maseno University
MUJAO:	Movement for Unity and Jihad in West Africa
NATO:	Northern Atlantic Treaty Organization
NPA:	National Peace Academy
NQ:	Normed Quality
NSIS:	National Security and Intelligence Service
NTC:	The National Transitional Council
ODNI:	Office of the Director National Intelligence
SADC:	Southern African Development Community
SAF:	Sudanese Armed Forces
SALW	Small arms and light weapons
SALW:	Small Arms and Light Weapons
SCAF	Supreme Council of the Armed Forces
SCC:	Supreme Constitutional Court
SERVPERF:	Service Performance
SERVQUAL:	Service Quality
SPLA:	Sudan People's Liberation Army
SPLM-N:	Sudan People's Liberation Movement-North
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TFG:	Transitional Federal Government
U o N:	University of Nairobi
UK:	United Kingdom
UK:	United Kingdom
UNAMID:	United Nations-African Union Mission in Darfur
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF:	United Nations Children's Fund
US	United States of America
USIU:	United States International University
WASC:	Western Association of Schools and Colleges

ABSTRACT

Human security conceptions, service quality theory, critical social theory, and humanistic and social reconstructionist conceptualization of the curriculum have been used in this study to diagnose the quality of higher education (HE) in peace and security courses offered in Kenyan universities from the perspective of the student. The discourse emanates from the Kenya Government's recognition of HE as key in solving the challenges affecting the country's peace and security. This conceptualization is crucial in fast-tracking security reforms and dealing with the persistent peace and security challenges which the country faces. However, delivering quality HE amidst the recent explosion in demand for University education in Kenya has been a challenge and discourses on the dwindling quality of teaching and learning (QTL) delivered to University students in the country abound. The on-going dialectic contends that quality assurance in education is customer driven and the role of the student in evaluation of quality of education is categorical in determining viability of the programmes and self efficacy of the graduands.

Using the positivistic-interpretivist paradigm, a total of 152 diploma and undergraduate students from five universities in Kenya participated in the study. Data were collected by use of a modified Service Performance (SERVPERF) questionnaire and interview schedules. The data were analysed both qualitatively by generating themes and categories and quantitatively by use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

The study found that whereas students hold high perceptions of course relevance, their overall perceptions of the QTL in such aspects as facilities, lecturers, teaching methodology, curriculum evaluation and programme content design was low. The study recommends that the universities should mobilize resources to improve the quality of their teaching and learning resources while intensifying practical training and improving the quality of assessment to minimize overreliance on written examinations in evaluating students. Further study of the role of HE in peace and security studies in reinforcing peacebulding and security management in the East African region is equally imperative.

Key Terms:

Higher education, students, service, quality, teaching and learning, perceptions, University, peace, security.

CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background to the Study

The dawn of the 21st Century ushered in a new dialectic into the peace and security sector of Kenya: the reform agenda (Asembo, 2008; Republic of Kenya, 2008a). The Government's initiative to open more social democratic space placed an obligation on all peace and security organs to operate as per the aspirations of the Kenyan citizens. The new political dispensation required the country to develop an effective security approach to deal with complex and diverse challenges which include terrorism, an indifferent police force, political violence, cattle rustling, inter-ethnic tension, criminal gangs, and organized crime. This quest for an effective security approach is recognised in the country's Vision 2030, which outlines security, peace building and conflict management in the country as one of the foundations of development (Bonn International Centre for Conversion [BICC], 2005; Republic of Kenya, 2008a).

Security in this context is construed on humanistic perspectives, which encompasses not only the country's ability to withstand external aggression (Luciani, 1989) but also the ability to safeguard the country from any action or sequence of events that could 'drastically degrade the quality of life of its population or the range of policy choices available to the government' or other cooperate bodies within a state (Ullman, 1983, p. 133). In principle, it implies both the absence of any threat to the values which have been acquired by citizens of a state and reassurance by the state to the population that such values will never be attacked (Collins, 2013).

The peace and security institutions, as a result of this reform drive, began to cooperate with universities, which consequently developed the desired certificate, diploma and degree

courses to improve the quality of their manpower (Kenya Police, 2004; Asembo, 2008a). The ultimate objective of the paradigm shift was to improve governance by broadening Kenya's national security responsibility to include not just the safeguarding of the country from both internal and external vulnerabilities that have the potential to undermine the defensive and institutional state apparatus, but to equally encompass human security. The latter conceptualization included increased attention and resource allocation to development initiatives aimed at eradicating political violence and assisting victims and communities embedded in cyclic internal conflicts.

To this end, the department of Political Science and Public Administration, University of Nairobi, in collaboration with the National Intelligence Service (NIS) launched Certificate, Diploma, Post-graduate Diploma and Master of Arts programmes in Strategic and Security Studies in June 2005 (University of Nairobi, 2011). Egerton University followed a year later with a Bachelors of Arts degree in Criminology and Security Studies, alongside another degree in Military Science offered to Kenya military officers (Egerton University, 2011). In 2008, Daystar University became the first private University in Kenya to offer an undergraduate degree programme in Peace and Conflict Transformation (Daystar University, 2011). In 2010, Kenyatta University launched the Institute of Peace and Security studies to build capacity to foster peace and maintain security by providing highly qualified and skilled security personnel (Kenyatta University, 2011). The University is further in the process of partnering with the National Police Service of Kenya to offer Diploma in Security and Police Studies to police officers undergoing their initial training at various police training institutions in the country. But it is currently offering a Masters Degree in Security Management and Police Studies. It also offers a Bachelor of Arts degree in Military Studies and diploma courses in Police Studies and Security Management, as well as in Forensic Science, to police officers wishing to upgrade their

qualifications. In its website the Institute of Peace and Security Studies of Kenyatta University outlines the key rationale for the establishment of the institution as the need to compliment Government security training institutions in providing high quality security training; the need to prepare peace, security and other relevant personnel in dealing with special security challenges, especially disasters; the need to upgrade the skills of security personnel to deal with the emerging threat of terrorism and; the sophisticated nature of crime and the high intellectual capabilities of criminals, which requires security personnel with advanced intellect. It therefore implies that the rapidly changing societal dynamics in relation to peace and security equally demand intellectually dynamic security officers (Kenyatta University, 2011). Other tertiary colleges such as Kenya Institute of Studies in Criminal Justice have equally responded to the training needs of the peace and security sector by teaming up with other University colleges to offer a variety courses in criminology, security management and intelligence studies.

It is important to underscore that global perspectives, such as the UNDP (2005) report, which culminated into the broadening and deepening of the concept of security to include humanistic perspectives, thereafter referred to as 'human security', underlies the recognition of higher education (HE) as one of the pillars to the much anticipated security sector reforms in Kenya. Collins (2013, p. 113-115) underscores that within the new dogma, security, is no longer the responsibility of the state alone but involves a 'variety of actors-institutions of global governance, non-state actors and the civil society'. Collins further argues that at the heart of a vigorous academic debate on security studies is the relationship between the state, the people and sovereignty, which gives many academics the impulse to focus on human condition. HE would, therefore, allow policy makers and scholars to draw on the interconnections between security, governance and development;

hence, the response of Kenyan HE institutions to the demands of public security sector reforms.

This scenario has consequently ignited discourses regarding the quality of the academic programmes offered and the capacity of the universities to deliver them (Asembo, 2008). These concerns are categorical given the recent explosion in the quest for University education in Kenya and the fact that few Kenyan universities have run public security related academic programmes before (Gudo, Oanda & Olel, 2011a; Gudo, Oanda & Olel, 2011b; Kinyanjui, 2007). Even though no specific issues have been raised in literature regarding the quality of the programmes in question, the call for "intensified training of security staff" as outlined in Kenya's vision 2030, principally elicits quality assurance discourses. Similar concerns were particular during the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, where the need to improve the quality of education was emphasized (UNESCO, 2000). More precisely, Kairu (2011) in an article entitled *The fall and fall of University education standards in Kenya*, has decried deteriorating education standards in Kenyan universities. Similarly, Mengo (2011) concurs that quality teaching cannot be guaranteed amidst escalating student population in Kenyan universities since the teaching staff have little time to research, attend conferences and give their students full attention.

The concept of quality education therefore transcends mere schooling and should be seen holistically as an enunciation of informal prospects for self-improvement, non-formal aspects for developing and maintaining basic and superior life skills and formal schemes for the realization and continuous development of the individual's potential (Ntaragwi, 2003; Mama & Hamilton, 2003). It should not be purely looked at on manpower-producing perspectives and commoditised on 'econocentric' terms. It should transcend the confines of supply and demand and be cautiously subjected to cost-benefit calculations. As Mama and

Hamilton (2003) note, these economic considerations, while being helpful, have not captured the real purpose of education: the development of the individuals' body, mind and soul (BMS), not just for the benefit of the economy, but the wider society. Quality education thus aims at providing students with the necessary tools to enable them exploit their full potential in finding solutions to the challenges confronting mankind (Magutu et al., 2010; UNESCO, 2000; Bergman, 1996).

One of the keys to the realization of quality education is quality teaching and learning. Cheserek (2010) explains that the concept of quality teaching and learning implies adding value to students during education and training and also meeting their expectations as consumers of educational services. The process begins with formulating student learning outcomes and ends with realization of those outcomes when they graduate. The HE quality assurance regulatory body in Kenya, the Commission for University Education (CUE), formerly known as Commission for Higher Education, notes that quality assurance is chiefly the responsibility of individual universities (Standa, 2008). This implies that the institutions are entirely responsible for their students' academic life and hence cannot ignore the perceptions students develop about the quality of teaching and learning that they encounter during their academic career.

Determining students' perceptions in order to improve teaching and learning has been a century long global practice in measuring quality teaching and learning at the University (Delaney, Johnson, Johnson, & Treslan, 2009). Students' perceptions have been reflected in a plethora of research that attempts to isolate characteristics of quality University teaching (Young, Cantrell & Shaw, 1999). In another study, Hill, Lomas, and MacGregor, (2003), for instance, found that students' perceptions of quality learning included

experiences that helped them to link theory with the real world, assignments relevant to real work place, discussions leading to new perspectives of thinking, and curriculum that took account of the students' group experiences and imparted added value to students. The authors also reported the emergence of three major teaching strategies which were highly rated by students in HE: delivery strategy and techniques in the classroom; feedback to students in the classroom and in assignments; and relationship with students in the classroom.

Hamid and Zaidatol, (2004) concur that the measure of quality teaching and learning needs to focus on the dimensional factors that directly influence the process delivery of instructional design and the course outcomes. Similarly, Entwistle and Ramsden (1987) note that quality teaching and learning in a University is that which engages the student in an in-depth and comprehensive approach to the subject matter, that is, in an active, durable, and critical construction of knowledge integrated with his or her previous knowledge and put to action. In relation to this fact, Pennington and O'Neil (1994) proposed eight principles that underscore effective teaching. These are: (1) enhancing students' general capabilities and work-related skills; (2) using student experience as a learning resource; (3) encouraging active and co-operative learning; (4) promoting responsibility in learning; (5) engaging with feelings, values and motives as well as with intellectual development; (6) fostering open, flexible, reflexive and outcome-based assessment and; (7) evaluating teaching and learning to encourage reflective teaching and; (8) and developing organization-wide strategies to establish congruence of policies to enhance physical and material learning environment.

Hamid and Zaidatol, (2004), have recognised the role of teaching staff in this debate and emphasized that customer satisfaction in HE cannot be divorced from the teacher. This is because student satisfaction begins with the expectations created upon the service by various parties to be delivered to or experienced by the customer. One of the expectations is the quality of the teaching staff. In a study by Lammers and Murphy (2002), it was concluded that lecturers' enthusiasm, knowledge ability in the subject, and effective classroom management are highly valued skills, which interact with other physical factors such as course design to produce effective teaching and learning. Similarly, Morton-Cooper (1993) in a research on lecturer traits valued by students cited reliability and consistency as the major traits. Other scholars such as Hill et al., (2003), Ramsden (1988) and Pennington and O'Neil (1994) have equally cited lecturer enthusiasm as a vital trait that encourages effective learning.

On curriculum content, a qualitative research by Hill et al., (2003) on students' perceptions of quality in HE showed that students valued a curriculum that was flexible, took account of the student group experiences, made links between theory and the real world, and was up to date. Rowley (1997) further explains that the effectiveness of the teaching curriculum needs to be understood in the context of their contribution to the development of the students' character and competence within the respective disciplines. Indeed, customer satisfaction in HE involves how closely the delivered service has added value to the skills and competence of customers (students) to gain better job market or career advantage.

UNICEF (2000) further underscores that effective delivery of curriculum content must include environments that provide adequate resources and facilities. In relation to this, Whitcomb and Tanya (2008) explain that teachers must have the tools to do the job in

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order to perform highly. Thus classrooms that lack even basic materials such as current textbooks and general teaching supplies cannot favour quality teaching and learning.

The other defining feature of quality teaching and learning is assessment. Struyven, Filip and Steven (2005) in their study of students' perception of evaluation and assessment in HE found that students hold strong views about the use of different assessment and evaluation formats. Sambell, McDowell and Brown (1997), similarly, found that many students do not favour the normal or traditional assessment methods such as essays and multiple choice questions. They felt these methods had a severely detrimental effect on the learning process. In contrast, students perceived new forms of assessment such as simulations, to enable rather than pollute the quality of learning achieved. To them, exams should have little to do with the more challenging task of trying to make sense and understand a subject but with its practical application.

The foregoing dialectic therefore reveals that as consumers of educational services, students' main need is quality teaching and learning that will meet or exceed their expectations. It is within this framework that the larger discipline of service quality (Hamid & Zaidatol, 2004) finds relevance.

Boulding, Karla, Staelin and Zeithmal (1993) define service quality as the gap between expectations and perceptions of a service. In this case, the service is the teaching of peace and security studies in universities in Kenya. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) have listed the ten determinants of service quality that can be generalized to any type of service as tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, and competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security and understanding. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry

(1990) later on summarised these determinants into five dimensions as tangible, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. Similarly, Wright (1996) in a research study identified eight major service quality factors for HE: diversity of educational experience, access and use of facilities, personalized interaction, student quality, educational process, faculty, and professor's years of teaching experience.

The extent to which students perceive these levels of service performance as meeting their expectations reflects the quality of service (Zammuto, Keaveney & O'Connor, 1996). In a study by Ralph (2003) which explored teaching effectiveness using how well students learn as the criterion, it was concluded that exemplary University teaching is discernible and the quality of components that define it can be assessed. Hamid and Zaidatol, (2004) emphasize that examining this attribute needs to focus on the dimensional factors that directly influence the process of delivery of instructional design and the course outcomes. These dimensions are the lecturer factor, teaching methodology, evaluation and assessment, teaching and learning facilities and course relevance and design. Hence, against the background of quality concerns in HE, the study intended to discern the quality of teaching and learning in the public security related programmes in universities in Kenya and assess its characteristic components based on the above dimensions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The demands of peace and security sector reforms in Kenya coupled with the paradigm shift in global peace and security conceptualization have placed an obligation on the peace and security institutions to cooperate with universities in order improve the quality of their manpower and hence deliver quality services to the Kenyan public that would enhance human security. (Kenya Police, 2004; BICC, 2005; Asembo, 2008; Collins, 2103). To this

end, the Government of Kenya in its Vision 2030 has prioritised training of security staff in the country and by extension invited the HE institutions to take up the role in order to deal with persistent security challenges the country is facing (Republic of Kenya, 2008a; BICC, 2005; International Centre for Transitional Justice, Kenya [ICTJ], 2010). These challenges include, among others, an indifferent police force, terrorism, and arms proliferation. The fragile security situation therefore calls for the University to improve the quality of the existing the peace and security studies and produce an inefficient security workforce that can help in mitigating the threats.

The HE institutions have, consequently, responded by developing appropriate degree, diploma and certificate courses in strategic and security studies; criminology, military science; peace and conflict studies; international relations, security management and police studies; forensic science and intelligence studies and have also enrolled students for the same (University of Nairobi, 2011; Egerton University, 2011; Kenyatta University, 2011). However, HE is exposed to the globalization processes and quality assurance in education has become customer driven. This has made student satisfaction a central concern if the universities have to serve their needs and remain relevant (Faganel, 2010; Cheserek, 2010; Hamid & Zaidatol, 2004). Studies have found that students' perception of poor service quality affects viability in the University sector by reducing the number of applicants (Ford, Joseph & Joseph, 1993; McElwee & Redman, 1993).

Little literature exists on students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies, nevertheless, other studies on students' perceptions of quality of teaching and learning in HE have highlighted key factors such as lecturer factor, teaching methodology, and course relevance and design as salient (Hamid & Zaidatol,

2004). Students have also perceived effective teaching and learning to be characterized by lecturer credibility, professionalism and enthusiasm; student centred and value loaded curriculum; concrete learning experiences; discovery oriented discussions and application-based assignments (Allan, Clarke, & Jopling, 2009; Delaney et al., 2009; Hill et al., 2003). Elsewhere, Pennington and O'Neil (1994) has proposed the key principles that underscore effective teaching and learning in HE to include focusing on students' abilities and career skills; investing in student experience; encouraging active and co-operative learning; promoting responsibility in learning; engaging with intellectual development and the affective domain; fostering open, flexible, reflexive and outcome - based assessment; evaluating teaching and learning to encourage reflective teaching and developing organization-wide strategies to establish congruence of policies to enhance physical and material learning environment.

Research has further indicated that institutions that adopt strategies focusing on customer satisfaction, have managed to yield higher returns than those that focus on cutting costs only (Van Schalkwyk, 2011; Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2008; Seth, Deshmukh, & Vrat, 2005; Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, & Terblanche, 2004). The perceptions which a customer holds about a given service would therefore be vital in deciding the quality enhancement measures to adopt, improving corporate image, reducing costs, leading to increased productivity, as well as improved overall performance (Van Schalkwyk, 2011; Lewis, 2007; Seth, et al., 2005). In addition, students' perceptions of quality of teaching and learning are also argued to be linked to their self efficacy: their belief in their abilities to perform any given assignment successfully (Bandura, 1997; Zarit & Robertson, 2007; Betz, 2006). These aspects, together with the academic and public outcry about the falling standards of University education in Kenya, (Kairu 2011; Gudo et al., 2011 b;

Odhiambo, 2011) have heightened concerns regarding the quality of HE delivered to students undergoing peace and security academic programmes.

It therefore follows that students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning underline the lifeline of universities. The determination of these perceptions cannot be pegged on summative evaluation but must be formative, if quality results have to be realized (Barnes, 1992). Hence the need for quality HE in peace and security studies as a remedy to persistent security constraints in Kenya; the scarcity of literature on the same; the public and academic outcry on the dwindling quality of HE in Kenyan Universities and the key role of students' views in evaluation of the quality of educational services globally are at the core of this study's endeavour to establish students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities.

1.3 Research Questions:

The following research questions were answered during the study:

1.3.1 Main Question:

The main question of the study was:

- What is the students' overall perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies in Kenyan universities?

1.3.2 Sub Questions:

a. The sub questions of the study were:

b. How do students perceive the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya?

c. What are the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of lecturers in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya?

d. How do students perceive the quality of teaching methodology in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya?

e. What are the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of curriculum evaluation approaches in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya?

f. What perceptions do students hold in relation to design and relevance of the course content of the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya?

g. What significant differences exist between the students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies and their demographic variables?

1.4 Aim of the Study

The aim of the study was therefore to examine the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security academic programmes offered in Kenyan universities from the perspectives of the students, as the recipients of the educational service.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The following were the general objectives of the study:

a. To examine Students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya.

b. To explore the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of lecturers in the peace and security studies offered in universities s in Kenya

c. To determine students' perception of the quality of teaching methodology in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya.

d. To identify the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of curriculum evaluation approaches in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya.

e. To establish the extent to which quality teaching and learning is affected by design and relevance of the content of the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya?

f. To establish whether significant differences exist between the students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya and their demographic variables.

1.6 Rationale, Significance and Motivation for the Research

The process of globalization has brought new challenges to educational institutions in Kenya. The HE service providers are facing increased competition as new programmes, new means of delivery of the existing programmes are introduced, new institutions are established, and new foreign entities enter the HE industry. To this end, service quality perceived by students becomes a primary success factor. For instance, private universities, which do not receive Government funding, must be more student-oriented, and have strong service quality and high academic standards. A student orientation strategy calls for a study on service quality that explains the perception of service quality and how the students can be provided with reliable, responsive, assured and friendly services in an enjoyable environment. This study while adopting the service quality approach has provided an important conceptual foundation to these concerns.

The study is also key in addressing the role of HE institutions in addressing the incessant conflicts in the African region that continue to claim thousands of lives and displace of millions of other people. The conflicts continue to be manifested in the persistent rebel movements in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Central Africa Republic (CAR); Libya, Chad and Mali; the increased terror attacks by the Boko Haram of Nigeria and the

terrorism and radicalization activities of Al Qaida-linked Al Shabaab in Kenya, Somalia and Tanzania; high rates of national and transnational crimes; the heightening interstate hostility between Sudan and Southern Sudan over oil reserves; the continued civil strife and political instability in Egypt; persistent inter-ethnic tension in Kenya and the failure of many non-violent mechanisms to achieve lasting peace among communities. These situations pose as acid tests to the credibility of HE institutions in offering solutions to the much needed peace and security in Africa.

The data gathered in this study will be useful to the stakeholders in the security sector in improving the peace and security studies curriculum and identifying the training needs of the security personnel in order to improve their performance. Improved service delivery in the security sector is crucial in achieving Kenya's Vision 2030 and success in mitigating the security challenges facing the country. Moreover, as Kenya continues to remain the intellectual and economic hub of East African region, the production of competent peace and security personnel for the region is crucial. Her contribution to regional peace and security in the East and horn of Africa regions categorically makes this study urgent. In addition, as the Kenyan universities move towards embracing Quality Systems such as International Organization for Standardization (ISO), the results of this study are crucial in preparing the institutions for such certification as well as attracting and retaining students in the peace and security academic programmes.

The findings on curriculum development will be invaluable in improving the courses. Since the peace and security studies are still new in Africa, they could be in dire need of formative evaluation in order to make them more focused on the contemporary realities. The findings from this study will be useful in revising the programmes and attuning them

to the students' needs and global trends. The data will also be crucial in selecting and placing the right lecturers for the courses and or organizing appropriate instructor development programmes for them.

The researchers' motivation to pursue this study is his desire to be a global leader in security training consultancy. He currently works as a security training advisor for the Government of Kenya. The researcher believes that globally, HE in peace and security pedagogy is still an emerging area in educational theorizing, perhaps, due to the perennial disconnect between security academies and universities, especially in the developing world.

The researcher also holds a Master of Education degree in Curriculum Development and has worked as the Director, Curriculum Development and Evaluation at Kenya Police College. He has also contributed immensely towards developing security training programmes for the Government of Kenya, hence his passion for this study cannot be overstated. He was a key consultant during the accreditation of Kenya Police Training Institutions to Kenyatta University and has also consulted for the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and other civil society groups in Kenya in the area of security training.

The researcher studied in two of the universities which were sampled for the study. He therefore had an already established network which allowed him to access the research sites with ease. Given that Kenya is currently opening up many of its security training institutions to academic scholarship through liaison with its universities, the timing of this study could not be postponed.

1.7 Research Methods

This section is a brief overview of the research methodology adopted in the study, since a comprehensive discussion has been given in Chapter Four of this thesis.

1.7.1 Mixed Methods Research

The research methodology which was adopted during the study was a mixed methods research, within the positivist- interpretivist research paradigm. Hence both quantitative and qualitative research methods were used. Whereas quantitative research placed emphasis on the quantification of constructs (Babbie & Mouton, 2006); qualitative research data were in words and statements rather than numbers (Kranthwohl, 1993). In the qualitative method, the researcher focused more on understanding phenomenon through studying happenings, activities, conversations; and exchanges between people (Barrett, 2007). The findings of quantitative data have been presented in forms of numerical analysis, while in qualitative research they have been presented in forms of narratives, themes and categories.

1.7.2 Research Design

The research design adopted in this study was a descriptive survey followed by in-depth interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). The survey method was crucial since surveys have been credited for their utility in studying characteristics of populations, especially their attitudes, opinions, beliefs (Salkind, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The survey was carried out by use of a student questionnaire.

In depth interview as a data collection strategy has equally been hailed as a very powerful method of qualitative research (Cook, 2008). It involved the researcher encouraging the

participants to fully express their thoughts and opinions about the subject of inquiry without curtailing their responses to short-answer questions. During the study, an interview schedule was adopted in this strategy as recommended by Thyer (2001), in order to enhance the researchers' focus on important questions and prevent the collection of non-essential information.

The FGDs involved use of group interviews to enable the researcher collect data from an extensive interaction on a topic by a relatively large number of people in a limited period of time. Stewart, Shamdasani and Rook (2007) have outlined the importance of FGDs in giving general background information about an issue under investigation, developing research hypotheses, inspiring original ideas and imagination, generating personal opinions about products or programmes, examining the possibility of problems, helping in understanding previously obtained quantitative data, and generating new perspectives and information about an issue under investigation. The FGDs were used in this study in order to enable the students critically examine the quality of teaching and learning they are experiencing by sharing and comparing their experiences through a discussion, thereby generating multiple perceptions, that have been used to enrich the quantitative data. A total of six FGDs involving six students in each group were conducted.

1.7.3 Participating HE Institutions

University Education in Kenya comprises both public and private universities. All these institutions offer both diploma and undergraduate degree programmes. A total of five universities offering peace and security studies were purposively selected to act as research sites. For ethical consideration purposes, these universities have been given pseudonyms as Daniela University, Defence University of Kenya, Sheila University, Sheryl-Ann

University and Alvin University of Wayando. Battaglia (2008) explains that purposive sample, is a type of non-probability sample arrived at through expert knowledge of the population and whose main objective is to produce a sample that can be logically assumed to be representative of the population.

1.7.3.1 Daniela University

Daniela University is one of the oldest and largest universities in Kenya. Its origin goes back to 1947 when the Colonial Government in Kenya recommend the establishment of a technical and commercial institute in Nairobi for the East African region. In June 1964, the College acquired a University College Status and consequently, it begun to prepare students for bachelor's degrees awarded by the University of London, while also continuing to offer diploma programmes. In 1966 the University College, begun preparing students exclusively for degrees of the University of East Africa, Makerere. The present Daniela University was established in 1970 by an Act of Parliament when the University of East Africa was dissolved and the then three East African countries set up their own national universities. The University offers approximately 200 programmes in the sciences, applied sciences, technology, humanities, social sciences and the arts. It has a population of 61,912 students of whom 49,488 are undergraduates and 12,424 are postgraduates.

The University has six colleges. Peace and security studies are offered in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences. According to the University Annual Report, 2012 the college had the following enrolment figures in the various diploma and undergraduate peace and security related courses:

a. Diploma in International Studies   83

b. Diploma in criminology and social order   90

19

c.	Diploma in Armed Conflict	11
d.	Bachelor of Arts in International Studies	399
e.	Postgraduate Diploma in International Relations	14
f.	Postgraduate Diploma in Strategic Studies	139
Total		**736**

The college also offers a number of Master's and Doctorate programmes in peace and security studies.

1.7.3.2 Defence University of Kenya

Defence University on Kenya is the oldest institution of higher learning in the country. It was founded as a Farm School in 1939 and later on upgraded to an Agricultural College offering diploma programmes. It underwent a major expansion in 1979 and became a constituent college of Daniela University in 1986. It was later on established as a fully fledged University through an Act of parliament in 1987. The University currently has nine (9) faculties and fifty one (51) academic departments offering a wide range of programmes at diploma, undergraduate, and postgraduate levels. Its main campus houses the faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, which offers peace and security studies through the Department of Peace, Security and Social studies. The department offers Bachelor of Arts in Criminology and Security Studies.

The programme admits students who are mainly practicing government security officers in the Kenya Defence Forces and the National Police Service. Other non- practicing students are also admitted into the programme. Currently the programme has a total of about 1,600 students in the main campus, Nairobi and Nakuru Campuses. The Department also offers Masters programmes in Criminology and Criminal Justice and Security Management. This

is besides the regular Master of Arts degree in Sociology (Community Development and project Planning). There are also Doctorate programmes in Sociology.

1.7.3.3 Sheila University

Sheila University was founded through Harambee spirit in 1972, as a College of Arts and Applied Sciences. The college started offering certificate and diploma in courses in 1977, which included mechanical, and motor vehicle, electrical, electronic, agriculture, water, building, architecture, accounting and finance. In December 2002, the college was elevated to a Constituent College of Moi University. The college is distinguished with its unique programmes in peace and security studies which include forensic science, banking fraud and money laundering investigations; corruption research, monitoring and evaluation; corruption prevention methods, disaster preparedness and conflict management and resolution.

The diploma programmes in peace and security studies include Diploma in Ethics and Corruption Studies; Diploma in Disaster Management and; Diploma in Criminology and Criminal Justice. The undergraduate programmes include Bachelor of Criminology offered in the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences; Bachelor of Disaster Management and International Diplomacy; Bachelor of Science (Disaster Mitigation and Sustainable Development); Bachelor of Science (Disaster Preparedness and Environmental Technology) and Bachelor of Conflict Resolution and Humanitarian Assistance, all offered at the Centre for Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance. There are also Masters and Doctorate programmes in the above courses.

1.7.3.4 St. Alvin University of Wayando

St. Alvin University of Wayando was established in 1965 when the British Government handed over the Templar Barracks to the newly formed Republic of Kenya. The Barracks were then changed into a teachers' college,   with the Secondary Education and Teacher Education divisions. It then started offering the Secondary Teacher's Training Certificate. In 1970, the college was elevated to a constituent college of the University of Nairobi, following an Act of Parliament and it became St. Alvin University of Wayando. In 1978, the Faculty of Education was moved from the University of Nairobi to the main College Campus and thus became the only institution training teachers for both undergraduate and postgraduate levels. It became a fully-fledged University through an Act of Parliament in 1985.   Currently the University has 11 campuses and 15 schools.

St Alvin University of Wayando established the Institute of Peace and Security Studies in October 2010 under the School of Humanities and Social Sciences. The main objectives of the institution are to promote peace and security through training personnel; providing training facilities and resources; encouraging research, acquisition and dissemination of knowledge; developing an intellectual base; enhancing good governance and promoting ethical conduct and the rule of law in the management of peace and security affairs.

1.7.3.5 Sheryl-Ann University

Sheryl-Ann University is located in one of the suburbs of Kenya's capital city of Nairobi. It is a non-profit making private institution with a population of about 6,000 students drawn from about 62 nationalities, majority of who are Kenyans. The University was first accredited in 1981 by the accrediting commission for senior colleges and universities of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC). It later became chartered in

Kenya under the Universities Act in 1985. In 1999, it was awarded its charter as an independent institution through CUE.

The University's programme offerings are in five undergraduate majors in the Chandaria School of Business, three in the School of Humanities and Social Sciences and three in the School of Science and Technology. The school of humanities and social sciences offers a Bachelor of Arts in International Relations and a Bachelor of Arts in Criminal Justice.

1.7.4 Informants

The simple stratified sampling was used to select a total of 152 informants from a population of 2,443 finalists and pre-finalists to participate in the study (Walliman, 2006). After the survey, a total of 36 respondents were purposively sampled from the 152 to participate in in-depth interviews and FGDs. Only those who were willing to participate in the interview sessions were sampled.

1.7.5 Research Instruments

A questionnaire and an interview schedule were used in gathering data.

1.7.5.1 Questionnaire: The SERVPERF Instrument

The study used a modified version of the original service performance (SERVPERF) instrument which was developed by Cronin and Taylor (1992). The modified SERVPERF instrument had 108 items.

1.7.5.2 Interview Schedule

The interview schedule was used as a follow-up instrument to gather more data to complement the quantitative data from the questionnaires. There was one interview

schedule for both in-depth interviews and FGDs. The development of the interview schedule involved expert review by the supervisor and peer review by colleagues.

1.7.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis in this study was both quantitative and qualitative. In quantitative analysis, the data, which were collected through the questionnaires, were coded as per the variables and constructs under investigation and keyed in the SPSS computer analysis package, Version 17.0. Thereafter, frequency counts, percentages, means, standard deviation, ANOVA and student t- test were calculated. This data has been presented in form of tables.

While performing qualitative data analysis, the information collected through interview schedules, were transcribed into written coherent discourse. The data were examined for completeness and relevance in order to ascertain its usefulness, adequacy and credibility in answering the research questions. Thereafter the data were organised thematically using code books and analysed as per the research questions. During the analysis, the data were first read thoroughly for familiarity. Then the researcher thereafter established the various categories in the data, which were distinct from each other. This data has been presented in form of written narratives.

1.8 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

This study was carried out amidst heightened demand for peace and security academic programmes in Kenyan universities, and several universities were still launching the programmes across the country as the study was being carried out. The sample sizes may not therefore be representative of the current population of peace and security studies

students and this limits the generalisation of the findings. However, the triangulation of the quantitative inquiry with in-depth and detailed qualitative data collection approaches which included in depth interviews and FGDs, enabled this study to gather credible information which facilitated effective exploration of the issues under investigation. Mason (2010) explains that when a study is under qualitative inquiry, sample size becomes irrelevant as the quality of data is the measurement of its value.

The other limitation was that even though most of the respondents in the study willingly agreed to respond to the questionnaires, be interviewed and participate in the FGDs, some were reluctant due to the requirement by their employers that they seek security clearance before they give any information. To overcome the challenge, the researcher relied on those respondents who were willing to participate in the study unconditionally and hence became information-rich cases (Patton, 2002). The willingness to participate in the study was therefore fully exploited to gather information that was valuable to the research.

The study was carried out among finalists and pre-finalists in five Kenyan universities only. There are other University colleges and tertiary institutions in the country, which offer security related programmes. However, they were not covered in this study due to time and limitation of resources. This delimits the generalization of the findings.

Similarly, Rowley (1997) as quoted in Hamid and Zaidatol, (2004) argues that quite often the measurement of service quality has been taken from the customers' view point and not the service providers. Hence, service quality measures have not made concerted attempts to acknowledge the impact of external expectations from other stakeholders such as employers, Governmental policy making agencies, parents, and subsequent training and

learning institutions undertake on standards of service delivery and service outcomes. Yet, it is generally known that these agents exert considerable influence in forming the expectations of the students as customers. It would be important to acknowledge Rowley's concerns in this research; however, the study did not cover the areas of external influence on the perceptions of the students. The focus was basically on teaching and learning and the factors that are immediately within the experience of the students and control of the lecturers as the immediate teaching and learning service providers. These factors are the lecturer factor, teaching methodology, teaching and learning facilities, evaluation and course relevance and design. It would therefore not be plausible to generalize the findings beyond these delimitations.

1.9 Chapter Division

This thesis has been divided into six chapters as follows:

Chapter One has focused on the orientation to the study, problem statement, research questions, aims, significance, rationale and motivation as well as scope and limitations. It has also defined significant terms used in the study.

Chapter Two discusses the theoretical framework underpinning the study. This entails a discussion of Human Security Conceptualization and Humanistic and Social Reconstructionist Conceptions of Curriculum, the Critical Social Theory and Service Quality. It ends with a discussion of the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter Three reviews the available literature while trying to unearth the existing knowledge gaps. It focuses on a review of HE in peace and security studies globally by looking and the broad dimensions, the peace studies dimension and the security studies dimension. It also reviews literature on the regional security context of HE in peace and

security studies and the contemporary security challenges in Kenya and their implications on HE. The chapter further reviews literature on quality education, quality teaching and learning and students' perceptions of quality teaching and learning.

Chapter Four discusses the research methodology which was adopted in the study including the research paradigm, design, population, sampling procedures, instruments as well as piloting, validity and reliability, data collection and ethical considerations, and finally data analysis and presentation methods.

Chapter Five presents and discusses the findings as per the research questions and research objectives. Finally, Chapter Six gives a summary of the findings, makes conclusions and recommendations and gives suggestions for further research.

1.10 Definitions of Operational Concepts

Curriculum: All the selected, organised, evaluative and innovative educational experiences provided to the learners consciously or unconsciously under the authority of a learning institution in order to achieve designated learning outcomes (Malusu, 1997).

Higher Education: An educational level that follows the completion of secondary education, such as a high school or secondary school and usually leads to attainment of at least a bachelor's degree or a diploma (Inter University Council for East Africa/DAAD, 2010).

Human security: This is a contemporary conceptualization of security that seeks to divert focus on security issues from protection of the state and its territory to protection of individual citizens, poverty, hunger, environmental degradation, physical and political violence, inter-ethnic and sectarian tension, and abuses of human rights, while still aiming to safeguard, the state from foreign military threats (Wakefield & Fleming, 2009).

Learning: This is a relatively permanent change in behaviour that results from a mental activity by which knowledge, skills, habits, attitudes and deals are acquired retained and utilised based on an individual's interactional experience with the environment. (Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith, & Bem, 1993).

Perception: This word is derived from Latin word *perceptio,* also known as, *percipio*. It is the identification and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment or an opinion about or certain degree of confidence in something that results from the organization, (Schacter, 2011).

Peace and Security Studies: Certificate, Diploma and Degree programmes offered at the University level in which students major in studies aimed at ensuring human security by safeguarding the country from both internal and external vulnerabilities, that have the potential to undermine state apparatus, both defensive and institutional, as well as individual fulfilment and sustainable development. Such studies include, among others, military science, criminology, international relations, peace and conflict studies, human rights, criminal justice, strategic studies, police studies and security management.

Quality Education: Includes healthy learners; safe and gender-sensitive learning environments, adequate resource and facilities; relevant curriculum content; student centred teaching approaches; skilful assessment procedures; and outcomes that embrace knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals of education and positive participation in society (UNICEF, 2000).

Quality: The totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bears its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs.

Service quality: Ability of an organization to meet or exceed customer expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Kitchroen, 2004).

Teaching: An activity which involves facilitating student learning; assessing student learning outcomes; engaging in professional learning; participating in curriculum policy and programme initiatives; and, forming partnerships within the school community (Mahmood & Salfi, 2012).

University: An institution of HE and research which grants academic diplomas and degrees in a variety of subjects and provides diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate education.

1.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the background that informs higher education in peace and security studies. It has stated the research problem, outlined the research questions, aims, objectives as well as the rationale, significance and motivation for the research. It has also briefly outlined the research methods used in the study and the participating HE institutions. The chapter has further discussed the limitations and delimitations of the study, the structure of the thesis, in terms of chapter division, and finally defined the operational concepts. The next chapter will discuss the theoretical framework underpinning the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.0 Introduction

The aim of this study was to investigate students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya. The key variable under investigation was the overall student perception of the quality of teaching and learning. This was studied against the educational service quality factors in teaching and learning, which comprised lecturer factor, teaching methodology, content design and relevance and, instructional facilities and evaluation. In this chapter, the theories guiding the conceptualization of these factors as well as other variables under investigation are discussed. These are human security conceptualization, critical social theory, humanistic and social reconstructionist curriculum theory and service quality theory.

2.1 Human Security Conceptualization

The concept of 'Human Security' is a contemporary conceptualization of security that seeks to deflect focus on security issues from protection of the state and its territory to protection of individuals, while still aiming to safeguard, the state from foreign military threats. The primary referent is protection of individual citizens from poverty, hunger, environmental degradation, physical and political violence, inter-ethnic and sectarian tension, and abuses of human rights. Even though security between states would still remain a criterion for the security of individual citizens, this conceptualization does not regard it as adequate to warrant people's security in their day to day lives (Wakefield & Fleming, 2009).

The concept dates back to the mid 1990s following its adoption by the UNDP as a means of advocating for individual's personal protection (fear) and emancipation from poverty (want). The UNDP stressed the need for security to be addressed by all socio-economic, cultural, political and environmental agenda aimed at ensuring individuals of continued existence, income and respect (UNDP, 1994).   However, the idea was first mooted in the report of the Independent Commission on Disarmament and Security Issues in 1982, which pioneered the criticism of the purely military approach to security issues. It advocated for a holistic security paradigm which devotes full attention to the relations between security and the well being of individuals (Gregoratti, 2007). The Human Development Report of the UN (1994) identified seven security areas:

a) Livelihood security, which implies the capacity of the population to fend for themselves through an economic activity.

b) Food security, which implies the provision of adequate food to the population.

c) Health security, which implies the provision of adequate curative and preventive healthcare facilities and resources;

d) Environmental security, which implies protection of the environment against climatic changes such as global warming, which are likely to impact on food security and trigger future conflicts.

e) Individual security, which implies protection of individual members of the community from crime and interpersonal violence.

f) Neighbourhood security, which entails the interpersonal relationship between individuals from diverse cultures and backgrounds in a given neighbourhood or community.

g) Political security, which entails the relationship between the state regime and its population

Whereas this study acknowledges the interrelatedness of the various aspects of human security, the scope will only cover political security and individual security due to their direct bearing on the content of peace and security studies.

The concept therefore revolves around the need to address conflicts within states and repackage sovereignty as a 'responsibility and not a right' by increasing pressure on states to protect their citizens from internal threats besides external ones (Collins, 2013, p. 105). The onus of the theory of human security is on good governance and eradication of political violence against citizens, which is often engineered by state regimes. It demands more attention and resources to be devoted on development and assisting vulnerable people and communities, especially those involved in endless internal conflicts. Collins further argues that the concept is tied to the philosophy of liberalism, which is people-centric and advocates for freedom and equality as necessary ingredients for security of individuals.

The proponents of the theory have pursued two different schools of thought: the narrow view and the broad view. The narrow view of human security contends that the main concern should be on political violence by the state or other organized political actors. Mack (2004) argues that major security threats to people's lives be it poverty and bad governance is pegged on violence, hence human security should be limited to freedom from fear of threat and use of political violence. In this context, the 2007/2008 post-election violence in Kenya in which over 1,133 people were killed and 350,000 others displaced, would qualify as a serious threat to human security, which should exclusively define security priorities of the country (Republic of Kenya, 2008b). Nevertheless, the proponents of the broader view of human security have expanded the concept to include 'freedom from fear, freedom from want and other freedoms and values' (Collins, 2013, p. 106). In his arguments for the broader view, Thakur (2004) notes that human security is

about the full protection of people from dangers that threaten their lives regardless of the sources of the dangers, whether political, civil, or external. Similarly, Alkiri (2004) notes that the objective of human security should be to protect individuals in such a way that they are able to advance their personal freedoms and fulfilment.   Even though the two schools of human security continue to compete, they are interdependent and interconnected.

The concept of human security therefore points to the need to broaden the knowledge, skills and attitudes of those charged with the responsibility of offering security to encompass not just the police and military drills necessary for protection of states and regimes, as offered in the respective state security training institutions, but a broader understanding of security as a basic human need without which human beings may not be able to enjoy their freedom and achieve personal fulfilment.

It is within the latter need that HE in peace and security studies finds relevance. Such courses as criminal justice, international relations, armed conflict and peace studies and strategic studies not only offer the requisite skills in dealing with cases of individual and political insecurity but also give a broader understanding of the totality of the environment in which insecurity occurs and its impact on individuals. This study set out to determine students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies offered in Kenyan universities, and as such it aimed at examining the curriculum offered to the HE learners in light of the basics of human security. Since any process of examination requires critical inquiry, section 2.2 will discuss the critical social theory.

2.2 Critical Social Theory

Critical Social Theory (CST) is a form of science that aims to free persons from the intellectual limitations that hamper their full interaction and participation in their social environments (Wilson-Thomas, 1995; Vlades, 2002; Leonardo, 2004). It seeks to de-familiarize reality by examining the ingredients of tradition as contextualized within a given culture and replacing them with liberal discourse. It is one way of empowering the voiceless through critical reflection on hegemony as embedded in the structures and functions of society (Wilson-Thomas, 1995; Stevens, 1989; Thompson, 1987). Allen, Benner and Diekehnann (1986) contend that the power relations are reinforced by certain social and cultural boundaries which people are expected to adhere to. By putting criticism at the centre of knowledge production CST seeks to counter the barriers which define social interaction by identifying inherent paradoxes and re-examining mindsets and models. In quality education, therefore, criticism inculcates in the student an inquisitive mind, which is able to deconstruct, and then reconstruct knowledge in the interest of liberty (Leonardo, 2004). In his argument for critical theory in legal education, Vlades (2002, p.139) asserts:

> Critical theory is the project that enables substantive analysis of the personal and particular at structural and systemic levels. It is the process that makes patterns out of particularities… work of unpacking an apparent social reality to better understand how it might be improved both in micro and macro contexts. Critical theorizing is the effort to go beyond surface appearances, immediate emergencies and personal experiences- not to forget those, not to ignore or neglect those, but to go beyond those – so as to interconnect them in a coherent way substantively, structurally, socially, historically. Critical theory is what allows us to devise a potent approach to social action so that our interventions are more likely to be substantively fruitful. After all, action for action's sake is not what is most likely to better the lives of subordinated groups and persons in enduring, material ways.

Historically, CST emanates from the social philosophy of Marxism, whose ideology is rooted on social restraints based on class division and labour. This movement started in 1924 with the Frankfurt School in Germany accentuating the critical theory philosophy.

The dialectic shifted to critique of culture in 1930 when Max Horkheimer assumed the leadership of the school (Habermas, 1971; Wilson-Thomas, 1995). In the 1960s, the ideas of Jurgen Habermas saw a rebirth of the school. Habermas argued for social critique to be geared towards the structures and ideologies of social systems, since power and domination are enshrined on these structures. Only then would the critique be useful in freeing persons from domination. Habermas further saw critical theory as a means of generating knowledge that is based upon free, unforced and unaltered discourse. He stressed the need for knowledge to be subjected to critical analysis, rather than mutual understanding since the power of restriction lies within the latent communication. The thorough reflection would help one to examine rules, habits and traditions that are accepted without question. The goal of critical theory is therefore to unlock the status quo and promote self-reflection among those who are intellectually confined within certain socio-cultural boundaries (Habermas, 1971).

Discourses on CST in quality education have continued to rely heavily on the works of, among others, Aronowitz and Giroux (1987) in "discourse wars"; Apple (1990) in "ideology and curriculum"; Cherryholmes (1992) in "knowledge, power, and discourse; Freire (1970) in "pedagogy of the oppressed"; Gore (1993) in "struggle for pedagogies"; Hooks (1994) in "teaching to transgress"; McLaren (1995) in "predatory culture"; Pruyn, (1999), in "education under siege"; Bartolome and Macedo (2001) in "dancing with bigotry"; and Allen (2002) in "globalization of white supremacy". The central concern of these discourses is the need for quality education to empower students to confront the inequalities which exist in education processes, and which are reinforced by "global decentralization" and "centralization of capital in the hands of multinational corporations"

(Leonrado, 2004, p.13). This line of thinking brought forth the discourse of critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970).

A superior HE in human security would therefore be that which enables students to understand and engage with the social systems and their roots, especially those charged with giving security to the population, with a view to enhancing their role in protection of individual citizens from political violence and underdevelopment. By giving students space to comment on the quality of teaching and learning they receive, this study enabled them, as customers of HE institutions, to define their learning preferences, within the context of human security and transcend the learning institutions' preference for cost-benefit approaches to the delivery of HE.

The students' perceptions of quality of lecturers, quality of teaching methodology, design and relevance of content, quality of curriculum evaluation approaches and quality of teaching and learning facilities have been part of their critical engagement with the curriculum, which has enabled this study to bring on board the overall quality of the teaching and learning of peace and security studies in universities in Kenya with a view to improving the programmes within the human security framework. This study, while relying on Shor's (1993) reflections on CST, did not encourage students to wait until all the solutions to the teaching and learning problems they face are found, before they could give their opinion. Instead, it created an intellectual space for them by posing quality teaching and learning as an educational problem so that they critically examine it and develop new perspectives, which inform their further engagements with the peace and security studies. Section 2.3 of this chapter discusses the humanistic and social

reconstructionist theories of the curriculum as the yardstick of an ideal peace and security pedagogy.

2.3 The Humanistic and Social Reconstructionist Conceptions of Curriculum

The humanistic and social reconstructionist conceptions of curriculum, as educational theories, offer insight in understanding the orientations which inform the design, and delivery of quality teaching and learning in human security education.

Humanistic Curriculum

The humanistic curriculum is centred on the development of the individual by helping them discover their real self as opposed to being shaped into a predetermined model (Mc Neil, 1996). While aiming to advance individual freedom and fulfilment, the humanistic curriculum provides each learner with innately gratifying experiences that contribute to personal emancipation and advancement. The ultimate goal is self actualization, which is also the overriding objective of human security. Mc Neil further argues that the product of the curriculum is not just a cognitively endowed individual but also an aesthetically and morally healthy person. The growth to the achievement of this goal is a basic need and it implies 'learners being permitted to express, act out, experiment, make mistakes, be seen, get feedback and discover who they are' (Mc Neil, 1996, p.7).

In their study of optimal and enjoyable experiences involving deep concentration on the activity, Csikszentmihalyi and Csikszentmihalyi (1988), found that those people who found their experiences to be inherently pleasant, were able to develop their scholarly abilities maximally. This state would only occur when the environmental challenges are able to match one's competencies and skills, hence the need to expose the leaner to more

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complex assignments. To Csikszentmihalyi (1993), greater learning is acquired when the student is able to acquire multiple interests and abilities and develop complexity in their consciousness. The complexity comprises differentiation (a situation where one seeks autonomy to pursue personal goals and become unique) and integration (where one reaches out to others to help them achieve the goals). According to humanists, a peace and security studies curriculum should therefore enable the leaner to fully develop their individual abilities in their chosen areas of specialization while recognizing that they have a duty to help the citizens to equally realize their life goals.

The key concern is on participation, integration, relevance, self and comprehensive student experience rather than acquisition of fragmented blocks of knowledge (Shapiro, 1987). While writing on the need to increase student autonomy in HE, Yuskel (2010, p. 3-4), similarly, emphasizes that quality HE is characterized by 'flexibility, inclusiveness, collaboration, authenticity and, relevance'. Consequently, he advocates for a 'negotiated curriculum', which increases the students' role in curriculum decision making. This argument enhances the ideals of a humanistic curriculum. Through negotiation with the educators, students are able to mould some components of the curriculum according to their expectations, thereby creating individualized education and overcoming the short comings of a general training based on assumptions.

The role of the lecturer in delivering this curriculum is to establish an emotional relationship with the students and create a supportive teaching and learning environment to enhance self learning. The lecturer also listens comprehensively to student's views, respects the students, remains ordinary and real, understands, facilitates, and acts as

resource centre. Other approaches include encounter groups, meditation, game-like activities, and small group discussions (Mc Neil, 1996; Print, 1993).

Evaluation and assessment of the humanistic curriculum emphasizes the process (formative evaluation) rather than the product (summative evaluation). The focus of the lecturers, during this process is in monitoring student progress through continuous engagements or seeking immediate feedback at the end of each engagement in order to improve curriculum delivery. By determining the perceptions of the students on the quality of their engagement with the lectures, this study has been able to anatomize the delivery of peace and security studies Kenya in light of the humanistic values entrenched within human security conceptualization.

Social Reconstructionist Curriculum

The social reconstructionist curriculum, on the other hand, emphasises the relationship between the curriculum and the social, political and economic development of the society (Print, 1993; Mc Neil, 1996). Just as human security shifts focus from security of the state and emphasizes good governance as essential in ensuring the betterment of the lives of individual citizens, the social reconstructionists see the curriculum as an essential tool in effecting the desired social change. To them, the goals of a curriculum include determination of the range of problems faced in the society and, the key approaches for effecting the desired change (Eisner, 1979; Mc Neil, 1996). The emphasis is on confronting the leaner with the many serious problems which humanity faces be they in social studies, sciences, arts or maths, and imparting that knowledge that would help the learners to solve those problems.

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Print (1993, p. 53) outlines the three strands of social reconstruction curriculum as 'social adaption' , which argues for the curriculum to be adapted to meets social needs; 'social reconstructionism', which emphasizes radical curriculum change to meet the society's urgent needs and; the futuristic perspective , which speculates what a curriculum should look like to meet supposed societal needs. The objective of peace and security studies in this context would therefore be to present human insecurity, as exemplified by political violence and poor governance, as a serious societal problem whose solution must be found in order to help individual citizens achieve their full potential. To this end, studies on good governance, human rights as well as armed conflict and peace studies would be vital subject matter.

One of the leading proponents of social reconstruction curriculum, Paulo Freire, has argued for educators to raise the social consciousness of learners on the realities of political and economic oppression and the need for liberation from the domination, hence 'conscientization' (Freire, 1970; Mc Neil, 1996). To him, social reconstruction begins by making students aware of the obstacles that prevent them from having a clearer perception of reality, which include a fixed way of thinking, rigid educational rules, conservative educational systems, and political manipulations. These obstacles of oppression come from both within the person and the environment and the role of the social reconstruction curriculum is to dismember them in order to free the person from unquestioned loyalty to their personal world views and non-critical adherence to other people's opinions (Freire, 1989). Elsewhere, other proponents of the critical pedagogy, Michael Apple and Henry Giroux have advocated for the social reconstructionist curriculum to abstain from reproducing that knowledge which reinforces dominant social class interests but to empower students to question those interests including the doctrines of their own

institutions and even censure those institutions when they fail to meet certain standards (Apple, 1990; Giroux, 1987). Hence the ultimate goal of HE in peace and security, from the perspectives of Freire, Apple and Giroux, is not just to ensure learners' acquire a mastery of the existing competencies in carrying out peace and security duties but to free them from the unquestioned obedience to those competencies and empower them to reconceptualise security not from the state perspective but from the humanistic or other better ideals.

The role of the lecturer in delivering this curriculum would be to invoke the student's critical consciousness and make learning more liberal, while relating the subject matter to the student goals. The lecturer is to emphasize student cooperation with the community and its resources, as well as seek internship opportunities for the learners to work as equals with more experienced members of the community in social projects. The evaluation and assessment of the social reconstructionist curriculum is broad-based and includes examining student ability to articulate problems, produce solutions, reconceptualise their world outlook and take initiative towards solving a problem. Of equal evaluation interest is the effect of the curriculum upon a community, which can be assessed through institution to community or industry linkages (Mc Neil, 1996).

The argument of this study therefore is that the delivery of quality HE in human security requires a combination of both humanistic and social reconstructionist curriculum perspectives. Whereas the former would be useful in enriching teaching and learning methodology, the latter would be vital in determination of course objectives and selection of relevant content. Considering that HE is a service, section 2.4 of this chapter discusses the service quality theory.

2.4. Service Quality

The history of services is as old as human interactions (Van Schalkwyk, 2011). The study of service quality gained ground in 1980s through investigations carried out on customers and service personnel in commercial enterprises by means of participation and observation (Pieters & Botschen, 1999). Today, service delivery has become a major component of customer satisfaction and profitability, hence, key in ensuring competitive advantage in the business world (Prideaux, Moscardo & Laws, 2006; Van Schalkwyk, 2011). Scholars agree that what truly adds value to the customer is not so much what is delivered, but how it is delivered (Kandampully & Kandampully, 2006; Van Schalkwyk, 2011).

The two key traits of services are that they are intangible and inseparable- produced and consumed at the same time (Van Schalkwyk, 2011). Hence, Wilson, et al (2008, p. 6) define services as "all economic activities whose output is not a physical product or construction, is generally consumed at the time it is produced, and provides added value in forms (such as convenience, amusement, comfort or health) that are essentially intangible concerns of its first purchaser". Similarly, Lamb, et al, (2004), explain that services are activities or performances that cannot be physically owned. Besides, intangibility and inseparability, he further outlines other key features of services as perishability- inability to be stored for future use (Kotler, 2000; Lamb et al., 2004; Lewis, 2007; Van Schalkwyk, 2011) and heterogeneity- inability to remain consistent over time due to inseparability of production and consumption. The latter trait makes quality control and standardization difficult to achieve in service delivery (Van Schalkwyk, 2011; Lamb et al., 2004; O'Brian & Deans, 1996).

In his study of the service encounter, Palmer (2008) maps out the service process in terms of the physical environment (servicescapes) and the customer's perception of the encounter (servuction). The servicescapes concept underscores the effect of the environment under which the service is delivered. The physical environment is recognised as influential in both employee and customer behaviour and may significantly impact on employee output and their interactions with customers (Van Schalkwyk, 2011). The servuction perspective describes the producer-consumer service production system and divides the service features into the observable (physical environment and service personnel) and the imperceptible (infrastructure to support the observable parts). In this regard, service experiences of customers are determined by the content, process and structural elements, especially in those services with high levels of customer input. (Van Schalkwyk, 2011; Davies, Barron & Harris, 1999; De´caudin & Lacoste, 2010; Nicholls, 2010; Palmer, 2008).

Quality, on the other hand, has been defined variedly. Whereas a number of quality specialists refer to it as all that makes a customer satisfied, other specialists refer to it as total absence of defects or the level of superiority or excellence attached to a product or service (Van Schalkwyk, 2011; Ramphal, 2011; Harding, 2005). At the centre of quality effort is the desire to meet or exceed customer expectations. To this end, Pycraft et al. (2010, p.505) has defined quality as "… the degree of fit between customers' expectations and customer perception of the product or service". In a study aimed at defining quality, Evans (2011) found that many managers perceived a quality service or product as that which is perfect, reliable, economical, timely, conforming to specifications, efficient, impressive, delightful, and provides wholesome customer service and satisfaction. From these concepts, Foster (2010) explains that quality is transcendent (naturally understood but not easy to quantify), product based (is found in the ingredients of a commodity or

service), user based (it is determined by the customer), manufacturing based (conforms to design specifications) or value based (acceptance is based on perception).

Service quality, therefore, has been described as the ability of an organization to meet or exceed customer expectations (Kitchroen, 2004). In another study, Parasuraman et al. (1985) have listed ten determinants of service quality that can be generalized to any type of service. They include: *Tangibles* - the physical evidence of the service, physical facilities, appearance of personnel, tools or equipment used to provide the service, other customers in the service facility; *Reliability* - consistency of performance and dependability; *Responsiveness* - willingness or readiness of staff to provide service; *Competence* - possession of the required skills and knowledge to perform the service by the contact personnel as well as operational support personnel; *Access* - approachability and ease of contact; *Courtesy* - politeness, respect, consideration, and friendliness of contact personnel; *Communication* - keeping customers informed in a language they can understand; *Credibility* - trustworthiness, believability, and honesty; *Security* - the freedom from danger, risk, or doubt. (e.g. physical safety and confidentiality); and *Understanding* - making the effort to understand the customer's needs.

Kitchroen (2004) explains that these ten dimensions were later regrouped into five dimensions in the SERVQUAL Model proposed by Parasuraman et al. (1990). They include *Tangible* - appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication materials; *Reliability* - ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately; *Responsiveness* - willingness to help customers and provide prompt service; *Assurance* - knowledge and courtesy of staff and their ability to convey trust and confidence; and *Empathy* – caring and individualized attention to the customer.

Parasuraman et al. (1990) later proposed the model to subjectively measure service quality by finding out the extent of discrepancy between customers' expectations or desires and their perceptions of the actual quality of performed service. Kitchroen (2004) explains that when the perceived performance is greater than expectation, there is high satisfaction and the customer is delighted; when the perceived performance is equal to the expectation, then the customer is merely satisfied; but when perceived performance is less than expectation, the customer is dissatisfied. In this context, Griffin (1996), defined a customer as anyone who pays money to acquire an organization's products or services, just like a HE student.

In an earlier study, Sasser, Olsen, and Wyckoff (1978) listed seven service attributes which they believed adequately embraced the concept of service quality. These included: *Security*, which includes confidence as well as physical safety; *Consistency*, which means receiving the same treatment for each transaction; *Attitude*, which refers to politeness; *Completeness*, which means availability of ancillary services; *Condition* of facilities; *Availability* – spatial and temporal customer access to services and; *Training* of service providers.

In another discussion, Gronroos (1991) as quoted in Kitchroen (2004, p.15) accentuates that service quality is made up of three dimensions: the "*technical* quality of the outcome", the "*functional* quality of the encounter", and the "company corporate *image*". Similarly, Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1982) as quoted in Kang and James (2004, p.267) described service quality in three dimensions: the "*physical quality*" (of products and/or services), the "*corporate quality*" (the company image) and "*interactive quality*" (interaction between the consumer and the service organization). These authors argue that in examining the determinants of quality, it is necessary to differentiate between quality associated with the

process of service delivery and quality associated with the outcome of service, judged by the consumer after the service is performed.

Further discussions on service quality by Johnston, Silvestro, Fitzgerald, and Voss (1990) as cited in Johnson (1997), have identified eighteen determinants of service quality which Kitchroen (2004, p.15) has categorized in three main dimensions as "*hygiene factors*", "*enhancing factors*" and "*dual-threshold factors*". "Hygiene factors" are expected by the customer and dissatisfaction of customers would occur if they are not delivered. "Enhancing factors" will lead to customer satisfaction but will not necessarily lead to customer dissatisfaction if they are not delivered. Failure to deliver "dual-threshold factors" will cause dissatisfaction, enhance customer's perceptions of a service and lead to satisfaction if they are delivered above a certain threshold.

Holdford and Reinders (2001), therefore, defined service quality as a post-consumption evaluation of services by consumers that compares expectations with perceptions of performance. To them, service quality evaluations are based on the manner in which the service was delivered (*i.e.*, functional quality) and what outcome resulted from that service (*i.e.*, technical quality). It is operationalized as a cumulative evaluation of multiple transactions over time.

This theory highlights that service quality is multidimensional in nature and hence the need for multi-perspective approaches when determining the quality of a service. The study therefore examined the quality of teaching and learning as an educational service. This was accomplished by investigating students' perception on a variety of variables including the lecturer factor, teaching learning methodology, teaching facilities, course relevance and design and, evaluation. Since perceptions are critical in determining the quality of a service, section 2.4.1 of this chapter discusses the importance of perceptions.

2.4.1 Importance of Perceptions in Service Quality

Schacter (2011) explains that the word perception originates from a Latin word '*perceptio, or percipio',* which refers to identification and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment. Similarly, Sullivan (2009) has defined perception as the process through which people acquire, select, interpret, and organize in the mind that information which they have acquired through the senses. Further, Brosch, Pourtois, and Sander (2010) concur that perception is what human beings rely on in order to fully understand the world and their environment. It is the 'transformation of the environmental stimuli into a 'percept'- the accessible, subjective, reportable experience'. Considering the environmental stimuli as the student's interaction with the peace and security studies curriculum, perception in this study therefore refers to the students' opinion about or the degree of confidence they have in the education services offered by their institutions. But why is perception so important in service quality?

Immediately, organizations started to focus on service quality as an elevator in marketability, quality enhancement has been associated with success across various industries, HE included (Van Schalkwyk, 2011). Hence organizations that adopt strategies focusing on customer satisfaction, such as offering services more superior to their competitors, have managed to yield high returns more than those that focus on cutting costs only (Wilson, *et al.* 2008; Lamb, et al., 2004; Seth, et al., 2005). The perceptions which a customer holds about a given service would therefore be vital in deciding the quality enhancement measures to adopt.

Van Schalkwyk (2011) explains that todays' customers have become more knowledgeable about quality issues due to the increased marketization of products and services as well as

explosion in the use of information technology. In this context, their perceptions cannot be ignored in quality enhancement. Such perceptions would be vital in improving corporate image, reducing costs, leading to increased productivity, as well as improved overall business performance (Van Schalkwyk, 2011; Lewis, 2007; Seth, Deshmukh & Vrat*.,* 2005). In one study, Prideaux, Moscardo, and Laws (2006) argue that customers who perceive the quality of a service as dissatisfying will look for alternative services elsewhere but worse still will discuss their bad experiences with many people thereby damaging the integrity of the organization. Similarly, Dale, Van der Wiele, and Van Iwaarden (2007) emphasise that customer perception is vital for the sustainability of any organisation. The authors underscore the following facts about customer perception of service quality:

a. majority of customers who are dissatisfied with your service are unlikely to tell you so but will take their business elsewhere;

b. dissatisfied customers will tell an average of ten other people about their bad experience, whereas 12% of them will tell twice as many;

c. satisfied customers will tell only a few people about their positive experience;

d. attracting a new customer costs much more than retaining an existing one;

e. majority of dissatisfied customers will not buy from you again, and they will not tell you why;

f. high quality service increases profitability since customers are willing to pay more to receive better service and;

g. majority of dissatisfied customers will become loyal again if the organization responds to their complaints and handles them well and quickly.

The need to determine customer perception in order to develop service quality enhancement programmes cannot be overstated.

2.4.1.1 Perceptions and Self Efficacy

This study further asserts that it would not be fair to look at the importance of perception only in terms of organizational success. The impact of the quality of a service on an individual's personal life cannot be downplayed. If an individual perceives the quality of a product to be low, they may not use it, but if they do, they may use it without confidence, and vice versa. The quality of education a student receives can easily be equated to the quality of medical treatment one would get in a hospital. When the medication is poor, a faster healing process of a patient cannot be guaranteed. The same scenario is possible with the quality of teaching and learning. In this context, the perceptions students develop about quality of an educational service are therefore a significant determinant of their self efficacy.

One proponent of the theory, Albert Bandura, explains that self efficacy is an individual's belief in his or her abilities to perform any given assignment successfully. (Bandura, 1997). It is one of the motivational factors which will determine how a person will perform in any given endeavour (Zarit & Robertson, 2007). Betz (2006) explains that self efficacy outlooks are likely to have three main behavioural outcomes. In one instance, an individual may exhibit an approach or avoidance behaviour. In another instance, there may be a change in the quality of performance on a given assignment and in the last case, the individual may exercise persistence in the face of obstacles or displeasing experiences. Hence, low self efficacy outlook regarding a given task is likely to lead to the individual avoiding the task resulting into dismal performance or they may just give up when discouraged or when one has failed to achieve a given target. Zarit and Robertson (2007) further explain that self-efficacy relate to definite assignments, and it is circumstance-specific and readily built up more than self confidence or self esteem, hence people may

develop high self-efficacy for assignments and low self efficacy outlook for others. It is also a measure of how people will perform in given assignments.

The implication therefore is that favourable perceptions of quality of teaching and learning are likely to lead to higher self-efficacy outlook among the peace and security studies students after graduation and unfavourable perceptions are likely to attract lower outlook. Whereas Zarit and Robertson (2007) and Betz (2006) agree that self-efficacy outlook has significant effects on career choices, this study underscores the fact that the consequences of self-efficacy outlook of the graduands on performance of the peace and security assignments can be monumental. When the self-efficacy outlook of the graduand is low, the rate of crime will be on the rise, businesses will register losses, and conflicts will never be resolved. In brief, communities will continue to be insecure. The goal of this study therefore was to examine students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities, not just as measure of the performance of HE institutions but also as predictor of the efficiency of the peace and security professionals who are or will be charged with this noble task.

Having discussed the key ingredients of service quality and the importance of customer perceptions in quality enhancement, section 2.4.2 now discusses service quality in higher education.

2.4.2: Service Quality in Higher Education

Kitchroen (2004) explains that, in education, students are customers who come into contact with an educational institution, as a service provider, for the purpose of acquiring knowledge and skills. Hill (1995) mentions that as a primary customer of HE services, the

student's focus is on expectations. In HE, the treatment of students as customers during the service process and the actual outcomes experienced by the students do affect their judgment of the quality of education service provided and selection for enrolment in HE (Ong & Nankervis, 2012). These components must be measured regularly to respond to the changes in the environments, where expectations of the stakeholder are becoming higher. At the University level, the results of the measurements are very useful for the faculty management and academic staff in strategizing for the continuous improvement so that the services offered by the faculty exceed the expectations of the students (Jusoh, Siti, Abdul-Majid, Som, & Shamsuddin, 2004). It is the quality of the service provided that will enable the HE institutions to differentiate themselves competitively in the marketplace (Joseph, 1998).

Holdford and Reinders (2001) equally note that a comprehensive judgement of the value of education cannot be achieved through course-specific and competency-based forms of assessments alone. Course evaluations basically regard courses as a series of discrete classroom encounters that can be evaluated in isolation and are therefore limited in application. Even when added to student competency assessments, course evaluations still leave educators guessing about student opinions of how those competencies were achieved. Thus a more comprehensive view of quality education in an institution can only be determined by assessing not only student perceptions of their educational outcomes but also their perceptions of the manner in which that education is provided. Holdford and Reinders further explain that the process of education consists of the rich combination of experiences that occur both inside and outside of the classroom, which helps determine educational outcomes. Student opinions of that process along with perceptions of outcomes would therefore be invaluable in assessing the quality of education service provided by a HE institution.

Chua (2004), while applying consumer behaviour theory to education, explains that students are actually consumers purchasing the services provided by education; therefore, the students have the right to obtain the best quality education. The University should therefore view the students as their primary customers who receive their educational services (Madu & Kuei, 1993). Improving the quality of services to these customers imply understanding their needs and specifically the quality attributes they embrace.

Owlia and Aspinwall (1996) point out that in order to measure quality, and consequently improve quality, it is necessary to find out and define the characteristics of that quality. To this end, the authors have regarded quality in HE as a product, software and service. Following the same principle, Mishra (2006) quotes Gravin (1987) as having proposed eight dimensions for quality that define both product and service attributes. These are: (1) *Performance*- the key operating characteristics of a product; (2) *Features*- those characteristics that supplement the basic performance functions; (3) *Reliability*- the probability of a product working fault- free within a specified time period; (4) *Conformance*- the extent to which a product meets the established specification/ standard; (5) *Durability*- the products' assumed life to perform satisfactorily; (6) *Serviceability*- the repairability and field service of the product (7) *Aesthetics*- design, looks , colour and presentation and how the customer views it. (8) *Perceived quality*- customers opinion and how they perceive a certain degree of confidence on quality.

Owlia and Aspinwall (1996) in further discussion of product dimensions of quality in HE have singled out the first six of Gravin's dimensions as key. These are (1) *Performance*, which refers to knowledge and skills required by graduates; (2) *Features,* which refer to supplementry knowledge and skills and (3) *Reliability*, which refers to the extent to which

knowledge skills learnt is correct, accurate and up to date; (4) *Conformance,* which refers to extent to which an institutional programme/ course meets established standards, plans and promises; (5) *Durability*, refers to the depth of learning and (6) *Servicability*, which refers to how well an instituion handles customer's complaints.

Mishra (2006) has regarded quality as software and has emphasized the characteristics of software products that are more consistent as correctness, reliability, efficiency, integrity, usability, maintainability, testability, expandability, portability, reusability and interoperability. In another development, Owlia and Aspinwall (1996) have apportioned these software quality dimensions to HE as follows: *Correctness*, refers to the extent to which a programme complies with the specific requirement; *Reliability,* refers to the degree to which knowledge and skills learned are correct, accurate and up to date; *Efficiency,* implies the extent to which knowledge and skills learned are applicable to the future career of graduates; *Integrity,* is the extent to which personal information is secure from unauthorized access; *usability,* refers to the ease of learning and degree of communicativeness in the classroom; *Maintainability,* refers how well an institution handles customers' complaints; *Testability,* implies the fairness of examination in relation to the subject of study; *Expandability* refers to flexibility of the educational programmes; while *portability, usability,* and *interoperability* refer to the degree to which knowledge/skills learned is applicable to other fields.

In another study, Joseph and Joseph (1997) developed a model of service quality in HE consisting of the following dimensions of service quality in higher education: *academic reputation*, which includes prestige, degree programmes recognized nationally and internationally, and the quality of the teaching faculty; *career opportunities*, which includes the acceptability of the institution's graduands in the job market; as well as the

information the institution provides to the students on career opportunities; *programme issues*, which includes the flexibility and variety of courses, practical components, specialist courses, and flexible entry criteria; *cost/time*, which refers to course duration and monetary implications; *physical aspects*, which includes appealing campus plan, accommodation and recreation facilities; *the geographical location of the institution*; and *other parallel factors* such as interpersonal relations and communication.

Further comprehensive review of service quality dimensions in education by Owlia and Aspinall (1996) developed fourteen dimensions. These are: (1) *Reliability*, which refers to the degree to which education is correct, accurate, promising, consistent and up to date; (2) *Responsiveness*, which implies the willingness and readiness of staff to help students; (3) *Understanding* customers, which involves appreciating students and their needs; (4) *Access,* which refers to availability of staff to guide and advice students;(5) *Competence*, theoretical model and practical knowledge of staff as well as other presentation skills; (6) *Courtesy,* which implies emotive and positive attitude towards students (7) *Communication*, which implies how well lecturers and students communicate in the classroom (8) *Credibility*, which means the degree to which an institution can be trusted; (9) *Security*, which refers to confidentiality of information; (10) *Tangibles*, which refers to the availability and utilization of equipment and facilities; (11) *Performance*, which refers to key knowledge/skills required for graduates (12) *Completeness*: which refers to supplementary knowledge and skills such as Information Communication Technology (ICT) skills; and (13*) Flexibility*, which refers to the degree to which knowledge/skills learned is applicable to other fields and; (14) *Redress*, which means how well an institution deals with students complaints and solves their problems.

The authors later on summarised the fourteen dimensions to cover six key criteria that depict quality dimensions in HE. These are tangibles, competence, attitude, content, delivery and reliability. They explain that *Tangibles* refer to sufficiency, accessibility, appeal and modernity of facilities and equipment; *Competence* refers to sufficient academic staff, knowledge base, qualifications, teaching expertise and communication; *Attitude* implies understanding student's needs, willingness to help, availability for guidance and advice, personal attention and courtesy; *Content* means relevance and effectiveness of curriculum to future jobs of students and flexibility of knowledge cross disciplines; *Delivery* refers to effective presentation, sequencing timelines, consistency and fairness of examinations, feedback from students, encouraging students; *Reliability* means trustworthiness, giving valid award, meeting objectives, keeping promises and handling students complaints and solving their problems.

These dimensions have dominated service quality discourse in HE both at the institutional and classroom levels (Hamid & Zaidatol, 2004; Struyven et al., 2005). The service quality theory was therefore used to measure quality teaching and learning both from the process (functional) and outcome (technical) dimensions. The guiding framework of quality teaching and learning was customised as follows: The process dimension focused on such attributes as capability of the academic and support staff (*Assurance)*; Teaching Methodology, course design and Evaluation approaches (*Responsiveness*); Caring and student centred environment (*Empathy*) and appropriate teaching and learning facilities (*Tangibles*). The technical dimension was measured through attributes assessing the relevance of the peace and security studies *(Reliability)*.

It would be important to observe from the foregoing discussion that whereas service quality in HE focuses both on the processes and the outcome, the specific service quality

dimensions of HE are as varied as the variables under investigation. As such the service quality five dimensional instrument has been criticised for being inappropriate for all service situations besides focusing only on the service process and not the outcome of that service (Holford & Reinders, 2001). This study used a modified version of the service performance (SERVPERF) Instrument developed by Cronin and Taylor (1992), as explained in Chapter Four.

2.5: The Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework of the study is therefore based on three main concepts in the teaching and learning of peace and security studies in universities: the goal of enhancing the training of peace and security personnel through quality HE, as set out in Kenya's Vision 2030; the design of content and delivery of the programmes by the universities through humanistic and social reconstructionist ideals and; evaluation of the programmes by determining students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning services through critical inquiry. The empirical investigation is particularly focused on student evaluation of the programmes in order to determine their worth and improve quality. From the framework, the evaluation of the peace and security studies curriculum from the perspective of the students is therefore the quality yard-stick and the pedestal upon which the goals, content, design and delivery are anchored. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework of the study.
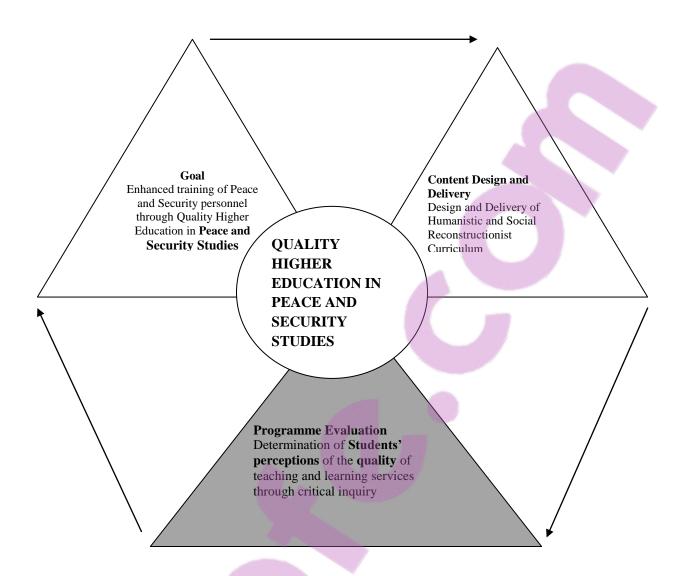
Figure 1: Diagram of the Conceptual Framework of the Study

Source: Synthesised by researcher from the theoretical framework

2.5 Chapter Summary

The aim of this study was to determine students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the Peace and Security Studies offered in Kenyan universities. This chapter has reviewed four theories which are underpinning the study. These are the Human Security Conceptualization, Critical Social Theory, Humanistic and Social Reconstructionist Curriculum theory and Service Quality theory.

The goal of the four theoretical orientations has been to provide a holistic view of the conceptual pillars guiding the delivery of HE in peace and security studies. While the conceptualization of public security from the human security perspective defines the scope within which the HE institutions are to base their programmes in terms of content relevance, the Humanistic and Social Reconstructionist Curriculum conception defines the orientation the programmes are to take in terms of curriculum development, resource allocation and delivery. The critical social theory, on the other hand, empowers the student to actively engage with the curriculum during delivery in order to get the best out of it through critical inquiry and finally, the service quality model provides the parameters for measuring the quality of the delivered curriculum.

Chapter three of the study reviews the literature, which focus on these concepts and other variables under investigation, in order to reveal the knowledge gaps which exist.

3.0 Introduction

The aim of this study was to investigate students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies programmes offered in universities in Kenya. Even though limited specific literature exist in the area under the focus of the research, the available related literature has been reviewed under three key areas: HE in Peace and Security Studies, with a section on regional and national security situations; Quality of Teaching and Learning; Quality Issues in HE in Kenya and Students Perception of Quality of Teaching and Learning in HE. At the end of each review is a discussion of how it relates to the current study and knowledge gaps which exist.

3.1.0 HE in Peace and Security Studies

The available literature on HE in peace and security studies exists in two fields. Whereas some scholars have approached peace and security studies from a broad field dimension and discussed the two concepts conjointly, other scholars have differentiated the two concepts and discussed them separately as peace studies or peace education and security studies. The on-going review discusses both the broad-field and the narrowed dimensions.

3.1.1 Broad-field Dimension

Smith (2008) has underscored the role of vocational institutions (community colleges) in the United States in offering HE in peace and security studies. To him, the post- September 11 2001 events as well as globalization have placed a demand on HE institutions to present themselves as expert centres of global economic advancement. Hence, various leadership groups across the US have continued to advocate for the teaching of global peace and

security both as a tool for ensuring fluency and competency of Americans in global and international affairs, but also for achieving an important goal of global awareness.

The vocational institutions are therefore encouraged to prioritize the teaching of global peace, conflict and security. To this end, scholars have recommended such curriculum innovation strategies as course infusion or development of parallel courses in order to achieve this (Smith, 2008; Jones & Sanford 2003; Carter, 2004). Infusion involves broader concepts from the social sciences which are relevant to global peace and security being integrated in the secondary school curriculum. On the other hand, approaches to develop more discipline oriented content in parallel courses at the HE level, have also been evident (Lazerson & Wagener, 1992). To overcome the burden of an inflated curriculum at the HE level, the colleges have resorted to offering credit courses and programmes as strategies in teaching global peace, conflict and security. In other cases, curriculum developers have reviewed courses in the social sciences and the humanities as the best disciplines to house these concepts.

Smith further explains that the increased attention to peace and security studies in the US has also led to the establishment of non-credit oriented community centres whose key objectives are peace and security education. Hence, the establishment of Ocean County College (New Jersey), in 2003, as a centre that focuses on peace, genocide and holocaust issues; Pasco-Hernando Community College (Florida), established in 2005 as a peace and social justice institute which explores the theoretical and practical applications of peace pedagogy; and Howard Community College (Maryland), started in 2006, as a mediation and conflict resolution center and Brookdale Community College (New Jersey), which supports World War II and Conflict Resolution.

Other scholars have equally advocated for more academic programmes in peace and security studies in the tertiary colleges (Lincoln, 2001; Smith, 2003). Consequently, a number of colleges in Washington, New York and Pennsylvania as well as colleges in Maryland and California have continued to offer courses that focus on conflict management and global peace and security under the international studies programmes.

Apart from the vocational institutions, the HE institutions, have also lived up to the reality of playing a key role in securing United states (Gose, 2005), with a significant majority of the colleges offering or preparing to offer courses in emergency preparedness and homeland security with both domestic and international focus. However, Smith (2008) argues for review of homeland security programmes to integrate an appreciation of the sources of armed conflict and policy decisions, just as is emphasized in the security studies programmes.

It is however, noted that security studies at graduate level are more developed than at undergraduate level with key programmes being offered at Georgetown University (District of Columbia) and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Security studies have focused on arms control, production and acquisition aspects of military power, while accommodating war as an integral part of the international system, whose goal, at times is to achieve peace and security. The programme has further been broadened to include human security and covers such aspects as scarcity of resources, public health, natural disasters, human rights and environmental degradation, which were previously covered in peace studies (Smith, 2008). Focus has also been given to terrorism with graduate courses and undergraduate programmes offering content on the multidimensional motivations of

terrorists. The vocational institutions have equally offered introductory courses in the same area.

In another study, Peterson (2011) has underscored the vital role of HE in peace and security studies in shaping the conceptualization of US peace corps, whose mission has been to shape the direction of international relations and economic development of third world countries by transmitting the key values that have made US a superpower. The author notes that previous dismal performance of the US Peace Corps in global diplomacy led to the prescription of HE as an antidote to the anomaly. More attention is now focusing on revision of University curricula to prepare students for their roles in Foreign Service, especially after the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. There is also increased pressure for the US universities to be actively engaged in meeting the economic and educational needs of students in developing nations by training foreign students who are to become leaders of the US policies within their own countries or a number of countries. This situation has seen international studies becoming more vibrant as pressure is put on generation of more content on mutual understanding between nations that has been dormant since the unilateral cold war policies by American diplomats.

The ongoing review underscores peace and security as a significant area of study which has received global attention among HE providers and policy makers in the US. It particularly sets a platform for concerted efforts by educational providers at all levels to ensure that peace and security issues permeate every sector of the US education system be it secondary, vocational and HE. It also underscores the role of peace and security studies in advancing American foreign policies. However, whereas the scholars have extensively explored the trend which peace and security studies is taking in post-secondary US

education system, there is still need for a deeper exploration of the delivery of the courses in order to understand the nature of the curriculum the students undergo. There is also need to understand how students perceive the quality of the curriculum at diploma and degree levels, as customers of peace and security studies. The present study attempted to fill this gap by investigating students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities.

As the reviewed literature suggests, peace and security studies have been approached by some scholars as separate but complementary disciplines. The review that follows discusses the available literature in which a differentiation of 'peace studies' and 'security studies' has been drawn.

3.1.2 Peace Studies

Jenkins (2013, p.178-179) outlines peace studies, peace building and peace learning as the fundamental concepts that have driven peace studies globally, specifically at the National Peace Academy (NPA), US. The concept of 'Peace' is understood as the totality of tranquillity and harmony which is achieved by developing 'right relationships' intra and interpersonally, culturally, environmentally and globally (Earth Charter, 2000). The concept of 'right relationships' implies the process of critical examination and transformation of the existing human interactions so that they are in accordance with the ethics that are fundamental to human freedom, dignity and equality. Jenkins further explains that peace, in this regard, is conceived as a living concept that demands of learners to be actively involved in examination of their beliefs and word views through socio-cultural and institutional analysis in order to accommodate peacemaking as a lifestyle rather than a eutopic perception. The many interpretations of this definition of

peace have given credit to the fact that peace must be pursued as an active concept, hence continuous learning is mandatory for ensuring that the right relationships exist.

The concept of totality in the definition is perceived as 'wholeness'; the interrelationship between various parts of peace. The aim is to make peace a stable phenomenon as opposed to a resolution, which may be elusive as it is likely to fuel the tension further by producing victors but injuring the ego of losers. Wholeness is therefore a multifaceted concept that requires multiple approaches and is pursued through individual, communal, governmental, institutional and environmental strategies (Jenkins, 2013).

Jenkins further highlights that the contemporary conceptualization of ' peace building' have tended to widen the post-conflict peace-building initiatives captured in the definition of former UN Secretary General Boutros Boutros-Ghali, in his Agenda for Peace (1992). Boutros-Ghali defined peace building as efforts to locate and strengthen institutions that will consolidate peace in order to prevent further tension. This is concordance with Lederach's (1997) conceptualization of the same, which looks at all processes, strategies and steps aimed at long-lasting peaceful engagements. Reardon (1988) similarly notes that the peace building processes should aim at ensuring that the conditions for positive peace prevail.

Peace building has therefore been concretized as comprising conflict transformation and justice. Whereas transformation heals, cultivates and ensures that right relationships flourish, justice encompasses the fundamentals that must be present for the right relationships to prosper. To this end, peace building is a comprehensive concept which encompasses poverty, socio-economic inequality and inequity, violent aggression, ecology

and resource depletion, and discrimination in terms of gender and race. (Jenkins, 2013; National Peace Academy, 2010). Despite the noble attempts to comprehensively define peacebulding, the following two fundamental questions remain to be answered in this discussion (i) How can the requisite knowledge and skills needed to build peace by achieving wholeness and transforming conflict situations into peace situations be developed? (ii) How can the quality of the process involved in imparting these competencies be determined? The answers to these questions therefore introduce the concept of 'Peacelearning'.

Jenkins emphasizes that *'Peacelearning'* is a concept that has 'informed the pedagogy of peace studies at the NPA. The concept is based on the ideas Reardon (1988) that education for social change and transformation is dependent on the process of learning, as much as on content, or even more. It is a focused and morally –oriented education whose goal is to prepare learners to participate in peace processes be they personal, interpersonal; social, institutional or political. Reardon called it an 'edu-learning process', a process-driven teaching and learning approach. The NPA Programme Framework explains that Peacelearning combines both the acquisition of knowledge and skills with a transformation process in which the knowledge learnt is integrated into the knowledge and experiences of the learners. It implies contextualization and triangulation of learning in order to achieve comprehensive education. Hence the learners are encouraged to engage in critical inquiry and introspection that are key to understanding the fundamentals of peace (National Peace Academy, 2010). Peace learning therefore underscores the ideals of critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) and the humanistic and social reconstructionist curriculum (Eisner, 1979; Mc Neil, 1996) as discussed in the theoretical framework of the study.

Peacelearning, as practiced has the following characteristics. The first one is *elicitation,* which involves helping the leaner to discover through self reflection, the inherent peace building and peacemaking knowledge and skills. The other feature is *deliverance, or liberation*, which seeks to empower the leaner towards a critique of their social positions in relations to hegemony. The next characteristic is *critical social reconstruction*, which involves cultivating a degree of critical consciousness, which drives the leaner to take some action towards social change. It is also characterised by *reflexion,* which seeks to cultivate personal awareness, introspection and triangulation as the basis for lifelong and holistic learning. The last feature is *futurism*, which involves preparing learners to envision and plan for the future from an informed platform (Jenkins, 2013). It follows from the review that the conceptualization of peace, peace building and Peacelearning are key to understanding the dynamics of peace processes and hence, peace studies curriculum. However, the quality of the teaching and learning approaches through which Peacelearning is delivered is yet to be determined, hence the current study. The following are reviews of some key studies that have been carried out in the discipline of peace studies.

Kester (2013, p. 157) has referred to peace studies as an 'emerging academic discipline and professional practice for the development of formal and non-formal learning programmes aimed at the creation of peace cultures around the world'. These peace studies programmes have focused on a number of issues. They include an instant end to hostility in schools and neighbourhoods (Johnson & Johnson, 2006; Bickmore, 2002); propagation of norms which can enhance peace, such as mutual understanding, non-aggression, and rule of law (Reardon, 1988; Harris, 1988); gender equity (Boulding, 2000; Reardon, 2001); diplomacy (Mirra, 2008); social reconstruction (Hicks, 2004; O'Sullivan, 1999); international understanding (Boulding, 1988; Toh, 2004). It is observed that these programmes have

permeated educational systems from high school through tertiary education to University levels (Kester, 2008; Danesh, 2008; Jenkins, 2004; Toh, 2004; Reardon & Cabezudo, 2002). Other programmes have also been infused into community development projects as well as in governments and civil society initiatives (Jenkins, 2007; Fountain, 1999; Zasloff, Shapiro, & Coyne, 2009; Save the Children, 2010; United Nations, 1999).

3.1.2.1 Students' Perceptions of the Significance of Peace Studies

Kester (2013) outlines the bodies and key HE institutions that have contributed to peace studies globally as the University for Peace, University of Bradford; George Mason University's Institute for Conflict Analysis, Teachers College Columbia University's Peace Education Programme, United Nations University Institutes, or UNESCO-affiliated projects. The author further carried out a qualitative impact assessment of the peace studies programmes at UNESCO's Asia- Pacific Centre of Education for International Understanding (APCEIU) in Seoul, South Korea, which offers substantial training programmes in peace studies and the University for Peace, a United Nations-mandated higher education institution in San Jose, Costa Rica, which trains peace educators in the philosophy and methodology of peace education. Concerning, APCEIU, South Korea, Kester has reported a multiplier effect of the peace studies programmes on the educators, who were involved in the study. Particularly, there was deep satisfaction with the programme. The participants noted the impact of the programme on such areas as their personal and professional growth; transfer of learning; curriculum development; and planned future engagements with research in peace education.

From the University for Peace, Costa Rica, Kester (2013, p. 167) further reports significant impact of peace studies on changing the world views of the respondents with regard to

peace. They developed new perspectives in such areas as 'inner peace and spirituality, human rights, and conflict resolution'. They also highlighted the impact of the training on their future research interests and the opening up of more opportunities in peace-work as a result of completion of graduate studies. Kester also found increased interest in teaching peace education related courses, especially those focusing on environmental issues and conflict resolution.

This review highlights an attempt to explore participants' perceptions of the significance of the peace programmes in their lives and professional development and hence assess the impact of the peace studies programmes offered in the two institutions. In the assessment, the researcher employed Schugurensky's (2003) 'expansive hypothesis,' which evaluates both inside changes in attitudes and practices as a result of the course and transfer of professional practices to new situations. According to Schugurensky, increased participation of citizen in an academic discipline, such as peace studies, at basic levels of policy making, such as classroom or school, enhances their desire to participate more in broad- based issues of regional, national, and international scope. But when the result of this participation is a more knowledgeable citizen, who is able to take more responsibilities, then the participation has educative results. Kesters' study was therefore more focused on the learning effects of the students' engagement with the peace studies programmes. The current study, however, intends to determine students' perceptions of the quality of the teaching and learning in the peace and security studies disciplines offered in Kenyan universities.

3.1.2.2 Pedagogical Paradigms for Delivering Peace Education

In another study Jenkins (2013) has analysed the proceedings of a Global Stakeholder Design Summit, which brought together key stakeholders in peace education, including academics, researchers, leaders and other educators to discuss the design and development of a framework for a comprehensive peace education at the National Peace Academy (NPA), USA. In the analytical discussion of the summit's proceedings, Jenkins has used the 'transformative imperative' perspective as discussed in Reardon (1988). To Jenkins, the establishment of the NPA as a learning institution was founded on a contemporary understanding of Reardon's insights both in terms of curriculum development and pedagogical orientation. The author highlights five building blocks of a strong peace studies programme from an assessment of Reardon, which are compatible with the ideals of humanistic and social reconstruction curriculum. These are establishment of solid but flexible moral fundamentals to guide content selection, teaching methodology and curriculum innovations; the open selection of social objectives, as per the moral fundamentals to steer teaching and learning with transparent social goals; a transformative peace learning methodology with focus on generating knowledge which may empower the leaner towards social reconstruction; curriculum delivery through holistic approaches in presentation of content but with bias towards social reconstruction and formation of desired human relationships; and lastly, the outcomes of the transformative paradigm as a result of efforts to capacitate learners to pursue social transformation be they socio-economic, political, personal, or environmental.

Jenkins reports that the summit noted an increased demand for programmes in peace studies but also realized that University education alone could not ensure the socio-cultural, political and economic adjustments that were needed to plant mindsets, morals,

standards, and institutions that would ensure human security and global peace. The NPA was therefore mandated to ensure that peace education programmes infiltrated all sectors of the society including schools, commercial enterprises, military, churches, and other social institutions, and were available and affordable. It was noted that the implementation of this proposal was bound to pose challenges due to the conservative nature of the American education system. But it was generally agreed that peace must be part of 'an informed consciousness' in order for it to contribute significantly to positive social transformation (Jenkins, 2013, p. 174). A comprehensive peace education framework was therefore formulated.

The greatest challenge, however, was on the pedagogical paradigms for delivering the education. The major dilemma was on reorientation of the traditional University peace programmes which were basically positivistic and objective oriented, to accommodate the new paradigm of informed consciousness which demanded a more interpretivist, reflective and inclusive approach and therefore an adjustment of the pedagogical relationship between the teacher and the student. Jenkins observes that this approach is important in contextualizing peace education and peace building and thereby enhancing leaner centeredness as outlined in Freire (1970; 1998), Dewey (1997) and Montessori (1997). In concurrence, Cabezudo and Haavelsrud (2007) have argued for alignment of all elements of peace education and peace building with the social, cultural, political and educational context of the student. A comprehensive peace studies programme was to be built not only on a comprehensive set of skills and knowledge in peace building but also on a transformative imperative- a complete change of people's consciousness, beliefs, and the social dynamics that constitute human interactions (Reardon, 1988).

Jenkins also reports on the summit's resolution to adopt a positive peace research agenda that is attuned to the transformative imperative conceptualization and whose goal would be to develop peace knowledge that would enrich peace building. To this end, the research programmes of the NPA have reflected both the positivist and interpretivist paradigms. Five essential peace building competencies have been outlined as essential in achieving the outcomes of NPA research programmes. First is *analytic competencies*, which are necessary for an objective assessment of the origins, motivations and contexts of conflicts. The second is *responsiveness*, which involves development of empathy, respect for human rights and dignity and making decisive actions aimed at resolving the most serious conflicts. Thirdly*, preventive* competencies, which involve objectivity and focus aimed at developing key principles of a just and equitable society, such as conflict resolution and mediation; fourth is *envisioning* competencies, which involves forecasting, strategizing and pronouncing a morally credible reality. Finally, *transformative* competencies, which are a product of thorough grounding in social sciences and humanities. The realization is that the pursuit of transformation of underlying attitudes, beliefs, knowledge and skills as well as aggressive tendencies, requires combined effort in the form of 'multiple peace pedagogies' (Jenkins, 2013, p. 178).

The aim of the foregoing review is not to rewrite Jenkin's report on the summit but to highlight the key concepts that are driving peace studies in some of the worlds' top peace institutions, such as NPA, and their relevance to the current study. This review has highlighted the following fundamental issues which are key in understanding HE in peace studies. First, the current focus among researchers and academics is on comprehensive peace education, which decentralizes peace studies from the University to other sectors of the society, making peace education 'a must know' for all. This understanding is attuned to

human security conceptualization, as already discussed in Chapter two. It presents peace and security as fundamental issues affecting not just the sovereignty of states, but individual citizens, hence should be the concern of all.

The second fundamental issue of Jenkin's analysis is that key objectives of peace studies are conflict analysis, response, prevention, strategizing and, mostly importantly, transformation. The transformative imperative paradigm is based on the social reconstructionist curriculum theory and critical pedagogy, which as already discussed in Chapter Two, is driving the security sector reforms in Kenya leading to increased demand for HE in peace and security studies. Lastly, the analysis has outlined that the achievement of these educational objectives will continue to rely on both positivistic-interpretivist paradigm in terms of curriculum delivery and research on peace education. This paradigm has informed the mixed research methodology upon which this study is based and the humanistic curriculum conceptualization, which emphasizes inclusivity, reflexivity and leaner centeredness in teaching and learning. Even though Jenkin's analysis has underscored the fundamental principles upon which the peace studies is based at NPA, there is still need for an examination of the process of implementation of the curriculum in order to determine the quality of what is attained and hence its worth in meeting the needs of the learners in HE. The current study therefore intends to bridge this gap by investigating the perceptions of the students with regard to the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in universities in Kenya.

In another study, Danesh (2008) carried out a comprehensive review of the basics, content, and impact of the Education for Peace (EFP) integrative curriculum in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The country had been involved in civil war from 1992-1995 after gaining

independence from the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Danesh had used the Integrative Theory of Peace (ITP) (Danesh 2006) to develop the Education for Peace integrative curriculum that is now being gradually introduced in all primary and secondary schools in the country. An impact assessment study indicated positive impact of the curriculum among the learners.

The ITP advances four main principles: conceptualization of peace as a product of multiple situations be they psychological, social, political, moral and spiritual; understanding of peace as the manifestation of the desire for unity oriented beliefs; recognising the desire for unity oriented beliefs as fundamental for transforming conflict situations into peaceful situations and; developing comprehensive integrated lifelong curriculum to transmit the unity oriented beliefs. Based on these principles, the EFP integrative curriculum drew three major concepts for its formulation: the principle of unity as the main motivation in human interactions; unity oriented beliefs or world views as the main structures which shape all human behaviour and; peace, as the main product of unity oriented beliefs. The EFP integrative curriculum therefore agrees with Reardon's (1988) conceptualization of comprehensive peace education.

Danesh further explains that the concept of unity in EFP curriculum is drawn from the principle of biological wholeness of human life, which is composed of programmed chemical and hormonal processes, but whose disruption may lead to wear-out and fatalities. Danesh and Danesh (2002) have defined unity as a deliberate and focused phenomenon, where individuals come together in a state of tranquillity, harmony, and teamwork to reconstruct their society to an equal or advanced measure. To Danesh (2008,

p. 159) therefore, 'conflict is the absence of unity and disunity is a source and cause of conflict'.

The concept of beliefs, which Danesh (2008, p. 160) conceptualizes as 'world views' encompasses those which are 'mechanistic' (static), 'organismic' (dynamic and active) and, contextualistic (linked to given contexts). In the EFP integrative curriculum, worldviews are recognised as the models through which reality, self, meaning of life and the rules governing human relationships are conceptualized and they continue to shape the totality of human actions both at personal and communal levels. The formation of world views are influenced by individual life histories as well as communal accounts, as dictated by the dynamics of politics, culture, religion, ideologies, and ecology.

Danesh has further categorised world-views into three areas: The survival based world views, which relate to the basic insecurities that affect human beings at personal and communal levels. This category is manifested in the tendency to seek for control mechanisms to provide protection and defence to one's self when faced with dangerous situations. These defence mechanisms, however, have only led to further tension and conflict. The other category is identity based, which refers to the formation of individual or group identity. It is manifested in the multiple conflict situations and hostilities, which characterize human life. Its consequences include the encouragement of egoism and antagonistic group identities with the objective of unhealthy competition. Danesh emphasizes that these two world views are at the bottom of the persistent conflict situations affecting humanity. The last category, the unity based world view is an anti thesis, to the two categories and considers 'unity' as opposed to 'conflict' to be the convention governing human interactions. It looks at conflict as a unity deficiency syndrome, whose

solution is an integrative humanness improvement model. The manifestations of this category are equality, justice and freedom, which principally address the fears of the survival-based and identity-based worldviews such as human insecurity, identity authenticity, human dignity and equality.

The goal of peace studies, from the foregoing discussion, is therefore to assist in the transformation of these world views for the betterment of humanity. Danesh is nevertheless categorical that these worldviews are heavily resistant to change. The author agrees with Jenkins (2013) that the platform of a successful peace studies curriculum should be the transformation paradigm. But how can the peace studies curriculum be designed, delivered and assessed in a way that ensures that the transformative outcome is achieved?

To answer this question, Danesh (2008, p. 162) has introduced the concept of 'individual and collective development. He notes that an individual has a vital role to play in his or her personal development, whether cognitive, social or emotional. But at the same time an individual's development continues to be influenced by the development of the social dynamics in which they finds themselves such as family, neighbourhood, nation and mankind as a whole (Flavell, 1999; Bandura, 1986). The EFP curriculum therefore proposes an 'integrative concept of development', that sees human development as a product of consciousness, which grows morally, spiritually and ethically, as one continues to understand his/her true self in relation to the society around them.

The author highlights the key aspects of this curriculum as critical inquiry, emotional insight and imaginative experience. Critical inquiry as discussed by Vlades (2002) is the

tool for freeing the mind, elucidating misinterpretations, clearing disbeliefs, and building mutual trust, which form the essentials of peaceful coexistence. Emotional insight involves an awareness of those feelings, actions and intentions, which create expectancy and compassion with regard to unity oriented beliefs in order to achieve peace. Emotional insight has been used to enhance post-conflict therapy and recuperation in situations of long-term hostility and aggression. The imaginative and creative experience and action is the apex of the curriculum since it involves combining new learning with the cultivated feelings and sensitivities and transforming them into actions and productive ventures.

It is envisaged that a combination of these three aspects would form a learning model upon which learners with the help of their teachers and family members would begin to apply the principles of peace in all aspects of their lives thereby achieving the ultimate goal of building peaceful communities. The content of the curriculum therefore is not subject based but infused in all the subjects that are offered in the education system be they in the social studies, languages, mathematics or the sciences.

The relevance of Danesh (2008) EFP Model to the current study is in the author's endeavour to conceptualize peace studies from a point of integration and infusion as in the human security conceptualization. It also concurs with the critical pedagogy theories (Freire, 1970; Apple, 1990) and the social reconstructionist theories on the need for education to transform personal beliefs as well as the society in order to bring about change rather than impart knowledge for its own sake (Mc Neil, 1996). The learning model which involves critical inquiry, emotional insight and the imaginative experience is one of the key features of the humanistic curriculum, where the role of the lecturer is to establish an emotional relationship with the students, respect and support them in order to enhance

self learning and also listen actively to their views, (Mc Neil, 1996; Print, 1993). Even though EFP Model was developed for basic education in Bosnia and Herzegovina, this study acknowledges these concepts as fundamental to HE in peace studies in Kenya. However, there is still need to determine the 'world views' or perceptions of the students undergoing the EFP Model in order to determine its true worth among them as customers of HE. Danesh, nevertheless, reveals that an impact assessment study indicated positive impact of the curriculum among the learners. The assessment carried out was however general in nature and strictly outcome oriented. The variables under investigation during the assessment are also not clear. The current study, while combining the EFP principles with service quality dialectic, intends to bridge this gap by examining the process of teaching and learning in order to determine the quality of the peace studies curriculum offered to HE students in Kenya.

3.1.2.3 Pedagogical Models for Peace Studies

Van Oord (2008), in another study, has examined the teaching and learning of an International Baccalaureate (IB) Diploma programme, which is offered in about 1500 schools in 120 countries worldwide. The IB conceptualizes peace education as that education that imparts in the students skills and attitudes necessary for empathising with other people and legitimizing their points of view. The programme was started in 1920 with the aim of fostering international and intercultural understanding, hence continues to bring together students from several countries in one classroom and also engage in demanding community service.

Van Oord further carried out a survey among students who study 'peace and conflict studies' course under the programme. The goal of the course is to encourage peace rather

than violence and persuade students to shun conflicts. It accommodates conflict purely on the basis of its vitality in transforming the society towards positive change. In the end, students get skills necessary for making positive changes in their communities.

The pedagogical strategies of the course are more student-oriented. Discussions by students are more preferred to lecturing and experiential learning has substituted studying huge amounts of content. Lecturers therefore create leaning environments where students are free to debate on a wide range of issues without fear of victimization. They can bring conflicts from their own experiences and analyse them using the theoretical frameworks of peace they have studied (Hakvoort, 2002).

Peace and conflict studies teachers are therefore encouraged to adopt different instructional approaches and create learning environments where students feel free to speak their minds and engage in critical and constructive debate. Students can bring conflicts from their own experiences into the discussion, and learn how to analyse them using peace theory. Through this process, they are able to develop more insights from their colleagues who might bring into the discussion different or orthodox perspectives of peace and conflict and also help them to think and reflect on their own and others' attitudes and behaviour. Van Oord agrees with Bar-Tal (2002) that the transformative goal of effective peace education is dependent more on the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning.

The author describes the content of the course as follows: the major concepts in the field of peace research (such as peace, conflict, violence and aggression) are offered at the introductory stage. It is thereafter followed by a discussion of the conflict from various dimensions: intrapersonal, interpersonal, societal and international. The last part of the

course content is on conflict transformation, where violent and non-violent protest movements, third party interventions and post-conflict management strategies are discussed in detail. The assessment of the course is by a project on an investigative study and students are expected to come up with suggestions on how to deal with discrimination, prejudice or an ongoing major conflict and achieve transformation. The findings are thereafter presented to peers. The teaching model of IB is in concurrence with Reardon's (1988) EFP integrative curriculum, discussed elsewhere in this section. As Danesh (2006) notes, the interactive learning aspects underscore the principle of unity as the driver of human interactions.

It is important to note that during the impact assessment study, students from various countries expressed that the course had a positive impact on their lives. Students from conflict prone areas such as Africa, reported enhanced ability to understand themselves and their societies better and acquire useful ideas for transforming violent cultures in their communities. Those from non-conflict prone societies such as Europe were particular on their ability to learn more from student diversity and understand the genesis of global conflicts. Van Oord concludes that the IB peace and conflict studies course is a success story in terms of quality. However, student numbers have significantly remained low due to lack of support for the IB programme among various governments and universities internationally.

This review therefore underscores a situation where the quality of a HE in Peace and Security studies course has been investigated, even though superficially. The IB is presented as a global project and an international programme rather than a programme for a specific University or country. In the current study, however, the researcher's objective is

to examine students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in HE in peace and security studies in Kenya. Given the diverse socio-cultural, political and environmental contexts, the perceptions of the IB students cannot be taken to represent those of HE students in Kenya.

Elsewhere, Firer (2008) has analysed the Israeli and Palestinian peace education at Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Israel, while focusing on its key characteristic, virtual peace education (VPE). The author emphasizes that the key foundations of peace studies are *negative peace*, which means the evasion of open hostility and aggression and *positive peace*, which means the avoidance of violence and aggression. These are complemented by transformative initiatives to advance human rights through justice and ethical reforms based on mutual cooperation amongst people. Peace studies therefore involves empowering actors from both sides of the divide to practice tolerance towards each other and be actively engaged in initiatives meant to ensure long lasting non-aggressive relations between parties in conflict. It involves capacitating learners to practice peace and co-exist regardless of their backgrounds. In this regard, peace studies have taken both disciplinary (Galtung, 1996; Salomon, 2005) and interdisciplinary (Reardon, 1988; Haavelsrud, 1993; Firer, 2002) approaches.

Firer underscores the main models of peace education as the *pedagogical model,* that is based on conventional classroom teaching, both formal and informal, with its attendant instructional materials and processes; *non-formal contact model*, which emphasizes the use of experiential learning to bring together groups who are in conflict to participate in joint social activities of diverse nature ; *specific task model,* where the parties in dispute come together to jointly participate in specific assignments of interest to them such as sports, theatre, business ventures, with an aim of improving human relations and developing

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friendships and, lastly, the *integrated model*, which may combine some or all of the elements of the other models. Firer, however, notes that these models are not easy to implement during violent conflicts, making VPE, the most viable means to deliver peace studies.

VPE refers to the use of computers to teach peace. Through the web based applications, 'students can link with other people at far locations to get to understand their perspectives, thereby increasing their multicultural knowledge (McLoughlin, 2001). The value of using computers in peace education is in their ability to provide information, enhance communication, and provide an imaginative and innovative environment; provide instructional resources to educators; and deliver instructions to students. According to Firer, the Israeli and Palestinian VPE learners using computers highlighted the following advantages:

a.   it is motivating as it increases their chances of getting employment;

b.   it enables access to large databases with extensive content,;

c.   it enhances the establishment of relationships with their adversaries without face to face encounters;

d.   it offers opportunity to reflect, internalize and transform emotions;

e.   it enhances gender equality in a male dominated society by increasing employment opportunities for them;

f.   face to face computer conversations and video-conferencing enhance instructional skills as well as conflict negotiation and mediation;

g.   it provides international experience by opening windows to other parts of the world, where violence has been fruitfully resolved, thereby providing optimism to learners;

h. it enhances preventive peace by exposing those non-violent societies to the devastating results of conflicts, thus empowering them to preserve peace and avoid violence;

i. it creates a global community of peace educators, learners, researchers and activists and

j. it is freely accessible, as programme designers are willing to offer their products for free to increase influence.

The opponents of VPE have however underscored its high costs and the inability of standardized and artificial intelligence to respond to teachers' needs and various human emotions and needs (Windschitl, 1998; Becker, 2000). During the study, teachers and learners from different levels of the Israeli education system also highlighted the following aspects of effective teaching and learning, which are missing in VPE:

a. There is need for face-to-face interaction between the learners and their peers and educators, for learning to be effective;

b. The learners need immediate cognitive and emotional response from their peers, as in the traditional classroom setting;

c. Learners need teachers as role models;

d. There is need for a social interactive atmosphere, such as the traditional classroom; as an effective facilitator of reconciliation.

They particularly noted the following shortcomings of VPE:

a. Frustration and helplessness among learners may be extensive due to the immense disconnect between the virtual classroom and the traditional classroom;

b. There is difficulty in implementing web-site resolutions made with participants located very far away due to the absence of the physical contact punch;

c. It limits the learners from participating in real negotiation and mediation processes;

d. Computers are not accessible to all across nations;

e. There is gender inequality in access to computers and computer literacy globally and this may sabotage the goals of VPE;

f. The language of instruction in education systems of some countries may conflict with the language of computers, thereby creating further frustration for learners and teachers;

g. There is fear of victimization from learners in some countries , who may be punished for communicating with 'enemies' from other countries;

h. Teachers and curriculum developers may refuse to publish their materials in the web due to copyright issues.

This review accentuates the use of computers through VPE as an important development in peace studies. By outlining the perception of the students and teachers on the viability of VPE as a complimentary peace education option, the study underscores the tenets of Reardon's Comprehensive Peace Education, which aims at reaching every corner of the society with peace education and by all means. The fact that VPE motivates learners; helps them form relationships and enhances their global consciousness equally denotes that it empowers them to develop transformative initiatives meant to achieve and sustain peace in their communities.   The study therefore brings out the importance of information communication technology, as an instructional resource in peacebulding and peace education. The current study, however, explored the perceptions of the students with regard to the quality of HE by examining instructional resources as one of the key dimensions of quality teaching and learning.

The other review of the theoretical and pedagogical developments in peace studies is based on a study by Baesler and Lauricella (2013) in two universities located in Eastern US and Canada. The authors were detailed to teach an undergraduate course in 'nonviolent Communication and Peace'. Thereafter, they carried out quantitative pilot studies and a final peace research study to establish the impact of the studies on student's wide and deep conceptualization of the terms 'peace', 'more peaceful world views' and 'peaceful conducts' across four different communication scenarios. The researchers found that teaching peace through the undergraduate non-violent communication and peace course was effective. This was demonstrated by increased student's ability to recall significant personalities in peace-building globally; more broad based descriptions of peace; and higher peace scores in self, group and global perceptions. The study suggested the need for the course to be modified to incorporate aspects of emotional management, conflict and mediation and social justice.

Baesler and Lauricella's (2013) study therefore underscores the impact of a pedagogical model on the outcome of peace studies course at degree level. There is, however, need to determine students' perceptions of the overall quality of the course, rather than the learning acquired. If peace studies has to make a significant impact globally in the management of unending conflicts in the world, then it needs to attract as many students as possible. From Schugurensky's (2003) 'expansive hypothesis, 'there is need to increase the participation of more citizens in peace studies in order to enhance their propensity to participate more in broad- based issues of regional, national, and international scope. This desire can only be achieved if HE institutions offer quality peace studies programmes. The aim of this study therefore was to investigate students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities.

Harris (2010) has equally tabled a discussion on peace studies in African universities. The author distinguishes three key terms in peace studies: conflict, violence and peace. The author explains that conflict is a discordant of desires or expectations between two or more parties be they individual people, groups, communities or nations, which is so pronounced that it cannot be avoided. Violence therefore comes in as one way of mitigating the conflict. The violence may be physical or direct (which involves physical or psychological injury to the other party); it can also be manifested through military campaigns, corporal retribution as in prisons, and domestic hostility (which may also involve verbal ill-treatment); or it may be structural (as a result of omission or commission by the institutional structures in the society be they socio-economic or political (Galtung, 1990). The violence may also be cultural, which refers to the justifications for use of structural or physical violence to resolve a conflict (such as the weapons of mass destruction in the 2003 US-Iraq war).

Harris underscores that structural violence is the most lethal, though its intentions are not to harm. It is characterised by marginalization, abandonment and exploitation; its machinations and penetrations are slow but the final consequence is millions of deaths. For instance, it may be seen in the reluctance of a state to put in place and enforce appropriate legislation to curb road accidents, or in the failure of a government to avail retroviral drugs to HIVAIDS patients. The most devastating results of this type of violence are reflected in Eckhardt (1992) as quoted in Harris (2010) who estimates that between 1945 and 1990, civilian deaths in wars were 14 million; military deaths in wars were eight million; civilians killed by their own governments were 48 million; while civilians deaths due to structural violence were 795 million. Thus, structural deaths alone were 36 times more than deaths due to war. In this context, the 2007-2008 post-election violence in Kenya

could be categorised as both structural and cultural violence since it was perpetrated by the failure of the Electoral Commission of Kenya (ECK) to conduct credible elections, impunity by politicians and the unreasonable forceful response by Kenya's police forces, as a justification for keeping peace. It is however envisaged that the enactment of the new constitution in 2010 will enable the institutionalization of structures that would ensure long lasting peace and security. Hariss' argument further underscores the major arguments behind the UNDPs broader conceptualization of security to include human security (UNDP, 1994), as already discussed in Chapter Two.

Harris, similarly, argues that the traditional means that have been largely used to negotiate conflict have largely failed to bring about the desired change. Particularly, the use of war over the past quarter century as a conflict resolution strategy, failed in the 1980-1988 Iran-Iraq war, the 1980 UK- Argentine war over the Falklands; the US military interventions in Somalia (1990) and Haiti; the 1991 US- Iraq war over Kuwait, the 1999 NATO involvement over Kosovo, and the 2003 US invasion of Iraq over weapons of mass destruction. Even though military victories were won in three of them, the Somalia and Haiti cases were complete failures. Besides, war has largely been considered morally and religiously unattractive and has never addressed the underlying causes of the conflicts. The ultimate consequence has been huge military spending in maintenance of extremely large forces in the regions to keep the negative peace.

On the other hand, the non- violent means of settling conflicts such as negotiated settlements are most preferred both morally, spiritually and economically but have had the least success rates due to the poor quality of the peace agreements made, in terms of design, implementation and support. In this context, HE in peace studies comes in to steer

up the development of peaceful conflict resolution mechanisms, increasing the competence and strength of the peace experts; and development of less costly means of keeping peace. Even though Nevo and Brem (2002) reviewed 79 peace programmes across the world and found that majority (51) were effective, the persistence of negative peace across the globe as result of war and failed agreements is an indicator to the fact that more still needs to be done. The objectives of the peace studies discipline, according to Harry (2010) would therefore be to:

a. Develop a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics of the relationships involved in conflicts and their key ingredients;

b. Enhance critical capacity of the learners through exposure to a range of global conflict situations, assumptions, analyses and world views;

c. Awaken peace and conflict consciousness and their attendant consequences in the learners in order to change their mindsets and empower them to work for peace and justice and;

d. Enhance competence in peacebulding; mediation; negotiation and other non-hostility strategies for achieving lasting peace.

Harris (2010) further outlines the contents which a peace studies course in Africa should have as (i) the discourse of peace studies- understanding of peace, violence and conflict (ii) Hostility in Africa-armed and gender-based violence (iii) conceptualization of violence-biological roots of violence; negative effects of violence (iv) the contra-violence peacebulding implements- indigenous African peacebulding mechanisms; religious resources; peace role models; Mahatma Gandhi and Martin Luther King; non-violence advocacy; methods of resolving conflicts; conflict transformation and ; (v) towards sustainable peace- designing and sustaining a tradition of peace.

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The author, however, decries that only 34 universities in Africa, including one in Kenya, and four tertiary colleges, were offering courses in peace studies by 2004. While majority had one or two peace teaching units, a few offered degree programmes in peace studies. The trend is nevertheless taking a positive turn due to the efforts of Africa Department of the University of Peace, based in Addis Ababa.

The low involvement of African Universities in peace studies was a key concern during the African Conference on the Role of Universities in Conflict Transformation, Reconstruction and Peace Building in Africa at the University of the Western Cape, South Africa in 2008. The conference suggested some of the strategies universities could use to introduce peace studies into their curriculum as infusion of materials on non-violent conflict resolution strategies into already established courses; initiating peace studies units as supplementary to an already existing discipline such as history, education or development studies; developing a peace studies discipline by developing new courses or drawing related courses from different disciplines and; raising funds to develop a fully fledged department of peace studies.

In this review therefore, Harris has underscored the rationale for increased attention on HE in peace studies as a necessary strategy to mitigating the unending conflict in Africa. He has also proposed a curriculum model for HE in peace studies, which HE institutions could borrow from in order to initiate peace related courses in their programmes. His arguments have been accentuated by Jenkins (2013) who emphasizes the goal of a peace studies programme as achievement of social transformation and Kester (2013) who observes that peace studies is a necessary tool for creating peace lifestyles around the world. Harris'

discussion, however, has focused more on the justification for peace studies and the proposed model to be adopted. While decrying the slow take off of peace studies in African universities, there is little mention of the experiences of the students who are undergoing these studies. In order to comprehensively determine the worth of the peace studies in the HE institutions in Africa, Students' perceptions are therefore categorical. The current study aimed to bridge the gap by examining students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya. The next review in section 3.1.3 will discuss the available literature in security studies.

3.1.3 Security Studies

The increased demand for security officers globally, particularly by the private security industry has increased the demand for HE in security studies (Adolf, 2010; Ray and Hertig, 2008). In the US, for instance, private security officers outnumber the public law enforcement officers in the ratio of three to one and comprise about 66% of the total number of security officers in the country, apart from the military (Adolf, 2010; Cunningham, Strauchs & Van Meter, 1990; Ray & Hertig, 2008). These officers serve in diverse positions within the security industry including security managers, physical security specialists, information security technicians, chief security officers, personnel security specialists, and private investigators. Yet many continue to regard security officers as non-professionals (Adolf, 2010). Consequently, meticulous education aimed at meeting the demands of this diversified personnel is still underdeveloped in most parts of the world, including US (Adolf, 2010; Manzo, 2006).

3.1.3.1 Quality Concerns in the Teaching and Learning of Security Studies

In his analysis of security education in the US, Adolf (2010) underscores the challenges facing HE in security studies, especially in the areas of teaching, research and development of HE security programmes. One key challenge is that most of the security studies programmes are still aligned to the criminal justice programmes offered to public law enforcement officers. Adolf argues that scholars of security studies have consistently equated security to public safety, yet the main goal of security programmes is basically to improve businesses and performance of organization by minimizing risks and liabilities thereby increasing profits. As a result, the security industry is increasingly getting distanced from criminal justice and becoming more identical to business. It is within this framework that future security professionals are expected to have not only emergency management skills but also business skills (Holladay, 2003).

Adolf's analysis of the US colleges offering security studies has revealed that only 13% of the undergraduate programmes in security studies are aligned to business. Yet business education among security managers has been considered key (American Society for Industrial Security, ASIS, 2001; Holladay, 2003; Purpura, 2002; McCrie, 2001; Fischer, Halibozek & Green, 2008). Adolf also found that there are only two doctoral-level (PhD) security programmes in the US, with one University offering a PhD in Business Administration with a bias towards businesses and corporations. This implies reduced level of high quality security research in future. Adolf's analysis is in agreement with Hill (2007) as discussed elsewhere in this chapter, who reports on the initiative by Denver University College to revise its graduate programmes on security to make them more business as well as security focused.

The other challenge Adolf observes is on the quality of lecturers. The author decries delivery of instruction by security lecturers with vast security experience but limited academic research focus. The result is a security manager with practical skills but limited theoretical grounding in their skills. Adolf agrees with Vest (2007) that the essence of HE institution is to blend practice with theory through teaching and research. There is therefore need for universities to create synergy between research in security studies and teaching of practical security skills. This would enable security studies, which is still a largely underdeveloped field, to grow through academically rigorous research by its professionals. Similarly, Adolf has concurred with Ortmeier (2005) that majority of the lecturers in HE in security studies are mostly law enforcement oriented within minimal security research experience, perhaps due to failure of the colleges to recognize security as a specialized field, separate from criminal justice.

Adolf further argues that lack of proper academic and research grounding of HE security lecturers is seen to be the major contributor to underdevelopments in security studies in terms of knowledge reservoir, concepts and theories. For instance, the many definitions of security still concentrate on protection of persons or items (Fischer & Green, 2004; Purpura, 2002; McCrie, 2001; Kennedy, 1995) yet a security professional is expected to be proactive in order to prevent unwarranted behaviour before it happens (Adolf, 2010; Hill, 2007). The evolving multidisciplinary nature of security coupled with the multiple threats has necessitated a situation where no single definition of security can last. The situation can only be improved through research in the field by HE security experts.

Adolf further observes that some progress has been made in indentifying the key foundations to security studies. The author outlines the 18 pillars of security studies

identified at the 2001 ASIS Academic Practitioner Symposium as 'physical security, personnel security, information systems security, investigations, loss prevention, risk management, legal aspects, emergency/continuity planning, fire protection, crisis management, disaster management, counterterrorism, competitive intelligence, executive protection, workplace violence, general crime prevention, crime prevention through environmental design and security architecture' (Adolf, 2010, p. 128-129). The delivery of HE under these pillars would require security lecturers who are well grounded in the specialities.

The other challenge facing higher education in security studies, according to Adolf (2010) is lack of adequate research focusing on security. Majority of the graduate thesis and doctoral dissertations across the US are on a wide range of academic disciplines including criminal justice, business and education, with security focus only appearing as collateral. Even though this trend may be the beginning of a journey towards the right direction for security studies, the diverse interests of the researchers may only produce mixed signals or mere progress in the search for a firm theoretical foundation for security studies. In this journey, such key areas as general security management, 'prevention of terrorism, competitive intelligence, and executive protection, workplace violence, crime prevention through environmental design and security architecture', still remain under-researched (Adolf, 2010, p. 131).

The last challenge, according to Adolf, is on accreditation of security education programmes. With the rapid expansion of security education, HE institutions have continued to admit students from the military, government officials, who may be interested in information security, internal security, emergency management, or general security

degree programmes. However, there is no form of accreditation to validate the content of the programmes, making it difficult to verify whether the existing college security programmes are of standard quality. No security studies body similar to the American Psychological Association or the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business or; Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programmes, exist. These institutions verify psychology and business courses to ensure that they meet the required standards. For security studies, therefore, students have no instrument to measure the value of security programmes in order to make informed choices concerning which one to enrol for.

It is important to note that Adolf's discussion of security studies is based on his reference to the private security sector, hence his narrow conceptualization of security as a field which should exclude criminal justice. But his 18 pillars of security are basically what public law enforcement officers deal with on daily basis, though with a bias towards public protection and criminal justice. Even though the focus of private security is on individual and cooperate interests rather than public, those interests still exist within the public domain of a country or state, and are significantly affected by the existing public security apparatus. For instance, protection of businesses from risks and losses may not just require business management skills alone, but also criminal intelligence and criminal investigations skills, which are components of criminal justice. Analogically, public and private security entities are therefore comparable to siblings, whose origins are the same, roles inherently complimentary but with public security being the elder sister.

The challenges discussed by Adolf, are however key in understanding the dimensions of both public and private security studies. Lack of adequate research on security studies has not only bedevilled the private security sector but also the public sector. For instance, the

inadequate presence of research on security in Kenya has already been mentioned elsewhere in this chapter (International Centre for Transitional Justice, 2010). Nevertheless, these challenges together with those of lecturer competence and lack of proper accreditation are pointers to the quality dynamics of HE in security studies, which are at the centre of this research. This study therefore recognises Adolf's discussion as crucial in identifying the emerging and inherent challenges in provision of HE in security studies, which might affect its quality. A comprehensive understanding of these dynamics would benefit more from an investigation of the perceptions of the students with regard to these challenges. As a student of security studies at North-eastern University, Boston, Massachusetts, US, Adolf's perspectives might be taken as student's perspectives but they are based on his assessment of HE in a highly developed world and are not specific on quality teaching and learning. To apply his experiences to the Kenyan situation would be like comparing the size of a goat and that of an elephant and concluding the elephant is much bigger. This study therefore set out to examine students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the security courses offered in Kenyan universities.

3.1.3.2 Curriculum Design and Relevance of Programmes in Security Studies

Hill (2007, p. 134), in another discussion, notes that security is one of the fastest growing professions worldwide with a turnover of over $100 billion. This growth has put increased demand on HE to develop relevant courses to match the required skills in the industry. Hill highlights that the University of Denver University College, while responding to this need, developed a security education curriculum and created a new graduate-level degree programme and certificate of advanced study. The security professionals' needs were analysed along their duties as *physical security* (focusing on protection of persons, property and facilities by use of the available institutions, systems and processes); *Information Security* (safeguarding of classified information); *Personnel Security*

(sustaining integrity and reliability of an organization's personnel); *Information Systems Security* (maintaining the confidentiality, reliability, and availability of all data created, stored, processed and/or transmitted via automated information systems); *homeland security* (protection of the US internal security both in terms of persons and infrastructure); *Critical Infrastructure Protection* (protection of vital installations such as petroleum pipelines, communication infrastructure, power plants).

Hill's analysis reveals that security professionals perform a wide range of duties for a number of socio-economic sectors, which include financial sector, estate development, cultural properties, sports, government, hospitals, manufacturing, ICT, investigations, hotels, security engineering and design, security equipment sales and services; transportation and utilities. It follows, therefore, that even though the specialization and orientation of security professionals may be unique; the general skills needed to carry out the basic security functions remain similar. Therefore, security studies programmes must be comprehensive enough to address the unique needs of security professionals in a dynamic setting.

Hill further argues that the work of a security professional goes beyond traditional security roles. Hence, students pursuing security studies should be prepared to provide security leadership roles to their organizations and as such develop an understanding of administrative, technical, supervisory, and managerial competencies alongside the traditional security skills. The students should also be prepared to pursue coursework in security management, business studies, law, counter terrorism, incident and disaster management, personnel management and information management. To him, the role of a security professional is more of preventive than reactive.

In its efforts to revise the security studies programmes to meet the demands of the security industry, the management of Denver University College also found from the needs assessment that the previous programme on security education was not focused on the key elements of security management and was offering incomplete courses which needed to be broadened to take care of the expanded dynamics of the security sector. The College thereafter developed a new graduate programme, the Master of Applied Science in Security Management. The programme has a minimum of 54 credits in specific core and elective courses. The minimum requirements are undergraduate degrees and experience in the security sector. The outcome of the programmes is security professionals who could hold positions of security managers, security consultants, investigator, fire brigades and police officers.

The course content includes *security concepts overview* (Overview of main issues in security management in organizations); *Methodology and data analysis* (intensive study of research methodology); *risk management* (framework for identifying the key elements that curb loss and accelerate business restoration); *Information Systems: Threats in Security (*identification of threats to security systems, discovering vulnerabilities, and suggesting and designing protection systems); *Business Function of Security (*security and its interrelatedness to other departments in an organization); *Design and Development of Integrated Security Systems (*planning, planting, procedures, and relevant security measures); *Legal and Ethical Issues in Security Management (*legal and ethical issues which confront the business and organizational security management professional); *Security Administration (*application of the principles of management to security administration); *Business Assets Protection (*application of security management skills to

protection of business assets); *Emergency Planning (*role of the security manager in human and natural crises management) and; *Human Factors in Security (*historical and contemporary views of human behaviour). The course outcomes of this graduate programme include enabling the student to lead security management efforts of both private and public sectors; analyze financial implications of security programmes and options; evaluate and analyze emerging security issues, regulations and threats; protect vital security assets and installation including people, information, and, finally, manage incidents (Hill, 2007).

Hill (2007) further illustrates that the curriculum design presents master's candidates with two options to choose from: Information Security or Organizational Security. Under Information Security they have to complete 27 hours each of Research Strategies and Effective Writing; Business Functions of Security, Design and Development of Integrated Security Systems, Security Administration, Business Assets Protection, Financial Analysis, and Managerial Decision Making.

Under Organizational Security, they must complete 27 hours from the same selections but with additional choice of Enterprise Management. They must also complete 21 hours in the electives based on their study blocks. Under these blocks, those specializing in information Security choose from the following courses: Business Continuation and Operational Security, Access Control and Physical Security, Cyber-Security Law, Application Security, Wireless Security, Security Testing with Lab, Network Security with Lab, Cryptography with Lab, and Computer Forensics with Lab.

Students specializing in organizational security can choose from Risk Management, Information Systems: Threats in Security, Legal and Ethical Issues in Security Management, Emergency Planning, and Human Factors in Security, Advanced Studies in Security (Special Topics); Business Continuation and Operational Security, Access Control and Physical Security and, Cyber-Security Law. At the end of the coursework, they must complete 6 hours of a proposal and project in order to graduate.

The University also designed two certificate programmes: the Certificate of Advanced Study in Information Security Management and the Certificate of Advanced Study in Organizational Security Management. The Certificate of Advanced Study candidates can also select from one of two blocks (Information Security and Organizational Security) and must take a minimum of 24 hours of course work. They must also take 9-15 hours of core requirements. Under Organizational Security, the core competencies are Security Concepts Overview; Business Functions of Security; Design and Development of Integrated Security Systems; Security Administration and Business Assets Protection. Under information security, the core competencies are Security Concepts Overview; Business Function of Security; Design and Development of Integrated Security Systems; Business Assets Protection.

The students must also take 9-15 hours of electives as follows: Under organizational Security, they must take Risk Management; Information Systems: Threats in Security; Legal and Ethical Issues in Security Management; Emergency Planning; Human Factors in Security and Advanced Studies in Security (Special Topics). Under information security, they must take Business Continuation and Operational Security; Access Control and Physical Security; Cyber-Security Law; Application Security; Wireless Security; Security

Testing with Laboratory ; Network Security with Laboratory; Cryptography with Laboratory and; Computer Forensics with Laboratory.

The ongoing review has outlined the key aspects of a HE security studies programme at the University of Denver University College. The review has highlighted the orientation which HE in security studies is taking in the US following heightened demand for security professionals in all sectors of the economy. However, the literature has focused more on the design and development of graduate and certificate courses. Yet, there is still need to know the perceptions of the students undertaking the courses, with regard to the quality of teaching and learning. The current study intends to fill this gap by examining the perceptions of HE students in Kenyan universities in relation to the quality of the teaching and learning in the security courses they are undertaking.

In further review of the available literature on security studies, Spracher (2010), in his study of HE in Intelligence studies in the US, underscores that HE in National Security intelligence has not received adequate attention from HE scholars, since most of the intelligence education programmes have only focused on in-service training of the Intelligence personnel. The author notes that the tragic events of September 11 2001 and the inability of the US to find weapons of mass destruction in Iraq, even after invasion, awakened the US decision makers to the realization that everything possible should be done to prevent any such devastating intelligence failures. The failures were a manifestation of the fact that the American system of education had not adequately prepared the Intelligence professionals to handle such issues effectively. The author argues that probably the kind of education the professionals underwent and the training they received at the intelligence academies could have affected the manner in which they

approached the problem of terrorism then. At stake was the need to think impartially, fast, and perfectly, with full appreciation of timely dissemination of intelligence products to all relevant customers.

The author's position was further supported by the fact that the role of higher education in intelligence studies was anchored in the commission reports, which followed the tragedies. For instance, the Commission on the Intelligence Capabilities of the United States Regarding Weapons of Mass Destruction recommended the creation of a National Intelligence University. Similarly, the Intelligence Reform and Terrorism Prevention Act (IRTPA) of 2004 also recommended greater education of intelligence community employees. Spracher's position is further in concordance, with Zegart (2006) who appeals to universities to focus on intelligence studies. The author notes that universities have ignored intelligence studies both in terms of research since key scholars in strategic studies have diverted attention to other subjects leading to short supply of information to intelligence community.

Spracher further notes that the intelligence community of the US has not woken up to the realization that the environmental context of its existence as a superpower has changed and intelligence business can no longer be conducted the way it was done during cold war. The Intelligence community therefore needs to adapt fast by prioritizing the education of the intelligence professionals especially at the HE level, in order to prepare them adequately for the contemporary realties. The situation is further compounded by the fact that policy makers are never intelligence professionals, hence need to be persuaded by impartial, truthful, and high quality intelligence, which can only be generated by highly educated professionals, who also should not allow themselves to be swayed or manipulated by the decision makers.

There is growing realization that technical intelligence systems are no substitute to human intelligence and the need to thoroughly educate the human resource of the intelligence community to provide accurate and reliable intelligence cannot be downplayed. This process, however, requires strong linkages between Government and HE institutions. As a first step towards addressing these concerns, the Office of the Director National Intelligence (ODNI), US, drew a discrete list of core competencies for various professionals in the Intelligence Community. These included (i) engagement and collaboration, (ii) critical thinking, (iii) personal leadership and integrity, (iv) accountability for results, (v) technical expertise, and (vi) communication. Within this framework, Spracher carried out a survey to describe the educational environment within which HE education institutions could prepare appropriate courses to instil the competencies. He further explored the teaching and learning experiences of the intelligence professionals who had just left college recently.

Spracher emphasizes that the main goal of intelligence studies should be to produce credible intelligence analysts, who can critically examine a problem and come up with workable solutions. But it should also produce efficient managers and professionals, who are able to collect, collate process, disseminate and keep the entire intelligence cycle vibrant. The ultimate goal of the study was therefore to assist ODNI recruit the best professionals while at the same time assisting the HE institution is coming with strategic programmes to actualize the goals.

Even though Spracher has been economical in outlining the key findings of his study in the article reviewed, the overall finding was that intelligence education is rapidly expanding in the US, probably due to the September 11 tragedy and the successive war of blame. He also found that the HE intuitions offering intelligence studies, have made some impact in

producing graduates who are up to the task and able to offer unique skills to the work of intelligence, not possessed by their counterparts. However, the high explosion of intelligence studies in the HE system of the US has not dissuaded many intelligence professionals from the traditional orientation. This is perhaps due to the fact that a large number of the colleges were not addressing the core competencies developed by ODNI under the new intelligence community orientation in the US, since curriculum developers were ignorant of them.

Spracher has therefore proposed the following guideline, which addresses ODNI core competences, for future curriculum developers:

Table 1: Spracher's Proposed National Intelligence Studies Graduate Level Introductory Course

National Intelligence Studies : Introductory Course, Graduate Level		
Week	**Lesson Title**	**Competencies Addressed**
1.	Overview of the National Security Intelligence: The Key players and the Agencies of IC	(i), (ii) , (iii)
2.	Law Enforcement and Homeland Security: The Post 9/11 Panorama in a Globalized World	(i), (ii), (iv)
3.	Information Sharing and Collaboration in the Interagency Environment (with field trip to one of the IC Agencies)	(i), (iv), (v)
4.	A Primer on the collection disciplines and the Intelligence Cycle	(ii), (iv), (v)
5.	Structured Analytical Techniques and how they fit into overall intelligence Research Methods	(ii), (v)
6	Intelligence Estimates and Assessments (With Practical Exercises Requiring Working Group Oral Presentations and Individual Written Products)	(ii), (iv), (v), (iv)
7	Intelligence for Decision Makers and the Policy making process (with short briefings to role playing decision makers)	(i), (iii), (iv), (vi)
8.	Control and Oversight of Intelligence: Effectiveness through Accountability	(iii), (iv)
9	International Engagement: Intelligence Sharing and Operational Cooperation in a world of Diverse National Cultures	(i), (v), (vi)
10	Use of Case studies and simulations in Intelligence Studies (With practical exercise requiring group oral presentations)	(ii), (v), (vi)
11	Ethics of Intelligence	(iii), (iv)
12	Management of the Intelligence Enterprise: The Role of Competitive Intelligence and the 'Intelligence- Industrial Complex'	(i), (iii), (v)
13	Capstone Exercise: Intelligence for Crisis Resolution	(i), (ii), (iii), (iv), (v), (v)
14	Leadership in the Intelligence Community and the Psychology of Organizational Cultures	(i), (iii), (v)

Source: Spracher (2010, p. 25)

It would therefore be important to note that Spracher's study has underscored the role of HE in peace and security studies. Similarly, the need for a transformative education that would change the conservative orientation of the security sector towards a more pragmatic

approach to handling security issues has been emphasized. But the fact that the education process has not been able to change the BMS of the intelligence professionals from the traditional cold war orientation continues to raise quality issues as far as HE in security studies is concerned. Even though Spracher has explained it as a matter of HE institutions' ignorance to ODNI core competencies, it is also a pointer to the fact that the institutions have been devoid of significant research in the area of intelligence studies, which could precipitate this need. These concerns have been raised by Hill (2007), elsewhere in this Chapter. The need to investigate the quality of teaching and learning of HE in Intelligence Studies, and by extension peace and security studies, was therefore categorical. The current study aimed at bridging this gap by examining students' perceptions of quality.

The review in section 3.1.4 presents an overview of regional security situation in Africa as a platform upon which HE in security studies is designed and delivered. The aim is place security studies in Kenya within the appropriate regional, social, political and cultural context.

3.1.4 Regional Security Context of Higher Education in Peace and Security Studies

Tavares (2008) observes that issues of global focus such as peace and security tend to be defined more by regional rather than entirely international or strictly national parameters. It would therefore be imperative to discuss the dynamics of a country's peace and security configurations by immersing these concepts into a broader regional barometer. It is within this framework that this study aimed to explore the dimensions of peace and security in Africa as a lens for examining the Kenyan security context upon which HE in peace and security studies is being investigated. The review was therefore based on a general discussion of the current peace and security situation in Africa as the framework for

understanding the need for quality HE in peace and security studies. It reviews the current security situation in some of the most affected countries in the Horn of Africa, East Africa, Southern Africa, Central Africa, North Africa and West Africa.

Generally, Dersso (2013) observes that towards the end of 2012, peace and security in African region still remained fragile, as existing conflicts persisted, new ones emerged and transnational threats continued to rise. The already existent threats continued to take their toll in Somalia, Sudan and South Sudan, while in Mali, Nigeria, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Central African Republic (CAR), new hostilities surfaced. In addition, the effects of the Arab uprising are continuing to be left both in the North and West.

Concerning the Horn of Africa, Wasara (2002) explains that the history of the region has been characterised by domestic dissidence and interstate conflicts, especially the Eritrean war of liberation and the Sudan Civil war, and the eventual collapse of states, such as Somalia, which is now recuperating. In the region, states affected by conflicts consolidate their security while trying to destabilize those perceived to be undermining their independence. Because states refuse to dialogue with each other or with their internal rebels, the consequence has been armed violence and civil wars.

According to Dersso, Somalia's struggle for peace and stability was boosted by the African Union Mission in Somalia (AMISOM) forces, including Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) and the US, which backed Transitional Federal Government (TFG) against the Al Shabaab insurgents. Consequently, the KDF expelled the insurgents from many of their bases in Central and Southern Somalia, including the key port town of Kismayo. Even though Somalia now has a chance to pursue lasting peace after the last General elections, the

continued sporadic attacks from the 'wounded' Al shabaab, which have spilled over to Kenya, are still a challenge.

Still in the region, the persistent tension between Sudan and South Sudan, which borders Kenya, over oil income, continues to jeopardize peace prospects between the two rival nations. Even though currently the tension appears to have subsided, the failure of South Sudan to pay Sudan for previous oil shipments and their dispute over transit tariffs, triggered tension between the two countries leading to diversion of oil by Sudan and suspension of production by Southern Sudan. The military interventions that followed saw the two countries at the brink of war as the Sudan People's Liberation Army (SPLA) claimed the border area of Heglig as well as its oil fields and facilities.

Hostilities have also continued within both Sudan and Southern Sudan. In Sudan, the Sudanese Armed Forces (SAF) has been conducting counter-insurgency bombings in the South Kordofan and Blue Nile states against the Sudan People's Liberation Movement-North (SPLM-N) forces leading to displacement of thousands of people. The SPLM-N, on the other hand, has carried out indiscriminate attacks and is forcefully recruiting refugees in South Sudanese refugee camps into their movement. There is increased tension in Dafur, Sudan, where SAF has continuously clashed with rebel groups, leading to death of United Nations-African Union Mission in Darfur (UNAMID) peacekeepers.

The conflict in South Sudan, which erupted in December 2013, following differences within the ruling Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) has claimed more than 10, 000 people displaced over 200,000. The civil war has further provoked deep ethnic rivalry between the country's two main tribes; the Dinka and the Nuer. It has spread to Jonglei and

Unity states, with forces loyal to former Vice President Riek Machar continuing to gain control of the oil-rich states from the Government forces.

On the other side of the territory, Sudan is watching the events with keen interest and could reactivate its long held rivalry with the country and cause further turmoil in order to prove to the world its long-held opinion that South Sudan was not a viable state. Even though the warring parties have signed a peace pact, there are fears that Machar, who has always maintained links with Sudan and had been previously used to suppress the SPLM could still further be used to continue destabilizing South Sudan. Other key actors which have been used to destabilize South Sudan, among them Gen. Peter Gadet and David Yau Yau, are equally coalescing around Machar. The fact that the rebels loyal to Machar are still actively engaging the Government forces, even after the peace agreement, could be a great blessing to Sudan since it gives her an opportunity to directly influence the management of the oil resources. More so, other remnants of pro-Khartoum supporters especially in Eastern Equatoria, may equally join Machar, in his bid to oust Salva Kirr.

In his discussion of the security situation in the northern part of the continent, Dersso (2013) explains that the effects of 2011 North African uprisings continue to spread among the countries affected. In Egypt, the riots that occurred after the ouster of President Mohamad Morsi by the Supreme Council of the Armed Forces (SCAF) in July 2012, followed by successive terrorist attacks on tourists and police, have continued to paint a grim picture on peace prospects in the country. Moubayed, Croft, Kolbe and Chow (2013) note that the situation is further compounded by temporary suspension of the controversial 2012 constitution and subsequent appointment of the head of the Supreme Constitutional Court (SCC), Judge Adli Mansour, as interim president. In addition, the arrests and travel

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bans against Muslim Brotherhood leaders by security forces, and their brutal attacks on protesters have alienated the Muslim Brotherhood and other Islamist factions and increased the risk of further insecurity and stability. It is further feared that the network of Islamic jihadist groups, especially in Sinai, with links to their terrorist allies in Gaza, Libya and Sudan have reactivated their cells and are likely to continue with their activities if Muslim Brotherhood remains rebellious and dumps the political process. The attacks on army posts in Sinai, the Arish international airport and the resurgence of attacks on the gas pipeline to Israel and Jordan are a pointer to the possibility of the situation further worsening.

The security situation in Libya has equally remained fragile following the overthrow of the late Muammar Gaddafi in 2011. The resultant condition after the fall only contributed to more insecurity instead of yielding peace as the North African country remained flooded with weapons and arms, and non-secure arms depots (Dersso, 2013; Joffe', 2012). The National Transitional Council (NTC) that formed the transitional government in Libya, thereafter, has been unable to exercise firm control over most of the armed groups controlling several parts of the country. Their greatest challenge remains disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of all the diverse armed groups into a national army. Joffe' (2012) notes that the armed criminal groups have continued to torture persecute and punish loyalists of the former regime. This is because NTC is perceived as a Benghazi based movement, which was delinked to the Tripoli-based militia from Misurata and Zintan and, who contributed significantly to the success of the uprising.

The lack of institutions through which the NTC could rebuild the fragmented state has left security in the rural areas to the disillusioned loyalists of the Gaddafi regime who continue

to terrorise the nation at will. Moreover, tribal and regional splits have resulted into clashes between rival tribal militias killing hundreds of people and injuring many. More gravely, increased terrorist attacks have seen diplomats from the US and United Kingdom (UK) and officials International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) attacked in Benghazi and Misrata, leading to the death of the US Ambassador to Libya, along with three other US diplomats on 11 September 2012. The security of Libya has largely remained weak and peace is very fragile.

In another analysis of the Northern part of the continent, Scholze (2012) has singled out Mali as one of the countries in the Western Sahel whose security situation is alarming. Other countries in the region are Niger and Burkina Faso. In January 2012, a newly formed Tuareg rebel group, National Movement for Liberation for Azawad (MNLA), captured several cities in the North of Mali. The movement comprised the Tuareg, mercenary forces, led by members of the late Colonel Gaddafi's family and who served as soldiers in the army of Libya and returned home towards the end of 2011, after the death of Gaddafi. The other groups based in the North are the Al Qaeda Organization in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM), Movement for Unity and Jihad in West Africa (MUJAO), Ansar Dine (a splinter group of AQIM, meaning 'defenders of the faith') and Boko Haram. Whereas MNLA are fighting for the liberation of Azawad in the North, Ansar Dine, Boko Haram, and AQIM are Islamic fundamentalist groups keen on establishing Sharia law and have been responsible for a number of abductions of Europeans since 2003 (Dersso, 2013). Scholze, further observes that the inability of the Government of Mali to control the vast northern region has led to movement of illicit goods, arms and drugs into the country. This instability led to a coup in March 2012 by a military junta. But the coup only emboldened the rebels to take over cities like Gao, Kidal, Timbutku and Douentza. As a

roadmap to peace and stability, the caretaker Transitional Government and Economic Cooperation of West African States (ECOWAS) have agreed on deployment of troops in Mali to reclaim the North.

The situation in Niger and Burkina Faso are relatively stable, however, threats from the AQIM of Mali still abound. The terrorist group has continued to carry out abductions and trafficking of illegal arms into Niger. More so, the influx of immigrants returning from Libya and the Mali refugees fleeing the volatile situation in the North, has seriously affected Niger and Burkina Faso, causing serious economic and social problems in the countries.

The Central Africa region has equally borne its fair share of peace and security challenges. Clément, (2009) notes that the atrocities of both state and illegal armed groups have contributed to immense suffering of the people of Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) since 1998. An estimated 5.4 million people have been killed since then making it one of the world's worst conflicts since World War II and worse still an average of 1,500 people die daily in the country, from both natural and conflict related causes. This rate is much higher than in the rest of sub-Saharan Africa. Government forces have continued to commit rape on mostly minors (UN Security Council, 2008). The security situation in the country dipped further after the 2012 disputed elections, which deeply divided the country. The resultant tension saw an increase in violence by armed militants and rebel groups, which displaced thousands of people. Dersso (2013) observes that in January 2012, thousands were displaced following attacks by the Democratic Forces for the Liberation of Rwanda (FDLR) in South Kivu, which killed 40 people. In Katanga, the Mayi-Mayi

attacks in the same month displaced over 10,000 people. Also, clashes between the Walikale and Masisi militias in the same month also displaced about 35,000 people.

The situation was further worsened by divisions between President Laurent Kabila's government and former members of the National Congress for the Defence of the People (CNDP) over the bungled up security sector reforms triggered a major armed conflict between the Armed Forces of the DRC (FARDC) and ex-CNDP soldiers in April 2012 . Thousands were further displaced in North Kivu as the mutineers formed the March 23 rebel movement (M23). Consequently, various insurgent groups that had been operating in the region took advantage of the security lapses that had been realized as defecting soldiers abandoned security posts to join M23 rebels while others got redeployed within FARDC to confront the M23.

Other rebel movements such as the Allied Democratic Forces (ADF), FDLR, Mayi-Mayi militias and the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) have equally up-scaled their devastating attacks and atrocities against civilians in eastern DRC. Currently, more than 370,000 civilians have been displaced and are facing serious humanitarian crisis.

Conflict in the eastern part of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is, however, likely to continue despite ongoing regional and international efforts to pacify the restive region. The UN Intervention Brigade Force (FIB) successfully neutralized the M23 in November 2013, in collaboration with the Congolese army (FARDC) and the UN Stabilization Mission in DRC (MONUSCO), through a military campaign against the Rwandan rebel group, FDLR, also based in eastern DRC. This military campaign is, however, likely to face some challenges, subsequently delaying stabilization of the restive region. It is feared

that the focus of military efforts on the FDLR would give opportunity to other armed groups to regroup and launch attacks on the populace, further heightening unrest. More so, the structural weakness of the International Conference on the Great Lakes Region (ICGLR), have rendered the sub-regional body incapable of reinforcing agreements arrived at by conflicting parties. This has led to reneging on peace agreements by signatories to these agreements in the past, a situation that has been replicated since 2006 when the ICGLR was established. The DRC has questioned the neutrality of the ICGLR Chairman, Ugandan President, Yoweri Museveni, insisting that he has repeatedly assisted the M23, while Rwanda has repeatedly insisted that the DRC supports FDLR.

In the Central African Republic (CAR), Dersso has decried state weakness, ineffective governance and delicate peace resolutions as the main contributors to insecurity and political instability in the country. Even though CAR authorities, however, repatriated the Popular Front for Recovery (FPR) combatants to Chad in September and October 2012 following the surrender of the FPR leader, Baba Ladé. Similarly, the LRA has continued to commit atrocities against civilians in the east and south-east of CAR. Traders, travellers, women and children have been most affected. Dersso notes that in 2012 alone, more than 200 attacks were witnessed leading to 45 deaths and 400 abductions and since 2008 it is estimated that more 460,000 people have been displaced.

The lack of capacity to provide security in all parts of CAR has seen armed militia, rebels and the LRA continue with their activities. The government's failure to adopt the 2007 peace resolution led to increased hostility by rebel groups such as, the Seleka rebel alliance, which launched attacks against the government forces and ended up capturing

seven towns, including the diamond-rich mining town, Bria and, the key northern town of Ndélé.

The Seleka, led by Michel Djotodia, comprises five rebel groups from the North-Eastern part of the country: Patriots' Convention for Justice and Peace (CPJP), Union of Democratic Forces for Unity (UFDR), Democratic Front of Central African People (FDPC), Patriotic Convention for the Salvation of Kodro (PCSK), and Alliance for Renaissance and Reorganization (ARR). The group, which comprises of between 1000-3000 members, consists also of rebel groups drawn from neighbouring Chad and Sudan. The group had been agitating for the overthrow of former President François Bozizé since December 2012 on grounds that his regime persistently marginalized the North-Eastern part of the country. In addition, the Chadian rebel groups, especially the Popular Front for Recovery (FPR) continue to control the CAR territories along the border with Chad, with ease.

Despite the formation of a transitional government, unrest still persists in CAR. The transitional government lacks financial capacity to manage an efficient security apparatus, a situation that has given way to heightened insecurity. Lack of adequate security has seen a rise in crime, a situation that has forced locals to form self-defence groups. The lack of security has also seen the proliferation of rebels from Chad and Sudan into the country's borders, particularly in the north-eastern part of the country, largely with the aim of plundering the diamond reserves in the area.

The West Africa region has currently emerged as the bedrock of terrorist activities. Dersso has categorised the atrocities committed by the Islamic fundamentalists, Jama'atu Ahlis

Sunna Lidda'awati wal Jihad (People Committed to the Propagation of the Prophet's Teachings and Jihad), also known as Boko Haram , in Nigeria, as the worst emerging security threat in West Africa and the Sahel region. So far the attacks by the Islamists have claimed over 3,000 lives since 2009. In 2012 alone, the group carried out over 280 bombings and gun attacks killing over 200 people. The groups' link with other terrorist networks in the Sahel, its desire to provoke an interreligious war between Christians and Muslims by attacking innocent civilians, churches and worshippers and continued expansion to neighbouring countries, is the most worrying trend.

In the southern part of the continent, Dersso observes that the political protests against the Haute Autorité de Transition (HAT) government of Andry Rajoelina, coupled with soldier's mutiny continued to threaten the peace and stability in the country in between 2012-2013. There were wide differences between the ousted President Marc Ravalomanana and the then president Rajoelina over failure to adopt the September 2011 Southern African Development Community (SADC) Roadmap, which provided for the free return to Madagascar of all exiled political leaders and the implementation of an amnesty law. In 2012 Rajoelina's government blocked Ravalomanana from entering the country and also failed to meet the February deadline of SADC roadmap. This was followed by three army mutinies over tax and wages. In addition, the late adoption of two amnesty laws by Parliament in late April equally ignited riots amongst Ravalomanana supporters, which was violently thwarted by the police. Even though Rajoelina's regime was finally ousted through the December 2013 polls. It is yet to be seen whether the disputed election of Hery Rajaonarimampianina, as president, will bring reconciliation in the already polarised country.

This analysis paints the African continent as an inherently fragile region, whose peace and security architecture continues to weaken. The role of academic institutions in developing solutions to this persistent insecurity in the region is therefore categorical. The persistent conflict in the region could also be a pointer to the ineffectiveness of the academic institutions in finding long lasting solutions to peace and security in Africa. But if the institutions are truly committed to this goal, then the quality of their teaching as well as research output could be wanting. The aim of the current study therefore is to investigate students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in universities in Kenya.

The next part of this review will address the contemporary security challenges in Kenya and their implications on HE.

3.1.5 Contemporary Security challenges in Kenya and Implications on Higher Education

Ndura-Ouédraogo (2009) notes that Kenya is among African countries located in the Great Lakes region, whose post- colonial history has been characterised by persistent inter-ethnic hostilities and violence. The Great Lakes region has been used to describe countries surrounding Lake Kivu, Lake Tanganyika, and Lake Victoria. Other countries are Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda, Burundi and Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). Apart from Tanzania, all the countries in the region have been embroiled in deep conflicts that have threatened their political and socio-economic structures, thereby attracting extensive scholarly interests. These academic discourses have continued to define the ideas of peace and security scholars in the region.

Khadiagala (2008) categories Kenya as a weak state together with other countries in the great lakes region due to the absence of strong political and economic institutions that address the postcolonial demands of ethnic diversity, economic marginalization, and social alienation. He notes that ethnic tensions borne of increasing regional inequalities and political intolerance continue to pose a danger to the political stability in the country despite the remarkable political transformations since the 1990s. Furthermore, the trend towards pluralism and democratization has brought about new social movements and actors that continue to threaten the sustainability of democratic order (Cottrel & Ghai, 2007).

BICC (2005) further underscores that Kenya faces a number of demanding security challenges since it is surrounded by a myriad of violent conflicts. The simmering tension in Southern Sudan to the North, the persistent conflict in the Great Lakes region to the West and the unending violence in Somalia to the East, has put the country's security in jeopardy. Whereas the country has managed to successfully resolve some of the conflicts by way of active mediation, regional instability continues to exert a direct impact upon its external and internal security interests. This necessitated the country to launch a military operation against the Al Shabaab terror group in Somalia in 2011. Nevertheless, activities of the Al Shabaab insurgency in Somalia have, however, remained a thorn in the flesh. The Al Qaida linked militia group has continued to radicalize the youth and launch series of terrorist attacks inside the country with the latest devastating one on 21st September, 2013, where at least 70 people including foreigners were killed at Westgate mall, Nairobi and 175 injured.

The main sources of insecurity in the country, apart from terrorism, include radicalization of youth to cause violence, availability of small arms and light weapons (SALW), political violence, resource conflicts and an indifferent internal security sector (Republic of Kenya, 2008a; Republic of Kenya, 2006a; BICC, 2005). Comprehensively, the presence and proliferation of small arms and light weapons among ordinary offenders, criminals, and quasi-militia pose a dangerous threat to human security. Most of the supply can be traced to instability in the neighbouring Somalia and South Sudan (Republic of Kenya, 2008a; BICC, 2005). The arms largely end up in the hands of criminals in the pastoral regions of northern Kenya. In these areas, political and economic marginalization in geographically vast and isolated arid and semi arid areas coupled with an inadequate presence of state security forces have provided fertile grounds for the proliferation of SALW and frequency of armed violence (Asembo & Lumadi, 2013; Republic of Kenya, 2006a; Khadiagala, 2003). These arms are smuggled into the rest of the country where they have continued to fuel urban crime, banditry, terrorism, cattle rustling and inter-ethnic conflicts. The net effect has been high cost of providing security, underdevelopment of the arid areas and instability arising from the manifestations of cross border pastoralist conflicts (Republic of Kenya, 2006a).

Political violence as a security challenge has been manifested in the regional clustering of the country's political parties (Republic of Kenya, 2008a; Republic of Kenya, 2008b). The multiparty political landscape of the country basically constitutes ethnically-based parties. This often causes tension among the followers and resulting in violent confrontations. Human Rights Watch (2008) explains that the scale and speed of the violence that engulfed Kenya following the controversial presidential election of December 27, 2007 left over 1,000 dead and up to 500,000 people internally displaced in just two months. Even though

politicians have been consistently implicated in organizing the political violence since the 1990s, elements of impunity still remain in their operations. The last general election in 2013 was largely peaceful but the failures of governance continue to be at the core of the explosive anger, which is usually exposed in the wake of perceived election fraud. The key challenge remains in ensuring that institutions created to deal with the threat actually deliver accountability for recent and previous violence; correct injustices ignored by previous administrations, and tackle the systemic failure of governance that gives rise to such crisis (Human Rights Watch, 2008).

Resource-based conflicts as a security challenge in the country revolve around competition for natural resources. The general decline in key resources, such as land, water and pasture, due to rising population, increased economic activities and natural factors are the main contributors. Simiyu (2008) explains that land is the basic commodity for the vast majority of the Kenyan rural population, and often the only economic resource that defines their socio-cultural and spiritual livelihoods. For these reasons, most rural communities have become highly dependent on land and developed sentimental attachment to it, making access to ownership, use and control of the land resource, arguably, the most emotive and politicised issue in contemporary Kenya. Land, specifically, has been at the core of Kenya's political evolution since the colonial period. However, the land settlement programme after independence clearly steered away from resolving the agenda and much of the land fell into the hands of a few individual Kenyans and unscrupulous land-buying companies. The battle for land ownership and use in Kenya, therefore, continues to occupy the insecurity discourse in the country.

The security sector in the country, especially the police has been characterised by inadequate capacity to deal with the overwhelming security threats. The rampant corruption, insufficient resources, inadequate competencies of the security personnel, overall lack of transparency as well as frequent violations of international human rights norms, stand out as the principal difficulties in this regard (BICC, 2005). The current police ratio of one police officer for every 811 citizens is far below the recommended international ratio of one officer for every 500 citizens (Republic of Kenya, 2008a; BICC 2005). Even though the new constitution merged the two divergent police forces under one authority: the National Police Service (NPS), there is continued distrust between them and low cooperation between the police and community. This scenario has significantly contributed to more insecurity thereby curtailing economic and social recovery.

According to reports by various human rights organizations, Kenyan police forces have committed unlawful killings and arrested citizens arbitrarily on many occasions (Human Rights Watch, 2008). Although a law was passed in 2003 to prohibit the use of confessions made under duress as evidence in criminal proceedings, police allegedly still revert to physical violence in order to extract information from suspects. In March 2005, Amnesty International (AI) appealed to the Kenya Police Service to train officers properly in human rights law to avoid unlawful and arbitrary arrests and harassment (BICC, 2005). The common public perception is that the police are often either involved in or complicit to criminal activity (US State Department, 2004).

Kenya's Vision 2030, nonetheless, sets the vision for the security sector as a "society free from danger and fear" (Republic of Kenya 2008a, p. 25), with security of the individual and of property being one of the foundations. The vision underscores security as vital in

achieving and sustaining a rapid economic growth rate by 2030. This is because elimination of danger and fear is crucial in creating a conducive environment for individuals and businesses to thrive.

The Government of Kenya estimates that some companies spend up to seven per cent of their total sales, or 11 per cent of their total costs on security infrastructure and personnel. In addition, business firms spend an average of four per cent of sales on insurance against crime. Such spending not only raises the cost of business transactions but also inhibits growth of the private sector. Improved security is seen as a key incentive for attracting investment and building investor confidence (Republic of Kenya, 2008a). To this end, Vision 2030 intends to 'improve the police population ratio from 1:811 to 1:450; double the prison to area ratio; increase police officers trained on forensic investigation by 500; install effective ICT infrastructure in all security agencies; provide a framework for coordination among security stakeholders and; collaborate with the judiciary in reducing the number of suspects held in remand homes, as a result of delays in court' (Republic of Kenya, 2008a, p. 25).

The Vision outlines the following strategies as crucial in achieving the objectives: recruitment of more staff to improve service delivery by improving the police to population ratio; establishment of an institutional mechanism to check the conduct of police and make them accountable to the people and to the rule of law; crime prevention through intensified surveillance, improved crime detection skills and promotion of modern crime investigation techniques (such as forensic investigation and use of ICT). In particular, the Government has prioritised capacity building through intensified training of security staff and provision of the necessary equipment in all security agencies;

improved terms and conditions of service through provision of better living and working conditions for staff in Kenya's security services; enhanced security along the borders to address proliferation of small arms and illicit drugs across the borders; improved coordination and communication among the various institutions dealing with security to enhance effective management of crime; annual customer satisfaction surveys to appraise the effectiveness of the on-going reforms. In the short-term, the following interventions have been prioritised: establishment of a forensic laboratory; installation of surveillance cameras in Nairobi, Mombasa, Nakuru and Kisumu; construction of six new prisons in Mwingi, Nyamira, Kwale, Rachuonyo, Vihiga and Kaloleni; and establishment of a national security database (Republic of Kenya, 2008a).

Within these prospects and impediments, the role of HE is salient. Asembo (2008), in support, asserts that the call for universities to play a role in security reforms is not exclusive, since in looking for solutions to their socio-economic problems, nations worldwide, have invested their trust in universities in order to come up with appropriate solutions to those problems. In this respect, universities are expected to produce new or apply existing knowledge in offering answers and solutions to numerous problems that societies face including human insecurity. Trofymowych (2007) equally highlights that globally, countries have experimented the idea of giving University education to public security officers, such as the police, Similarly, Roberg and Bonn (2004) emphasize that in the 1960s police leaders and administrators in the United States recognized the benefits of University education for police and, consequently, the role of University education in improving the capacity of police officers started to become accepted. ICTJ (2010) equally underscores the need for research institutions in Kenya to invest in generating local knowledge on security. Thus in an effort to modernise security organisations and

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professionalise provision of public security services in line with the UNDP (1994) human security approach, many national security training institutions worldwide are encouraging public security service providers such as police officers to obtain formal University qualifications.

Consequently, a number of studies on the impact of University education on attitudes and performance of public security service providers, especially the police, have been carried out. Majority of the studies carried out have found more favourable impacts of University education. Lester (1983) for instance found higher performance in police academy training Other studies have found more informed and high critical thinking abilities (Carter, Sapp & Stevens, 1989); high decision making and problem solving abilities (Carter & Sapp, 1990); high ethical conduct (Shernock, 1992); increased initiative and readiness to take on leadership roles (Kakar, 1998); fewer complaints against police (Lersch & Kunzman, 2001); and minimal levels of use of force (Terrill & Mastrofski, 2002). Nonetheless, other researchers have reported less favourable impacts, among them, less respect for citizens (Shernock, 1992).

In another study, Rawson (1986) reports that in 1986 the Australian Police Ministers Council (APMC), commissioned a formal study into police education in Australia for upper level police managers pertaining to University education. The study surveyed 529 police managers from across Australia and found that 86 per cent of respondents were in favour of police oriented University courses for senior police. However, the respondents also expressed some scepticism towards University education and felt that it would not necessarily help police managers perform better. They strongly expressed the opinion that 'You can make an academic out of a policeman, but you cannot make a policeman out of an academic' (Rawson, 1986).   Based on the findings, the study, nevertheless,

recommended that police managers undertake University education alongside a national police education course.

Trofymowych (2007), in another study, carried out in-depth interviews with police managers and academics occupying key positions in police education from across Australia. Both police managers and academics had generally favourable views towards University education for police and working together in the delivery of policing courses. However, perspectives about the professional status of police and the actual role of University education in police organisations differed. In addition, there were varied views about imposing mandatory requirements on police to complete University courses.

These findings reveal that even though challenges facing Kenya's security sector are critical, the Government is in upbeat mood in confronting them and has prioritised training as one of the key mitigation measures. In this regard, the role of the University in delivering the required training is supreme. It is equally noteworthy that the studies have revealed positive perception of University education by police officers. This is crucial in demonstrating their predisposition to undertake University education. However, the revelations of less favourable impacts of University education suggest that more research needs to be done to explore the quality of teaching and learning that goes into the courses offered. This study set out to bridge this gap by looking at students' perception of quality teaching and learning of Peace and Security Studies in universities in Kenya. The next section of this chapter will review the available literature on quality teaching and learning.

3.2. Quality of Teaching and Learning

Quality in relation to education is a multifaceted concept and has been defined variedly by different scholars (UNICEF, 2000), with the terms efficiency, effectiveness, equity and quality being used interchangeably (Adams, 1993). However, from the ideas of Bernard (1999), it is generally understood that in all aspects of the school and its environment, the rights of all children to survival, protection, development and participation are at the centre; hence, the focus should be on learning which strengthens the capacities of students to act progressively on their own behalf through the acquisition of desirable knowledge, skills and attitudes which create for students, and help them create for themselves and others, places of safety, security and healthy interaction. Based on this principle, UNICEF (2000) has defined quality education to include healthy learners; safe learning environments, gender-sensitive curriculum approaches, adequate resource and facilities; relevant curriculum content; child centred teaching approaches, skilful assessment procedures; and outcomes that embrace knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals of education and positive participation in society.

Quality education is therefore that education that best fits the present and future needs of the particular learners in question and the community, given the particular circumstances and prospects. It must provide students with the tools to deal with and find solutions to the challenges confronting mankind while espousing the development of the potential of every member of each new generation (Magutu et al., 2010; Bergman, 1996). In order to achieve this milestone, quality teaching and learning is paramount.

Defining quality teaching and learning in HE is inherently contentious and there is little consensus about what characterizes effective teaching due to varied disparities about the

aims of HE (Allan et al., 2009; Evans & Abbott, 1998). Similarly, Mohanan (2005) has profiled a University graduate as one who possesses the knowledge, abilities and attitudes necessary to function effectively in familiar and novel situations in personal, intellectual and professional life. The author outlines seven key values which the graduate needs to acquire in order to function effectively. These are knowledge, application, critical thinking, independent learning, articulateness, mind-set and values, as well as interpersonal skills. Bringing out all these qualities in the University graduate is the hallmark of quality teaching.

Perrenoud (1999) as quoted in UNESCO (2004) has described the following ten attributes of a good teacher: (1) organising student learning opportunities; (2) managing student learning progression; (3) dealing with student heterogeneity; (4) developing student commitment to working and learning; (5) working in teams; (6) participating in school curriculum and organisation development; (7) promoting parent and community commitment to school; (8) using new technologies in their daily practice (9) tackling professional duties and ethical dilemmas (10) managing their own professional development.

Campbell, Kyriakides, Muïjs, & Robinson (2004), however, point out that, whereas most studies in teacher quality take achievement against standardized tests as the benchmark for an outcome measure, the tests do not actually measure other kinds of learning, such as becoming an independent learner; developing meta-cognitive skills; solving problems; acting on feedback; assessing one's strengths and weaknesses; acquiring generic study skills, such as, communicating effectively, making effective use of technology to promote one's own learning; working effectively with others and; efficient time-management (Allan

& Clarke, 2007). The promotion of these skills may be difficult to assess, but if such learning is incorporated in the expected learning outcomes, a valid model of quality University teaching must logically include this assessment (Allan et al., 2009). Similarly, Berliner (2005, p. 207) argues that quality is about reaching achievement goals and involves "students learning what they are supposed to in a particular context, grade or subject".

Even though there seems to be lack of consensus on the nature and number of dimensions that represent quality teaching and learning in HE, there appears to be some agreement on generic features of effective teaching (Harris, 1998; Ramsden, 1991). Equally, Hopkins, Ainscow, West, Harris and Beresford (1997) as quoted in Allan et al. (2009) has outlined three dimensions of quality teaching. The first is *teaching effects*, which includes both teaching skills and teaching behaviours. The second is the *acquisition of quality teaching and learning models*, which describes particular types of learning environments that a teacher establishes in his/her classroom. The third dimension is *teacher enthusiasm*, which emphasizes the personal responsibility for creating the conditions for effective learning undertaken by the teacher. Allan et al. (2009) after a review of various research studies undertaken over a period of 30 years have equally proposed supportive learning environment, scaffolding learning, academic expectations and clarity as key indicators of quality teaching.

The authors explain that a *supportive learning environment* includes that which provides an intellectually exciting, stimulating and creative environment; has a high degree of subject knowledge; recognizes student diversity; motivating and exhibits a climate of approachability. *Academic expectations* are characterized by expected outcomes expressed

directly in academic terms; high level of expected output; clear statement of objectives; clarity in evaluation and assessment procedures; manageable workload and critical thinking. Similarly, *scaffolding learning* comprises the dynamics of content delivery; anticipation of misconceptions in students' existing knowledge; pace setting for learners; high engagement levels; excellent classroom management; systematic organisation of learning; team work; immediate feedback; encouragement of independent learning; encouragement of active learning; and effective and sympathetic guidance. *Clarity* includes strong, clear presentation skills and high quality explanations.

The strength of these studies is in the fact that assessing the quality of teaching and learning in an institution should be based more on the views of the student as the recipient of the educational services rather than those of the teacher or the institution which provides the services (Allan et al., 2009). However, no known study has explored this dimension in determining quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya, hence the current study.

3.3 Quality Issues in Higher Education in Kenya

Barnett (1992) has defined quality in HE as a high value accorded to an educative process, where it has been demonstrated that through the process, students' educational development has been enhanced and that they have not only achieved the particular objectives set for the course but in doing so, they have also fulfilled the general educational aims of autonomy, ability to participate in reasoned discourse, critical self evaluation, and a proper awareness of the ultimate contingency of all thought and action. Republic of Kenya (2006b) has adopted this thinking and explains that Quality University education in Kenya, is expected to achieve the following aims:

a. Imparting of hands-on skills and capacity to perform multiple and specific national and international tasks.

b. Creation of dependable and sustainable workforce in form of human resource capital for national growth and development.

c. Creation of entrepreneurial capacity for empowering individuals to create self-employment and employ others.

d. Offering opportunities for advancement of learning beyond basic education with strong leaning towards scholarship and research.

e. Creation of a strong national research base at various sectors of economic and national development.

f. Bridging the gap between theory and practice in various disciplines of education and training.

g. Creation of a strong sense of nationalistic and global development.

h. Inculcation of a culture of precision, moral discipline and work ethic which are necessary in modern industrial and technological world.

Since 1963, when Kenya attained independence, University education has undergone significant expansion in a bid to achieve the above stated objectives (Odhiambo, 2011). The country did not have a fully fledged University while under British colonial rule (Oketch, 2009). The University College, Nairobi, was a constituent of the University of East Africa, which had other campuses at Makerere (Uganda) and Dar-es-Salaam (Tanzania). As recently as 1984, only one degree-granting University existed. In 1970, the University of Nairobi was established by an Act of Parliament and it annexed Kenya College, then a diploma-awarding College of Education, as one of its constituent colleges under the name Kenyatta University College (Odhiambo, 2011). In 1981, the Presidential

Working Party on the Second University (commonly known as the Mackay Commission) recommended the setting up of a second public University. The report led to the establishment of Moi University in 1984 (Republic of Kenya, 1981).

Thereafter, the increased demand for University education in the years that followed saw the commissioning of three more universities: Kenyatta University (KU) in 1985; Egerton University (EU) in 1987 and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) in 1994. Two other universities were established later on: Maseno University (MU) in 2001 and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MUST) in 2007 (Odhiambo, 2011). Besides the growth of public universities, there has been the establishment of private universities. Currently, there are twenty two public and 48 private HE institutions offering University education in the country, all with authority to grant degrees (Commission for University Education, 2012a).

The chartered private universities and the years they were established are as follows: University of Eastern Africa, Baraton-1991; Catholic University of Eastern Africa-1992; Scott Theological College-1992; Daystar University- 1992; United States International University- 1999; Africa Nazarene University- 2002; Kenya Methodist University-2006; Kabarak University-2002; St. Paul's University-2007; Pan African Christian University-2008; Strathmore University-2008; Africa International University-2011; and Kenya Highlands Evangelical University-2011.

Other universities operating with letters of interim authority while receiving guidance and direction from the CUE in order to prepare them for the award of Charter are Kiriri Women's University of Science and Technology -2002; Aga Khan University-2002; Gretsa University-2006; Great Lakes University of Kisumu- 2006; Kenya College of

Accountancy University- 2007; Presbyterian University of East Africa -2007; Adventist University of Africa-2008; Inoorero University-2009; The East African University-2010; Genco University-2011; Management University of Africa- 2011; Riara University-2012 and Pioneer International University-2012.

There are also several other universities, which are still working towards fulfilling the requirements for grant of Letter of Interim Authority (LIA). The following registered universities are still working towards the award of Charter: Nairobi International School of Theology and East Africa School of Theology.

The growth of universities has equally been complemented by the award of charter to previous of constituent colleges. In 2012, CUE elevated a total of 15 constituent colleges of the public universities to be fully fledged. These are Kisii University College, Laikipia University College and Chuka University College (previously under Egerton University); Kenya Polytechnic University College and South Eastern University College (previously under University of Nairobi); Chepkoilel University College-now University of Eldoret, Narok University College, Karatina University College, Rongo University College and Kabianga University College (previously under Moi University); Pwani University College (previously under Kenyatta University); Meru University College of Science and Technology, Multimedia University College of Kenya, Kimathi University College of Technology and Mombasa Polytechnic University College (previously under Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology); Bondo University College- Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology (previously under Maseno University). The Catholic University of Eastern Africa, which is not a public University, still has four constituent colleges, namely, Hekima College, Tangaza College, Marist International College, Regina Pacis University College and Uzima University College.

The rapid expansion of University education during the last two decades posed new challenges to provision of HE in the country. Odhiambo (2011) notes that the universities have been increasingly subjected to a variety of demographic, social, economic and technological changes, which have changed the environment under which they used to operate, hence the need for a new direction of leadership. Despite these dynamics, universities have continued to increase enrolments. Weidman, (1995) explains that immediately after independence in 1963, University education in Kenya began with just 571 students enrolled in Nairobi University College. The CUE (2012a) explains that by March 2012 Kenya had 63 universities and University constituent colleges, comprising of 7 public universities, 24 public University constituent colleges, 14 chartered private universities, 5 private University constituent colleges, 11 private universities with Letters of Interim Authority and 2 registered private universities. The agency further underscores that since 2003, student enrolment in universities has increased significantly from 58,637 in 2004/05 to 122,847 in 2008/09, to 177,735 in 2009/2010 and by 2010/11 the enrolment stood at approximately 231,871.

Materu, (2007) similarly explains that between 1985 and 2002 alone, the number of HE students in Kenya increased by 27%. It is currently estimated that in the East and Central African region, Kenya's HE system is expanding and has the highest number of institutions and students (Abagi, 1999). Unfortunately, this rapid growth appears to have been driven more by national pride and domestic politics than real need for these institutions. The desire to satisfy the political demands of the multi-ethnic Kenyan populace has overcome the need to respond to new educational challenges (Abagi, 1999; Odhiambo, 2011). Even though the Government of Kenya in 1985 established the Commission for University Education, formerly Commission for Higher Education, to promote the advancement of

University education, strong discourse on quality education as opposed to mass production has occupied HE debates in the country.

Magutu *et al*. (2010) has called for HE discourses in Kenya to prioritise policies on quality University education, especially the development, implementation and maintenance of quality assurance systems and mechanisms. Equally, Sifuna (1998) has decried unplanned growth of University education that has led to a sharp decline in the quality of education in public universities. Even though other HE planning scholars (Johnstone, 1998; Marginson & Considine, 2000; Slaughter & Leslie 1997; Sporn, 1999; Wangenge-Ouma, 2008; Odhiambo, 2011) have blamed the deteriorating standards on lack of adequate funding, the sensational expansion of University education in the country is chiefly to blame. It has undermined the Government's capacity to match the dramatic expansion with adequate funding. Gudo et al.(2011b), in their study to determine the perceptions of students, lecturers and administrators on the adequacy of resources for offering quality University education, qualified this state of affairs. They concluded that Kenyan universities, particularly public ones, do not have adequate capacity to do so. Their problems range from shortage of physical facilities for teaching and learning to unsatisfactory students' welfare services such as sports and guidance and counselling programmes. Others are shortage of lecturers, inefficient management of University examinations and inadequate funding for research. The authors advise that increased University admissions without expanding their resource bases would only contribute to further decline of quality.

In a similar study, Gudo, et al. (2011a), examined the role of institutional managers in quality assurance in Kenyan public and private universities. The authors concluded that private universities in Kenya were doing better in guaranteeing quality than public

universities due to better physical facilities and effective engagement of the stakeholders in the management of the institutions. They also found that effective teaching and learning in public universities was hampered by lack of enough essential facilities.

Kenyan public universities have consequently developed survival mechanisms to mitigate the resource challenges. One of the strategies has been to adopt market-driven approaches in implementing alternative financing strategies (Wangenge-Ouma, 2008). Hence, student fees generated through the self-sponsored programmes-commonly referred to as parallel degree programmes, have become a significant contribution to the recurrent budgets of different universities in Kenya (Wangenge-Ouma, 2008; Odhiambo, 2011). The funds are generated by admitting full fee-paying students over and above the students who are admitted with Government subsidy. Currently, students enrolled under the parallel degree programmes are the majority in many public universities in Kenya. Ngare and Muindi (2008) explain that by 2008, the University of Nairobi had the highest number of learners under the privately sponsored programme. They were 32,010 out of a total 44,914. Kenyatta University had 11,568 out of 20,426, while Moi University had about 8,000 out of its 16,000 students in the programme. At the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, there were 4,590 students in the self-sponsored programme and 3,372 in the regular programme. Egerton University which had 12,000 students, had 4,000 students enrolled in the parallel programme. In Maseno, 60% of the students were self-sponsored. The parallel degree students have to pay all their fees by themselves whereas the bulk of regular students' costs are met by the Government. It is estimated that public universities collect more than Ksh12 billion (£95 million) annually from the self-sponsored students (Otieno, 2010).

Many HE scholars agree that the achievement of financial freedom by the universities did not inject significant quality results into the academic programmes offered by the universities. Odhiambo (2011), in concordance, argues that majority of the students who are enrolled in the parallel degree programmes have very little time for study since they spend most of their time in full-time employment and dedicate very little time for class work.   Consequently, education stakeholders and policy-makers have blamed the programmes for turning the once-respected accolades of higher learning into institutions where anybody can get a University degree without much effort (Kahura & Mutai, 2005). Others have blamed these programmes for compromising academic standards.   For instance, students with minimum grades for entry into University programmes, such as, Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE), grade 'C+', have gained admission to competitive professional courses such as Medicine and Law due to their ability to pay for the parallel degree programmes. Previously, these more intellectually demanding subjects were reserved for students on regular programmes who had scored high grades of A Minus (A−) and above in (KCSE) or equivalent .

It is important to note that the Kenya Government has strived to put a few quality assurance systems in place in the HE sector. The Commission for University Education (established by an Act of Parliament Chapter 210B − The universities Act 1985), is one such system. Its core functions include planning for establishment and development of HE; mobilisation of resources for HE; accreditation and regular inspection of universities; coordination and regulation of admissions to universities; and documentation, information service and public relations for HE (Commission for University Education [CUE], 2012b). Other systems have included the appointment of the Public universities Inspection Board in 2005 for the purpose of reviewing the statutes establishing public universities and to

recommend appropriate amendments. In one of its report, the Board has recommended the restructuring of the CUE to enable it to play the quality assurance function more effectively (Republic of Kenya, 2005). Despite these key efforts, quality concerns in HE in Kenya have remained a public debate.

Odhiambo (2011) explains that there is a general consensus that the competence of Kenyan University graduates has deteriorated over time. This is embedded in other quality factors, which include deteriorating physical facilities; rigid programmes that are not responsive to the market; student unrests which have to lead to long closures; industrial actions by academic and support staff and political appointments of HE leadership. Academically, there are no subscriptions to journals and no tutorials. The existing academic infrastructure in most universities can no longer cope with the number of learners, who are thus forced to attend lectures in over-crowded lecture halls that are not conducive to effective communication and learning.

Oketch, (2003) notes that, as a result, confidence in public HE institutions has diminished in the country and this has led to an explosion in the number of private universities. Unfortunately, these universities have no academic staff of their own and have been forced to hire lecturers from public universities, who are usually overworked. In addition, there is growing concern among many Kenyan employers that the graduates have not been adequately prepared for the workplace. Yet, globally the recognition of the role of University education in fast racking economic development cannot be overemphasised.

Within the framework of heightened University expansion in the country, the quality of all academic programmes offered is therefore a crucial subject of academic inquiry. Hence,

the initiative by Kenyan universities to develop peace and security studies to respond to the security challenges facing the country cannot be excluded from this discussion. Given that no known study has investigated quality issues in these programmes, the current study intends to fill this gap by exploring students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the programmes.

3.4 Students' Perception of Quality of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education

It is important note that little literature exists on students' perception of quality teaching and learning in peace and security studies. Nonetheless, there are various studies that have been carried out to explore students' perception of quality teaching and learning in HE. Hamid and Zaidatol (2004), for instance, carried out a survey on students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in business studies programmes in public universities in Malaysia, The results showed that majority of the students were highly satisfied with the overall service quality for teaching and learning based on lecturer factor, teaching methodology, and course relevance. However, it was shown that the students' satisfaction was relatively lower with the level of practical experiential learning offered in the business courses. Students also reported dissatisfaction with the fact that they were not informed much earlier when classes were postponed or cancelled. Whereas the students were satisfied with the fairness and caring attitudes of their lecturers, they were more reserved on items which described "actual personal contact to help with personal problems", and "actually taking the initiative to help students with their study problems". Significant differences in the perceptions of lecturers, teaching methodology and content relevance were attributed to students' gender, race, academic qualification, and Course GPA scores. The female students appeared to have more positive perceptions of all the three quality

factors in the business studies programme. Students from the Malay and the Bumiputera Sabah and Sarawak ethnic groups were also shown to be more positive in their perceptions of these quality factors.

Delaney, et al (2009), in another study, carried out a qualitative survey of students' perceptions of effective teaching in HE at Memorial University of Newfoundland. Students were asked to provide their perceptions of effective teaching for both on-campus and distance instruction. They were requested to identify and rank some characteristics of an effective instructor, explain why each characteristic was deemed important, and describe classroom behaviours demonstrating each characteristic. The traits identified included (1) *respect for students*, which they described as fair, understanding, flexible, caring, patient, helpful, compassionate, open-minded, sincere, diplomatic, concerned, reasonable, consistent, kind, empathetic, humble, trustworthy, and realistic; (2) *knowledgeable*, which was described as flexible, competent, eclectic, credible, current, practical, reflective, and qualified; (3) *approachable,* which they described as friendly, personable, helpful, accessible, happy and positive; (4) *engaging*, which was described as enthusiastic, interesting, passionate, motivating, creative, positive, charismatic, stimulating, interactive, energetic, and assertive; (5) *communicative*, which they described as clear, understandable, thorough, constructive, and attentive; (6) o*rganized*, which was described as efficient, focused, and prepared; (7) *responsive*, which they described as the instructors' responses to students' oral and written work, as well as awareness of individual student needs, are available, helpful, efficient, perceptive and accommodating; (8) *professional,* which was described as dedicated, punctual, dependable, efficacious, hygienic, and confident and (9) *sense of humour,* which includes a positive outlook on teaching, being kind and approachable, and building a more engaging pedagogical experience through classroom atmosphere and student-teacher rapport.

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Allan et al. (2009) also conducted a survey to explore students' perceptions of what constitutes effective teaching in a modern UK University using four domains: providing a supportive learning environment; having high expectations; scaffolding learning; and providing clear explanations. The study found that students regarded the provision of a supportive learning environment in which teachers scaffold learning as a requisite of effective teaching. In particular, students expressed that they favour actions that lead directly to the enhancement of their own learning, to teaching strategies, and the personal attributes of teachers that they believe improve the interaction between them and their teachers. The students were more comfortable with factors that referred to the creation of an environment and processes that are conducive to developing their own understanding and achievement, and which demonstrate that their teachers are sympathetic to the challenges they face as undergraduates. The study concluded by suggesting that notions of effectiveness are predicated less on University teachers having high academic expectations and more on the provision of a supportive environment in which teachers promote effective interaction with their students.

Struyven et al. (2005), similarly, conducted a study to review students' perceptions about evaluation and assessment in HE. The findings revealed that students' perceptions about assessment significantly influenced their approaches to learning and studying. Conversely, students' approaches to study influence the ways in which they perceive evaluation and assessment. The findings suggested that students hold strong views about different assessment and evaluation formats. The perceived characteristics of assessment seem to have a considerable impact on students' approaches, and vice versa. These influences can be both positive and/or negative. Specifically, assessment procedures that are perceived to

be 'inappropriate' ones tend to encourage surface approaches to learning. It was also found that the essay type of examination invokes deeper approaches to learning than multiple-choice formats. Some studies found gender effects, with females being less favourable towards multiple-choice formats than to essay examinations (Birenbaum and Feldman, 1998). The students indicated that assessment has a positive effect on their learning and is 'fair' when it: (i) relates to authentic tasks; (ii) represents reasonable demands; (iii) encourages students to apply knowledge to realistic contexts; (iv) emphasizes the need to develop a range of skills; and (v) is perceived to have long-term benefits (Sambell et al., 1997). The alternative forms of assessment were perceived as reflecting these qualities, hence were more favoured due to their ability to engage students a more in-depth way.

In another related study, Van Schalkwyk (2011) investigated the impact of leadership practices on service quality in private higher education in South Africa as a source of competitive advantage using a quantitative methodology and a cross-sectional survey research design. This study was conducted on five campuses of a key private higher education provider across South Africa using Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) questionnaire and the SERVQUAL instrument. Service quality was determined by conducting a gap analysis between students' expectations and perceptions of the five service quality attributes: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. The findings of the study indicated a strong positive linear correlation between the leadership practices of principals and service quality to students at these institutions. Whereas the study explored service quality from both the student and management perspective, the present study however intends to determine quality from the student's perspective by exploring students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning as one of the key determinants of the quality of HE in Kenya.

From the studies, the lecturer factor, teaching methodology, content and design, evaluation procedures as well as teaching facilities have been outlined as the key dimensions of quality teaching and learning. Other studies have reported significant differences in the student perceptions of these dimensions and their demographic variables. The studies are however based on other disciplines and this limits the generalization of the findings to all situations. No known study has investigated students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning of peace and security studies in Kenyan universities. The current study intend bridge this gap.

3.5 Chapter Summary

The aim of this study was to determine students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies programmes offered in Kenyan universities. This chapter has extensively reviewed the available literature which is related to the study in order to precipitate the knowledge gaps to be filled by the current study. The literature has been reviewed under the following headings: HE in Peace and Security Studies, which has discussed the peace and security studies from a broader perspective followed by the individual perspectives. It has also discussed the regional security context of HE in peace and security studies programmes and the contemporary security challenges in Kenya and their implications on HE. The study has further reviewed literature on quality teaching and learning , quality issues in HE in Kenya and students' perception of quality teaching and learning in HE.

The reviewed literature has been able to reveal that HE remains one of the pillars to achieving global peace and security. It has also emerged from the litarature that despite

increased demand for HE in peace and securiy studies , globally, the security situation in the African region has remained fragile. In addition, the litertaure has underscored the vital role of quality HE in meeting not only the expectaions of students and customers of HE but also the vision and mission of univeristies. Yet no study known to the reasercher has investigated students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies programmes offered in Kenyan universities. The aimof the current study is therefore to fill this gap. The next chapter of this study discusses the methodology which was adopted in collecting the data which enabled the researcher to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

Research methodology generally refers to the approach which has been adopted by the researcher in finding answers to the research questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). It therefore includes the research philosophy, the general plan, tools, strategies, and steps taken to ensure the success of the study in terms of credibility of research findings.

The aim of this study was to investigate students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya. The independent variables were the educational service quality factors in teaching and learning which comprise five measures: lecturer factor, teaching methodology, course content design and relevance, instructional facilities and course evaluation. The dependent variable was the overall student perception of the teaching and learning experience. Salkind (2009) explains that the dependent variable is the variable which is under investigation while the independent variable is that which is manipulated in order to investigate its effect on the dependent variable. The two constructs that were investigated were students' perceptions and the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in HE.

4.1.0 Research Design

The research design adopted was a descriptive survey, followed by a qualitative study within the positivist-interpretivist paradigm. A paradigm is a theoretical perspective shared by a community of scholars and which provides orientation and criteria for choice as well as the road-map for carrying out research. The main proponent of the paradigm revolution, Khun in his essay, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1962) as cited in Corbeta (2003, p.10-11) explains that unlike a theory, a paradigm has the metaphysical quality of a 'guiding vision', 'a view of the world', and a 'philosophical justification'

which shapes and organizes both theoretical reflection and empirical research and helps in establishing acceptable research methods and techniques. Paradigm thus not only allows for social reality to be conceived, but also for it to be understood in a detached and objective way, besides prescribing the methods by which it can be studied.

The positivist-interpretivist paradigm upon which this study is based is a combination of both positivism and interpretivism research philosophies. Positivism is an inductive driven research perspective, which argues that social reality exists outside the individual and can be objectively understood and studied using the same methods as the natural sciences. Hence, it focuses on a conceptual framework, data collection techniques of observation as well as mathematical analytical procedures, and development of inferences and hypothesis testing (Singh, 2013; Corbeta, 2003). Even though positivism ruled the world of research during the 19th Century by studying reality in terms of deterministic laws and commonsense prerequisites, the 20th Century modifications have given rise to neo-positivism and post-positivism, with emphasis on probabilistic laws (Corbeta, 2003).

The neopositvists classify social objects into variables (dependent and independent) and analyse social realities in terms of the relationships among the variables. Corbeta further explains that this classification has enabled social science researchers to measure concepts, quantify the interrelations, formulate probability models and prove or disapprove theories in an objective manner. The post-positivists, on the other hand, advance the multi-theory conceptualization of reality and argue that since scientists are inherently biased by their cultural orientations and beliefs, all research conclusions are imperfect and hence reversible (Singh, 2013; Corbeta, 2003). In this context, true understanding of reality can only be arrived at through critical inquiry. The post-positivists thus emphasize the

importance of multiple measures and observations and triangulation of data in order to achieve objectivity and arrive at a better understanding of what's happening in reality.

The interpretivism paradigm, on the other hand, is based on the arguments that an objective or universal reality which is shared by all persons is eutopic, since individuals construct their own realities depending on their own perspectives and world views. Hence, a social reality consists of multiple realities comprising different perspectives from which people perceive and interpret social phenomena (Corbeta, 2003). This paradigm calls for knowledge to be obtained subjectively through discovery rather than proof and without pegging it to theories and prejudices. The perspective constitutes the framework of qualitative research methodology, which entails empathic interaction between the researcher and the respondent through interviews, participant observations or focused group discussions (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

The choice of the positivist- interpretivism paradigm for this study was therefore crucial in order to synchronize the research methodology with theoretical framework. The paradigm particularly assisted in interpreting data along the humanistic and social reconstructionist curriculum theories, which emphasise solving community problems (a more positivistic orientation) and individual fulfilment (a more interpretivist orientation). Since the study set out to investigate students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning, a differentiation of student perception and quality factors as the key variables under investigation, through the neo-positivists' point of view, could not be ignored. The need to objectively examine the variables and their interrelatedness categorically necessitated the positivistic quantitative techniques. On the other hand, an exhaustive inquiry into such concepts as lecturer factor and teaching methodologies demanded critical assessment by

learners in order to bring out their perceptions. These reflections presented multiple social realities, which could not be entirely subjected to quantitative analytical techniques alone, hence the need for qualitative methodologies as advanced by interpretivism.

4.1.1 The Mixed Methods Research Strategy

The positivist-interpretivist paradigm therefore informed the mixed methods strategy, which was adopted during the study. Bergman (2008, p.11) explains that this strategy has been key in neutralizing the 'paradigm wars' that have characterised the history of research methodology, since it attempts to address the concerns on 'incompatibility' of positivism and interpretivism. Mixed methods research as a strategy employs more than one type of research method (Bergman, 2008; Fielding & Fielding, 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Brannen (2008) explains that the methods may include a combination of qualitative and quantitative techniques, a mixture of several quantitative methods or a blend of several qualitative methods. In this context, the need to develop an objective assessment of the overall student perception of the quality of teaching and learning informed the choice of quantitative methodology, while the need to deeply explore the teaching learning experiences of the students in order to develop criteria for enhancing the quality of teaching and learning, as explained in section 4.1.0, informed the choice of qualitative methodology.

The qualitative methods involved use of in-depth interviews and FGDs in data collection and generation of themes and categories in analysis, while the quantitative methods involved the use of a descriptive survey carried out by a modified service performance (SERVPERF) questionnaire in data collection and SPSS in data analysis. Since the main research question was to determine the overall students' perception, the quantitative aspect

of the study preceded the qualitative and is dominant. In many studies, that have used this approach, the role of the qualitative aspect is to offer complimentary strength and assist in clarifications, thereby minimizing the weaknesses of relying on one paradigm (Branen, 2008; Plewis & Mason, 2005; Sammons et al., 2005; Blatchford, 2005; Hoyles, Kuchemann, Healy & Yang, 2005; Asembo, 2003).

4.2 The Study Locale

The study was conducted in Kenya. This is a developing country in East Africa located between Somalia and Tanzania. Its geographical coordinates are 1°00′N 38°00′E / 1°N 38°E / 1; 38. It covers a total of area of 580,367 km^2 (224,081 sq mi), with 569,140 km^2 (219,750 sq mi) in land and 11,227 km^2 (4,335 sq mi) in water. It borders Ethiopia by 861 km (535 mi); Somalia by 682 km (424 mi); South Sudan by 232 km (144 mi); Tanzania by 769 km (478 mi) and Uganda by 933 km (580 mi). Both Somalia and South Sudan have been embroiled in prolonged political violence that has significantly affected peace and security in Kenya.

The Republic of Kenya was formed in 1964, having been under British colonial rule for seven decades. Today, Kenya is a democratic multiethnic society with over forty tribes and a population of over 40 million people. Persistent interethnic tension and political violence has characterized peace and security issues in the country in the past decade (Dersso, 2013). The education system of Kenya has undergone a series of transformations since independence. There are 22 public universities and 48 private universities registered to offer degrees.

Singleton (1993) observes that the ideal setting for a research study is one that directly satisfies the researcher's interests. Being a Kenyan, who has studied in two of the universities, the researcher has professional interest to do research in his country. He has consulted for the UNDP in security training in Kenya, developed public security training programmes for the Government of Kenya, trained public security officers, developed training manuals and served as a Director of Curriculum and Evaluation at Kenya Police Training College.

4.3 Target Population

The target population comprised all students undertaking peace and security studies in universities in Kenya. The students were targeted because they are the consumers of the educational services offered by the University, hence were the most suitable in giving opinions about the quality of educational services they receive.

4.4 Sample and Sampling Procedures

The sample for the study was selected as follows:

4.4.1 Research Sites

A total of five universities offering peace and security studies were purposively selected to act as research sites. Battaglia (2008) explains that purposive sample, is a type of non-probability sample arrived at through expert knowledge of the population and whose main objective is to produce a sample that can be logically assumed to be representative of the population. In this case, subjective methods are used to decide the composition of the sample. The sampling was based on the fact that the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya are still growing disciplines and have not attracted many students, hence only those universities offering the courses could be selected. For ethical

consideration purposes, these universities have been given pseudonyms as Daniela University, Defence University of Kenya, Sheila University, Sheryl-Ann's University and Alvin University of Wayando. Their profiles have already been given in Chapter One.

4.4.2 Informants

The simple stratified sampling was used to select a total of 152 informants from a population of 2,443 finalists and pre-finalists to participate in the study. Walliman (2006) explains that in this sampling method, an equally sized randomized sample is obtained from each stratum of the population in order to achieve a simple randomized sample. Other statisticians such as Bartlet, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001), Daniel (2012), Ary, Jacobs,and Razavieh (1996) explain that when collecting continuous data, a population of this magnitude would require a minimum simple random sample of 112 (Bartlet et al., 2001) at an acceptable margin of error of 3 %, alpha=.05 and a confidence level of 95%. The margin of error in this case is the risk the researcher is willing to accept in the study and the alpha level is the risk the researcher is willing to accept that the true margin of error exceeds the acceptable margin of error. The confidence level tells the extent to which the researcher believes that his/her results are true and the value of proportion is an estimate of the population variance. The table below shows the various minimum sample sizes recommended by Bartlet et al. for continuous and categorical data, at given alpha levels.

Table 2: Table for Determining Minimum Returned Sample Size for a Given

Population Size for Continuous and Categorical Data

Population size	Sample size					
	Continuous data (margin of error=.03)			Categorical data (margin of error=.05)		
	alpha=.10 t=1.65	alpha=.05 t=1.96	alpha=.01 t=2.58	p=.50 t=1.65	p=.50 t=1.96	p=.50 t=2.58
100	46	55	68	74	80	87
200	59	75	102	116	132	154
300	65	85	123	143	169	207
400	69	92	137	162	196	250
500	72	96	147	176	218	286
600	73	100	155	187	235	316
700	75	102	161	196	249	341
800	76	104	166	203	260	363
900	76	105	170	209	270	382
1,000	77	106	173	213	278	399
1,500	79	110	183	230	306	461
2,000	83	112	189	239	323	499
4,000	83	119	198	254	351	570
6,000	83	119	209	259	362	59
8,000	83	119	209	262	367	613
10,000	83	119	209	264	370	623

Source: Bartlett et al. (2001, p. 48)

The main population strata were gender and the type of course being taken. Hence, both male and female as well as degree and diploma students were selected. Only those students who were about to complete their studies, in this case, the pre-finalists and finalists, were sampled. They acted as information rich cases since their long interaction with the programmes placed them in a privileged position to make a comprehensive assessment of the programmes. After the survey, a total of 36 respondents were purposively sampled from the 152 to participate in in-depth interviews and FGDs. Only those who were willing to participate in the interview sessions were selected. A summary of the sample design is given in Table 2.

Table 3: Summary of Sampling Design

University	Category	Course	Population		Descriptive Survey Sample		In-Depth Interviews and Focused Group Discussions Sample	
			Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Daniela University	Public	Degree	298	26	14	7	4	2
		Diploma	184	23	10	5	3	2
Defence University of Kenya	Public	Degree	390	34	13	7	3	1
Sheila University	Public	Degree	338	42	11	5	4	1
		Diploma	123	41	10	5	2	1
Sheryl-Ann University	Private	Degree	363	56	23	11	4	1
St. Alvin University of Wayando	Public	Degree	257	37	12	3	3	1
		Diploma	156	65	12	4	3	1
		Degree	**1,646**	**195**	**73**	**33**	**18**	**6**
		Diploma	**463**	**129**	**32**	**14**	**8**	**4**
Total			**2,109**	**324**	**105**	**47**	**26**	**10**
			2,433		**152**		**36**	

4.5 Research Instruments

Questionnaires and interview schedules were the data gathering devices.

4.5.1 Questionnaire: The SERVPERF Instrument

This study used a modified version of the service performance (SERVPERF) Instrument developed by Cronin and Taylor (1992). It is important to note that other service quality researchers have used the original SERVQUAL instrument (Van Schalkwyk, 2011; Carapic & Simic, 2008). This instrument is a product of the service quality model which utilizes a 44-item measurement scale that compares differences between consumers' expectations of services and their perceived assessment of the actual performance. The scale asks 22 questions relating to respondent expectations of the type of service being evaluated. The expectation questions are followed by 22 matching questions rating actual

performance of services provided. A gap analysis is thereafter performed to get the difference referred to as the 'disconfirmation' score (Patterson, 1993). If the perceived performance is greater than expectation, there is high satisfaction; when the perceived performance is less than the expectations, the customer is dissatisfied; and there is mere satisfaction when the perceived performance is equal to expectation.

According to Kitchroen (2004), however, the operationalization and theoretical weaknesses of the SERVQUAL instrument makes it difficult to be used in all situations, since the five dimensions it measures are not universal service quality aspects in all organizations. Babakus and Boller (1992) argue that the number of service quality dimensions is dependent on the particular service being offered, hence, the need to contextually determine the number of dimensions comprising service quality. Similarly, Kitchroen (2004) and Cronin and Taylor (1994) argue that comparing the gap between expectation and perception is structurally flawed because of the SERVQUAL's absolute adoption of the disconfirmation model. Likewise, the interpretation of the difference in scores is not any different from that already captured in the perception column of the instrument. To this end, Babakus and Boller (1992) have argued that the main contributor to the disconfirmation score is the perception score; hence the focus on measuring the quality of a service should be on perceptions.

The debate on how to measure service quality has, however, remained largely inconclusive and many versions have emerged (Abdullah, 2006). Whereas Cronin and Taylor (1992) have argued that the SERVPERF scale, which measures performance only is better than any other measure, Teas (1993) has highlighted the conceptual and operational difficulties of using the gap analysis approach and produced two alternatives: Evaluated Performance

(EP) and Normed Quality (NQ). The author presents the EP instrument as a better option since it measures the difference between perceived performance and the ideal amount of a feature rather than the customer's expectations. In another study, Abdulla (2006, p. 569) developed the higher education performance HEdPERF instrument , which is a 41- item instrument capturing the 'authentic determinants' of service quality with six dimensions: 'non-academic aspects, academic aspects, reputation, access, programme issues and understanding'. He therefore posits student perceptions of service quality as a six-factor structure consisting of these six dimensions.

The effectiveness of the HEdPERF instrument is yet to be tested since its utilization in a variety of studies has not been extensively documented. It is for this reason that the current study adopted a modified version of the SERVPERF based on the experiences of Holford and Reinders, (2001) and Hamid and Zaidatol (2004) in their studies focusing on the development of educational service quality instruments and students perception of quality teaching and learning, respectively.

The SERVPERF instrument was developed by Cronin and Taylor (1992; 1994) as an improvement of the SERVQUAL instrument. Jusoh et al. (2004) notes that SERPERF is an absolute performance measure of consumer perceptions of service quality. In using the SERVPERF, Cronin and Taylor (1994) further recommended for modifications of the instrument to fit the service quality factors under investigation and the specific research settings.

In this case, the SERVPERF instrument with 108 items was developed. Eight items focused on teaching and learning resources; 58 items focused on the lecturer factor; 13

items on teaching methodology; 13 items on course evaluation; and 16 items on course relevance and design. Whereas the original model of SERVPERF used a seven-point Likert scale extending from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree, this study however used a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The choice of the latter scale is in concurrence with Kitchroen (2004), who observes that the use of a seven-point Likert scale, which does not have verbal labelling for points two to six, may lead to outliers as respondents are likely to score on the extreme ends of the scale. Similarly, Babakus and Mangold (1992) have recommended using five-point Likert scale due to its ability to minimize respondent frustration and increase quality and rate of response.

The chosen five-point Likert rating scale had the following scoring points: 5-strongly agree; 4-agree, 3- somewhat agree; 2- disagree, and 1- strongly disagree. All the items under the service quality factors were positively worded since previous studies have found no advantage in including a mix of positively and negatively worded items (Holford & Reinders, 2001; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1991).

4.5.2 Interview Schedule

The interview schedule was used as a follow-up instrument to gather more data to complement the quantitative data from the questionnaires. There was one interview schedule for both in-depth interviews and FGDs. The development of the interview schedule involved expert review by the supervisor and peer review by colleagues. Stewart et al. (2007) suggest two key principles in developing interview schedule, which were observed in this study. First, questions were ordered from the more general to the more specific, with the general unstructured questions being placed on top of the schedule and

the more specific ones placed at the end of the schedule. Secondly, the questions were ordered by their relative importance to the study, with those of great importance being placed early and those of lesser significance placed at the end. The overriding principle during development was to ensure that the guide provide effective direction for the group discussion.

The number of key questions in the interview guide remained at six, though their aspects were reviewed as the interviews progressed from one participant to another and from one focus group to another. Stewart et al. (2007) note that interview guides should consist of a few questions, with a wide berth for the moderator to probe responses, since the success of the interview is in the flexibility with which the researcher pursues new questions. The questions remained open ended in order to stimulate discussion and were in clear and simple language. The guide was finally tested during piloting to determine its reliability and validity as discussed in section 4.7.

4.5.2.1 In-depth Interviews

Cook (2008) emphasizes that conducting in-depth interviews is one of the most powerful methods of qualitative research and it involves the researcher encouraging the participants to talk in-depth about the topic under investigation without the researcher's use of predetermined, focused, short-answer questions. Thyer (2001, p. 312) adds that most in-depth interviews rely on the use of 'instrumentation' to some degree, to enhance the interviewer's focus on important questions and prevent the interviewer from collecting non-essential information. In this study the interview schedule was used as a guide to ensure that the interview session covers all the desired topics. It also outlined issues for

probing in order to help the researcher go deeper into the interviewee's responses. A total of 13 in-depth interviews were carried out.

4.5.2.2 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Morgan (1997) explains that FGDs are group interviews which enable the researcher to collect data from an extensive interaction on a topic by a large number of people in a limited period of time, depending on the researcher's ability to facilitate the sessions. The strength of the FGDs relies in the ability of the group to generate responses through interaction. Hence, FGDs have provided useful and reliable qualitative data in such areas as perceptions, thoughts, and feelings. In this case, an in-depth understating of complex actions and stimulus can be reached by examining the assessments that participants make of each other's answers and world views on given experiences (Morgan, 1997). Further, Stewart et al. (2007) have observed the value of FGDs when investigating sensitive topics or those that may be socially embarrassing. In the present study, personal idiosyncratic factors as general phobia or fear of victimization could have inhibited some students from freely expressing their perceptions; hence, FGDs provided them with a facilitating environment to freely express themselves in a manner that is not possible through in-depth interviews. Through skilled FGD facilitation by the researcher, it was possible to elicit open discussions of personal experiences among the groups, in a way that enhanced the scope and intensity of the discussions beyond personal interviews.

FGDs were particularly necessary in this study in order to enable the students critically examine the quality of teaching and learning they are experiencing by sharing and comparing their experiences through a discussion, thereby generating multiple perceptions, that have been used to enrich the quantitative data. A total of six FGDs involving six participants per group were conducted.

Stewart et al. (2007) equally note that the success of FGDs relies on recruitment of participants and the design of the interview schedule. The interview schedule (as already discussed in 4.5.2.1) sets the agenda for the discussion, while the composition of the group determines the quality of the discussion. Setting the discussion agenda involves stating clearly the research question, being investigated. The authors also note that the question must be focused and should spell out the population of interest, issues of interest and desired outcomes.

While recruiting participants, convenient or purposive sampling was used. However, it was important for the group to be a representation of the larger population, hence, in this case, a heterogeneous discussion group, comprising of males and females, diploma and undergraduate students as well as finalists and pre-finalists, was recruited. This study also considered such factors as gender, type of course, year of study while recruiting the participants. There were two females in each FGD.

During recruitment, initial contact was made in person and the individuals were given a general description of the study, the general topic for the study and the fact that it would involve a discussion. The participants were also promised refreshments during the sessions. They were also told of the time and place of the group meetings and the duration the discussions would take. The participants who agreed to participate in the study were called to confirm the meeting 24 hours before the discussion. They were each given refreshments and an incentive of Kshs 500 (R.50) at the end of the discussion.

Stewart et al. (2007) further suggest that the group discussion location is an important factor to consider when recruiting a group, since it will influence the ease with which the participants accept to be recruited: the closer the location to the participant's homes or work, the more likely they are to participate. But the locations also need to be familiar, accessible and attractive in order to make the participants comfortable during discussions (Payne & Payne, 2004). In this study, the discussions were held in some of the best restaurants near the universities.

The groups were composed of six individuals each, even though eight had been invited to participate in each group. It is advised that an effective FGD should have between six to ten members and not more than 12 (Payne & Payne, 2004; Gibbs, 1997; Morgan, 1998; Stewart et al., 2007). But it was also useful to recruit more individuals than the exact number required in order to accommodate the possibility of two participants not turning up (Stewart et al., 2007). In this study, the last two participants to turn up for each group discussion were asked to leave, though after being given the incentive. Scholars advise that an incentive is mandatory even when an individual is asked to leave.

4.6 Pilot Study

Pilot testing is one of the most important stages in the development of a research instrument (Rothberg, 2008; Litwin, 2003; Bailey & Burch, 2002, Wiersma, 1995; Bell, 1993). In one discussion, Rothgeb (2008, p. 583) analogically refers to pilot tests as 'dress rehearsals' of full scale research operations that are carried out to determine whether problems exist that need to be addressed prior to full implementation of the research. The main benefits include identification of errors in the questionnaire or in a presentation, exposing the difficulties the respondents experience with the instrument, especially those

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of reading comprehension and in attuning the instrument to the culture, beliefs or way of life of the respondent (Litwin, 2003). While Wiersma (1995) points out the role of piloting of research instruments in finalising them, Bell (1993), emphasises the role of piloting in ascertaining the validity of research instruments.

It was therefore necessary to pilot-test the instruments to determine their validity and reliability since the modified version of the SERVPERF instrument, that was developed, had never been used in any study before. It was also necessary to check for ambiguity, confusion and poorly prepared items. In this study, the researcher purposefully selected one University outside the main sample, where a course in peace and security studies was being offered, for the pilot study. Thereafter a total of 40 students 25 males and 15 females were selected to fill in the questionnaires. For the interview schedule, five males and five females were interviewed and one group of four males and two females were engaged in a pilot FGD. Following the pilot report, the instruments were revised as necessary (e.g. by addition of extra items and removal of ambiguous items in the questionnaires and interview schedules) for the final data collection. A comprehensive discussion of the process and the utility of the pilot study in checking for validity and reliability of the instruments and qualitative data is given in section 4.7.

4.7.0 Reliability and Validity

Ensuring reliability and validity of instruments used in data collection is an important consideration in research. Reliability of an instrument refers to its consistency in giving the same information every time it is used while validity refers to its accuracy (Reinard 2006; Fink, 2003). Validity and reliability are like the egg-shell and the egg-yolk, since one

cannot exist without the other. Hence, when an instrument is unreliable, it is equally invalid.

4.7.1 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Fink (2003, p.48) distinguishes four kinds of reliability: 'stability, equivalence, homogeneity, and intrarater reliability'. The stability of an instrument is when it maintains a high correlation between scores from time to time. Equivalence, or alternate-form reliability is when two administrations of an instrument at different times, are able measure the same concepts at the same level of difficulty. The internal consistency, or homogeneity, is the extent to which all the items in an instrument measure the same variables under investigation while intrarater reliability is when two or more experts can agree on their ratings of given items.

The stability of the survey questionnaire was determined by using the SERVPERF instrument which has been consistently used by researchers and industry players (Holford & Reinders, 2001; Hamid & Zaidatol, 2004). Equivalence was achieved by use of a split half method during piloting. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 40 students, from a University outside the main sample. The data were keyed into SPSS and the Spearman- Brown correction analytical function was used to get a Guttman split half reliability coefficient of 0.937, which is experts agree is quite reliable (Lauriola, 2004; Reinard, 2001; Gay, 1992). Internal consistency was achieved by use of Cronbach's coefficient alpha. This is the average of all the correlations between each item and the total score and is usually considered as one of the most accurate reliability estimates. It generated a coefficient correlation of 0.984, which is considered as very good (Multon, & Coleman, 2010; Trobia, 2008). Interarater reliability was achieved through expert advice

and peer review of the instrument by colleagues and enhanced personal training on data collection.

Concerning instrument validity, Jodan & Hoefer (2001) explain that validity ensures that the concept the instrument is measuring is actually what it is suppose to measure. The three methods for establishing instrument validity are face, content, criterion, and construct validity. Face validity ensures that, at face-value, the instrument gives a general impression that it measures what it is intended to measure. Content validity includes evaluation of the items of an instrument to determine whether they are representative of the domain that the instrument seeks to investigate. This can be achieved through expert review and use of statistical methods such as factor analysis. The researcher ensured face and content validity of the instrument through the rational intuitive method, where other research experts reviewed the instrument and their comments were used in final revisions.

Criterion validity involves establishing a correlation between the instrument and an external criterion. It may be concurrent, when the instrument is being compared to an existing criterion or predictive, when looking at the instrument's ability to predict a criterion in future (Jordan & Hoefer, 2001). Criterion validity can be achieved through performance measures such as grades, use of contrasted groups assumed to be different from the one to be studied, psychiatric diagnosis, use of already existing instruments with established validity, and ratings by others (Anastasi, 1988). In this study, it was achieved through the reviews given by other research experts and by comparing the instrument with the original SERVPERF instrument (Cronin & Taylor, 1992) and other instruments that have been used by other researchers as Holford and Reinders (2001) and Hamid and Zaidatol, (2004).

Jordan and Heifer (2001, p 58-59) emphasize that the highest form of validity is construct validity since 'if a measure has construct validity then it has content and criterion validity. This concept refers to the degree to which an instrument is able to measure a theoretical concept, trait or variable. Anastasi (1988) outlines the criteria for establishing this kind of validity as (i) the ability of the instrument to reflect the client's developmental changes, (ii) the ability of the instrument to correlate with old instruments with proven construct validity, (iii) the underlying dimensions or traits that have been identified using factor analysis (iv) the instrument's internal consistency as determined by statistical measures of correlation such as Cronbach's alpha; (v) the instrument has convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the degree to which an instrument correlates with an instrument of like variables, while discriminant reliability is the degree to which an instrument differs from other instruments, which do not measure the same variables. In this study, construct validity was achieved by comparing the instrument to others already used in previous similar studies such as SERVQUAL, HEdPERF, EP, and through determination of the Cronbach's alpha using SPSS, which gave a coefficient correlation of 0.984. The instrument was also compared to the one used by Hamid and Zaidatol, (2004), in a similar study, which investigated the same variables, though in studying a different discipline in HE.

4.7.2 Validity and Reliability of Qualitative Data

4.7.2.1 Validity

Validity in qualitative research refers to whether researchers are able to see and hear what they think they are seeing and hearing (Franklin & Ballan, 2001; Kirk & Miller, 1986). It has also been referred to as credibility (Guba, 1981, Hammersly, 1992) since the burden is on the researcher to provide accounts which are plausible and credible. Franklin and

Ballan (2001, p. 281) highlight the three criteria for assessing validity as 'structural corroboration, referential adequacy, and multiplicative replication'. Structural corroboration ensures that there is mutual support among the various parts and pieces of data in such a way that the whole meaning can be conceived. Referential adequacy is when the data is able to present all the details the researcher is looking for but in a new dimension. Multiplicative replication refers to the ability of the findings and conclusions to be replicated in other settings, studies or tested further.

The measures the researcher undertook to ensure validity of data included prolonged engagement at the research site for a minimum of one week to minimise the biases and perceptions which were likely to occur due to non-familiarity with the site. Guba (1981) reiterates the need for researchers to spend sufficient time in the field to justify their description of it. The other step was purposive sampling of the participants, where only those who were willing to participate in the study were included.

The researcher has also used a variety of triangulation methods: methodological triangulation, where the qualitative methodology has been combined with quantitative methodology; theory triangulation, where curriculum theories, critical social theory, human security conceptualization and service quality theories have been used to analyse the data and; observer triangulation where research assistants, peers and other experts have been involved in some aspects of data analysis for inter-subjective agreement (Franklin & Ballan, 2001) . Other measures to ensure validity included debriefing by known peers in the field of education research as suggested by Guba (1981) and use of code books to sort, organize and understand the data into descriptive and conceptual narrative labels in order to make sense out of it as suggested by Chwalisz, Wiersma, and Stark-Wroblewski, (1996).

4.7.2.2 Reliability

During collection of qualitative data, it was important to ensure that the data collected through in-depth interviews and FGDs were valid and reliable. Franklin and Ballan (2001) explain that reliability in qualitative research is the extent to which the data collected from several interviews and observation sessions are sufficiently harmonious with the study. Marshall and Rossman, (1995) note that the reliability of qualitative data is its dependability. Consequently the data should enable the researcher to understand and explain the extraneous factors in design and observations, which may occur during data collection in the field. The data should also ensure synchronic reliability, which is the ability of similar data to be collected from the same participants within the same period of time (Franklin & Ballan, 2001; Kirk & Miller, 1986).

Franklin and Ballan further explain that reliability in qualitative research is both internal and external. Internal reliability is the degree to which other researchers would agree with the original researcher on the match between the data collected and a set of predetermined variables, while external reliability focuses on whether independent experts would get similar findings or generate similar variables under the same conditions. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 278) outline the following criteria as useful in assessing reliability of qualitative data: '(i) clarity of research questions and their congruency with variables under study (ii) explicit description of the researcher's role and status within the research site (iii) ability of findings show meaningful comparison across respondents (iv) specification of basic paradigms and analytic variables (iv) collection of data across full range of specifications as per research questions (vi) comparability of data across multiple data collectors, if any (vii) adequate agreement among coding checks (viii) data quality checks

(ix) data agreement with multiple observers accounts, where necessary (x) data peer review mechanisms'.

During in-depth interviews and FGDs, reliability was increased by checking for equivalence of responses to questions which appeared to be similar in form, especially those measuring the same variable (Newfield et al., 1996); recording all conversation interviews in verbatim forms and taking of comprehensive notes and keeping filed journals to improve internal reliability (Rafuls & Moon, 1996). The researcher also ensured that only volunteers were involved in the interviews and discussions (Franklin & Ballan, 2001). There was also cross-checking and discussion with research assistants on their observations during the FGD sessions (Franklin & Jordan, 1997).

4.8 Data Collection and Ethical Considerations

Sithole (2012) explains that social science researchers focus their studies on investigating and giving accounts of people and their natural environments. Hence, studies which describe people should be cognisant of the moral obligations that guide such interactions. Similarly, Cohen, Manion, Morrison, & Morrison (2007 have emphasized the need to gain permission in advance in order to access the institution or organization where the research is to be carried out. In this study, ethical issues of access and acceptance, informed consent, and privacy and confidentiality were adhered to before data collection. This research was carried out between April to December 2013.

Before carrying out the study, the researcher obtained authority to conduct research from the Ministry of Education (Appendix V and VI). Thereafter, the researcher sought permission from the University authorities to meet the students. Research assistants were

employed to assist in data collection. They were given thorough training in data collection before the actual data collection exercise. After administering the questionnaires, the researcher personally visited each of the universities to conducted interviews and FGDs. Informed consent of the participants was obtained before administering the questionnaires and conducting interviews. The questionnaire was particularly explicit to the participants on the need to give information willingly without any form of coercion.

4.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis process involves reducing, displaying, verifying and drawing conclusions from data (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.10-12). In this study, quantitative and qualitative data were gathered. Therefore quantitative and qualitative analysis procedures have been used. In quantitative analysis, the data, which were collected through the questionnaires, were coded as per the variables and constructs under investigation and keyed in the SPSS computer analysis package, Version 17.0. Thereafter, frequency counts, percentages, means, standard deviation, ANOVA and student t- test have been calculated. This data has been presented in form of tables.

As regards qualitative data analysis, the pieces of information collected through interview schedules, were transcribed into written coherent discourse. The data were examined for completeness and relevance in order to ascertain its usefulness, adequacy and credibility in answering the research questions. Thereafter the data were organised thematically using code books and analysed as per the research questions. During the analysis, the data were first read thoroughly for familiarity. Then the researcher established the various categories in the data, which were distinct from each other. This data has been presented in form of written narratives. To enhance the qualitative nature of the narratives, some of the respondents who were interviewed have been given pseudonyms.

4.10 Chapter Summary

The aim of this study was to investigate students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya. In this Chapter, the study has given a detailed description and justification for the research methodology adopted. Specifically, the following aspects of the study have been discussed: the research design, study locale, target population, sample and sampling procedures, pesearch sites, informants, the research instruments, piloting, validity and relibilty of instruments and data. The final part of the chapter describes the data collection procedure and the methods through which data have been analysed and presentated. The next chapter of the study presents, analyses, interprets and discusses the data.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSIONS

5.0 Introduction

The aim of the study was to identify students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya and examine the relationship between those perceptions and the demographic variables. The main question of the study was: What is students' overall perception of the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities?

The following were the general objectives of the study:

  a. To examine students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya,

  b. To explore the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of lecturers in the peace and security studies offered in universities s in Kenya,

  c. To determine students' perception of the quality of teaching methodology in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya,

  d. To identify the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of curriculum evaluation approaches in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya,

  e. To establish the extent to which quality teaching and learning is affected by design and relevance of the content of the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya and,

  f. To establish whether significant differences exist between the students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya and their demographic variables.

This chapter presents, analyses, interprets and discusses data as per the above objectives of the study.

It is important to note that during data collection, the SERVPERF instrument with 108 items was used. These items were put on a five-point Likert rating scale which had the following scoring points: 5-strongly agree; 4-agree, 3- somewhat agree; 2- disagree, and 1-strongly disagree. During analysis, the data were re-coded into a three-point scoring scale with points 5 and 4 combined and re-coded to denote 'higher agreement'; point 3 recoded to denote 'moderate agreement' while points 1 and 2 were combined and re-coded to denote 'Lower agreement' . Hamid and Zaidatol (2004, p 73-74) concur that this kind of re-coding into a three point scale allows for a 'more distinct focus' which helps in interpretation of data. While presenting the data in tables, the variables have been itemised and ranked chronologically by mean scores.

While interpreting the data, the study relied on the scale adopted by Hamid and Zaidatol (2004, p.73-74), where mean scores between 2.7000 to 3.000 represent 'higher agreement', while mean scores between 1.500-2.6999 represent 'moderate agreement' and those between 1.000- 1.4999 represent 'lower agreement'. The overall mean score for each construct as presented in each table was calculated directly from the raw scores.

5.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristic of the respondents is presented in Table 4. The key focus is on their characteristic, peculiarity, sample size, frequency and percentage.

Table 4: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic		N	Frequency	Percentage
Category of University	Public	152	118	77.6
	Private		34	22.4
Type of Course	Degree	152	106	69.7
	Diploma		46	30.3
Gender	Male	152	105	69.1
	Female		47	30.9
Employment Status	Employed	152	56	36.8
	None		96	63.2

Key: **N**= Sample Size

The table indicates that majority of the respondents (77.6%) were from public universities and were undertaking degree courses in peace and security studies (69.7%). A large number of respondents, that is 69.1% were male compared to 30.9% who were female It is also indicated that majority of the respondents (63.2%) were not employed.

5.2 Students' perceptions of the Quality of Teaching and Learning Facilities in the Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

The perception of students concerning the quality of teaching and learning facilities was measured using eight variables, itemised as 1-8. The items focused on use of up-to-date teaching materials, the visual appeal, adequacy and comfort of lecture halls; the convenience and availability for use of physical facilities; electronic access to relevant security studies information; the importance accorded to computer laboratory; the adequacy of workshop/ laboratory; adequacy of student library and professionalism of library staff.

The data are presented in Table 5 in the form of quality attribute, frequency, mean score and standard deviation.

**Table 5: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviations of Students'
perceptions of the Quality of Teaching and Learning Facilities in Peace and Security
Studies**

S/N	Quality Attribute	N	Frequency (f) and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low (f)	%	Mod (f)	%	High (f)	%		
1	Lecturers use up-to-date teaching materials and equipment.	152	7	4.6	30	19.7	115	75.7	2.7105	0.54750
2	The library staff is professional	152	22	14.5	32	21.1	98	64.5	2.5000	0.73692
3	Student library is adequate and equipped with up to date materials	152	37	24.3	33	21.7	82	53.9	2.2961	0.83657
4	The lecture halls are visually appealing, adequate and comfortable	152	37	24.3	39	25.7	76	50.0	2.2566	0.82588
5	Computer laboratory is taken as an important asset.	152	41	27.0	35	23.0	76	50.0	2.2303	0.84939
6	Physical facilities are convenient to students and available for use anytime	152	45	29.6	37	24.3	70	46.1	2.1645	0.85695
7	There is electronic access to relevant security studies information.	152	52	34.2	35	23.0	65	42.8	2.0855	0.87605
8	Workshop/ Laboratory is fully equipped and up to date	152	55	36.2	45	29.6	52	34.2	1.9803	0.84156
Overall Mean Score									2.2779	0.56732

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement;
SD= Standard Deviation

Table 5 indicates that the highest mean score (Mean = 2.7105) was for item 1 focusing on

use up-to-date teaching materials and equipment This is followed by item 2 focusing on the

professionalism of library staff, which has a moderate score (Mean= 2.5000). These scores

suggest higher perceptions of lecturers' ability to utilize current teaching and learning

resources but lower perceptions of the professionalism of the support personnel in charge

of them. It is however noted that items 3-8 have lower mean scores on items focusing on

the state of available teaching and learning facilities: student library, lecture halls,

computer laboratory, workshop and laboratory, as well as electronic access and convenience of the physical facilities.

The lowest mean score of 1.9803 with SD of 0.84156 is for the item 'workshop/ laboratory is fully equipped and up to date'. This suggests unfavourable perceptions of quality of workshops and laboratories. It further implies students' perception of a less effective practical teaching and learning. The overall low mean score for the table is 2.2779 with SD of 0.56732. This suggests an overall students' lower perception of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the universities.

During in-depth interviews and FGDs, majority of the students indicated lowers perception of the available teaching and learning resources in the universities. The students underscored the need for the institutions to equip their libraries with more current text books and computers; improve the ICT infrastructure; avail more laboratory facilities, improve classroom environments and size, avail public address systems for use in large lecture halls with large numbers of students; maintain physical facilities including toilets and; upgrade lecture halls to modern standards. Odera Chune, a degree student of criminology, noted:

> *Current books are difficult to get in the library, as most of those which are available are old. Most lecturers have not embraced the use of modern technology in teaching especially the use of PowerPoint presentations. They are still analogue in orientation. There is no forensic laboratory and investigation courses are usually supplemented by student seminars to make up for laboratory practicals. There is need for major renovations to improve the physical facilities.*

Another student, Hellena Jakameji, who studies a diploma course in security management and police studies, and a practising police officer, equally noted:

> *Practicals ought to be taken seriously in order to help students familiarize with their area of specialization. For instance, the institution needs to develop a forensic laboratory, where tests and verifications can be done to enable students to confront future challenges, which they may encounter while on duty. Students should also be*

> *exposed to equipment which they use daily while on duty, such as firearms and should be taught their mechanisms.*

Another student of criminology, Okumu Jamagunga, stated as follows:

> *The University should endeavour to provide adequate and spacious lecture rooms since in most cases, the lecture rooms are too congested, especially for those units that are usually shared by credit transfer students. Use of microphones is necessary, especially in crowded lecture rooms. Some classes have no adequate lighting and students do strain. Most of the days, availability of water is a problem and the toilets are not clean.*

Other students highlighted the need to improve the physical security of the institutions, thereby challenging the universities to practice the security principles they teach. Aoro Nyobinga, a student of forensics and criminal investigations, made the following comment:

> *The institutions should improve the health and safety of the students in the physical facilities within their premises. The institution should ensure that every student accesses the premises with electronic cards to improve the current security situation.*

The student's responses reflect the unfavourable state of teaching and learning facilities in universities in Kenya. The absence of a forensic laboratory, which is key in security studies, explains why students' satisfaction with these teaching and learning services is low. Even though some of the students with policing background may demand the inclusion of practical skills at arms lessons in the security studies, this might not be possible within the current situation, where majority of the students have no police training background. But it further suggests the need for the curriculum developers to include an optional unit that would meet the practical training needs of these types of students.

The data presented has therefore underscored the condition of teaching and learning facilities as a quality concern among students of HE in peace and security studies. Parasuraman et al. (1985) have classified teaching and learning facilities as the *tangibles* of a service. Sasser, Olsen, and Wyckoff (1978) has similarly identified the condition of

facilities as a key attribute of service quality. In the fourteen service quality dimensions discussed by Owlia and Aspinall (1996) availability and utilization of equipment and facilities, is recognised as important. It is within this principle that UNICEF (2000) has defined quality education to include learning environments that have adequate resource and facilities. Likewise, Joseph and Joseph (1997) and Wrights (1996) have included physical facilities in their models of service quality in HE.

The findings reflect that the teaching and learning of peace and security studies programmes in Kenyan universities occurs in environments where educational facilities are inadequate. Hence the delivery of quality teaching and learning in these programmes could be compromised in classroom environments that lack basic materials such as current textbooks and general teaching supplies. Whitcomb and Tanya (2008), in agreement with these findings, explain that teachers must have the tools to do the job in order to perform highly.

The low mean score for item 5 focussing on the use of computer laboratory (Mean= 2.2303), nonetheless, contrasts with the advocacies of Firer (2008) and McLoughlin (2001) on the importance of VPE in teaching peace. The authors note that the value of using computers in peace education is in their ability to provide information, enhance communication, and provide an imaginative and innovative environment; provide instructional resources to educators; and deliver instructions to students. They further emphasize that through the web based applications, 'students can link with other people at far locations and get to understand their perspectives, thereby increasing their multicultural knowledge.

The findings are further in concurrence with those of Gudo, et al., (2011b), who in their study to determine the perceptions of students, lecturers and administrators on the adequacy of resources for offering quality University education, concluded that Kenyan public universities do not have adequate capacity to do so due to shortage of physical facilities for teaching and learning. In this regard, the authors warned that increased University admissions without expanding their resource bases would only contribute to further decline of quality. Similarly, Odhiambo (2011) explains that deteriorating physical facilities in Kenyan universities are part of the reasons behind the general decline in the competence of Kenyan University graduates over time. The author argues that the existing academic infrastructure in most universities can no longer cope with the number of learners, who are thus forced to attend lectures in over-crowded lecture halls that are not conducive to effective communication and learning. The quality of teaching and learning facilities in HE in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities is therefore perceived by the students as low.

5.3 Students Perception of the Quality of Lecturers in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

Students' perceptions of the quality of lecturers were measured through seven constructs. These were lecturer appearance, lecturer helpfulness, lecturer caring disposition, lecturer friendliness, lecturer communication skills, and lecturer reliability and lecturer credibility. Each construct had its own variables generating a total of 57 variables, itemised from 9 to 67. The use of many variables was necessitated by the multidimensional nature of student-lecturer classroom interactions. The data has been presented by each construct in tables 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 indicates the quality attribute, frequency, mean score and standard deviation.

Table 6, which follows, presents data on lecturer appearance. This construct encompasses service quality dimensions of *tangibles*- appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication materials (Parasuraman et al., 1990). This construct was measured using six variables focusing on lecturers' attitude, grooming, courtesy, blending, respect for students and classroom behaviour.

Table 6: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' perceptions of Lecturer Appearance in HE in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

S/N	Quality Attribute Lecturer Appearance	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
9	Lecturers show positive attitude when teaching	152	3	2.0	22	14.5	127	83.5	2.8158	0.43704
10	Lecturers are well groomed	152	5	3.3	19	12.5	128	84.2	2.8092	0.47078
11	Lecturers are courteous when interacting with students	152	3	2.0	24	15.8	125	82.2	2.8026	0.44632
12	Lecturers blend well as a person as well as a teacher	152	6	3.9	23	15.1	123	80.9	2.7697	0.50782
13	Lecturers respect students as individuals	152	8	5.3	23	15.1	121	79.6	2.7434	0.54587
14	Lecturers' voice level, rate of speaking and behaviour are conducive to learning	152	15	9.9	16	10.5	121	79.6	2.6974	0.64119
Overall Mean Score									2.77303	0.38532

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement; **SD**= Standard Deviation

Table 6 indicates that items 9-13 on lecturers' attitude (Mean = 2.8158); grooming (Mean=2.8092); Courtesy (Mean=2.8026); mutual respect (Mean=2.7697) and blending (Mean=2.7697) had the highest mean scores suggesting that students hold high perceptions of lecturer's personal outlook. Item 14 which focuses on voice production and mannerisms, has the lowest mean score (Mean=2.6974).

The implication is that students do hold high perceptions of lecturers' professional impression at initial contact but such perceptions gradually get eroded as the lecturers begin to deliver their lessons. Perhaps the lowest mean score on item 14 (lecturers' voice level, rate of speaking and behaviour are conducive to learning) could be attributed to crowded classrooms with no public address systems, which make it difficult for the lecturers to be audible enough to reach large audiences. The overall mean score of 2.77303 with SD of 0.38532, nevertheless, suggests students' overall high perception of lecturer appearance.

During in-depth interviews and FGDs, there was a general consensus among the students that lecturers are well groomed, presentable and showed positive attitudes towards teaching. Wuod Nyong'ong', a diploma student of security management, noted as follows:

> *The lecturers are quite presentable in appearance and they like their job. Most of them are keen on creating a conducive learning atmosphere before they begin their lessons. They do greet us and inquire briefly how we are coping with the course. They also respect us as adult learners and would want to maintain that respect.*

Another student, Yogoshika Mandewa, who studies a degree course in peace and conflict transformation, had this to say:

> *The degree of smartness exhibited by a high number of the lecturers is high. It reminds me of the adage that cleanliness is next to godliness. When interacting with the lecturers, you get a feeling that they are real professionals who will help you achieve your goals as a student. You can see in them a role model. Though a few may exhibit an 'I don't care' attitude, majority are quite good.*

The opinions of both students, coupled with the quantitative data, express that students highly perceive lecturers of peace and security studies as professional in appearance.

Table 7, which follows, will present data on Students' perceptions of lecturer helpfulness. This construct encompasses service quality dimensions of *responsiveness,* willingness to

help customers and provide prompt service (Parasuraman et al., 1990). This construct was measured using four variables (items 15-18) focusing on lecturer's handling of feedback, questioning technique, willingness to help, and use of appropriate teaching skills.

**Table 7: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students'
perceptions of Lecturer Helpfulness in HE in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan
Universities**

S/N	Quality Attribute	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
	Lecturer Helpfulness		Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
15	Lecturers show willingness to help students learn	152	5	3.3	20	13.2	127	83.6	2.8026	0.47507
16	Lecturers exploit the use of various explanations that are appropriate to enable students understand a concept	152	4	2.6	33	21.7	115	75.7	2.7303	0.50126
17	Lecturers answer questions in a way that encourages students' progress	152	7	4.6	28	18.4	117	77.0	2.7237	0.54222
18	Lecturers sustain feedback to questions by probing, giving clues and allowing more time for response	152	12	7.9	20	13.2	120	78.9	2.7105	0.60496
Overall Mean Score									**2.74178**	**0.44700**

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement;
SD= Standard Deviation

It is evident from Table 7 that the highest mean score is on item 15 (Mean =2.8026) focusing on lecturers' predisposition to help students. The high score equally supports the strong perceptions of students on item 9 (Table 6) that lecturer's exhibit positive attitudes (Mean=2.8158). The table further indicates that student's equally hold high perceptions regarding item 16 focusing on use of various teaching skills that are appropriate. The least mean scores on the table are on items 17-18 (Means= 2.7237 and 2.7105, respectively) which equally indicate students' high perceptions of lecturer's handling of feedback in

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class. The overall high mean score for the table (Mean=2.74178 with SD of 0.4470) indicates an overall student's high perceptions of lecturer helpfulness.

The analysis of the qualitative data collected during interviews and FGDs expressed mixed feelings with regard to lecturer helpfulness. Those students who held positive perceptions noted two main categories: lecturer's handling of questions raised in class and responsive behaviour to student study requests. One of the students, Daniella Jakawangare, who studies international relations, noted as follows:

> *The lecturers always try to adequately handle the questions we raise in class and where they are not exhaustive they do research and attempt to address it effectively. They also continuously update us on the newly available resource materials in our areas of specialization.*

Ratiglo Jatelo, a degree student, of peace and conflict studies, noted as follows:

> *The lecturers are available for consultation, but on appointments, whenever we make requests and are ready to discuss with the students the issues that arise out of their lectures.*

Those who held less positive perceptions described some lecturers as too strict and rigid to help students, especially in solving study-related problems, they may face. One student of security management and police studies narrated how one lecturer refused to mark his examination paper because it had been submitted late yet he had requested for permission because there was an urgent national security matter he had to attend to. An attempt by some of his classmates to explain to the lecturer his predicament was futile as the lecturer was categorical that no amount of persuasion would make him change the decision he had made. The student had to retake the unit. However, other students expressed an appreciation of this kind of strictness, as helpful: Ajuma Odari, a student of armed conflict and peace studies, noted as follows:

I just wish that all lecturers in this course would be as strict as Dr Madhar Jamgowa. Regardless of his strictness on those students who miss classes and don't do exams, he has been able to help many students, including myself, to understand the value of attending lectures as opposed to relying on modules, which do not make one understand and appreciate the institution and its problems. There is need for more strictness in evaluation of class attendance.

The data therefore demonstrate that even though students highly perceive the lecturers as helpful, this is not absolute, as they are still perceived as less helpful in handling study related problems, a situation which is unfavourable to promotion of effective learning.

Table 8, which follows, presents data on lecturer caring disposition. This construct encompasses the service quality dimension of *empathy* − caring and individualized attention to the customer (Parasuraman et al., 1990). It was measured using seven variables focusing on students' well being, lecturers' encouragement, concern for student's study problems, concern for student's study progress, lecturer's discriminatory behaviour, concern for student's when in difficulty during lectures; and lecturer's determination to help students succeed.

Table 8: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' perceptions of Lecturer Caring Disposition in HE in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

S/N	Quality Attribute Lecturer Caring Disposition	Total	Low	%	Mod	%	High	%	Mean Score	SD
19	Lecturers encourage students to ask questions	152	9	5.9	21	13.8	122	80.3	2.7434	0.55787
20	Lecturers assist students to be successful regardless of their background	152	14	9.2	35	23.0	103	67.8	2.5855	0.65553
21	Lecturers assist students to learn as much as they can	152	14	9.2	38	25.0	100	65.8	2.5658	0.65782
22	Lecturers are concerned about students' well being	152	21	13.8	44	28.9	87	57.2	2.4342	0.72488
23	Lecturers recognize when students fail to comprehend lectures	152	27	17.8	35	23.0	90	59.2	2.4145	0.77583
24	Lecturers are concerned about the progress of students in the courses they are studying	152	24	15.8	42	27.6	86	56.6	2.4079	0.74900
25	Lecturers are concerned about students' study problems	152	28	18.4	41	27.0	83	54.6	2.3618	0.77673
Overall Mean Score									**2.5019**	**0.55071**

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement;
SD= Standard Deviation

Table 8 shows that item 19 (lecturers encourage students to ask questions) had highest mean score (Mean=2.7434). This suggests that students highly perceive lecturers as mindful of the difficulties students may experience during the lesson. The mean scores, however, tend to decrease for those items focusing on the lecturer's non-discriminatory behaviour, as in item 20 (Mean=2.5855) and generosity, as in item 21 (Mean=2.5658). Much lower mean scores (Means= 2.4342, 2.4145, 2.4079 and, 2.3618) are indicated on items 22-25, respectively, focusing on student welfare, cognitive growth during the lesson; academic progress and study difficulties.

The implication is that students highly perceive the lecturers as only concerned about superficial issues raised by students during the lesson but are less concerned about the deeply personal and serious academic issues, such as student welfare, cognitive development during the lesson; academic progress and study difficulties, which affect students' overall academic life at the institution and may require the lecturers to dedicate extra time to solve. The overall mean score for students' perceptions of lecturer's caring disposition (Mean=2.50189) indicates an overall moderate perception.

During qualitative interviews, the students were categorical that majority of the lecturers were only concerned about what takes them to class: teaching. Odera Chune, a degree student of criminology, had this to say:

> *My analysis of our interaction with the lecturers is that they only come to class to teach and go way. Anything outside class is of less interest to them. They always tell us to use our student representatives to channel other issues we may have concerning our welfare to the administration. Sometimes classes are overcrowded but we cannot raise such issues with them because all they do is to direct us to the administration. We can say that the lecturers are caring but only as far as their core duties are concerned.*

The data in Table 8 when read alongside that in Table 7 therefore serve to clarify more that students perceive the helpfulness and caring disposition of lecturers as only limited to lecturers' handling of the general concerns of the students during lectures but is less spread to other aspects of the student's life which deeply affect their learning.

The data in Table 9, which follows, is on lecturer friendliness. This construct encompasses service quality dimensions of *assurance* – the ability of the staff to convey trust and confidence (Parasuraman et al., 1990). This construct was measured using nine variables focusing on lecturers' handling of students' personal problems; students' absence from

class; general friendliness; informal communication; informal meetings; hospitality; mutual respect; non-discriminatory behaviour; and student-teacher rapport.

Table 9: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' perceptions of Lecturer Friendliness in HE in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

S/N	Quality Attribute Lecturer Friendliness	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
26	Lecturers and students have mutual respect for one another	152	11	7.2	21	13.8	120	78.9	2.7171	0.59153
27	Lecturers are generally friendly with students	152	7	4.6	34	22.4	111	73.0	2.6842	0.55697
28	Lecturers respect all students regardless of who they are	152	14	9.2	22	14.5	116	76.3	2.6711	0.63846
29	Lecturers have excellent student-teacher rapport skills	152	14	9.2	29	19.1	109	71.7	2.6250	0.64912
30	Lecturers make students feel comfortable	152	14	9.2	36	23.7	102	67.1	2.5789	0.65636
31	Lecturers are concerned with the problem of students' absence	152	30	19.7	33	21.7	89	58.6	2.3882	0.79776
32	Lecturers encourage informal conversations with students	152	34	22.4	36	23.7	82	53.9	2.3158	0.81721
33	Lecturers are willing to meet students without appointments	152	32	21.1	40	26.3	80	52.6	2.3158	0.80084
34	Lecturers try to understand students' personal problems	152	41	27.0	42	27.6	69	45.4	2.1842	0.83326
Overall Mean									2.4978	0.48591

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement; **SD**= Standard Deviation

Table 9 indicates that item 26 on mutual respect has the highest mean of 2.7171. Items 27 – 30 on general friendship, non-discriminatory behaviour, rapport and, giving comfort, follow with moderate mean scores (Means=2.6842, 2.6711, 2.6250 and 2.5789,

respectively). Lower mean scores are recorded for items 31-34 which focus on lecturers handling of absenteeism, non-formal communication, non-formal consultations, and student welfare.

The implication is that students perceive lecturer friendliness as more focused on mutual respect, formal friendship and, non-discriminatory behaviour, However, they perceive them as increasingly getting, more formal, discriminative and distant as the teaching and learning situation demands of them to handle administrative and personal issues. The overall moderate mean score of 2.49781 indicates student's moderate perception of lecturer friendliness.

The data gathered from in depth interviews and FGDs indicated three categories of students' perceptions of lecturer friendliness: Indifference and procedural. Indifference is a situation where the lecturer has no enthusiasm at all for being friendly with students. Such lecturers are not concerned at all about creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom. Their focus is on content delivery alone.

Other lecturers were described as exhibiting a purely procedural friendship which does not exceed the boundaries of the classroom. Such lecturers are jovial, may share jokes and personal experiences but only as far as the lecture is concerned. Ray Nyambok, a diploma student of strategic studies noted as follows:

> *Our lecturers try to display professionalism when it comes to establishing friendship with students. They try to keep their distance as much as possible, especially on friendship, which may extend outside the classroom. One day, I encountered one of my lecturers in a pub but he immediately disappeared before I even sat down to buy him a drink. Yet in class, we are best of friends. I think they are unnecessarily too formal.*

Gini Wasekawo, a diploma student of international relations, equally remarked:

There is unnecessary formality that surrounds the interaction between lecturers and students and this creates unnecessary phobia between students and lecturers.

Ma Marwa, a degree student of armed conflict and peace studies, equally decried the unnecessary tension surrounding lecturer-student interaction. The student noted:

There is need for some lecturers to at least try and create a friendly atmosphere between them and students to help ease the tension that students have whenever they want to interact with them.

The overall implication of both quantitative and qualitative data on lecturer friendliness is that students have a less positive perception of lecturer friendliness. This scenario perhaps makes the lecturers less approachable and difficult to trust and confide in, and this could lower the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities.

Table 10, presents data on students' perception of lecturer communication skills. This construct represents the "*interactive quality*", which implies interaction between the consumer and the service organization (Lehtinen, 1982). It also encompasses *assurance* – the ability of the staff to convey trust and confidence (Parasuraman et al, 1990). The construct was measured using nine variables focusing on lecturer's effective interaction, approachability, fluent communication, use of simple language, two way communication, willingness to accept students' views, student interruptions; sense of humour; and listening skills.

Table 10:   Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students'
perceptions of Lecturer Communication Skills in HE in Peace and Security Studies in
Kenyan Universities

S/N	Quality Attribute Lecturer Communication Skills	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
35	Lecturers communicate fluently	152	6	3.9	22	14.5	124	81.6	2.7763	0.50425
36	Lecturers encourage two way communication with students	152	10	6.6	16	10.5	126	82.9	2.7632	0.56701
37	Lecturers interact effectively with students	152	5	3.3	27	17.8	120	78.9	2.7566	0.50161
38	Lecturers are approachable for dialogues	152	9	5.9	22	14.5	121	79.6	2.7368	0.56071
39	Lecturers have good listening skills	152	10	6.6	20	13.2	122	80.3	2.7368	0.57240
40	Lecturers use simple language	152	4	2.6	33	21.7	115	75.7	2.7303	0.50126
41	Lecturers are willing to accept students' views and comments	152	7	4.6	28	18.4	117	77.0	2.7237	0.54222
42	Lecturers have a sense of humour	152	5	3.3	39	25.7	108	71.1	2.6776	0.53490
43	Lecturers allow students to interrupt during lectures	152	31	20.4	38	25.0	83	54.6	2.3421	0.79822
Overall Mean Score									2.6937	0.4001

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement; **SD**= Standard Deviation

Table 10 indicates an overall mean score of 2.6937 implying that students have a moderate

perception of lecturer communication skills. Items 35-41 on lecturers' fluency, two-way

communication, effective interaction, approachability, listening skills and simplicity have

high mean scores of 2.7763, 2.7632, 2.7566, 2.7368, 2.7368, 2.7303 and, 2.7237,

respectively. The mean scores, however, tend to get lower for items 42-43 (Mean= 2.6776

and 2.3421) on lecturers' use of humour and tolerance of student's interruptions. The data

suggests that the students perceive lecturers as quite competent but too serious communicators, hence the overall moderate perception.

The qualitative data generated from interviews and FGDs equally reported effective communication between the lecturer and the students but in a more formal atmosphere. From the data, fluent communication in class was more pronounced, while other students reported effective dialogue whenever they ask questions or seek for clarifications from the lecturers. They, however, reported intolerance of the part of the lecturers, especially on argumentative students.

Teroburu Nyanam, a student of military studies, noted as follows:

> *The lecturers communicate well in class. They use simple language and can be understood easily. They also try to answer our questions effectively. But some of them get a bit personal and defensive when we seek clarifications on some points, which appear to contradict the information they give us. They need know that we are only trying to understand the subject matter better.*

Achona Chimaugo, a student of armed conflict and peace studies, however expressed dissatisfaction with the inability of some lecturers to effectively relay information during lectures. The student noted:

> *Armed conflict and peace studies is one of the best courses that has ever been offered in this country. We have good lecturers who have knowledge but how they relay that information to the students is what matters most. If they can't do that properly then it becomes a problem. Some of the senior lecturers suffer from this problem, yet they have so much information to give.*

The data from both quantitative and qualitative studies therefore imply that students hold moderate perceptions of lecturer communication skills. Even though the communicative competence is characterised by strong presentation skills, the lecturer's inability to appreciate the students individually, improve on personal communication skills and create a relaxed atmosphere continue to attract less positive perceptions among the students.

Table 11 presents data on lecturer reliability. *Reliability,* as a service quality dimension implies the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately (Parasuraman et al., 1990). This construct was measured using 13 variables focusing on advanced lesson preparedness, time management, firmness, adherence to policies and regulations, adherence to lesson plan, handling of make-up classes, replacement of deliberately missed lessons, dealing with cancelled lessons, lecturer availability, supervision of student participation , handling of academic matters, ability to undertake extraneous duties, and handling of cancelled classes.

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**Table 11: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students'
perceptions of Lecturer Reliability in HE in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan
Universities**

S/N	Quality Attribute Lecturer Reliability	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
44	Lecturers have teaching materials and equipment ready at the start of the lesson	152	10	6.6	19	12.5	123	80.9	2.7434	0.56961
45	Lecturers are firm on the duration of time given to students to complete a task	152	9	5.9	24	15.8	119	78.3	2.7237	0.56612
46	Lecturers adhere to the policies and regulations prescribed for teaching	152	10	6.6	30	19.7	112	73.7	2.6711	0.59553
47	Lecturers follow planned lesson progression	152	15	9.9	29	19.1	108	71.1	2.6118	0.66162
48	Lecturers start and finish classes on time	152	16	10.5	28	18.4	108	71.1	2.6053	0.67262
49	Lecturers are prepared to discuss academic matters with students	152	14	9.2	39	25.7	99	65.1	2.5592	0.65845
50	Lecturers often make up classes earlier to the date of their absence	152	27	17.8	33	21.7	92	60.5	2.4276	0.77717
51	Lecturers give students individual work when classes are cancelled	152	27	17.8	34	22.4	91	59.9	2.4211	0.77653
52	Lecturers are prepared to carry out non-instructional duties	152	38	25.0	47	30.9	67	44.1	2.1908	0.81162
53	Lecturers are in the office regularly and not only on lecture days	152	45	29.6	43	28.3	64	42.1	2.1250	0.84031
54	Lecturers make arrangements to replace classes missed on public holidays	152	45	29.6	47	30..9	60	39.5	2.0987	0.82799
55	Lecturers always walk around the class to monitor students' performance	152	52	34.2	41	27.0	59	38.8	2.0461	0.85613
Overall Mean Score									2.4353	0.4878

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement;
SD= Standard Deviation

Table 11 indicates high mean scores on items 44- and 45 (Means=2.7434 and 2.7237) focusing on lecturer's advance lesson preparation and firmness on deadlines. Other items 46-48 have lower mean scores (Mean=2.6711, 2.611, 2.6053 and 2.5592) focusing on adherence to classroom policies, adherence to lesson plans, and time management. The mean scores are however much lower on items 49-55 (Mean= 2.5592, 2.4276, 2.421, 2.1908, 2.1250, 2.0987 and, 2.0461) on lecturers' discussion of academic affairs, handling of make-up classes, engagement of students during cancelled classes, handling of extraneous duties, availability, handling of classes falling on holidays and classroom management. The overall implication is that student's perceive the lecturers as only reliable on issues related to implementing the conventional teaching and learning policies but not those requiring them to dedicate extra time and go out of their way to ensure effective teaching and learning is achieved. This explains the overall mean score of 2.4353, which suggests students' lower perception of lecturer reliability.

During interviews and FGDs, students indicated regular attendance, punctuality, responsiveness and consistency of lecturers as the key indicators of lecturer reliability. Whereas they held positive perceptions of lecturers with regard to regular attendance, their perceptions of lecturer punctuality, consistency and responsiveness were less positive. Obong'o Jakanyidoto, a degree student of disaster management had this to say:

> *The lecturers are very serious on class attendance but reluctant on giving students all the reading materials they promise. Sometimes, we are given hand outs and at other times, there are none or they are delayed and we are told to make own copies. Sometimes, they give us timetables detailing consultation schedules but when we go to their offices, they are closed. When we call them, some of them neither pick up calls nor reply to our text messages or e-mails.*

Obuya Gumba, a diploma student of criminology, was particularly concerned about lecturer's punctuality at the beginning of the semester. The student noted:

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The University should make arrangements to have lecturers reside within the institution's premises in order to maintain punctuality on daily basis. Punctuality should be improved especially during the initial days of opening the semester. Lunch time lectures should also stop since time for lunch is not lesson time!

The two sets of data therefore present students' perceptions of lecturer reliability as less positive.

Table 12 presents data on lecturer credibility. Credibility in this context refers to the lecturers' personal initiatives to be believed as a true professional and accepted by students as a worthy teacher. It encompasses the service quality dimension of *reliability,* ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately (Parasuraman et al., 1990). This construct was measured using 11 attributes focusing on adequate preparation, content mastery; acknowledgement of students response; handling of administrative matters; reaction to student's inappropriate behaviour; updating of teaching material; monitoring student's behaviour; keeping of student's records; professional background; adequacy of instructional support materials and; supervision of student's participation.

Table 12: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' perceptions of Lecturer Credibility in HE in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

S/N	Quality Attribute Lecturer Credibility	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
56	Lecturers adequately prepare to teach	152	8	5.3	27	17.8	117	77.0	2.7171	0.55693
57	Lecturers acknowledge students' response during lectures	152	10	6.6	25	16.4	117	77.0	2.7039	0.58501
58	Lecturers are knowledgeable on the subject matter	152	7	4.6	31	20.4	114	75.0	2.7039	0.55000
59	Lecturers have a set of rules and procedures to handle routine classroom administrative matters	152	12	7.9	27	17.8	113	74.3	2.6645	0.61916
60	Lecturers stop inappropriate students' behaviour promptly and consistently	152	16	10.5	32	21.1	104	68.4	2.5789	0.67624
61	Lecturers regularly improve on their teaching material	152	15	9.9	37	24.3	100	65.8	2.5592	0.66843
62	Lecturers frequently monitor the behaviour of students during class	152	18	11.8	34	22.4	100	65.8	2.5395	0.69893
63	Lecturers update records on students' performance accurately	152	18	11.8	34	22.4	100	65.8	2.5395	0.69893
64	Lecturers have a professional background in security which matches well with the subjects they are handling	152	17	11.2	37	24.3	98	64.5	2.5329	0.68973
65	Lecturers use sufficient materials to support instruction	152	21	13.8	31	20.4	100	65.8	2.5197	0. 72761
66	Lecturers have a set of rules and procedures to monitor students' level of verbal participation in the class	152	21	13.8	35	23.0	96	63.2	2.4934	0.72784
	Overall Mean Score								**2.5956**	**0.45817**

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement; **SD**= Standard Deviation

Table 12 indicates high mean scores (Means= 2.7171, 2.7039 and 2.7039) for items 56-58 focusing on attitudinal attributes of adequate preparation, reinforcement of learning and content mastery, respectively. The mean scores gradually reduce for items 59-65 (Mean = 2.5789, 2.5592, 2.5395, 2.5395, 2.5329 and 2.5197) focusing on handling of administrative matters, dealing with indiscipline, improving on teaching material, monitoring indiscipline, record keeping, professional credentials, and use of teaching aids. The lowest mean scores are for items 66-67 focusing on monitoring of student participation and handling of missed lessons (Mean = 2.4934 and 2.3092, respectively).

The data suggests that students perceive the lecturers as more credible in lesson preparation, content mastery and reinforcement of learning, but less credible in monitoring student academic progress. The less perception of lecturers as credible in supervision of student participation in class is also consistent with the low mean score for item 55 (Mean=2.0461) in Table 11 which focuses on reliability of lecturers in supervision of student participation. The overall mean score for Table 11 (2.5440 with SD of 0.44479), further suggests students moderate perception of the credibility of peace and security studies lecturers.

This trend was equally noted during interviews and FGDs. Students expressed more positive perceptions of lecturer credibility in two themes: professional competence and delivery of instruction. Discussions on professional competence attracted mixed arguments, with students of security studies citing lecturer's adequate background in security management as a crucial determiner of professional competence. Students of international relations, diplomacy, strategic studies, and peace and conflict studies, were however only keen on academic credentials and publications as a crucial determiner of

professional competence. Omondi Jararieda, a degree student of security studies, remarked, thus:

> *Most of our lecturers have never been security officers and are sometimes lost when it comes to giving students concrete examples that relate to the theoretical concepts they teach. We know that most of them have backgrounds in sociology but they are largely incompetent in the areas they are handling. We have been able to deal with the few who have been purporting to be experts in security matters. In one occasion we were able to download the credentials of one of the lecturers, who was a business professional, but had been assigned a unit in criminology and we made sure he never handled the course to completion and we were assigned another lecturer. We would however be more comfortable with those lecturers who are former security professionals because they understand our world better.*

Setrina Kamangura, a student of criminology, equally remarked,

> *There are only two criminologists in the University, with the rest of the lecturers being specialists in general sociology. You therefore find situations where lecturers with backgrounds in counselling psychology teaching theories of crime. Some of them are sincere enough to apologize to us that they are not well grounded in the areas they are handling, and the units have been imposed on them by the University.*

Riegi Minyige, a diploma student of strategic studies, noted as follows:

> *When lecturers come to class we are able to discern fake ones from competent ones not just from their handling of the subject matter but also from 'Google'. The internet is a very credible tool for judging the quality of lecturers because information about professors, their research interests, professional backgrounds, and publications are available in the internet. We really do not have to demand to know where they have worked since the qualities of their papers are the most important to us.*

Perceptions of delivery of instruction as a measure of lecturer credibility was however evident across all the students. They cited adequate preparation, handling of student questions, use of concrete examples and effective explanations as key in assessing the credibility of a lecturer. Nyama Giware, a diploma student of criminology and social order, remarked thus:

> *The way a lecturer presents the lecture to the students already tells whether or not he is credible. If a lecturer is hostile to students or evades answering questions, we already know there is something wrong with his or her papers, and when we carry out our private investigations, we usually come to the conclusion that our guess is true. Majority of our lecturers are, of course, good.*

The remarks indicate that student's hold high perceptions of lecturers' attitudes towards teaching but lower perceptions of their professional credentials and teaching competence. This explains the student's overall moderate perception of lecturer credibility.

In general, the implication of the data is that students of peace and security studies are highly satisfied with lecturer appearance only (Mean=2.77303, SD=0.38532). Even though lecturer helpfulness recorded an equally high mean score (Mean=2.7417, SD=0.44700), the helpfulness was found to be superficial and not spread across the entire spectrum of student empathy needs. The overall moderate mean score for Tables 6-12 is 2.5796 with SD of 0.03916 and this suggests moderate perception of lecturer quality and therefore mere satisfaction with this attribute.

Further analysis reveals that the highest mean scores on lecturer quality are for items 9, 10, 11, and 15 focusing on lecturers' attitude (Mean = 2.8158, SD= 0.43704); grooming (Mean=2.8092, SD=0.47078); Courtesy (Mean=2.8026; SD=0.44632) and willingness to help students (Mean, 2.8026, SD=0.47507), respectively. The lowest mean scores are for items 34, 52, 53, 54 and 55 focusing on lecturers caring attitude towards student's personal problems (Mean=2.1842); lecturers' willingness to carry out non-instructional duties (Mean=2.1908); lecturers willingness to be in the office regularly and not only on lecture days (Mean=2.1250); lecturers willingness to replace classes missed on public holidays (Mean=2.0987) and lecturers walking around the class to monitor students' performance (Mean=2.0461), respectively. In addition, the qualitative data has reported lower perceptions of helpfulness, punctuality and consistency. The analysis suggests that students perceive the lecturers as more inclined towards impressionistic tendencies as

reflected in items 9, 10, 11, and 15 rather than cognitive competencies as reflected in items 34, 52, 53, 54 and 55. These mean scores further suggest that students perceive the lecturers as more impressionistic than professionally oriented, hence their mere satisfaction with lecturer quality.

The findings on lecturer appearance are in concordance with those of Hamid and Zaidatol (2004) who report students' satisfaction with the appearance of their lecturers, as key among the perceptions of business studies students. In a similar study, Allan et al. (2009) found that students regarded the provision of a supportive learning environment in which teachers scaffold learning as a requisite of effective teaching. The authors also found that students favoured actions that led directly to the enhancement of their *own learning*, as well as teaching strategies, and the personal attributes of lecturers that they believed improve the interaction *between* them and their lecturers. They also favour factors that refer to the creation of a learning environment which is conducive to developing their own understanding and achievement, and which demonstrate that their teachers are sympathetic to the challenges they face as undergraduates.

This study has equally echoed the findings of Delaney et al. (2009), when they identified the top-most characteristic of an effective lecturer as *respect for students*. The authors explain that this attribute encompasses the demonstration of such traits as fairness, understanding, and flexibility, caring, patient, helpful, compassionate, open-minded, sincere, diplomatic, concerned, reasonable, consistent, kind, empathetic, humble, trustworthy, and realistic.

Furthermore, the theoretical perspective of humanistic curriculum, as accentuated by Mc Neil (1996) underscores the ideals of Delaney et al. as crucial in delivering the humanist-oriented curriculum, which is at the centre of the discussion of peace and security studies, in this study. Mc Neil emphasizes the role of the lecturer in establishing an emotional relationship with the students and creating a supportive teaching and learning environment, in order to enhance self learning. The lecturer is to listen comprehensively to student's views, respect them, remain ordinary and real, be understanding, and act as a facilitator and resource centre. Mc Neil sees the product of the curriculum as not just a cognitively endowed individual but also an aesthetically and morally healthy person. Hence, the learner should be permitted to express, act out, experiment, make mistakes, be seen, get feedback and discover who they are (Mc Neil, 1996).

Student's low perception of item 64 on lecturers' professional background (Mean=2.5329) underscores one the challenges discussed by Adolf (2010) as facing security studies globally. Whereas the author decries delivery of instruction by security lecturers with vast security experience but limited academic research focus, the data in this study reflects the vice versa, resulting into a situation where the security studies graduand is likely to have a firm theoretical grounding but limited practical skills. Adolf, further agrees with Vest (2007) that the essence of University education is to blend practice with theory through teaching and research.

Therefore, from the foregoing discussion, it would be plausible to derive that students perceive a peace and security studies lecturer as one whose quality attributes are more impressionistic but less professionally focused, resulting into mere satisfaction with the quality of lecturers. High satisfaction of students with lecturer quality would therefore be

realized in teaching and learning situations where both areas of focus are able to attract favourable perceptions. Unfortunately, this is not the case in HE in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities.

5.4 Students Perception of the Quality of Teaching and Learning Methods in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

The perception of students concerning the quality of teaching and learning methodology was measured through one construct: lecturer teaching competence. Teaching competence in this case refers to the ability of the lecturer to deliver the lesson effectively. It encompasses the service quality dimension of *responsiveness,* ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately (Parasuraman et al., 1990). The data on lecturer teaching competence has been presented in Table 13. This construct had 13 attributes focusing on lesson introduction; specification of learning objectives; use of suitable examples and illustrations; tasks and assignments, questioning technique; pace of instruction; transitions within lessons; summaries; lesson presentation; stimulation of thinking; handling of questions and; use of a variety of techniques.

Table 13: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' perceptions of Quality of Teaching and Learning Methodology in HE in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

S/N	Quality Attribute Teaching Methodology	Total	Low	%	Mod	%	High	%	Mean Score	SD
67	Lecturers introduce lessons when they begin to teach	152	4	2.6	14	9.2	134	88.2	2.8553	0.42141
68	Lecturers provide suitable examples, demonstration and illustrations of concepts and skills	152	6	3.9	22	14.5	124	81.6	2.7763	0.50425
69	Lecturers specify the learning objectives for every lesson	152	11	7.2	21	13.8	120	78.9	2.7171	0.59153
70	Lecturers make sure that instructions for assignments are clear	152	11	7.2	21	13.8	120	78.9	2.7171	0.59153
71	Lecturers stimulate students' thinking through problem solving techniques and asking challenging questions	152	11	7.2	21	13.8	120	78.9	2.7171	0.59153
72	Lecturers are skilful in presenting their lessons	152	13	8.6	23	15.1	116	76.3	2.6776	0.62616
73	Lecturers ask questions that are appropriate to the students' level of ability	152	11	7.2	28	18.4	113	74.3	2.6711	0.60654
74	Lecturers assign tasks which students can complete with a high rate of success	152	12	7.9	29	19.1	111	73.0	2.6513	0.62253
75	Lecturers are competent in handling students' questions	152	11	7.2	31	20.4	110	72.4	2.6513	0.61180
76	Lecturers vary the pace of instructional activities	152	18	11.8	33	21.7	101	66.4	2.5461	0.69852
77	Lecturers make transitions between lessons and instructional activities	152	15	9.9	45	29.6	92	60.5	2.5066	0.67103
78	Lecturers summarize the main points at the end of each lesson	152	25	16.4	29	19.1	98	64.5	2.4803	0.76314
79	The programme incorporates a variety of training methods to help students learn such as field trips, simulations etc.	152	52	34.2	32	21.1	68	44.7	2.1053	0.88518
	Overall Mean Score								**2.6209**	**0.42825**

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement; **SD**= Standard Deviation

Table 13 shows that items 67-71 had the highest mean scores (Means= 2.8553, 2.7763, 2.7171, 2.7171, and 2.7171, respectively). These items focused on lesson introduction, use of illustrations, specification of objectives, clarity of assignments, and stimulation of learning. The mean scores are however lower for items 72-77 (Means=2.6776, 2.6711, 2.6513, 2.6513, 2.5461 and 2.5066) focusing on lecturers' skilful presentation of lessons, use of questioning technique, appropriateness of assignments, handling of student questions, variation of pace of instruction; and transitions within lessons. Other much lower mean scores are for items 77- 78, (Means =2.4803 and 2.1053), which focus on lesson summary and use of a variety of teaching methods.

These scores suggest that even though student's highly perceive lecturers' teaching competence as characterised by strong introductory content and skills, they still perceive teaching effectiveness as gradually diminishing as lectures near completion. They also perceive the teaching competence as less cohesive in terms of integration of learning and sustaining interest and motivation during lesson delivery. This situation has been described in this study as '*loss of pedagogical momentum'*. It means the inability of the lecturers to sustain effective teaching throughout the lesson or the entire course. This explains the overall mean score of 2.6209 with SD of 0.42825, which suggests students' moderate perception of the quality of teaching and learning methodology of peace and security studies in Kenyan universities.

Data gathered from the interviews indicate that even though students hold positive perceptions of the teaching and learning methodology, they decry overreliance on lecture method and delivery of theoretical knowledge alone as the main teaching methods.

Students called for inclusion of practical aspect of teaching, coupled with field trips where necessary, in order to reduce classroom boredom.

Anungo Kibaw, a degree student of disaster management, noted as follows:

> *The lectures are well delivered. However, majority of the lecturers rely on the lecture method alone, with some discussion. Field trips should be included in our studies as we have had enough of theory.*

Ogejo Janam, equally emphasised the need for various teaching learning methods in criminal justice. The student noted:

> *More field trips and simulations should be made available to the students of criminal justice, in order to enable them experience the real criminal justice systems rather than peripheral exposure to what the ideal situation should be.*

Another student, Aoko Nyobonyo, a degree student of forensic investigations, who is also a high school teacher in Nairobi, stated as follows:

> *There is need to include other teaching and learning techniques especially in areas that need practical approach and real life experiences, such as management of scenes of crime. There is also need for the lecturers to know that we are not just in class for promotion but to develop our careers as future professionals, hence the need for a more robust approach to teaching. The University should establish a forensic laboratory.*

Okombe Nyadero, another student of criminology, decried the consequences of lack of the practical training, on their future lives as job seekers:

> *On the practical side of this course, nothing takes place. We only do the theories and class work and nothing else. This will make it hard for those students to get jobs and it may force them to enrol in other institutions to do the practical part which was left out.*

The overall implication of both the qualitative and quantitative data is that students hold low perceptions of the teaching and learning methodology. They perceive it as

characterised more by minimal practical training, mono-centric teaching methods and loss of pedagogical momentum.

Nevertheless, the student's high perceptions of teaching methodology as featuring strong introductory and lesson development skills is consistent with the reflections of Hopkins et al. (1997) as quoted in Allan et al. (2009) on quality teaching. The authors outline the three dimensions of quality teaching as *teaching effects* (teaching skills and teaching behaviours); *acquisition of quality teaching and learning models* (the particular types of learning environments that a teacher establishes in his/her classroom) and *teacher enthusiasm (*teachers' personal responsibility for creating the conditions for effective learning). The same competencies are outlined by Allan et al. (2009) who propose, among others, scaffolding of learning and clarity as key indicators of quality teaching. The authors identify the key attributes of these competencies to include the dynamics of content delivery; pace setting for learners; high engagement levels; excellent classroom management; systematic organisation of learning; strong, clear presentation skills and high quality explanations.

The loss of pedagogical momentum, overreliance on lecture method and the emphasis on theoretical knowledge, on the other hand, suggest an incomplete teaching and learning methodology. This scenario is disadvantageous to the achievement of quality education, and the objectives of University education in Kenya. Barnett (1992) explains quality education as encompassing enhancement of students' educational development, in which case, they are able to fulfil the general educational aims of autonomy, ability to participate in reasoned discourse, critical self evaluation, and a proper awareness of the ultimate contingency of all thought and action. Likewise, Republic of Kenya, (2006b) outlines the

key aims of University education in Kenya as, including, bridging the gap between theory and practice in various disciplines of education and training, imparting of hands-on skills and capacity to perform multiple and specific national and international tasks. The achievement of these aims under inconclusive teaching and learning approaches cannot, therefore, be guaranteed.

From the arguments of the social reconstructionists an incomplete teaching methodology, with little emphasis on practical training, would inhibit the peace and security studies curriculum from delivering the desired social change. To them, the goals of a curriculum include determination of the range of problems faced in the society, and the key approaches for effecting the desired change (Eisner, 1979; Print, 1993; Mc Neil, 1996). The role of practical training is to confront the leaner with the many serious problems which humanity faces be they in social studies, sciences, arts or maths, and imparting the knowledge and skills that would help the learners to practically solve those problems. In this context, Mc Neil (1996), while accentuating the ideas of the key proponents of social reconstructionist curriculum, Giroux, (1987) Freire (1989), Apple (1990) underscores, the role of the lecturer in invoking the student's critical consciousness by encouraging student cooperation with the community and its resources, as well as seeking internship opportunities for the learners to work as equals with more experienced members of the community in social projects.

The same concept has been emphasized by Jenkins (2013), who while underlining Reardon's (1988) 'transformative imperative' in the implementation of peace education programmes, advocates for a transformative peace learning methodology with focus on generating knowledge, which may empower the leaner towards social reconstruction. The

teaching methodology is to adopt a holistic approach in presentation of content but with bias towards social reconstruction and formation of desired human relationships. This would capacitate learners to pursue social transformation be they socio-economic, political, personal, or environmental.

This idea is equally captured in Danesh (2006) study of Education for Peace (EFP) integrative curriculum in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The author advocates for the curriculum to develop unity oriented beliefs in the students The key aspects of this curriculum include critical inquiry; emotional insight and imaginative and creative experience. Whereas, critical inquiry could be achieved through theoretical discourses delivered through lectures, the emotional insights and the imaginative and creative experiences categorically demand practical training.

Moreover, in a study of the teaching and learning, of an International Baccalaureate (IB) diploma in peace and conflict studies programme Van Oord (2008) has underscored the vitality of student-oriented pedagogical strategies, where discussions by students are more preferred to lecturing and experiential leaning has substituted studying huge amounts of content. The author concurs with Bar-Tal (2002) that the transformative goal of effective peace education is dependent more on the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning. Similarly, Spracher (2010) has underscored the need for a transformative teaching methodology that would realign the conservative orientation of the security sector towards a more pragmatic approach to handling security issues. The perception of the students concerning the teaching and learning methodology of HE in peace and security studies therefore suggest an incomprehensive mode of delivery, which is ineffective in meeting the transformative ideals of a peace and security studies programme.

5.5 Students' perceptions of the Quality of Curriculum Evaluation Approaches in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

The perception of students concerning the quality of curriculum evaluation approaches in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities was measured through two constructs: fairness and feedback, on one hand, and quality of assessment tools and procedures, on the other. It encompasses the service quality dimension of *responsiveness,* ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately (Parasuraman et al., 1990).).

The data on fairness and feedback has been presented in Table 14. It has a total of six of attributes which include setting deadlines for assessments, fair treatment of students, fairness in grading, method of grading, handling of student's opinions and examination feedback.

**Table 14: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students'
perceptions of Quality of Curriculum Evaluation Fairness and Feedback in HE in
Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities**

S/N	Quality Attribute Fairness and Feedback	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
80	Lecturers set standards and due dates for assessment tests that are clear, fair and reasonable.	152	6	3.9	16	10.5	130	85.5	2.8158	0.48036
81	Lecturers treat all students fairly and in an equitable manner during assessment.	152	6	3.9	23	15.1	123	80.9	2.7697	0.50782
82	Lecturers are fair in grading students.	152	18	11.8	41	27.0	93	61.2	2.4934	0.70002
83	Lecturers' method of giving grades is consistent and clearly understood.	152	27	17.8	35	23.0	90	59.2	2.4145	0.77583
84	The administration takes students' opinion about the course seriously.	152	42	27.6	28	18.4	82	53.9	2.2632	0.86688
85	Lecturers mark examinations promptly and give students feedback immediately.	152	41	27.0	35	23.0	76	50.0	2.2303	0.84939
Overall Mean Score									2.4638	0.52316

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement; **SD**= Standard Deviation

Table 14 indicates that the highest mean scores (Mean=2.8158 and 2.7697) are for items 80 and 81 focusing on fairness of assessment standards and fair treatment of all students during assessments. The mean scores are however drastically reduced for items 82-85 (Means= 2.4934, 2.4145, 2.2632 and 2.2303) focusing on lecturers' fairness in grading, clarity and consistency, handling of student views and feedback. These scores imply student higher perception of lecturers as competent in administration of assessments but lower perceptions regarding their competency in grading, giving feedback and addressing student concerns. The overall mean score of 2.4638 with SD of 0.52316 further suggests lower perception of lecturer fairness and handling of feedback.

These perceptions are equally consistent with the data gathered during interviews and FGDs. The students expressed that even though examinations were well administered, they still had issues with awarding of grades and issuance of evaluation feedback. Other students reported leakage of examinations to students by corrupt University officials.

Okomba Riegi, a degree student of criminology, noted as follows:

> Some lecturers are too biased when it comes to grading of students and this should be done away with. Some are bribed and on return they award some students too high marks, which they don't deserve, while the ones who deserve are deprived. Those charged with securing examinations are also corrupt and are usually bribed by students to leak the examinations before the due dates.

Ongao Kayot, a degree student of peace and conflict studies, equally described her dissatisfaction with the grading system. She noted:

> Some lecturer's just award imaginary marks instead of gauging students based on their actual performance. This makes some students fail unfairly. When you do an exam, you are quite sure whether you will pass or fail, but when the results come and you get to see that you have passed where you should have failed or failed where you should have passed, you begin to wonder whether there was real marking of the examination papers.

Orwa Kaka, another student of criminology and security studies, decried the poor state of handling of examination feedback. The student lamented:

> The University should ensure that results of examinations are out as soon as is practical in order to help students gauge their performance. For example I am a third year student but I have not seen some of my results going back to first year. The delay in releasing the examination transcripts makes it harder for the students to know how they have performed; whether they should put more effort or they are ok.

However, other students classified the problem of examination feedback as more administrative rather than the responsibility of lecturers. Adhiambo Nyorembe, a student of forensic and criminal investigations stated as follows:

The delay in releasing examination results is because of incompetence on the part of the University administration. There is a problem when it comes to releasing results and serving the students. They should give out results at the beginning of each semester and produce transcripts for students at the end of every academic year. The results for continuous assessment tests are never given the students and sometimes the results are just posted online after two academic years.

From both sets of data, a less positive student perception of evaluation fairness and feedback can be discerned.

The data on quality of assessment tools and procedures has been presented in Table 15. It has a total of six attributes which include examination coverage, clarity of exams, invigilation/supervision, preparation for exams, handling of student groupings and use of variety of assessment methods.

**Table 15: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students'
perceptions of Quality of Curriculum Assessment Tools and Procedures in HE in
Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities**

S/N	Quality Attribute	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
	Assessment Tools and Procedures									
86	Lecturers prepare examination questions that cover the important aspects of the course.	152	8	5.3	29	19.1	115	75.7	2.7039	0.56191
87	Lectures give assessment tests suitable to level of students	152	8	5.3	29	19.1	115	75.7	2.7039	0.56191
88	Lecturers' examination questions are clear and fair.	152	8	5.3	34	22.4	110	72.4	2.6711	0.57286
89	The examinations are well invigilated.	152	15	9.9	27	17.8	110	72.4	2.6250	0.65924
90	Lecturers give freedom to students to choose their own group members when assigned tasks.	152	11	7.2	36	23.7	105	69.1	2.6184	0.61906
91	Students are given time to prepare adequately for the examinations.	152	19	12.5	26	17.1	107	70.4	2.5789	0.70501
92	Lecturers use oral, written and other forms of evaluation to assess students' progress.	152	19	12.5	28	18.4	105	69.1	2.5658	0.70637
Overall Mean Score									**2.6673**	**0.38020**

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement;
SD= Standard Deviation

Table 15 indicates that the highest mean scores (Means =2.7039 and 2.7039) are tied up for

items 86 and 87 focusing on the examination coverage of course content and suitability of

tests to the level of students. Items 88-92 focusing on clarity of test items, invigilation,

flexibility, time for preparation for exams and use of various modes of assessment, have

lower mean scores (Mean =2.6711, 2.6250, 2.6184, 2.5789 and 2.5658, respectively). The

implication is that students had high perceptions of the adequacy and suitability of the

assessment tools but less positive perception of time for assessment preparation and test

administration procedures. The overall mean score of 2.6673 with SD of 0.38020 imply a moderate perception of the quality of assessment tools and procedures.

The data collected from the qualitative study equally indicated students' less positive perceptions of the quality of assessment tools and procedures. The students indicated that the examinations are moderate, but sometimes, the test items are not realistic in terms of time available for answering the questions. At other times, some questions are irrelevant to the content delivered in class. In other instances, the examinations are poorly invigilated, a situation which may lead to cheating.

In one interview, Omolo Magwanga, a degree student of disaster management, described how in one examination session, the lecturer, simply dictated to them examination questions, instead of issuing them with individual examination papers. The student remarked:

> *As we sat in the hall waiting for the examination envelope to be opened, the lecturer told us to write down the examination questions since they had not been printed and there was no time to wait for that to be done. We had no choice but take the instructions because none of us was ready to retake the unit. We were however left wondering what the institutions' examination office had been doing the whole semester instead of printing, packaging and securing the examination papers. The possibility of some student's misinterpreting the dictation and answering their own questions, was real, thereby compromising the true meaning of exams.*

The data therefore suggests that students have lower perceptions of the quality of curriculum evaluation approaches in peace and security studies in Kenyan Universities. The findings echo the arguments of Allan et al. (2009). that student's positive perceptions of effective teaching and learning are determined by, among others, clarity in evaluation and assessment procedures. The low perceptions of the use of various modes of assessment is also consistent with the findings of Sambell et al. (1997) that many students do not

favour the normal' or traditional assessment methods such as essays and multiple choice questions but new forms of assessment such as simulations. They feel that the traditional methods have a detrimental effect on the learning process. To them, exams should have little to do with the more challenging task of trying to make sense and understand a subject but with its practical application. Mc Neil, (1996) equally argues that the evaluation and assessment of the social reconstructionist curriculum should be broad-based and encompass examining student ability to articulate problems, produce solutions, reconceptualise their world outlook and take initiative towards solving a problem. The evaluation should focus on the effect of the curriculum upon a community, possibly through institution to community or industry linkages. Similarly, Struyven et al. (2005) also found that students hold very strong views about the use of different assessment and evaluation formats. On the same matter, Van Oord (2008) equally found that a less conventional mode of assessment, that is, a research project, is preferred in the International Baccalaureate (IB) Diploma programme. In this method, students present the findings of their project to peers.

The lowest mean score for item 85 (Mean= 2.2303) focusing on prompt marking of examinations and delivery of immediate feedback suggest minimal continuous evaluation engagements between the student and the lecturers, which contrasts with Mc Neil, (1996:9-11) that evaluation and assessment of the humanistic curriculum should emphasize process (formative evaluation) rather than product (summative evaluation) and the focus of the lecturers, during this process is in monitoring student progress through continuous engagements or seeking immediate feedback at the end of each engagement in order to improve curriculum delivery. The lack of skilful assessment procedures, which UNICEF (2000) underscores as key in defining of quality education, could perhaps be the influence

behind the students' low perception of the quality of curriculum evaluation in the peace and security studies programmes in Kenyan universities.

5.6 Students' perceptions of the Relevance and Design of the Content of the Programmes in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities

The perception of students concerning the relevance and design of the content of the programmes in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities was measured through two constructs: programme relevance, which encompasses the service quality dimension of *reliability* and programme design, which encompasses the dimension of *responsiveness.* Data on programme relevance is presented on Table 16. It was measured through a total of eight variables focusing on importance of the course; students' happiness with the course; relevance to future employment; student satisfaction with academic progress, performance and accomplishments; relevance of content to course descriptions; and the contemporary nature of content.

**Table 16: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students'
perceptions of Relevance of the Programmes in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan
Universities**

S/N	Quality Attribute Programme Relevance	Total	Frequency and Percentage (%)						Mean Score	SD
			Low	%	Mod	%	High	%		
93	The core courses in this programme are important to me	152	1	0.7	11	7.2	140	92.1	2.9145	0.30327
94	My chosen field of specialization makes me happy	152	4	2.6	12	7.9	136	89.5	2.8684	0.40988
95	The contents of the courses in this programme are relevant to my future employment	152	6	3.9	16	10.5	130	85.5	2.8158	0.48036
96	I am satisfied with my intellectual development at this institution	152	7	4.6	15	9.9	130	85.5	2.8092	0.49812
97	I am proud of my accomplishments at this University	152	7	4.6	18	11.8	127	83.6	2.7895	0.50992
98	The actual content of the courses corresponds to their descriptions in the synopsis	152	4	2.6	31	20.4	117	77.0	2.7434	0.49496
99	I have performed well academically as I anticipated I would.	152	13	8.6	20	13.2	119	78.3	2.6974	0.62018
100	The content of the courses in this programme is current	152	10	6.6	31	20.4	111	73.0	2.6645	0.59739
	Overall Mean Score								2.7878	0.35965

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement;
SD= Standard Deviation

Table 16 shows that highest mean scores are for items 94-98 (Means= 2.9145, 2.8684,

2.8158, 2.8092, 2.7895 and 2.7434, respectively) focussing on the relevance of the course

to the student's personal, career and academic aspirations. This suggests that the students

highly perceive the courses as relevant to their ambitions and aspirations. The mean scores

are however lower for items 99-100 (Means=2.6974 and 2.6645) focusing on student self evaluation of academic achievement and the contemporary nature of the content, respectively. This suggests that even though the students highly regard the courses as relevant, they still have low perceptions of their academic achievements and content novelty. The overall mean score for the table, which is 2.7878 (SD=0.35965) indicates students' higher perceptions of course relevance.

These concerns were evident during interviews and FGDs. The students indicated that they highly appreciated the peace and security studies courses they were undertaking, as necessary for future promotion at the job place and career aspirations but recommended for revision of the syllabi of the courses to make them more current. In section 5.4, for instance, Okombe Nyadero, a student of criminology, decried the lack of the practical training, as affecting the relevance of the courses and further expressed fears that some of them would have to enrol for additional courses after graduation in order to be relevant and hence competitive in the job market.

Riegi Minyige, a degree student of peace and conflict studies, emphasised the need for linkage between the University and the industry in order to make the courses more relevant. The student noted:

> *These courses are quite relevant to our promotional needs at our work places. They also enhance our competences in handling certain assignments. The University, however, needs to strengthen linkage with the industries and job market and develop tailor made courses that are relevant to the needs of employers in terms of skills and competencies.*

Other students called for continuous revision of the programmes to match them with the current trends and dynamics. Thuru Loyiengo', a degree student of armed conflict and peace studies, remarked as follows:

It is my submission that some aspects of the course we are undertaking are more of history than conflict and peace studies. I would urge the department to make a comparative assessment with other universities offering the same course and update it accordingly. The University should also revise all the units offered to ensure that they are all current and fit well in the degree programmes offered.

Table 17 presents data on student' perception of the design of the peace and security studies programme. It was measured through a total of eight variables (items 102-109) which included the place of student research; adequacy of content; interrelatedness of material; difficulty level of content; flexibility of syllabus; quality and design of practical training and course duration.

**Table 17: Frequency, Percentage, Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students'
perceptions of the Design of the Programmes in Peace and Security Studies in
Kenyan Universities**

S/N	Quality Attribute Programme Design	Total	Low	%	Mod	%	High	%	Mean Score	SD
101	The courses in this programme encourage students to do research to prove certain facts.	152	10	6.6	24	15.8	118	77.6	2.7105	0.58266
102	The content of the courses in this programme is adequate.	152	10	6.6	28	18.4	114	75.0	2.6842	0.59156
103	The degree of inter relatedness of the material covered in this programme is consistently high.	152	9	5.9	34	22.4	109	71.7	2.6579	0.58802
104	The difficulty level of the content of the courses in this programme is suitable to my level of ability.	152	10	6.6	33	21.7	109	71.7	2.6513	0.60088
105	The time available for this course is adequate	152	17	11.2	21	13.8	114	75.0	2.6382	0.67647
106	The course syllabus is flexible and accommodates students opinion	152	14	9.2	34	22.4	104	68.4	2.5921	0.65463
107	The quality of practical content in the programme is good	152	19	12.5	25	16.4	108	71.1	2.5855	0.70424
108	The practical training in this programme is well planned and beneficial	152	25	16.4	29	19.1	98	64.5	2.4803	0.76314
Overall Mean Score									**2.6231**	**0.43204**

Key: **Low**= Lower Agreement; **Mod** = Moderate Agreement; **High** = Higher Agreement;
SD= Standard Deviation

Table 17 indicates that the highest mean (Mean= 2.7105) is for item No. 101 focusing on

the importance given to research. The mean scores however tend to reduce for items 102-

108, (Means= 2.6842, 2.6579, 2.6513, 2.6382, 2.5921, 2.5855 and 2.4803, respectively)

focusing on adequacy, course duration, coherence, difficulty level of the content, flexibility

of the syllabus and practical training. This suggests that even though students highly

perceive research undertakings as an integral part of the programme, they have low

perceptions of the other aspects of course design. In particular, the data suggest that the students perceive the programmes as rigid and less effective in delivering practical training. The overall mean score of 2.6231 with SD of 0.43204 reflects students' moderate perception of the design of peace and security academic programmes.

Data collected from the interviews and FGDs, however, highlighted concerns among the students with the design of the peace and security studies programmes. The concerns were on timetabling, practical training, credit transfer and content integration.

On time tabling, student's expressed the need for a flexible and comprehensive timetable that is responsive to their status as day scholars. Laini Angwang'o, a student of armed conflict and peace studies, had this to say:

> The University should ensure that during time tabling, full information concerning all the course units offered in the department and when they are offered, is availed to the students in time so that students can make informed choices concerning which ones to register for. Students have been experiencing problems with some units which are only offered at certain times, since it is hard to plan when to take them. This interferes with students' learning. The department should also try as much as possible to at least ensure that all units are offered within the same geographical location, especially in the main campus, to avoid inconveniences that arise due to distance problems. Lessons that are scheduled very early in the morning or late in the evening should stop because not all students are boarding in the college.

The students further decried the low regard for practical training by the institutions. Apoda Nyaligunga, a degree student of disaster management, had this to say:

> The University should however facilitate more laboratory facilities to enable students conduct their practical activities more easily. Similarly, internships and practical lessons need to be offered promptly and should be organized according to ones' area of specialization and not just for the general course.

On curriculum integration and credit transfer, the students called for revision of the repetitive sections of the syllabus and introduction of new content as the courses progress

to advanced years. They also expressed their desire to be allowed to transfer some credits, especially when one proceeds from a diploma to a degree course in the same University. This would shorten the duration one takes to complete a degree course, as duplication of content would be minimised. Other students expressed the need for concentrations, especially in the criminal justice courses.

The overall high mean score for Tables 15 (Mean=2.7878; SD=0.35965) focusing on the relevance of the peace and security studies academic programmes, echo the arguments of Shapiro (1987) that the key concern of quality education should be on participation, integration, relevance, self and comprehensive student experience rather than acquisition of fragmented blocks of knowledge. Yuskel (2010, p 3-4), similarly, emphasizes that quality HE should be characterized by flexibility, inclusiveness, collaboration, authenticity and relevance.

The high mean score for item 101 on the role of research in the peace and security studies programmes (Mean=2.7105), however, contrasts with Adolf (2010) that one of the challenges facing higher education in security studies is lack of adequate research focusing on security. The author argues that majority of the graduate thesis and doctoral dissertations across the US are on a wide range of academic disciplines including criminal justice, business and education, with security focus only appearing as collateral. This study did not delve deep into understanding the details of the research undertakings, but the students reported carrying out research on topics of their choice, but which are related to the courses they are undertaking. But as Adolf admits, this trend suggests a journey towards the right direction for security studies. This study still agrees with Adolf on the

need to harmonise the diverse interests of the researchers as the search for a firm theoretical foundation for security studies intensifies (Adolf, 2010).

The low mean score for item 106 'course syllabus is flexible and accommodates students opinion' (Mean=2.5921) coupled with students concerns about the rigidity and inflexibility of the programmes, suggests the need for the institutions to involve students more in curriculum development. To this end, Yuskel (2010) has advocated for a 'negotiated curriculum', which increases the students' role in curriculum decision making, and consequently enhances the ideals of a humanistic curriculum. Through negotiation with the educators, students are able to mould some components of the curriculum according to their expectations, thereby creating individualized education and overcoming the short comings of a general training based on assumptions.

The low regard for practical training as indicated in items 107- 108 (Means=2.5855 and 2.4803, respectively) are in contrast with Jenkins (2013) who outlines the key building blocks of a strong peace studies programme as, among others, a transformative peace learning methodology with focus on generating knowledge which may empower the leaner towards social reconstruction. To this end, Jenkins recommends for the curriculum delivery to adopt holistic approach in presentation of content but with bias towards social reconstruction and formation of desired human relationships. Firer (2008) has equally underscored the main models of peace education as encompassing practical training, especially the *non-formal contact model*, which emphasizes the use of experiential learning to bring together groups, who are in conflict to participate in joint social activities of diverse nature.

The overall low mean score for Table 16 (Mean=2.6231; SD =0.43204) on programme design resonates with the arguments of Adolf (2010) on lack of accreditation for security studies programmes. Adolf argues that with the rapid expansion of security education, HE institutions have continued to admit students from diverse fields who may be interested in general security degree programmes. However, there is no form of accreditation to validate the content of the programmes, making it difficult to verify whether the existing college security programmes are of standard quality. No security studies body similar to the American Psychological Association or the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business or; Association of Collegiate Business Schools and Programmes, exist in Kenya to verify the security studies courses to ensure that they meet the required standards. The low perceptions further support Adolf's position that students of security studies have no instrument to measure the value of security programmes in order to make informed choices concerning which one to enrol for. This scenario is equally true for peace studies in Kenyan universities. Thus, even though the students found the programmes to be highly relevant to their professional and career needs, their low perceptions of the designs suggest that the need to improve on the quality of the courses.

5.6 Significant Differences Between Students' perceptions of the Quality of Teaching and Learning in the Peace and Security Studies Programmes and their Demographic Variables

To answer this research question, an Independent Samples T- test was performed on mean scores of all the demographic variables of the respondents (indicated in Table 4) as linked to each construct. This was to test whether there was significant difference in the means between students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies programmes and their demographic variables.

The Test involved Levene' Test for Equality of Variance (EV) since the sample sizes for the groups being compared were not equal and it could not be appropriate to assume equality of variance. Elliot and Woodward (2007) explain that where the p- value (significance level) of Levene's Test is less than the critical p-value of 0.05, equality of variances is not assumed (EVNA) and where it is more than the critical value, equality of variances is assumed (EVA). The confidence interval of the difference is at 95%. The results are presented in Tables 17, 18, 19 and 20.

Table 18 which follows, presents data on the significance difference between students perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies programmes and their gender.

Table 18: Significant Difference between Students' perceptions of the quality of Teaching and Learning in the Peace and Security Studies Programmes and their Gender

S/N	Construct	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Sig. (p) of Levene's Test for EV	Sig. (p) EVA	Sig. (p) EVNA
A	Teaching and Learning Resources	Male	105	2.3202	0.5278	0.007	0.170	0.205
		Female	47	2.1835	0.6431			
B	Lecturer Appearance	Male	105	2.7889	0.3484	0.104	0.450	0.497
		Female	47	2.7376	0.4594			
C	Lecturer Helpfulness	Male	105	2.7714	0.3878	0.002	0.223	0.288
		Female	47	2.6755	0.5564			
D	Lecturer Caring Disposition	Male	105	2.5401	0.5253	0.085	0.202	0.227
		Female	47	2.4164	0.6008			
E	Lecturer Friendliness	Male	105	2.5122	0.4773	0.594	0.588	0.597
		Female	47	2.4657	0.5085			
F	Lecturer Communication Skills	Male	105	2.7079	0.3983	0.939	0.654	0.649
		Female	47	2.6619	0.4066			
G	Lecturer Reliability	Male	105	2.4468	0.5020	0.720	0.665	0.654
		Female	47	2.4096	0.4587			
H	Lecturer Credibility	Male	105	2.3683	0.4150	0.636	0.627	0.633
		Female	47	2.4043	0.4344			
I	Teaching Methodology	Male	105	2.6183	0.4131	0.414	0.910	0.914
		Female	47	2.6268	0.4649			
J	Assessment Tools and Procedures	Male	105	2.6422	0.3983	0.061	0.225	0.195
		Female	47	2.7234	0.3336			
K	Fairness and Feedback	Male	105	2.4460	0.5045	0.581	0.533	0.551
		Female	47	2.5036	0.5663			
L	Programme Relevance	Male	105	2.7929	0.3535	0.643	0.798	0.803
		Female	47	2.7766	0.3768			
M	Programme Design	Male	105	2.6369	0.4037	0.200	0.601	0.616
		Female	47	2.5984	0.4498			

Key: N= Sample Size, **EV**= Equality of variances; **SD**= Standard Deviation, **EVA**= Equality of Variances Assumed; **EVNA**= Equality of Variances Not Assumed; **Sig.** = Significance Level

Table 18 indicates that an independent sample student – t test was performed using two assumptions: equal variances and unequal variances. In both cases, the mean scores for all the constructs A-M, based on the gender factor, were not significantly different. Even

for Construct A (Quality of teaching and learning resources**),** where Levene's Test for EV was significant (p=0.007), the difference in means was not significant (p=0.205, at EVNA) The implication is that both male and female students have the similar perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies programmes offered in Kenyan universities.

Table 19 presents data on the significant difference between Students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning and the category of University in which they undertake their studies.

Table 19: Significant Difference between Students' perceptions of the Quality of Teaching and Learning in the Peace and Security Studies and the Category of University in which they Undertake the Studies

S/N	Construct	Category	N	Mean	SD	Sig. (p) of Levene's Test for EV	Sig. (p)	
							EVA	EVNA
A	Teaching and Learning Resources	Public	118	2.1833	0.5611	0.0330	0.0000	0.0000
		Private	34	2.6066	0.4617			
B	Lecturer Appearance	Public	118	2.7444	0.4069	0.0150	0.0870	0.0390
		Private	34	2.8726	0.2815			
C	Lecturer Helpfulness	Public	118	2.6907	0.4834	0.0000	0.0080	0.0000
		Private	34	2.9191	0.2107			
D	Lecturer Caring Disposition	Public	118	2.4479	0.5732	0.0210	0.0240	0.0090
		Private	34	2.6891	0.4198			
E	Lecturer Friendliness	Public	118	2.4736	0.4910	0.6620	0.2550	0.2430
		Private	34	2.5817	0.4651			
F	Lecturer Communication Skills	Public	118	2.6620	0.4310	0.0030	0.0680	0.0150
		Private	34	2.8039	0.2401			
G	Lecturer Reliability	Public	118	2.3927	0.5134	0.0020	0.0440	0.0150
		Private	34	2.5833	0.3541			
H	Lecturer Credibility	Public	118	2.3927	0.5134	0.0000	0.0010	0.0000
		Private	34	2.8289	0.2156			
I	Teaching Methodology	Public	118	2.5789	0.4543	0.0000	0.0240	0.0040
		Private	34	2.7670	0.2812			
J	Assessment Tools and Procedures	Public	118	2.6356	0.4022	0.0020	0.0550	0.0190
		Private	34	2.7773	0.2683			
K	Fairness and Feedback	Public	118	2.3814	0.5311	0.0110	0.0000	0.0000
		Private	34	2.7500	0.3788			
L	Programme Relevance	Public	118	2.7659	0.3831	0.0560	0.1620	0.0830
		Private	34	2.8640	0.2526			
M	Programme Design	Public	118	2.5911	0.4393	0.0220	0.0620	0.0250
		Private	34	2.7426	0.3076			

Key: N= Sample Size, **EV**= Equality of variances; **SD**= Standard Deviation, **EVA**= Equality of Variances Assumed; **EVNA**= Equality of Variances Not Assumed; **Sig.**= Significance Level

Table 19 indicates that from the independent sample student – t test, Levene's Test for equality of variance (EV) was significant (p<0.0500) for all constructs A-M apart from E

(p=0.6620), L (p=0.0560) and M (p=0.570). There is also a significant difference in all mean scores for all constructs A- M, apart from E, (p=0.2550,) and L (p=0.1620). The implication is that students from both public and private universities hold different perceptions regarding the quality of teaching and learning resources, lecturer appearance, lecturer helpfulness, lecturer caring disposition, lecturer communication skills, lecturer reliability, lecturer credibility, lecturer teaching competence, assessment tools and procedures, fairness and feedback and, programme design.

The details of the differences in perceptions are as follows:

a. Public University students' perceptions (Mean=2.1833, SD 0.5611) of construct A (*quality of teaching and learning resources*) are significantly lower ($p< 0.0100$) than the perceptions of private University students (Mean=2.6066, SD=0.4617).

b. Private University students' perceptions (Mean=2.8726, SD=0.2815) of construct B (*lecturer appearance)* are significantly higher ($p= 0.0390$) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean=2.7444, SD= 0.4069).

c. Private University students' perceptions (Mean=2.9191, SD=0.2107) of construct C (*lecturer helpfulness)* are significantly higher ($p< 0.0100$) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean=2.6907, SD=0.4834).

d. Public University students' perceptions (Mean=2.6891, SD=0.4198) of construct D (*lecturer caring disposition*) are significantly lower ($p= 0.0090$) than the perceptions of private University student (Mean=2.4479, SD=0.5732).

e. Private University students' perceptions (Mean= 2.8039, SD=0.2401) of construct F (*lecturer communication skills*) are significantly higher ($p= 0.0150$) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean=2.6620, SD= 0.4310).

f. Public University students' perceptions (Mean=2.3927 SD= 0.5134) of construct G (*lecturer reliability)* are significantly lower (p= 0.0150) than the perceptions of private University students (Mean= 2.5833, SD=0.3541).

g. Private University students' perceptions (Mean= 2.8289, SD=0.2156) of construct H (*lecturer credibility)* are significantly higher (p< 0.0100) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean=2.3927; SD= 0.5134).

h. Private University students' perceptions (Mean=2.7670, SD=0.2812 of construct I, (*teaching methodology)* are significantly higher (p=0.00400) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean=2.5789; SD= 0.4543).

i. Private University students' perceptions (Mean=2.7773; SD=0.2683) of construct J (*quality of assessment tools and procedures*) are significantly higher (p= 0.0190) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean=2.6356; SD= 0.4022).

j. Private University students' perceptions (Mean=2.7500; SD=0.3788) of construct K (*fairness of examinations and handling of feedback)* are significantly higher (p< 0.0100) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean=2.3814; SD= 0.5311).

k. Private University students' perceptions (Mean= 2.7426, SD=0.3076) of construct M (*programme design*) are significantly higher (p= 0.0480) than the perceptions of public University students (Mean= 2.5911, SD= 0.4393).

Table 20 presents data on the significant difference between Students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning and their employment status.

Table 20: Significant Difference Between Students' perceptions of the Quality of Teaching and Learning in the Peace and Security Studies Programmes and their Employment Status

S/N	Construct	Employment Status	N	Mean	SD	Sig. (p) of Levene's Test for EV	Sig. (p) EVA	Sig. (p) EVNA
A	Teaching and Learning Resources	Employed	56	2.1786	0.5276	0.1210	0.099	0.091
		Not Employed	96	2.3359	0.5841			
B	Lecturer Appearance	Employed	56	2.8066	0.3434	0.1280	0.414	0.393
		Not Employed	96	2.7535	0.4082			
C	Lecturer Helpfulness	Employed	56	2.7634	0.3644	0.0290	0.650	0.625
		Not Employed	96	2.7292	0.4903			
D	Lecturer Caring Disposition	Employed	56	2.5510	0.5390	0.2150	0.403	0.399
		Not Employed	96	2.4732	0.5582			
E	Lecturer Friendliness	Employed	56	2.5813	0.4141	0.0100	0.106	0.087
		Not Employed	96	2.4491	0.5191			
F	Lecturer Communication Skills	Employed	56	2.7103	0.3674	0.2380	0.697	0.687
		Not Employed	96	2.6840	0.4196			
G	Lecturer Reliability	Employed	56	2.4598	0.4733	0.5230	0.638	0.633
		Not Employed	96	2.4210	0.4980			
H	Lecturer Credibility	Employed	56	2.5844	0.4412	0.2980	0.818	0.815
		Not Employed	96	2.6023	0.4699			
I	Teaching Methodology	Employed	56	2.6415	0.4034	0.1780	0.653	0.645
		Not Employed	96	2.6090	0.4437			
J	Assessment Tools and Procedures	Employed	56	2.6837	0.3869	0.5210	0.686	0.688
		Not Employed	96	2.6577	0.3780			
K	Fairness and Feedback	Employed	56	2.4613	0.4638	0.0650	0.964	0.962
		Not Employed	96	2.4653	0.5572			
L	Programme Relevance	Employed	56	2.8795	0.2036	0.0000	0.016	0.005
		Not Employed	96	2.7344	0.4169			
M	Programme Design	Employed	56	2.7232	0.2877	0.0000	0.026	0.012
		Not Employed	96	2.5677	0.4691			

Key: N= Sample Size, **EV**= Equality of variances; **SD**= Standard Deviation, **EVA**= Equality of Variances Assumed; **EVNA**= Equality of Variances Not Assumed; **Sig.**= Significance Level

Table 20 indicates that from the independent sample student – t test performed at two assumptions: equal variance and unequal variances, there was no significant difference in the mean scores for all the constructs A-K, based on the occupation factor. However, there

was significant difference in the mean scores for constructs L (Programme relevance) and M (Programme design). The implication is that both employed and unemployed students have similar perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning resources, lecturers, teaching methodology and course evaluation procedures, in the teaching and learning in the peace and security studies programmes offered in Kenyan universities. However their perceptions differ on the relevance (p=0.005) and design (p=0.012) of the programmes.

In this case, employed Students' perceptions (Mean=2.8795; SD=0.2036) of construct L, *programme relevance*, are significantly higher (p=0.005) than the perceptions of unemployed students (Mean=2.7344; SD =0.4169). Similarly, employed Students' perceptions (Mean= 2.7232, SD =0.2877) of construct M, *Programme design,* is significantly higher *(p=* 0.012) than the perceptions unemployed students (Mean=2.5677, 0.4691).

Table 21 presents data on the significant difference between Students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning and the type of course being pursued.

Table 21: Significant Difference between Students' perceptions of the quality of Teaching and Learning in the Peace and Security Studies Programmes and the type of Course Pursued

S/N	Construct	Type of Course	N	Mean	SD	Sig. (p) of Levene's Test for EV	Sig (p)	
							EVA	EVNA
A	Quality of Teaching and Learning Resources	Degree	107	2.2874	0.5572	0.4110	0.7530	0.7600
		Diploma	45	2.2556	0.5965			
B	Lecturer Appearance	Degree	107	2.7866	0.3485	0.0790	0.5050	0.5530
		Diploma	45	2.7407	0.4641			
C	Lecturer Helpfulness	Degree	107	2.7290	0.4505	0.8100	0.5880	0.5860
		Diploma	45	2.7722	0.4422			
D	Lecturer Caring Disposition	Degree	107	2.6947	0.3885	0.3460	0.9600	0.9620
		Diploma	45	2.6914	0.4309			
E	Lecturer Friendliness	Degree	107	2.4787	0.4740	0.5710	0.4570	0.4730
		Diploma	45	2.5432	0.5159			
F	Lecturer Communication Skills	Degree	107	2.6947	0.3885	0.5600	0.9630	0.9640
		Diploma	45	2.6914	0.4309			
G	Lecturer Reliability	Degree	107	2.4276	0.4908	0.7340	0.7640	0.7630
		Diploma	45	2.4537	0.4858			
H	Lecturer Credibility	Degree	107	2.5990	0.4480	0.6820	0.8920	0.8960
		Diploma	45	2.5879	0.4867			
I	Teaching Methodology	Degree	107	2.6161	0.4352	0.6430	0.8300	0.8270
		Diploma	45	2.6325	0.4158			
J	Assessment Tools and Procedures	Degree	107	2.6769	0.3751	0.2390	0.6320	0.6400
		Diploma	45	2.6444	0.3955			
K	Fairness and Feedback	Degree	107	2.4626	0.5287	0.5530	0.9650	0.9650
		Diploma	45	2.4667	0.5157			
L	Programme Relevance	Degree	107	2.7921	0.3429	0.4770	0.8240	0.8350
		Diploma	45	2.7778	0.4005			
M	Programme Design	Degree	107	2.6495	0.3841	0.0620	0.2650	0.3140
		Diploma	45	2.5667	0.4875			

Key: N= Sample Size, **EV**= Equality of variances; **SD**= Standard Deviation, **EVA**= Equality of Variances Assumed; **EVNA**= Equality of Variances Not Assumed; **Sig.**= Significance Level

Table 21 equally indicates that an independent sample student – t test was performed using two assumptions: equal variances and unequal variances. In both cases, the differences in

the mean scores for all the constructs A-M, based on the type of course being pursued, are not significant.

The findings cane be interpreted to mean that private universities are endowed with better teaching and learning facilities, higher quality lecturers, effective teaching methodologies, better curriculum evaluation procedures and well designed academic programmes. Therefore they are better in delivering quality teaching and learning in peace and security studies than public universities. These finding are in concordance with Gudo, et al., (2011a), who similarly concluded that private universities in Kenya are doing better in guaranteeing quality education than public universities due to better physical facilities and effective engagement of the stakeholders in the management of the institutions.

However, the findings that there are no significant differences in students' perceptions in terms of the gender variable is in contrast with Hamid and Zaidatol (2004), who found the gender factor to be significant in a survey on students' Perception of the Quality of Teaching and Learning in Business Studies Programmes in public universities in Malaysia. This could be attributed to the differences in the academic programmes under investigation.

The significant differences in the perceptions of the student in terms of occupation suggest the deficiency of the peace and security studies programmes in meeting students' individual needs. The programmes appear to favour more those students who are already employed than those who have not been employed, hence the need to improve the designs of the programmes to suit both categories of students.

5.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings, analysed, interpreted and discussed the data as per the research questions focusing on students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya. The main question of the study was what the students' overall perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies in Kenyan universities is. The sub questions of the study have been answered under the following sub-headings:

a. Students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya.

b. Students' perceptions of the quality of lecturers in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya.

c. Students' perceptions of the quality of teaching methodology in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya.

d. Students' perceptions of the quality of curriculum evaluation approaches in the peace and security studies in universities in Kenya.

e. Students' perceptions of the design and relevance of the content of the programmes in peace and security studies in universities in Kenya.

f. Differences between the students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies and their demographic variables.

The data has been presented in tables where it has been analysed by frequency, percentages, mean scores, standard deviations and levels of significance. The data has also been presented in the form of written narratives and analysed by themes and categories. The discussions of the findings have equally involved triangulation of data with the already available literature. The next and final chapter of this study presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

The aim of this study was to determine students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies in Kenyan universities. The data presented in Chapter Five has focused on students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning in such areas as facilities, lecturers, teaching and learning methodology, curriculum evaluation approaches and, programme relevance and design. The data has also presented the significant differences in the perceptions based on student's demographic variables.

The main question of the study was: what is the students' overall perception of the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security studies in Kenyan universities?

The following were the general objectives of the study:

a. To examine students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya.

b. To explore the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of lecturers in the peace and security studies offered in universities s in Kenya

c. To determine students' perception of the quality of teaching methodology in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya.

d. To identify the perceptions of the students regarding the quality of curriculum evaluation approaches in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya.

e. To establish the extent to which quality teaching and learning is affected by design and relevance of the content of the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya?

f. To establish whether significant differences exist between the students' perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in the peace and security studies offered in universities in Kenya and their demographic variables.

The summary, conclusions and recommendations outline the fulfilment of these objectives. The last part will be a discussion of ethical considerations and suggestions for further research in the area of study.

6.1. Summary of the Findings

The following are the main findings of the study:

6.1.1 Quality of teaching and learning facilities

The study found that students hold low perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning facilities in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities (5.2). They perceive the library as inadequately equipped, lecture halls as crowded, laboratories as non-existent, and electronic access to information as unfavourable. The physical facilities are also inconveniencing and poorly maintained. Further, the quality of support personnel in charge of the facilities is relatively low. The poor state of the facilities therefore negatively affects the delivery of effective theoretical and practical teaching and learning.

6.1.2 Quality of lecturers

The study found that students have low perceptions of the quality of the lecturers in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities. Even though they have high perceptions of lecturer appearance and moderate perceptions of lecturer helpfulness, their perceptions of lecturer caring disposition, friendliness, competence, reliability and credibility are

considerably low. Nevertheless, they perceive the lecturers as more impressionistic than cognitively and professionally oriented.

6.1.3 Quality of Teaching and Learning Methods

The study found that students have low perceptions of the quality of teaching and learning methodology. They perceive it as characterised more by minimal practical training, mono-centric teaching methods and loss of pedagogical momentum. Nonetheless, the students perceive the teaching methodology as featuring strong introductory and lesson development skills.

6.1.4 Quality of Curriculum Evaluation Approaches

The study found that students have low perceptions of the quality of curriculum evaluation in relation to fairness and management of feedback. They also perceive evaluation as marred by corruption and bureaucratic delays. In addition, they have low perceptions of the quality of assessment tools and procedures, which they see as lacking variety, constrain students when preparing for exams and are poorly administered.

6.1.5 Course Design and Relevance

The study found that students have high perceptions of the relevance of the peace and security studies academic programmes but low perceptions of the design of the same programmes. They perceive the programmes as rigid and less effective in delivering practical training.

6.1.6 Differences in Perceptions based on Students' Demographic Variables

There are significant differences in the perceptions of students in relation to category of University, and student's employment status. Private University students had significantly higher perceptions of teaching and learning facilities, lecturer quality, teaching methodology, curriculum evaluation procedures and design of academic programmes. Therefore, they appeared better in delivering quality teaching and learning in peace and security studies than public universities. Similarly, employed students hold significantly higher perceptions of programme relevance and design than unemployed students.

6.2 Conclusions

From the above findings, the study concludes that the overall quality of teaching and learning services delivered by Kenyan universities in the peace and security academic programmes is low. The services are therefore not tangible, reliable, responsive, assuring and empathetic enough to highly satisfy the students as customers of HE. Particularly, students perceive the qualities of teaching and learning facilities, lecturers, teaching methodology, curriculum evaluation and programme design as low in delivering the curriculum. Whereas private universities are better endowed in terms of these factors and are likely to deliver better quality teaching and learning in peace and security studies, the facilities in public universities remain in a largely unfavourable state.

It can also be concluded from the research findings that continued application of pedagogical strategies which mix employed and non- employed students under the same programme are disadvantageous to either party, due to the student's heterogonous characteristics. These groups of students bring varied experiences and backgrounds into the learning platform; hence, their learning needs and aspirations remain different. In this

context, it would be crucial if their input in the development of peace and security studies curriculum is accommodated, in efforts to improve the relevance and effectiveness of the programmes.

The study further concludes that the delivery of effective teaching and learning in peace and security studies requires a multiplicity of appearance, cognitive, psychomotor and other professional competencies. These competencies are effective in a multilateral pedagogical atmosphere, where lecturers significantly maintain the teaching and learning momentum and emphasize on practical training. The low perceptions of the affective competencies, especially in such constructs as lecturer caring disposition, friendliness, reliability, and credibility suggests that the peace and security studies programmes are heavily tilted towards academic rationalism. This situation continues to negatively affect the delivery and acquisition of the humanistic and social reconstructionist ideals, which have been described as the building blocks of HE in peace and security studies globally.

The other conclusion is that practical training remains key in peace and security studies programmes. Whereas students regard the practical aspects of the course as necessary in making them competitive in their careers, more exposure to the practical realities of security management and peace building, through appropriate laboratories, projects, field excursions and internships, is vital in blending theoretical grounding with hands on experience, thus improving the quality of the programmes.

The final conclusion is that unless the teaching and learning situation is urgently improved, the provision of effective peace and security services to the Kenyan public will not be achieved and this scenario will significantly impact on the peace and security objectives of

Kenya's vision 2030. Similarly, as Kenya continues to remain the intellectual hub of East African region, the production of competent peace and security personnel for the region, within the context of humanistic and transformative paradigm, will continue to be elusive and conflict and insecurity in the region will continue to escalate.

6.3 Recommendations

The study therefore recommends as follows:

a. Kenyan universities need to mobilize resources to improve the quality of their teaching and learning resources, with particular emphasis on library books, support personnel, lecture halls, information communication technology, forensic laboratories and virtual peace laboratories. Even though some of the facilities such as laboratories may be difficult to establish at once, the mobilization of these resources could be done in collaboration with the existing peace and security institutions such as the National Police Service and the Directorate of Criminal Investigations whose forensic laboratories, for instance, could be availed for teaching and learning purposes to universities, which lack such resources.

b. Kenyan universities need to intensify practical training in peace and security studies by establishing appropriate facilities and mainstreaming field excursions and internships as integral components of the programmes. Universities should send their students to police stations, correction institutions, criminal investigation bureaus and law courts for internships in order to bridge the gaps that may exist between theory and practice.

c. Kenyan universities need to organize in-service courses, with strong emphasis on affective competencies, for lecturers in peace and security studies to attune them to the latest pedagogical skills in peace and security studies. Such courses should also focus on other teaching methods such as tutorials, projects, problem solving, simulations, and

demonstrations to replace the widely adopted lecture method. To this end, periodical seminars and workshops on methods of instruction would help improve the skills of those lecturers facing challenges in delivery of instruction.

d. There is need for Kenyan universities to design peace and security academic programmes, which appeal to both employed and non-employed students due to their varied backgrounds. Such courses could involve core units, which both groups may undertake together and optional units, which each group of students could choose from depending on their needs and demographics.

e. There is need for Kenyan universities to improve the quality of their curriculum evaluation approaches by instituting appropriate policies to improve examination setting, administration, marking, grading and communication of feedback. Even though examination offices are already established in all universities in Kenya, their role in curriculum evaluation needs to be thoroughly evaluated with a view to strengthening them in meeting their mandates. This includes minimising the bureaucracies, which surround the release of students' examination results.

f. The universities should institute other assessment methods such as oral presentations and practical evaluation in order to minimise overreliance on examinations alone in evaluating students. This would include making practical assessment mandatory during student's practicum and attracting not less than 30% of the total marks for the course.

g. The CUE should carry out a re-evaluation of the peace and security studies programme with a view to developing effective quality assurance guidelines meant to improve their delivery, design and evaluation. Such policies should cover student practicum, curriculum review, course content, examinations and the mandatory basic teaching and

learning facilities and resources for the delivery of peace and security academic programmes.

6.4 Suggestions for Further Research

In its contributions to scholarship, this study is not the panacea to all knowledge gaps in HE in peace and security studies. Therefore, the following areas have been identified as potentially viable for further research.

a. There is need to investigate the perceptions of University administration and the academic staff regarding the quality of teaching and learning in peace and security studies.

b. The loss of pedagogical momentum has been outlined as prominent in HE in peace and security studies in Kenyan universities, but there is need to determine other factors contributing to this scenario in order to develop appropriate pedagogical remedies.

c. There is need for an impact study on the role of peace and security training in Kenyan universities in peace-building and security management in the East African region.

d. The practical training component of peace and security studies has been recommend as ideal but there is still need for further research on the various approaches that may be used to strengthen the component in its efforts to contribute to effective teaching and learning of peace and security studies in Kenyan universities.

6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented a summary of the research findings of the study as per the research questions. It has discussed the conclusions, which have been derived from the findings and given recommendatioins which can be used to improve the teaching and leanring of peace and security studies in Kenya. Finally, the chapter has suggested the areas that need futher research as far as HE in peace and security studies is concerned.

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APPENDIX I: STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Student,

Thank you for accepting to participate in this study.   The purpose of this questionnaire is to help the researcher collect some information about the quality of teaching and learning in the peace and security related course that you are pursuing in order to help your University/ College improve the course. You do **not** need to write your name anywhere on this questionnaire. The information you give will be treated confidentially. Your participation in this study is based on your willingness and no form of coercion should be used to make you a participant in this research. Please answer all the questions in the spaces provided by writing down your responses or checking (√) in the appropriate box.

SECTION A
BIO DATA
Kindly indicate the following:
- Category of University/ College (Public/Private)_____
- Course (Degree/ Diploma)_____
- Gender (Male/ Female) _____
- Occupation (if any)_____

SECTION B
The following table consists of five sections B1, B2, B3, B4 and B5. It comprises statements relating to certain aspects of teaching and learning situations. The adjacent columns are scoring columns whose values descend from 5-1. The attributes of the values are as follows:

5- Strongly Agree   **4**- Agree   **3**- Somewhat Agree   **2**-   Disagree   **1**-Strongly disagree

You are kindly requested to give your honest opinion, which best reflects the quality of teaching and learning in the course you are undertaking, as itemised in the table. Please score by ticking (√) in the appropriate column the value attribute which corresponds to the statement which best reflects your opinion.

Example:
*Scoring: **5**- Strongly Agree; **4**- Agree; **3**- Somewhat Agree; **2**- Disagree; **1**-Strongly disagree*

	QUALITY OF LECTURERS	SCORE				
	Lecturer Appearance:	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
1.	Lecturers show a positive attitude when teaching	√				
2.	Lecturers are well groomed		√			

NB: The scores indicate that the respondent Strongly Agrees (5) with statement No. 1 (Lecturers show a positive attitude when teaching) but only Agrees (4) with statement No. 2 (Lecturers are well groomed)

Kindly use the same format. **This questionnaire has five pages.**

Please Turn Over

Scoring: **5**- *Strongly Agree;* **4**- *Agree;* **3**- *Somewhat Agree;* **2**- *Disagree;* **1**-*Strongly disagree*

	QUALITY ATTRIBUTE	SCORE				
B1: QUALITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING RESOURCES		**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**
1.	Lecturers use up-to-date teaching materials and equipment.					
2.	The lecture halls are visually appealing, adequate and comfortable					
3.	Physical facilities are convenient to students and available for use anytime					
4.	There is electronic access to relevant security studies information.					
5.	Computer laboratory is taken as an important asset.					
6.	Workshop/ Laboratory is fully equipped and up to date					
7.	Student library is adequate and equipped with up to date materials					
8.	The library staff is professional					
B2: QUALITY OF LECTURERS						
	Lecturer Appearance:					
1.	Lecturers show a positive attitude when teaching					
2.	Lecturers are well groomed					
3.	Lecturers are courteous when interacting with students					
4.	Lecturers blend well as a person as well as a teacher					
5.	Lecturers respect students as individuals					
6.	Lecturers' voice level, rate of speaking and behaviour are conducive to learning					
	Lecturer Helpfulness					
7.	Lecturers provide answers to questions that encourage students' progress					
8.	Lecturers sustain feedback to questions by probing, giving clues and allowing more time for response					
9.	Lecturers show willingness to help students learn					
10.	Lecturers exploit the use of various appropriate explanations to enable students understand a concept					
	Lecturer Caring Disposition					
11.	Lecturers are concerned about students' well being					
12.	Lectures recognize when students fail to comprehend lectures					
13.	Lecturers encourage students to ask questions					
14.	Lecturers are concerned about students' study problems					
15.	Lecturers are concerned about the progress of students in the courses they are studying					
16.	Lecturers assist students to be successful regardless of their background					
17.	Lecturers assist students to learn as much as they can					
	Lecturer Friendliness					
18.	Lecturers try to understand students' personal problems					
19.	Lecturers are concerned with the problem of students' absence					
20.	Lecturers are friendly with students					
21.	Lecturers encourage informal conversations with students					
22.	Lecturers are willing to meet students without appointments					
23.	Lecturers make students feel comfortable					
24.	Lecturers and students have mutual respect for one another					
25.	Lecturers respect all students regardless of who they are					
26.	Lecturers have excellent student-teacher rapport skills					

Scoring: **5**- *Strongly Agree;* **4**- *Agree;* **3**- *Somewhat Agree;* **2**- *Disagree;* **1**-*Strongly disagree*

QUALITY ATTRIBUTE		SCORE				
QUALITY OF LECTURERS		5	4	3	2	1
	Lecturer Communication Skills					
27.	Lecturers interact effectively with students					
28.	Lecturers are approachable for dialogues					
29.	Lecturers communicate fluently					
30.	Lecturers use simple language					
31.	Lecturers encourage two way communication with students					
32.	Lecturers are willing to accept students' views and comments					
33.	Lecturers allow students to interrupt during lectures					
34.	Lecturers have a sense of humour					
35.	Lecturers have good listening skills					
	Lecturer Reliability					
36.	Lecturers have teaching materials and equipment ready at the start of the lesson					
37.	Lecturers start and finish class on time					
38.	Lecturers are firm on the duration of time given to students to complete a task					
39.	Lecturers adhere to the policies and regulations prescribed for teaching					
40.	Lecturers follow planned lesson progression					
41.	Lecturers often make up classes earlier to the date of their absence					
42.	Lecturers make arrangements to replace classes missed on public holidays					
43.	Lecturers give students individual work when classes are cancelled					
44.	Lecturers are in the office regularly and not only on lecture days					
45.	Lecturers always walk around the class to monitor students' performance					
46.	Lecturers are prepared to discuss academic matters with students					
47.	Lecturers are prepared to carry out non-instructional duties					
	Lecturer Credibility					
48.	Lecturers have a professional background in peace and security which matches well with the subjects they are handling					
49.	Lecturers have a set of rules and procedures to handle routine classroom administrative matters					
50.	Lecturers have a set of rules and procedures to monitor students' level of verbal participation in the class					
51.	Lecturers stop inappropriate students' behaviour promptly and consistently					
52.	Lecturers frequently monitor the behaviour of students during class					
53.	Lecturers update records on students' performance accurately					
54.	Lecturers use sufficient materials to support instruction					
55.	Lecturers acknowledge students' response during lectures					
56.	Lecturers regularly improve on their teaching material					
57.	Lecturers are knowledgeable on the subject matter					
58.	Lecturers adequately prepare to teach					

Please Turn Over

Scoring: **5**- *Strongly Agree;* **4**- *Agree;* **3**- *Somewhat Agree;* **2**- *Disagree;* **1**-*Strongly disagree*

QUALITY ATTRIBUTE							
B3: QUALITY OF TEACHING METHODOLOGY		**SCORE**					
	Lecturer Teaching Competence	**5**	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	
1.	Lecturers introduce lessons when they begin teaching						
2.	Lecturers specify the learning objectives for every lesson						
3.	Lecturers provide suitable examples, demonstration and illustrations of concepts and skills						
4.	Lecturers assign tasks which students can complete with a high rate of success						
5.	Lecturers ask questions that are appropriate to the students' level of ability						
6.	Lecturers vary the pace of instructional activities						
7.	Lecturers make transitions between lessons and instructional activities						
8.	Lecturers make sure that instructions for assignments are clear						
9.	Lecturers summarize the main points at the end of each lesson						
10.	Lecturers are skilful in presenting their lessons						
11.	Lecturers stimulate students' thinking through problem solving techniques and asking challenging questions						
12.	Lecturers are competent in handling students' questions						
13.	The programme incorporates a variety of training methods to help students learn such as field trips, simulations etc.						
B4: QUALITY OF ASSESSMENT/COURSE EVALUATION							
Quality of Assessment Tools and Procedures							
1.	Students are given time to prepare adequately for the examinations.						
2.	Lecturers use oral, written and other forms of evaluation to assess students' progress.						
3.	The examinations are well invigilated.						
4.	Lecturers give freedom to students to choose their own group members when assigned tasks.						
5.	Lecturers prepare examination questions that cover the important aspects of the course.						
6.	Lectures give assessment tests suitable to level of students						
7.	Lecturers' examination questions are clear and fair.						
Fairness and Feedback							
8.	The administration takes students' opinion about the course seriously.						
9.	Lecturers mark examinations promptly and give students feedback immediately.						
10.	Lecturers' method of giving grades is consistent and clearly understood.						
11.	Lecturers are fair in grading students.						
12.	Lecturers set standards and due dates for assessment tests that are clear, fair and reasonable.						
13.	Lecturers treat all students fairly and in an equitable manner during assessment.						

Please Turn Over

Scoring: **5**- *Strongly Agree;* **4**- *Agree;* **3**- *Somewhat Agree;* **2**- *Disagree;* **1**-*Strongly disagree*

QUALITY ATTRIBUTE		SCORE				
B5: COURSE RELEVANCE AND DESIGN		5	4	3	2	1
Programme Relevance						
1.	The actual content of the courses corresponds to their descriptions in the synopsis					
2.	The content of the courses in this programme is current					
3.	I have performed well academically as I anticipated I would.					
4.	I am proud of my accomplishments at this University.					
5.	The contents of the courses in this programme are relevant to my future employment					
6.	I am satisfied with my intellectual development at this institution					
7.	My chosen field of specialization makes me happy					
8.	The core courses in this programme are important to me					
Programme Design						
9.	The courses in this programme encourage students to do research to prove certain facts.					
10.	The degree of inter relatedness of the material covered in this programme is consistently high.					
11.	The course syllabus is flexible and accommodates students opinion					
12.	The difficulty level of the content of the courses in this programme is suitable to my level of ability.					
13.	The practical training in this programme is well planned and beneficial					
14.	The content of the courses in this programme is adequate.					
15.	The quality of practical content in the programme is good					
16.	The time available for this course is adequate					

THE END

THANK YOU

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

BIO DATA (Researcher records the following):

- Name of University: _____
- Course/ Areas of Specialization_____
- Sex (Male/Female) _____
- Occupation_____

QUESTIONS:

1. How would you rate the quality of teaching and learning resources available for the course you are undertaking?

Probe for:

- Whether teaching materials and equipment are up to date
- Visual appeal and comfort
- Convenience.
- Electronic access to information.
- Emphasis on use of Computer laboratory
- Physical facilities are readily available for use around-the-clock.
- Student library is adequate and up to date

2. How would you rate the quality of lecturers taking you through the courses you are undertaking?

Probe for:

- Lecturer Appearance
- Lecturer Helpfulness
- Lecturer Friendliness
- Lecturer Communication Skills
- Lecturer Reliability
- Lecturer Credibility

3. What are your views regarding the teaching methodology applied to the teaching of the courses you are undertaking?

Probe for:

- Lecturer competence
- Variety of teaching methods

4. What is your opinion regarding the evaluation of the course you are undertaking?

Probe for:

- Quality of exams
- Fairness in marking and grading
- Preparation for examinations
- Other course evaluation methods

5. Comment on the relevance and design of the course you are taking to your job and expectations

Probe for:

- Relevance of course content to future or current employment
- Difficulty of the course
- Quality of practical training
- General satisfaction with the course

APPENDIX III: MAP OF KENYA

Source: Retrieved on August 24th 2014 at http://www.ezilon.com/maps/africa/kenya-maps.html.

APPENDIX IV: LETTER OF AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telephone: 254-020-2213471, 2241349, 254-020-2673550
Mobile: 0713 788 787 , 0735 404 245
Fax: 254-020-2213215
When replying please quote
secretary@ncst.go.ke

P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA
Website: www.ncst.go.ke

Our Ref:

NCST/RCD/14/013/476

Date:

22nd April, 2013

Kennedy Onyango Asembo
University of South Africa
South Africa.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application dated *11th April, 2013* for authority to carry out research on "*Students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in public security related programs in Kenyan Universities,*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **selected Universities** for a period ending **31st December, 2013.**

You are advised to report to **the Vice Chancellors of selected public and private Universities** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

DR M.K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSC.
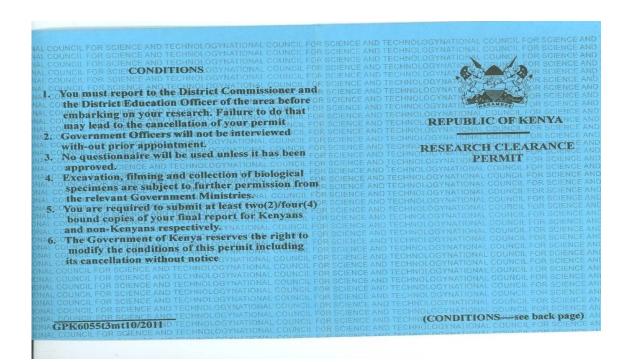**DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY**

Copy to:

The Vice Chancellors
Selected Public and Private Universities.

"The National Council for Science and Technology is Committed to the Promotion of Science and Technology for National Development".

APPENDIX V: RESEARCH PERMIT

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed with-out prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice

GPK6055t3mt10/2011

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

(CONDITIONS—see back page)

PAGE 2

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:
Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss/Institution
Kennedy Onyango Asembo,
of (Address) University of South Africa
   South Africa.
has been permitted to conduct research in

Selected Universities	Location
	District
Selected	Provinces

on the topic: Students' perception of the quality of teaching and learning in public security related programs in Kenyan Universities.

for a period ending: 31st December, 2013.

PAGE 3

Research Permit No. *NCST/RCD/14/013/476*
Date of issue   *22nd April, 2013*
Fee received   *KSH. 2,000*

....
Applicant's   Secretary
Signature   National Council for
                      Science &Technology

270

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

P. O. Box 43844
Nairobi, Kenya
Telephone 8710901/12
Fax: 811242/811575
Website: **www.ku.ac.ke**

25ᵗʰ August 2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

<u>CERTIFICATE OF EDITING</u>

This is to certify that I, Dr. Daniel Ochieng Orwenjo, PhD, of the Department of English and Linguistics, Kenyatta University, Kenya, edited and proofread the Doctor of Education thesis entitled **"Higher Education in Peace and Security Studies in Kenyan Universities: Students' Perceptions of the Quality of Teaching and Learning.** The thesis was written by Student No. **49917420 KENEDY ONYANGO ASEMBO** of the University of South Africa.

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