DETERMINANTS OF THE CHOICE TO ENROLL IN TOURISM EDUCATION AMONG STUDENTS IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

At this moment, I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree at any other university. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without the author's prior written permission and/or Moi University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this academic work to my sons, David Munyingi and Nathan Mungai, and may this inspire them to realize the highest academic achievements.

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ABSTRACT

Dismal and unpredictable enrollment rates characterize today's tourism education in Kenyan universities, partially caused by overemphasis on science-related careers by education stakeholders, including the government. This has seen reduced tourism graduates and inadequate understanding of why students shy away from tourism courses, despite a clarion call by the Kenyan National Tourism Blueprint 2030 to promote tourism education. Therefore, the present study examined determinants influencing students' choice to enroll in tourism education in public universities in Kenya. Specific objectives of the study established the influence of socio-economic factors (employment, tuition fees, parents and family background), psychological factors (ability, skills, efficacy, and personal interests), and demographic factors (ethnic background, religion, and gender) on students' choice to enroll in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. The study was anchored on a human capital theory supported by status attainment theory and social cognitive career theory. The study focused on 12 public universities and targeted 719 undergraduate tourism students and 12 heads of departments (HODs). The study adopted a pragmatist paradigm and used an explanatory-descriptive survey design. A study sample encompassed 204 respondents: 192 students and 12 HODs. Multiple sampling techniques were adopted; the purposive sampling technique was used to select public universities offering tourism degrees and HODs, while simple random sampling was used to sample first-year students. Data was collected using quantitative (semi-structured questionnaires for the students) and qualitative (semi-structured interviews for the HODs) methods. Data analysis followed the structural equation model (SEM) to establish the relationships between the study variables of the hypothetical model. Model fit indices of the SEM revealed that the model was appropriate ($\chi 2/df = 3.654$; IFI = 0.985; TLI = 0.943; CFI = 0.976; RMSEA = 0.0541). The findings indicated that the three latent variables; demographic factors, psychological factors, and socioeconomic factors combined, accounted for 82% (R^2 =.82) variability of the student's decision to enroll. Further, at a confidence level of 95% ($p<0.05$), the correlation analysis coefficient path values showed that psychological factors (β =1.742; t=9.107; p=0.027) and demographic factors (β= 1.433; t=9.111; p=0.042) had a stronger positive statistically significant influence on student's enrollment decision than socioeconomic factors (β= 0.872; t=9.176; p=0.031). The findings rejected the three null hypotheses; thus, alternatives were accepted; socioeconomic factors, psychological factors, and demographic factors influence students' choice to enroll in tourism education. Qualitative findings identified poverty levels, counsellor career guidance, marketability of the course, prior linguistic skills (German and Dutch languages) and computer studies as thematic determinants of enrollment trends. The study concluded that for public universities to attract more students to enroll in tourism programs, they must clearly understand and prioritize the proponents of psychological and demographic factors while marketing tourism programs. Further, continual support for needy families through bursaries will go a long way to support a sizeable number of students joining universities to pursue tourism education. The study has theoretical and practical value and recommends that stakeholders in public universities must be willing to facilitate students' transition from high school to university and support rigorous tourism programs' awareness in prospectus candidates. The study recommends future studies to incorporate private universities and mid-level colleges offering tourism programs while assessing other factors determining enrollment decisions like the reputation of a university and government policies that might mediate the direct relationship, using longitudinal and in-depth approaches.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AHEAD	Association for the Advancement of Higher Education and Development
CUE	Commission for University Education
DPMF	Development Policy Management Forum
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GoK	Government of Kenya
HELB	Higher Education Loans Board
HoD	Head of Department
ILO	International Labor Organization's statistics
KUC	Kenya Utalii College
KUCCPS	Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service
MCAR	Missing Completely at Random technique
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOEST	Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology
NEPAD	New Partnership for Economic Development
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
SADC	Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation
SCCT	Social Cognitive Career Theory
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Emergency Fund
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WTO	World Tourism Organization
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Academic courses	A student's academic course completed while working toward a baccalaureate degree in tourism management or a related field.
Career expectations	A student's career identity, appropriate career planning, and realistic goals are developed through practical knowledge or experience.
Public universities	These institutions of higher learning are owned and supported by the government of Kenya using taxpayer money.
Tourism	Traveling to and staying in places outside one familiar environment for not exceeding one consecutive year. Purposes for travel can be medical, leisure, business, or other reasons that do not involve compensation for the activity(ies) performed in that area (World Tourism Organization, 2018).
Higher Education	Post-secondary education, training, and research guidance at educational institutions such as universities, colleges, vocational training, and polytechnics are authorized as higher education institutions by state authorities (Britannica, 2019)
Tourism Education	This is the training of students in tourism doctrines in preparation for working professionally in developing tourism sectors (Puspito et al., 2014)

Psychological Characteristics	They refer to an individual's thoughts and feelings that influence students' attitudes and decisions toward a higher education major.
Socio-economic Characteristics	These are the social standing of an individual or group regarding education, income, and education.
Students	Refers to students in university aspiring to pursue tourism education at the university.
Student choice	Refers to the decision on the preference of a higher institution for possible further education. This decision is assumed to concern the need for satisfaction, consideration of opportunity, and appraisal of the likely costs and benefits for their future life (Kiser, 2020).
Demographic characteristics	Refers to the human population criteria such as education, births, death, sex, nationality, religion, or ethnicity.
Higher institution of Education	Refers to an institution of learning that primarily offers degree programs.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents the background of the present study. It depicts a clear global, regional, and Kenyan context on determinants of choice to enroll in tourism education programs. In addition, the chapter presents the problem statement, study objectives, research hypotheses, justification, scope, and anticipated limitations of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Tourism education can be traced back to Europe, where vocational education was offered to students with training focusing on critical areas of hospitality and business (Morgan, 2004). However, according to Salgado and Costa (2011), tourism education started at the end of the 19th century. Due to the demand from the public and private sectors, institutions of higher learning had to incorporate tourism studies into their curricula (Butler, 1999). However, during the 1960s, several critical changes in tourism and education led to the emergence of tourism as a clear area of study in its own right as a subject of study in diploma, degree level, and research, a scenario displayed by increased graduate numbers as holders of Bachelors, Masters, Doctor of Philosophy and professorship accreditations.

The 1970s witnessed rapid growth, resulting in tourism education's embryonic foothold in higher education (Kerins, 1993). Kerins (1993, p. 35) notes that "the growth of tourism, combined with new technology, created a need for more formalized tourism higher education," hence the higher demand for training in higher education institutes, triggered by increased demand for tourism professionals in the job markets.

Although there is limited literature on the history of tourism and hospitality training in Kenya before independence, the available information reveals that tourism activities in Kenya existed from the early 19th century (Sindiga & Kanunah, 1999). After independence in 1963, the Kenyan hotel industry exploded, and the number of arrivals increased yearly. For example, in 1963, Kenya received 61,000 visitors compared to 925,000 in 1996 (Bowden, 2007). New hotels and lodges sprung up while international and local hotel chains rushed to open offices in Kenya. Soon, there was a high demand for qualified Kenyan personnel to work in the tourism industry in all departments.

The government of Kenya (GoK) then realized the tourism sector's potential in the country's economic development (Mayaka, 1999). At this juncture, the Kenya Utalii College (KUC) was established in 1975 as a fully-fledged hospitality and tourism training institution to train management staff for the industry. The development of KUC was a joint project with the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SADC) (Atef et al., 2019; United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2019).

Since 1975, KUC has been the only institution that has offered tourism training in Kenya. However, the KUC could not meet the industry's demand due to the increase in overseas visitors to Kenya. A lack of high-level management skills in tourism education led to establishing a Bachelor’s degree program in tourism management at Moi University in 1991 (Mayaka & Akama, 1991). In 2003, the Kenyan government, while aiming to boost the enrolment numbers while at the same time increasing the literacy levels in Kenya, introduced free primary school education. Education efforts did not stop there. The government also introduced subsidized tuition fees for those in

secondary schools, which has increased the number of students leaving high school and enrolling in universities (Mutisya, 2011).

The need for more people to pursue higher education has increased over the last decade, leading to more universities. There are 68 public and private universities compared to 35 universities in 2012 (Commission for University Education [CUE], 2014; 2016; 2018). The scenario in Kenya is that the demand for higher education outweighs the supply in the job market, thereby creating a crisis of unemployed graduates. Reflecting on the need for tourism education, more and more public and private institutions and training colleges have increasingly launched tourism programs at different levels. Of the 68 public and private universities, the CUE has accredited 22 universities to offer tourism education and training (see Appendix F).

Previously, higher education was accessible to the elites and privileged groups. However, in the 21st century, tens of millions of students have enrolled in tertiary education, and this growth has extended to developing countries (Kapur & Crowley, 2008). For example, the total global student population in 1991 was 68 million and 132 million in 2004, projected to reach 150 million by 2025 (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) 2015).

Developing countries have embraced higher education in innovation and sustainable development, particularly in globalization and the shift towards knowledge economies (Akinyemi & Bassey, 2012). Indeed, globalization requires institutions of higher learning to undergo revolutionary changes to ensure that they produce human capital for a knowledge-based economy (Tin et al., 2012). Moreover, the rapid growth in higher education is necessitated by the changing economic structures, accessibility to primary and secondary education, and shifting demographics. The workplace of the

21st century is also becoming increasingly competitive and, therefore, the increased demand for college graduates (Harris, 1998).

There are many determinants of students' enroll in higher learning institutions. The cost and availability of financial aid are universally crucial in all institutions (Gramlich, 2012). Mehboob et al. (2012) identified internal factors (aspiration, aptitude, and career), external factors (courses, cost, location, reputation, promotion, and facilities), and social factors (parents, friends, and teachers) as the factors that are critical in influencing students' decision to enroll in higher education institutions.

However, in recent years, tourism education has grown tremendously, and more training institutions are introducing programs to meet the demand for qualified personnel in the industry. As we understand, a university's primary goal is to grow and increase its student population (Mangicho, 2014), as it plays a significant role in students' life (Spearman et al., 2016). However, as tourism education expands, it is vital to understand the determinants of enrolling in selected public universities in Kenya for a tourism course. These factors that affect this decision may include but are not limited to the socio-economic factors (employment upon graduation, tuition fees/scholarships, and parents/family background), psychological factors (ability skills, personal interests, and efficiency), or demographic factors ethnic background, religion, and gender) (Darren & Fizer, 2013).

Thus for universities to be successful in attracting students, institutional enrollment management teams need to more clearly understand the factors which impact student choice and tailor enrollment efforts to increase the chances of students selecting their university as the school of choice for a university program (Ciriaci & Muscio, 2011;

Kusumawati & Perera, 2010). Hence the present study examined the determinants of choice to enrol in tourism education in twelve selected public universities in Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

For successful economies, education is a vital tool to drive growth; through its zeal to respond to societal and economic needs. Conversely, it is the role of a university to not only disseminate knowledge but also develop human capabilities prerequisite for the knowledge economy of the modern day. The Kenyan government requires the university sub-sector to be at the forefront of achieving key policies; Tourism Agenda 2018-2022, the National Tourism Blueprint 2030, and the Big-Four Agenda (GoK, 2017b). However, it has maintained a skewness toward Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) programs- that shun away from social sciences like Tourism- which do not entirely cover all sectors of the economy. This is happening despite the Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012 articulating "the need to strengthen and grow academic programs that support national priorities and strategic areas" (GoK, 2012).

The aspect of tourism study motivation is significant to the tourism academia and tourism industry alike. The Kenyan government visualizes the growth of tourism in terms of value added by the service quality offered. At the centre of service provision is the need for a skilled and professional tourism workforce. Public university enrolment and expansion over the last decade had risen from the 1970s when there was one public university (the University of Nairobi) to 31 fully-fledged public universities as of 2018 (CUE, 2019). The growth in the number of public universities in Kenya has been accompanied by a corresponding growth in student enrollment (CUE, 2018). For example, public universities enrolled 3,000 students in 1970,

42,020 students in 1998/1999, and accelerated to 67,558 in 2003/2004 and 776,349 in 2017/2018 (CUE, 2019). This phenomenon has given rise to new courses universities offer and the upgrading of public university constituent colleges to chartered universities (CUE, 2016).

However, despite the considerable increase in the expansion of universities and enrollment rates, only less than 5% of the total enrolled students in public universities pursue tourism and tourism-related courses (CUE, 2019). Further, as per the study findings, enrolment in tourism studies displays an imbalance (38% males and 60.4% females) in gender participation. Thus suggesting the need to understand all these proponents and how they influence students' decisions to enrol in tourism programs.

Despite this slow increase in the number of tourism students increasing yearly (CUE, 2017, 2018, 2019), understanding why students choose tourism programs is yet to be fully understood. For instance, Alananzeh (2014) identified parents' influence, interest in the hospitality industry, career counseling, and social-cultural determinants as the factors that influence students to study hospitality and tourism programs. Moreover, Malubay et al. (2015) noted that social factors such as family income and family influence affect the pursuit of hospitality and tourism programs at Lyceum of the Philippines University, while Safarmamad (2019) observed that secondary school support, peer influence, preparation for college, awareness, access to financial aid, and relative functionalism as the determinants of the pursuit of higher education in first-generation college students in Tajikistan. The above studies concentrated on social and economic determinants of higher education, with a general overview in developed countries.

Of importance is that most of the previous studies concentrated on individual factors affecting students' intention to enrol in tourism education. However, according to Kusumawati and Perera (2010), each aspect is essential for every country and student. Conclusively, there is a need to conduct more studies on the same, with a focus on developing states like Kenya, with the incorporation of psychological and demographic factors (Amutabi & Agoot, 2021). Even with enrolment rates increasing and universities expanding, the absorption rate into tourism programs is dismal (Kiplangat, 2020). The trend is that there has been an increase in university enrolment, but this phenomenon, with the attributing factors, has received less attention from tourism scholars. Therefore, the present study examined determinants influencing students' choice to enroll in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

1.3 Research Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

To analyse the determinants of choice to enrol in tourism education among students in public universities in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives of the Study

i. To establish the influence of socio-economic factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya.
ii. To determine the influence of psychological factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya.
iii. To investigate the influence of demographic factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The three null hypotheses guided the present study, namely:

H_{01}: There is no significant influence of socio-economic factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

H_{02}: Psychological factors do not significantly influence students' choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

H_{03}: Demographic factors do not significantly influence students' choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

1.5 Justification of the Study

Kenyan tourism education is essential in ensuring that training institutions equip students with relevant knowledge and skills for the tourism industry, contributing to the Kenyan GDP and providing employment. This study examined the determinants of enrolment in tourism education in Kenya. Overall, due to the increase in the number of institutions of higher learning, the study sought to explore the factors behind the increased student enrolments for higher education, particularly in tourism education. Students' enrolment in tourism education is not a well-developed field, and specific socio-economic, psychological, and demographic factors are not expected. Studies that have been conducted have explored socio-economic factors, social-cultural factors, and institutional factors. They have concentrated on the student's enrolment for higher education and not specifically on their enrolment for tourism higher education.

This study is the first to address socio-economic, psychological, and demographic determinants of enrolment for tourism education, specifically in public Universities in Kenya. Tourism education is essential in Kenya as it translates to an excellent

workforce for the tourism industry, in which a critical sector is given its contribution to Kenyan GDP. The trend is that there has been an increase in university enrolment but in tourism education, which has not been studied in detail.

1.6 Significance of the Study

In general, the world's countries have realized that tourism is one of the most critical industries and significant sources of employment, which employed more than 225 million people just in 2010 with expectations to provide 310 million jobs by 2020 (International Labor Organization [ILO], 2014; World Tourism Organization [WTO], 2014). The study findings are important to policymakers, in particular in aiding one of the flagships programs by the Ministry of Tourism, which is to increase the number of tourists above 5 million by 2030, where institutions of higher learning supply the workforce to meet the demand for the tourism industry (Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife, 2020). In line with this study's findings, the growing demand by public universities to admit students in tourism education bridges the gap by contributing to the labour force in the job markets available, as shown by the continuous growth in student enrolment in tourism degrees.

There are calls to curriculum developers, higher education marketers, and policymakers in both tourism academia and the tourism industry to strategize on the next move; promote tourism education and training for high schoolers during their university selection and career path for the future. The study findings, specifically on imbalances in the gender of enrolled students, thus provide the government through the ministry of education an array of insights to ensure gender disparity is managed, reduce overemphasize on 'girl child' initiatives and incorporate both genders for equality in education.

The government provides funding for public institutions of higher education in Kenya depending on the number of students and the choice to enrol; hence, low student enrolment constrains resource availability. Besides, the government uses differentiated unit funding based on various parameters, including the type and nature of the program. It is also vital for universities to define their niche and markets. This can be possible by analysing current students' data to identify prospective students. It is a global trend that there are few students in the regular college-age population due to fertility transitions. Demography findings in this study show a significant relationship between enrolments to the university, providing insights for higher education policy planning involving compositional effects. Universities can identify gaps in their target markets and probably diversify their clientele and their educational products to increase their student population.

The study findings have contributed to the body of knowledge on factors leading to student enrolment, as (Shah & Nair, 2010) Shah and Nair (2010) advocated. The results have identified the social-economic factors (employment, tuition fees, and parent & family background), psychographic factors (ability, skills, and self-efficacy, and personal interests), and demographic factors (ethnic background, religion, and gender) and their correlation with students' enrolment into the universities. These findings support Shah and Nair's (2010) arguments that researching the determinants of enrolment gives an institution an understanding of why students choose a specific institution over others. Secondly, the information obtained is helpful for the institutions in designing marketing plans; the institutions can understand students' expectations and strategies that could be implemented to improve the students' experience. The study findings are valuable to the existing literature on career choices, tourism education, and gender studies.

1.7 The Scope of the Study

The study analysed the influence of socioeconomic, psychological, and demographic factors on students' enrolment in tourism education in 12 selected public universities that offer tourism courses in Kenya. The universities included Moi University, Kenyatta University, Technical University of Kenya, Technical University of Mombasa, Pwani University, Maasai Mara University, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology, University of Kabianga, Karatina University, University of Eldoret, Murang'a University of Technology, and Rongo University. The universities were chosen because they are the leading trainers and pacesetters in the Kenyan tourism industry offering undergraduate and diploma tourism programs, which formed the focus of the study. The study used an exploratory research design- with qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis techniques- while targeting first-year students in the twelve universities pursuing a degree in tourism management. Structure questionnaires, and an interview schedule was used as data collection tools. Data collection was conducted between February 2018 and May 2018.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This section reviews the literature on the determinants of enrolment in tourism higher education, theoretical studies concerning students' enrolment in tourism education, and the study's conceptual framework.

2.1 The Concept of Tourism Education

The subject of tourism education is one of the sub-sectors of the multifaceted tourism phenomenon, which could significantly impact the tourism sector directly or indirectly (Ayikoru et al., 2009). There are divergent definitions of tourism education, with some authors referring to tourism education as outdoor teaching. For instance, Gunn (1979) defined tourism education as the study of elements involved in tourism, including research, professional preparation, continuing education, and public service tourism training. However, it is worth mentioning that the definition of tourism education has now extended to methods that achieve the course content and objectives. These include; an extension of indoor and outdoor laboratories, direct experiences through field courses as a way of conversing the students with the natural environment, and a comprehensive plan for outdoor education, which is designed by the students, teachers, and human resources (Zhou & Huang, 2010).

Often, tourism education is used interchangeably with tourism training. Though the two have different meanings, they are geared toward developing individuals for employment in the industry. The tourism education literature indicates that the purpose of the undergraduate tourism program is to prepare students for a career in tourism (Hoyle, 2003). Likewise, Raj (2008) observes that tourism education is essential for supplying the industry with the necessary skilled workforce and, at the

same time, helps individuals in their career development. Therefore, countries must develop a tourism training and education strategy to compete in the international tourism market (Sayed & Azim, 2012). The strategy allows institutions to provide a well-skilled workforce for the tourism industry.

Historically, tourism education began in Europe, where technical/vocational schools emphasized teaching core hospitality, hotel management, and business-related skills Morgan (2004). However, it is worth noting that although documentation shows that tourism education began about 40 years ago, there were some early tourism programs at the University of Rome in 1925, the University of Vienna in 1936, and the University of Berne in Switzerland from 1941 (Dredge et al., 2015). Furthermore, the tourism industry growth prompted a steady increase in the number of universities offering tourism and hospitality degree programs to provide well-trained personnel for the industry.

Kenya's tourism higher education has a short history, dating back to 1965 with Kenya Utalii College (KUC). The KUC was the only institution training in tourism studies for a long time. However, the increasing demand for tourism education led to the establishment of a bachelor's degree in tourism management at Moi University in the 1990s. With the growth of the tourism industry in Kenya, there has been a deepening demand for tourism professionals. Today, Kenya has made considerable achievements in tourism higher education regarding the number of students and institutions offering tourism-related programs. More than twenty-eight public universities and thirty-one private universities and colleges offer tourism-related courses. These courses include certificate, diploma, degree, master's, and Doctor of Philosophy degrees in tourism management, tourism, and hospitality management, tourism and travel management, tour guiding, and business administration in tourism management. In terms of

enrolment numbers, increased institutions offering tourism and tourism-related courses have contributed to this phenomenon; for example, by 2016, KUC had graduated 50,000 students compared to 600 students in 1994, Sindiga and Kanunah (1999).

2.2 Education Enrollment Concept from a Global, Regional, and National Perspective

Education is pivotal in eliminating poverty and is an integral instrument for promoting socio-economic and cultural development (Funmilayo, 2014; Matsolo et al., 2016)**. I**ts long-term investment significantly leads to higher earnings (Nimubona & Vencatachellum, 2007). Apart from this, education creates motivation for the progress of a country, and it is also one of the fundamental human rights set out by the United Nations Education Charter (Ajayi & Ekundayo, 2007). Higher education enrollment and attainment have been found to have numerous benefits, some of which, like tourism, contribute to the country's more excellent skills base and increase savings and create more significant tax revenue (Mulatya, 2012). This thesis is upheld by UNESCO's education call, which alluded that:

> "Continuing education needs to be fostered for its essential role in promoting economic prosperity and contribution to personal development and social progress. It can renew personal confidence, regenerate the human spirit and restore a sense of purpose to peoples' lives by cultivating new interests" (UNESCO, 2017)**.**

The process of enrolling in a particular career course is ever-challenging and pivotal, especially for young adolescents in the modern knowledge era (Alyani et al., 2014; Paik & Shim, 2013; Safarmamad, 2019). For example, **s**econdary school graduates face a dilemma regarding the higher institutions they want to enroll in and the programs to pursue their education and careers. This is manifested in many studies from both developing and developed countries, which have indicated that most

secondary school graduates prefer to enroll in a four-year program in a university or college, Safarmamad (2019).

The complexity and mysterious nature of enrollment decisions are due to changing dynamisms of jobs, both present and future, and the workplace (Savickas et al., 2009), and the knowledge economy that gradually demands a more incredible intellectual and less physical capacity to stay competitive in the 21st century (Carnevale et al., 2013). Therefore, making a university enrollment decision that is tentatively thoughtful, based on one's interests and abilities and surrounding external factors, is essential as it capitalizes on future career success, job satisfaction, and personal or family income (Lee & Chatfield, 2012). The importance of informed enrollment choice was well described by the founder of the vocational guidance movement in the United States, who said:

> " An occupation out of harmony with the worker's aptitudes and capacities means inefficiency, unenthusiastic and perhaps distasteful labor, and low pay; while an occupation in harmony with the nature of the man means enthusiasm, love of work, and high economic values–superior product, efficient service, and good pay" (Parsons, 1909, p.3)**.**

University enrollment decisions have become increasingly astronomical over the past 30 years as higher education demands have transformed dynamically in various ways, leading to unbalanced enrollment demands every year from institution to institution (Funmilayo, 2014; Sedahmed & Noureldien, 2019)**.** In this line, universities are in a race to manage the enrollment waves, either low or high, a crucial education process phase that can be traced back to 1889, during the formulation of the freshmen board of advisors at Harvard University. The board was mandated to establish orientation, provide advising and counseling, and develop social events for first-year students. Borrowing from the board's work, Upcraft and John's (1989) study noted that:

> "Universities are spending a notable amount of time and money in their recruitment efforts, promoting not only academic programs but also University culture, values, and overall students' experience" (Chaffee & Tierney, 1995).

Thus, student enrollment is critical for the existence of universities (Ngare, 2018). Those managing universities must critically evaluate factors affecting students' enrollment levels. If a school population decreases, school managers must first get to the root cause of the decline and then determine what action needs to be taken, Spearman et al. (2016)**.** Globally, Higher Education providers, like universities, are seeking new ways of increasing student enrollment rates and diversifying economic growth (Popov, 2019). As enrollment patterns continue to shift, many universities are experiencing declining revenue (Craig, 2017)**.** Proper analysis and forecasting of determinants of the university choice enable a university to take the proper strategy for its marketing endeavors. Therefore, a university should distinguish itself by focusing on factors that students consider locally instead of known common aspects that universities overseas consider for their students.

The growth in the tourism industry has caused a tremendous increase in the number and type of tourism programs at two- and four-year around the world, Lee and Chatfield, (2012). The increase has been attributed to the industry's dramatic size and complexity during the latter half of the twentieth century (UNWTO, 2006). This growth trend, in turn, fueled a tremendous increase in the number and types of tourism programs (Jafari, 1997). For example, the increasing enrollment in public institutions in America after World War II has been attributed to the political support in the form of funding provided by the states, low tuition levels, and increased high school graduation rates, as well as the growth of federal financial aid for studies that started in the 1970s.

American postsecondary education grew from local to regional and national markets (Hoxby, 1997). Since the early 1970s, education in the United States has been marked by shifting patterns of enrollment, student financial aid, and resource allocation due to the effects of a variety of larger social-economic and political forces (Kallio, 1995). As a result, there was intensified competition for students by universities. This trend will only increase over the 1990s if the projected decline in the number of baccalaureate degree recipients of 5% by 2000 (Aud et al., 2011)**.** For example, in the United States in 2014, 68.4% of high school graduates went to university right after graduation (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Also, the National High School Center at the American Institutes for Research (2012) reported that the number of American middle and high school students who wanted to enroll in university increased from 67% in 1997 to 75% in 2010.

The same trend was observed in Russia, where 71% of survey respondents intended to apply to universities (Fond “Obshestvennoe Mnenie” [Fund “Public Opinion”], 2008). In Tajikistan, 94% of male and 51% of female graduates in the capital city enroll in universities (Qudusov, 2013). Another trend in enrollment is that universities are bringing students from all over the world. For example, in 2007, 2500 students were enrolled in the University of Nevada, consisting of 34 % in-state and 66% of state and international students (Theriault, 2007). International students from 35 countries accounted for 29% of the tourism and hotel administration students (Lee and Chatfield (2012).

In Britain, Aston (2003), from his study on the British education system, affirmed that the education reforms in 1988 and the rapid change in the occupational structure of employment in the 1980s fueled the rapid increase in the enrollment rates from the

late 1980s and early 1990s. The higher wages attached to jobs in the late 1980s contributed significantly to Britain's increased demand for higher education in the early 1990s. Another added factor emphasized education as predominantly training for life rather than livelihood in developed economies (Bloom et al., 2006).

In Qatar, Ajak (2019) work revealed that university enrollment for female students in various university programs was seven times that of males, a landmark education achievement highlighted by the World Bank report (2013). However, based on enrollment rates, the country saw higher literacy in females; most of these females ended up unemployed because of their cultures, Muslim attitudes, and sharia laws, restricting females from work and denying their appearance in public (Ajak (2019).

University enrollment in Africa doubled almost every four years, increasing by 2% from 2004/2005 (306,365 students) to 2005/2006 (315,985 students). Following independence, African governments gave enthusiastic support to higher education and spent generously on them, resulting in the spectacular growth of university enrollments (Abebe, 2001). Akilagpa (2002) saw the striking feature of the higher education terrain in Africa as the rapid increase in enrollment levels since political independence in the 1960s. Further, Akilagpa's study found that students' enrollment increased from an estimated 181,000 students in 1975, with a three-fold increase within five years, to over 600,000 by 1980 and more than 1,750,000 by 1995. The study noted that the enrollment increase continued against the background of economic and political crises and despite severe reductions in employment avenues for university graduates. The unending pressure for university education in the face of diminishing employment opportunities had been well explained by the notion of "the qualification-escalation ratchet" mechanism as captured by Coleman:

> "If you have set your sights on a modern sector job, and if you find that your junior secondary certificate does not get you one, there is nothing more except press on and try to get a senior secondary certificate…." (Coleman, 1994, p.335)**.**

In the case of Botswana, university enrollment was affiliated with three phases. The first phase occurred between 1995-2001 when the government-sponsored students enrolled in the only University then, the University of Botswana, and the colleges of education and national health institutes (Baliyan, 2016)**.** The second phase occurred from 2001 to 2007 when the government sought to increase the enrollment rates by sponsoring students to study abroad. The third and current phase is between 2007-to and now, when the government has extended its enrollment efforts by sponsoring students to study in private institutions, as the demand for higher education has grown steadily. More than 25 private higher education institutions in the country accommodate around 16000 students, including government-sponsored and self-sponsored students, Baliyan (2016)**.**

The mushrooming and development of private institutions of higher learning and their enrollment are constantly increasing. It is expected to grow as the newly established Tertiary Education Council proposed increasing access to tertiary education from 17% in 2016 to 20% in 2020 (Morelon-Quainoo et al., 2014). The University of Botswana accommodates only 31% of the tertiary education students, whereas 45% are enrolled in private institutions (Siphambe, 2008). The increasing numbers of prospective students and higher education institutions have created a competitive market for higher education in terms of the intake of more students because every institution wants to collect higher revenue through tuition fees (Teixeira & Koryakina, 2011).

South Africa boasts of a vibrant higher education system in the south of the continent, with overwhelming more than one million students enrolled in the country's 24 state-

funded tertiary institutions, Matsolo et al. (2016). The South African Council on Higher Education report has shown that the number of students enrolling at higher education institutes has increased since 1994, and so has the current output at these institutes (Maraschin, 2008; Steyn & de Villiers, 2006). Of those institutions, 11 are traditional universities, five are technology universities, and six are comprehensive institutions. In the National Plan for Higher Education report compiled by the Department of Education in 2001, the country's school dropout implicated the enrollment rate, where even the graduation rates plummeted to about 15%. This is particularly concerning given the significant number of first-year students enrolled at higher education institutions.

Early in 2016, the Higher Education and Training Minister, Blade Nzimande, announced that the university budget would increase from R9.5 billion in 2015 to R10 billion in the 2016/17 financial year. Despite this, international research indicates that sub-Saharan Africa still has the lowest higher education enrollment worldwide (Maraschin (2008). Research done in South Africa on the effects of increasing tuition fees in tertiary institutions showed that most students were negatively affected since they came from poor households (Oyelana, 2017). This agrees with a study done in developing countries on the impact of eliminating school fees. Eliminating tuition fees and providing free uniforms increased school enrollment significantly. It also positively impacted attendance, re-enrollment, and age at school entry (Morgan et al., 2014).

The Rwandan higher education started with the opening of the National University of Rwanda (NUR) in 1963, established by the government of Rwanda in cooperation with the Congregation of the Dominicans from Canada, with only fifty-one students

and sixteen lecturers (MacGregor, 2014). Barely 30 years after its establishment, in 1994, the National University of Rwanda had only produced 1,000 graduates (Freedman et al., 2006). Since then, the enrollment rates in Rwanda have grown, with the number of institutions of higher learning increasing to 44 by 2015; 12 public and 32 private (Ministry of Education, 2018), but in 2017, the Higher Education Council in Rwanda decided to close five universities due to failure to comply with the recommendations of the government audit (Rwirahira, 2017).

The increase in the number of higher learning institutions in Rwanda after 1994 prompted the demand for higher education at that time. Similarly, labor market conditions, increased student fees, and heavy investment in higher education are the most important reasons why the demand for higher education grew in that period (Amponsah & Onuoha, 2013; Sikubwabo et al., 2020; Stender & Herman, 2017). The Ministry of Education's revelation supports such theses, where it found that the gross enrollment rate increased by 131.6% between 2006-2018, from 21948 to 50822 students in 2018 (Rwandan Ministry of Education, 2018).

In the Northern Africa region represented by Nigeria**,** in the 70s and 80s, on average, only 11.7% of all secondary school graduates got admission into Nigerian universities (Funmilayo, 2014). This phenomenon has then changed, as the 2006 admission session saw 803,472 sit for the Joint Admission Matriculation Board Examination, of which only 123,626 (15.4%) qualified to enroll in universities. Only 18.5% of the students were admitted out of 1,054,053 applicants in 2008. The trend shifted to 33.33% in 2011, which was grossly inadequate, despite the phenomenal expansion in universities from one to 104 in 1948-2009 (Nigerian National University Commission, 2010).

Despite the admission problem, overcrowding has been a significant problem in Nigerian universities as most universities admit more than their capacity. Thus, an increasing number of Nigerian youths are seeking foreign admission. However, the deregulation/privatization of the Nigerian university system was a step geared toward solving problems of providing needed resources and meeting enrollment through expanding the university system. It is expected that the private universities will decongest public universities and eventually keep the teacher-student ratio at acceptable levels and hence be assured of better performance assessment. In contrast, the increasing demand for university education remained unmet, as less than 35% of university admission candidates were admitted (Education Right Campaign, 2006). Consequently, public and private universities exceed their carrying capacities considering the human and physical facilities available and the National University Commission guidelines on enrollment, admission, and staff mix (Okojie, 2008).

Higher education in Kenya is characterized by many students preferring to enroll in public universities due to the government's financial support through HELB loans (Gudo, 2014; Ngare, 2018). Public universities being many in Kenya, play a crucial role in training human resources favorable to attaining the United Nations Millennium Development Goals call, especially in the tourism sector (The World Bank, 2010). Although tuition fees are integral to enrollment decisions, a report by Cologne, Germany, on how university tuition fees affect students' enrollment decisions found that tuition fees did not affect the enrollment rate. However, it affected how long students took to complete a course, as they had to spend much more time working to meet their university costs (Karay & Matthes, 2016).

However, diminishing public funding, privatization, increase in student enrollments, and rapid expansion threatens the capacity of Kenyan universities to fulfill this core

mandate (Kara et al., 2016)**.** The impact of the 2003 free primary education has been felt at the university level, where enrollment numbers have more than doubled between 2012 and 2015, during which the initial cohort of free primary education was enrolled in universities, CUE (2016). This has since influenced the enrollment rates in public and private universities, where students' enrollment in universities increased by 98.1% in three years, from 139,470 to 276,349 students in the academic years between 2010/11 and 2013/14 (KNBS, 2014). Another notable enrollment trend has been observed in total enrollment rates (including diploma programs) for four academic years, between 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17, and 2017/18, which registered overwhelming enrollment numbers of 543782, 539749, 547316, and 538820 students respectively (Commission for University Education, 2016, 2018)**.**

For instance, at Moi University, in the 2017/2018 academic year, the total undergraduate student population stood at 39,882 (Simiyu et al., 2016), where male students consisted of 23049 (58%) whereas the female students were16833 (42%) of the total enrolled undergraduate student population, CUE (2018)**.** Nevertheless, female students' enrollment still lags behind that of their male counterparts in most Kenyan university programs (CUE, 2016). The bare fact is that these students come from various cultural settings and socio-economic backgrounds, limiting their careers choice. Secondly, with the increasing numbers and cost of education, support from the government does not suffice. Most students defer or drop out due to the high cost of accommodation, feeding, and transport, Ajak (2019).

From the literature, as mentioned earlier, many countries have invested dearly in education, especially university education, intending to promote both economic and social development (Simiyu et al., 2016). Indeed, increased investment in education,

particularly at the university level, is the most fundamental way to realize Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Ministry of Education, 2017). The increase in access to higher education is more factually attributed to expanding higher education opportunities (Belyakov et al., 2009). Nevertheless, universities have repeatedly experienced discrepancies in students' enrollments per area of specialization.

Additionally, it can be concluded that the number of universities is continuously increasing, and overall, students are now presented with several choices and programs at numerous public and private universities. Institutions of higher learning are facing increasing difficulties in attracting students. With tertiary-level educational choices increasing in conjunction with the emergence of newly developing nations, the pool of institutions viewed as viable options have increased along with amplified student interest in international education. Many institutions face greater competition for enrollment (Agrey & Lampadan, 2014)**.** Thus, to attract students who wish to study a particular field, careful planning of recruitment and promotion strategies is needed (Keller, 2012), along with a good understanding of students' expectations and the most important factors that can influence their decisions to enroll or not enroll in particular university (Gregory, 2014; Varjas et al., 2010).

Conclusively, the massive growth in student enrollment has also been seen in institutions of higher learning in terms of high spending from public and private investors in this regard, Mehboob et al. (2012). The increasing demand for competent Human resources by the corporate sector also induces more pressure on institutions of higher learning to produce highly acclaimed professionals who can perform at their optimum. The high growth and increased demand also intensify the competition within institutions of higher learning to grab more attention of the students across,

Ngare (2018). Increased competition from these institutions of higher learning also affects enrollment. However, this competition caused low enrollment rates in some universities since they were forced to improve their services to remain competitive (Jabbar, 2015). Recent evidence also suggests that there is a need for increasing diversification at the programs level for adopting more general programs based on the diversity of students' sample population and multiple regional, social, and economic needs (Teixeira & Koryakina, 2011; Wyman, 2015; Sedahmed & Noureldien, 2019).

2.3 Determinants of Enrollment in Higher Education

Enrolment refers to the total number of registered students at an institution of learning, in this case, the university. Student enrolment is the process that allows students to learn at different levels (Mueke, 2020). The increasing number of students enrolled in institutions of higher learning is a clear indicator of tremendous growth in university education in Kenya. For example, University education in Kenya began in 1963 with only 571 students enrolled at Nairobi University, the only institution of higher learning at that time, as indicated by the Council of University Education (CUE) report 2018. However, there has been a considerable expansion with 70 public and private universities in 2016. There has also been an increased number of students seeking higher education. In 2016, the government collaborated with private institutions where 12,096 students were enrolled as a government-sponsored student in private institutions, and 84,389 students joined public Universities (CUE, 2018).

Several factors influence students' choice to enrol in higher education, which has been identified in the empirical and theoretical literature (Koe & Saring, 2012; Kochung & Migunade, 2011; Kim et al., 2007; Malgwi et al., 2005; Marwan, 2011; Staniec, 2004; Wong et al., 2007). The factors have broadly been classified into

economic, institutional, demographic, socio-cultural, and psychological/individual factors. Economic factors considered human capital, assume that the more educated individuals have, the more they are likely to be productive in the future (Saroush et al., 2015). Demographic factors such as age, gender, race, and ethnic origin are essential determinants that influence individuals to pursue higher education. Location, academic programs, reputation, cost, financial aid availability, advertising, and educational facilities are considered the most influential institutional factors in higher education, Ming (2010).

Much literature has looked at parental characteristics as the key determinant of enrollment in higher education in socio-cultural factors. Ethnicity, friends, income, parents' educational level, and socio-economic status of the parents were found to be the most influential in students' enrolment (Meghir & Palme, 2005; Zimbroff, 2005). Individual characteristics are also considered to play a role in influencing an individual to pursue higher education. Student ability is a significant determinant for students willing to pursue higher education to achieve their aspirations (Jimenez & Selas, 2000; Maani & Kalb, 2007; Kodde & Ritzen, 1998). It is assumed that students with higher abilities are more likely to pursue higher education, especially if they have access to financial support. Other likely individual factors influencing decisions to enroll in higher learning institutions include students' personalities, perceptions, attitudes toward higher education, and the student motives and aspirations (Menon, 2011).

Empirical literature reveals that various factors influence the student's enrolment in higher education, where some have been investigated more than others (Maani and Kalb, 2007). This can be attributed to adopting specific theoretical frameworks, thus limiting the number of studies investigating more than one factor in the research. This

is why this study combined more than one factor to include socio-economic, psychological, and demographic characteristics to determine their influence on students' choice to study tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya.

2.4 Socio-economic Factors

Cost of studies, career prospects, parental influence, employment, and income opportunities are considered essential socio-economic determinants of enrollment (Foskett et al., 2006; Hu and Hossler, 2000; Maringe, 2006; Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002; Tadaro and Smith, 2015). Econometric models typically view college attendance as an economic benefit, where students pursue higher education because of the perceived benefits (Kotler and Fox, 1985). An econometric model focuses on expected costs, future earnings, college characteristics, and student characteristics (Hossler & Stage, 1992). Stafford (1982) studied the social and economic factors affecting higher education participation at Ohio State University in the US. She identified increased lifetime earnings and the cost of education as the determinants of enrolment. She further proposed the economic demand theory, which asserts that the rate of return after education prompts an individual to enroll in an institution of higher learning. The theory assumes that the more education an individual possesses, the more opportunities one is likely to have.

Individuals tend to decide to join higher institutions of learning based on the perception of the rate of return they obtained upon completing a degree. Employment is the most notable factor in the socio-economic factors. When the unemployment rates increase, unemployment is transmitted from high levels of education to lower levels Saroush et al. (2015). In such circumstances, individuals, therefore, pursue higher education even when the expected income level is minimal to escape

unemployment. Gharoun (2003) stated that job opportunities and higher income motivate students to enter universities.

Undergraduates are under the weight of social and economic pressure. Therefore, they view higher education as a pathway to social and economic benefits such as enhanced career opportunities, greater earning potential, and knowledge and expertise in a professional area (Chan et al., 2014). Avery and Turner (2012) observed that a bachelor's degree program remains a good investment for individuals and society. A bachelor's degree is also suitable for a country's economic health, and going to college provides economic competitiveness to a community (Delbanco, 2012). Bui (2002) summarised eleven reasons students pursue bachelor's degrees. They include: their friends were going to college; their parents expected them to go to college; their high school teachers/counselor persuaded them to go; they wanted a college degree to achieve their career goals; they wanted a better income with a college degree; they liked to learn; wished to provide a better life for their children; gain their independence; acquire skills to function effectively in the society; get out of their parent's neighbourhoods; and, did not want to work immediately after high school. In these studies, students seem to have a common goal of acquiring a job and obtain skills that give them more opportunities in a professional area.

2.4.1 Employment upon Graduation

Employment after graduation is a valuable framework used to evaluate the success of higher education in terms of returns to an individual after investing in education. Many students pursue higher education so that they can become economically stable. Students pursue higher education because of the job opportunities available to college graduates (Sevier, 1998). When students choose a career path, they usually seek out higher-paying fields that give job security (Darren & Fizer, 2013). Students pursue a

bachelor's degree for various reasons, including self-improvement, achieving life goals, a better career, more income, and family (Kennett et al., 2011). Students' purposes and achievements in obtaining a degree are also motivated by increasing their annual salary, job opportunities, and career paths (McArthur, 2011).

In today's workforce, college graduates find it harder to get jobs in their field of interest, and sometimes they have to wait for more extended periods before finding a job in their field of interest (Nabi, 2003). This results from the labor market becoming less predictable, changing more rapidly, and becoming more competitive (Connar & Pollard, 1996; Petrova & Mason, 2004). In other circumstances where students have outstanding student loans, they are forced to join other fields to earn money to pay off the loans (Fizer, 2013). Thomas (2000) revealed that majors in applied fields provide more outstanding starting salaries than other majors. Thomas further notes that engineering majors are equally perceived to pay good wages with a hefty premium (35 to 50%), while social sciences and humanities typically have a smaller (20 and 25%) bonus. However, the tourism industry provides many job opportunities for well-trained and qualified personnel aiming at an international career (Syed et al., 2013).

Lu and Adler (2009) studied the future career expectations of hospitality and tourism management students in China. The study revealed that students' top reasons for pursuing hospitality and tourism studies included opportunities for employment upon graduation, applying knowledge learned in university, opportunities to meet new people and personal interests. The study also concluded that students were very optimistic about an excellent job in the industry with a high salary within five years of graduation.

Conversely, Richardson's (2008) survey of tourism and hospitality students in Australia established that the students were unsure about securing a career in the hospitality and tourism industry. Similarly, Petrova and Mason's (2004) study on the value of the tourism degrees of the tourism students at Luton University established that students could not convincingly show that they are aware of and possess the necessary skills beneficial in securing employment upon graduation. This lack of knowledge about employment opportunities in the industry and the high expectations of students may lead to disillusionment about tourism careers (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000).

2.4.2 Tuition Fees

The cost of education is generally in terms of tuition fees. However, it can also include the cost of living, and it is considered a critical, influential factor in students' enrolment and persistence in college (Migin et al., 2015; Padlee et al., 2010; Wagner and Fard, 2009). Studies by Cabrera and La Nasa (2000) and Dahari and Abduh (2011) found a partial correlation between enrollment rates and the influence of tuition fee increments. Contrary, Wilkins and Meeran (2011) identified in their study that as tuition fees increase, students tend to consider the cost of higher education and the expected returns from education. On the other end, Heller (1997, p.45) found a direct relationship between tuition fee increment and rates of enrolment, where she found that enrolment rates drop between 0.5%-1% for every $100 increment in tuition fee.

The past decade has seen a rise in demand for higher education in most countries for various reasons, including increased populations, economic difficulties, and increasing pressures on public budgets. This has shifted the burden of paying tuition fees from the government to the student. For instance, when university education in

Kenya began in 1963, it was offered free, covering tuition fees and living expenses (Weidman, 1995). The free university education was based on the country's need to train qualified personnel to replace the colonial administrators upon independence. Free university education lasted until 1991, when the government introduced a cost-sharing policy. The policy required parents/guardians/students to cover the tuition fees and living expenses. To ensure equality and high school university transition, the government established the higher education loans board (HELB) to enable needy students to access higher education (Sanyal & Martin, 1998).

The cost of a degree is a critical determinant of enrolling in a university. The enrolment decisions are greatly influenced by direct costs of attendance, such as tuition fees, accommodation, books, and supplies (Kane, 1999). Enrolment is also sensitive to financial aid availability, especially in individuals with lower family incomes. Family income dictates whether or not an individual can attend college or afford to enroll in courses that help aid in career choices (Hadley, 2010). Changes in family income may directly impact the students who may choose to enrol in cheaper programs or even leave education altogether (Weidman (1995). Besides academic reputation, the image of the institution, and the availability of scholarships, Mubaira and Olawale (2012) observed that the level of tuition fees also determines the decision to enrol in the university. This is because the availability of financial support allows students from low-earning families to pursue higher education.

2.4.3 Parent and Family Background

When investigating a family's socio-economic background, three family characteristics come into play, i.e., income, education, and occupation (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002; Lareau, 2003). The socio-economic backgrounds of students and their families affect the students' choice of career, as they tend to consider the cost of

education before embarking on the program of study (Ekpo and Igiri, 2015; Landry, 2014; Li and Qiu, 2018; Lyu et al., 2019; Mirashrafi et al., 2013; Muthoni, 2013; Osuafor and Okonkwo, 2013). Low-income families may wish for their children to pursue higher education, which may not be possible because they may not afford to pay tuition fees. On the other hand, affluent families usually plan for their children to further their studies because they can afford them, which means that family income influences students' enrolment for higher education.

Parents with a higher Socio-Economic Status (SES) have more cultural capital and positively impact their children. They are likely to have pursued higher education, developed social networks, and enjoyed the benefits associated with completing higher education (Schultheis, 2013). Perna (2000) researched 1992 high school graduates to examine family income on college enrollment. The analysis showed that students with a higher family income had a significant probability of enrolling in college than students with a lower family income. Therefore, parents will likely convey these benefits to their children, encouraging them to pursue higher education. The number of family members also affects the family's economic condition (Cepar and Bojnec, 2010). For instance, a large family with a low income may affect the chance of the children pursuing higher education.

Many studies on parents' education reveal a positive influence on students' post-secondary education (Cameron and Heckman, 1998; Keane & Wolpin, 2001; Miles et al., 2003; Rockwell, 2011; Steinmayr et al., 2010). Moreover, the Centre for the Study of Higher Education (2008) found that parental education attainment is the most significant predictor of children's participation in higher education. As the level of parent education increases, so does the likelihood of their children enrolling in higher education (Nunez and Cuccaro-Alamin, 1998). Well-educated parents are very

informed about the educational system and can guide their children in making decisions about higher education (Ceka and Murati, 2016; Chowa et al., 2012; Katwii, 2016; Ouma, 2018). The parents can share their personal and professional experiences in college with their children, and the children can see the long-term benefits of joining college. The human capital theory assumes that education and training increase an individual's human capital. Therefore, parents with high human capital tend to have financial resources and support their children through post-secondary education (Kromydas, 2017).

Several economists have acknowledged that the children's level of schooling is one of the critical aspects of the theory of family behavior. The complete statement of this theory is found in Becker and Tomes (1986), where utility-maximizing parents value more about their children's welfare more. The model assumes that intergenerational mobility is determined by utility maximization behavior with investment and consumption opportunities in different generations. However, Haveman and Wolfe (1995) criticize the Becker and Tomes model stating that it yields little empirical guidance because it addresses a few family-based determinants of investments in children. Peraita and Sanchez (1998) studied family background on children's schooling attainment level in Spain. Using a logit model, they identified parental income, parental education, social class, and family size as the factors affecting children's schooling in over 60,000 homes in Spain.

2.5 Psychological Factors

The psychological factors greatly influence the decision to attend higher education, the type of higher education institution, and the degree to pursue. Students are influenced by personal desire, motivation, aspirations, and attitudes to pursue higher education. They are motivated by the positive attitudes they attach towards the value

of higher education and by the belief that higher education links them to stable and secure future employment opportunities, plus a higher and better social status once in employment (Aydin, 2015; Wood, 2012).

2.5.1 Ability, Skills, and Self-efficacy

Several studies show that students tend to choose majors based on their assessment of their skills and abilities (Downey et al., 2009; Hansen, 2009; Roach et al., 2011; Strasser et al., 2002). Schlee et al. (2007) further argue that students tend to choose majors perceived as equivalent to their skills and abilities required in related fields of work. Skills necessary for selecting a tourism education major include technical, people-oriented, multi-lingual, decision-making, problem-solving, and communication skills (Christou and Sigala, 2001; Luka and Donina, 2012; Sheldon et al., 2007). Self-efficacy theory believes an individual can perform and effect positive, personal change and consequently influence educational aspirations (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy effectively predicts students' choice of academic abilities (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). Students with high scores in mathematics and science tend to choose technical majors. Those who believe they have high quantitative abilities tend to choose STEM majors (Farley & Staniec, 2004). However, students with lower quantitative scores tend to choose liberal arts (Carter, 2006).

Students with high creative self-efficacy tend to pursue marketing majors, those with high technical self-efficacy tend to seek information technology majors, and students with high quantitative self-efficacy tend to pursue accounting majors. In contrast, those with high people-oriented self-efficacy tend to pursue management and marketing degrees (Kim et al., 2002). Therefore, those students pursuing a degree in tourism education will likely have a high people-oriented self-efficacy because it is a management course. In the tourism industry, employees are expected to serve

customers. Students perceive management and marketing majors to be associated with strong interpersonal skills. The students who pursue other majors (engineering, finance, accounting, and information technology) view management and marketing majors as possessing strong people-oriented skills but relatively low quantitative skills Schlee et al. (2007).

2.5.2 Personal Interest

When students choose a major, it is essential to be interested in the field of study as it determines the type of work they do upon graduation. Several studies have supported the importance of interest in the subject when choosing a college major (Calkin & Welki, 2006; Cohen & Hanno, 1993; Coperthwaite & Knight, 1995; Orenuga & Costa, 2006; Schleef, 2000; Zhang, 2007). For example, Orenuga and Costa (2006) conducted a cross-sectional study on 197 clinical students in four dental schools in Nigeria. The results showed that interest in dentistry was a significant motive for choosing a dentistry major. Likewise, Calkin and Welki (2006) studied why students at John Carroll University do not consider economics a major, and lack of interest in the subject was identified as a contributing factor. Elsewhere, Schleef (2000) used semi-structured interviews to investigate study motivations in first-year law and business students at Graham University. The findings showed that interest and professional status were crucial when choosing a major.

As much as students identify personal interest as a driving force in selecting a major, research suggests a mismatch between students' perceptions of the work they expect to do upon graduation. They take any job since that is what is available (Roach et al., 2016). Such a mismatch can lead to disappointments and job dissatisfaction. Students should, therefore, be informed about the career realities of the majors they are about

to pursue for four years, enabling them to make more effective choices of college majors and career paths.

2.6 Demographic Factors

Many of the studies conducted on demographic variables have looked at the influence of race on students' enrollment in higher education. Amoor and Umar (2015) revealed that very few studies had been done on demographic variables such as sex, age, ethnicity, and religion. However, it is worth mentioning that gender roles in the workforce were uneven in the past, and more women had lower-paying jobs than men (Broinstein and Farnsworth, 1998). Many women participating in the labour market have dramatically influenced the number of women pursuing higher education, thus giving them a competitive edge in the male-dominated society. The higher participation of women in higher education can be attributed to more women joining primary and secondary schools and the supportive mechanisms governments have put in place to support the girl child (Murtaza, 2014). It is important to note that males and females differ in consumer traits, information processing, decision-making styles, and buying patterns. Therefore, they differ concerning the importance of financial aid, security, academics, and atmosphere (Wiese et al., 2010). Institutions of higher learning, like universities, need to be aware that each gender group is influenced differently in enrollment decisions. The age of students has various implications too because it is closely associated with the level of study, the influence of the family and friends, and the sources of funding (Baliyan, 2015; Betsy et al., 2016)

2.6.1 Ethnic Background

Matasci et al. (2020) observed that education disparity in Kenya can be traced to the colonial policy on development, where certain regions were and are still benefitting from growth. These regions have more resources, are centrally placed, and reap the

profits from the closeness to these amenities, and this regional disparity has trickled down to education accessibility. The enormous population of higher education students comes from urban and metropolitan areas. In contrast, students from rural areas have difficulty accessing secondary education, consequently influencing their ability to pursue higher education. The Commission for university education in Kenya strictly guards the regional and tribal data compositions of students enrolled in universities because the issue of the tribe is a sensitive debate in Kenyan societal settings (Mulongo, 2013). This sensitivity can probably explain why there is little literature on ethnicity and higher education in Kenya. Olel (2011) studied and analysed the students by their ethnic origin in private and public universities. He concluded that public universities have a diverse student body, unlike private universities, whose population is drawn from the surrounding communities.

Although many scholars shelve the issue of ethnic background concerning school enrolment, previous research studies indicate a significant relationship between students enrolled in higher education institutions and their ethnic orientation (Cofer & Somers, 2001; Pope, 2002; Santos, 2004). Findings show that differences in students' enrolment in ethnic groups may be different. In the USA, African-American and Hispanic students are most conscious of factors such as scholarships and financial grants were the most critical factors (Hoyt & Brown, 2003; Sevier, 1993). The Asian-Pacific American students also varied from other groups. They considered costs, financial aid, and the institution's reputation as the most critical factors in their enrolment decisions (Teranishi et al., 2004). In a South African study, African students were more influenced by social factors such as parents and peer influence (Cosser & DuToit, 2002).

2.6.2 Religion

Religion's influence on higher education enrolment has received little attention from scholars. Still, there is significant growth in research that shows religion directly affects students to join college. Research indicates that religious students spend more time studying, work hard in school, and achieve better results. A study by Gudo et al. (2011) showed that students from private universities (93.8%) and public universities (94.9%) are Christians**.** Some private universities in Kenya are faith-based, and most students are drawn from churches. This means some students are customarily locked out of admission based on their religion, discriminating against potential students. However, this practice contradicts the constitution of Kenya (article 32), which states that nobody should be contrasted to access any institutions of higher learning because of their faith.

2.6.3 Gender

Gender is a vital determinant in educational goal fulfillment in Africa. Global organizations such as UNESCO and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) have been campaigning for equal chances for boys and girls in education (Lynch & Feeley, 2009). Traditionally, African universities nurtured the male elite due to prevailing social attitudes inherited from colonial policies. These values were persistent in the continent (UNESCO, 2015). Consequently, this led to a gender imbalance in higher education throughout Africa. To increase women's enrolment in Africa, some countries such as Ethiopia, Tanzania, Uganda, and Malawi have instituted gender-based affirmative policies, many of which operate through the cutoff score for admission to public universities (Tefferra & Altbach, 2004). In conjunction with developed countries, scholarships have been availed to women to empower women

through higher education. Others have developed policies targeting women, such as the readmission of female students after pregnancy (Masanja, 2010).

In Kenya, the debate on gender equity and access to university education is not new to educators and policymakers. The Kenyan government introduced an affirmative action policy to increase female enrolment in public universities by reducing entry points. The statistics in Table 2.1 show the differences in females' and males' enrolment in public universities for the period between 2011/12 to 2014/15 academic years. Male enrolment increased by 19.8% from 173,987 to 217,164, while female enrolment increased by 20.8% from 115,746 to 146,170 in the 2013/14 and 2014/15 academic years, respectively.

Women's access to science courses is one of the many issues facing women's access to education, training, and employment. Wainaina (2011) carried out a gender analysis study on enrolment rates in sub-Saharan Africa which stated that women tend to prefer arts over science subjects and that women tend to perform poorly in mathematics and science. In return, it reduces the number of female students joining public universities. The high number of females joining private universities reflects the limited number of females who attain the cut-off points to join public universities.

Table 2.1: Student Enrolment by Gender in Public University 2011/12-2014/15

INSTITUTIONS	2011/12		2012/13		2013/14		2014/15	
Public Universities	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
University of Nairobi	27,084	17,219	30,710	20,185	38,693	25,376	42,328	27,618
Kenyatta University	21,328	15,892	25,633	31,559	37,758	32,248	43,165	33,714
Moi University	14,124	11,409	17,372	14,273	18,547	15,684	22,458	20,838
Egerton University	7,050	5,095	4,577	3,101	7,044	4,896	8,661	5,267
Jomo Kenyatta University	9,818	4,119	19,048	9,870	19,729	10,847	20,860	11,469
Maseno University	2,809	1,742	3,953	2,159	3,922	2,247	7,356	7,412
Masinde Muliro University	10,958	6,402	6,295	3,901	5,606	3,445	7,480	4,213
Technical University of Kenya	187	642	405	135	5,102	1,915	5,391	2,024
Technical University of Mombasa	1,000	1,038	1,828	524	3,993	1,050	4,186	1,234
Chuka University	-	-	-	-	7,318	2,663	9,716	3,931
Karatina University	-	-	-	-	2,700	2,014	3,095	2,209
Kisii University	-	-	-	-	913	531	4,780	3,495
Meru University	-	-	-	-	2,001	903	2,825	1,174
Multimedia University	-	-	-	-	697	331	754	346
South Eastern University	-	-	-	-	1,988	1,037	3,676	2,138
Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University	-	-	-	-	1,259	771	2,537	1,638
Laikipia University	-	-	-	-	857	574	3,260	2,652
University of Eldoret	-	-	-	-	8,059	4,507	9,447	6,215
Kabianga University	-	-	-	-	1,004	681	3,375	2,366
Dedan Kimathi University	-	-	871	338	1,546	584	4,715	1,578
Pwani University	-	-	-	-	2,666	1,591	2,981	1,603
Maasai Mara University	-	-	-	-	2,585	1,851	4,118	3,036
SUB-TOTAL	**94,358**	**63,558**	**110,692**	**86,045**	**173,987**	**115,746**	**217,164**	**146,170**
Private Universities	33,114	27,598	29,554	24,905	39,980	31,666	42,454	37,994
GRAND TOTAL	**218,628**		**251,196**		**361,379**		**443,783**	

Source: Kenya Economic Survey (2015)

There is a thin margin between male and female enrolment, with an average difference of 5700 more males than females from 2011 to 2015 (Table 2.1). From the statistics, it is evident that though male student enrolment is high compared to female enrolment, there has been a steady increase in female enrolment over the years.

Women's participation in the labour market will increase this clear indicator in the future. The Human Capital Theory predicts that the number of women entering the labor market will likely grow, and they will invest in higher education to guarantee their competitiveness. In some countries, the increase in women's participation in higher education has been phenomenal, and, in some cases, the number of women attending universities is more than men (Flannery & O'Donoghue, 2009). James (2000) has attributed women's higher participation rate to a supportive environment and high performance in high school.

Malgwi et al. (2005) researched to assess the influence of demographic factors on students pursuing a degree in hospitality and tourism management. The results indicated that the male students' choice was influenced by the industry's chances of career advancements, compensation level, and job opportunities. In contrast, the aptitude for tourism education influenced female students. Elsewhere, Hjalager's (2003) study pointed out that demographic factors significantly influence studying tourism education in Sweden. Further, the study asserted that male students were motivated by job opportunities abroad while female students were attracted by the chances of earning a good salary.

2.7 Contribution to Existing Literature

The existing literature on students´ motivators to enrol in tourism studies emphasizes social-cultural and institutional-based factors. In their quest, many scholars in this field focused on developed states and the generalization of high education, failing to address the specifics of tourism education. Besides, such studies have contextualized a single set of factors. As a result, they fail to enrich the knowledge body with an in-depth analysis using other vital aspects like socio-economic, demographic, and

psychological factors. Hence, this study has enhanced the knowledge body, recognizing that each element is significant at different national or student levels.

With the increasing demand for the tourism workforce, the unskilled labour force should be scrapped and competency-based workers deployed. As analysed by World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), 2019, 2020), tourism represents 24.3 million jobs (6.7%) of total employment in Africa, while in Kenya, the numbers are expected to rise by 2.9% annually, creating more than 2.1Million jobs by 2026 (9.5% of total employment). To match this growing demand, human resource personnel need to focus on the kind of labour force they employ. Then this study propagates a clear understanding of motivators for students to choose tourism studies to curb any gap between workload and labour force numbers.

In addition to Institutional-based and social-cultural factors, scholars in higher education have been ambiguous in their concentration on only age, sex, and gender as demographic determinants of students´ choice of tourism studies. This study brings in new variables; ethnic background and religious inclinations under demographic characteristics. This will align with emerging Halal certification in tourism studies and its influence on the choice of tourism studies. Existing literature has failed to underscore those new variables and may motivate one to enrol in a tourism course. This will be relevant as the study focuses on a niche segment of students who were about to start their coursework or were just a few weeks into their tourism program and prospective students who had not yet determined whether to pursue the degree. Besides, it examined a particular population, the public Universities in Kenya, to illustrate a tourism program in consideration. As a result, this study closes with suggestions for recommendations at these specific public universities´ curriculum

developers, tourism industry practitioners, and other industry stakeholders. In conclusion, a summary of the literature reviewed and gaps identified in the literature is provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Summary of review literature

Topics	***Sources of Theoretical models***	***Areas addressed/Key contributions***	***Key gaps***
Social-cultural and psychological factors on students´ enrolment choice	O'Mahony et al. (2001) Alananzeh (2014)-Jordan Malubay et al. (2015)-The Philippines Aydin (2015)	-Parents´ influence/Career counselling/Personal interests -Social/Cultural factors -Social factors (family income and influence.	There is a need to merge the social-cultural factors to cater to economic aspects.
Social-economic factors on students´ enrolment choice	Hjalager (2003)-Sweden Koe and Saring (2012) Kim et al. (2008); Marwan, 2011 Mohammad and Alsaleh (2013)	-Work experience and value for the program - job opportunities by learning new languages and cultures and obtaining more knowledge. -Studying, fulfilling dreams, social status, and job opportunities	Failed to address the social-economic factors on students' enrollment choices. Tuition fee caps are critical indicators of economic viability and capacity to afford by parents; which has not been addressed
Institutional-based factors on students´ enrolment choice	Keling (2006)-Malaysian students Asher and Crawford, (1996) -in the USA Ming (2010)-In Malaysia Shanka et al. (2006)	-Reputation of the institution -Availability of laboratories, libraries, and classrooms -Location, academic programs, college reputation, educational facilities, Reputation, variety of study programs, and campus location	Institutional factors vary depending on the size, ownership, the number of students, courses offered, and government policies. The reputation of an institution significantly impacts the choice depending on the specialization of a university/college, e.g., law
Demographic factors on students´ enrolment choice	Aydın and Bayir, (2016); Mian (1985); Shank and Beasley (1998); (Menon, 2011); Kim (2004); Chakraborty (2006); Kochung and Migunade (2011); Shanka et al. (2006); Simpson (2005)	-Age and sex -Age, gender, work experience, and educational background) -Intrinsic and extrinsic career benefits in men and women	The need to consider the scope of ethnic background and religious variables. The motivators to pursue higher education may defer to those of fresh high school graduates.

2.8 Theoretical Foundations

The current study drew its foundations from human capital theories in higher education: human capital theory, status attainment theory, and social cognitive career theory (SCCT). The human capital theory focuses on how individuals invest in acquiring skills and knowledge to increase productivity and future earnings (Becker, 1967). The status attainment theory focuses on the socio-economic characteristics contributing to student's educational attainment. Social cognitive career theory emphasizes several cognitive variables associated with academic performance and persistent behaviour, including self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and choice goals. These theoretical frameworks offered significant insights into the factors influencing students' higher education enrolment.

2.8.1 Human Capital Theory

The concept of human capital considers direct and opportunity costs as the principal determinants of education demand (Bong, 2009). Various studies have shown that human capital theory is linked to higher education needs (Matilla, 1982). This model became popular with contributions from Mincer (1958), Schultz (1963), and (Becker (1967), and it posits that one chooses the optimal length of schooling to maximize the present value of the net lifetime wealth. The model assumes that individuals tend to enroll in higher education and persist to degree completion by comparing all alternatives' expected benefits and costs (Becker, 1962).

The human capital theory is an investment in higher education, which raises employees' productivity by acquiring helpful knowledge and skills. The skills acquired are meant to increase an individual's lifetime earnings, which in turn contributes to the best decision on the best choice of a commodity (Fleischhauer, 2011; Gichuhi & Kibui, 2015; Teixeira, 2014), and in this case, the choice of program

to enroll. Whenever students enrol in a program in institution of higher learning, they mainly consider the benefits of higher education, which must outweigh the costs. Education as an investment usually affects increased career opportunities, more chances of earning higher salaries, increased individual productivity, a more fulfilling work environment, learning essential skills, and a lower probability of unemployment (Tytingvåg, 2015). Education is therefore assumed to be an investment from where individuals derive utility. Since education is likely to improve the quality of life, this has resulted in more high school leavers pursuing higher education.

The economic factors are widely recognized as influencers of demand for education. In human capital theory, students are financial individuals who are likely to demand higher education if the prospectus benefits are more significant than their costs in its acquisition (Manono et al., 2013). The human capital theory is essential in enrolment management as it provides a conceptual basis for student enrolment decision-making. Students commonly identify different educational choices that are feasible for them, and then they weigh the benefits, i.e., higher future earnings and cost (Desjardins & Toutkoushian, 2005). In developing countries, human capital is a tool for development. Consequently, institutions of higher learning have been mandated to form human capital through teaching, building a research base through research development, and disseminating knowledge by interacting with users (Barwick et al., 2021).

The human capital theory is adopted widely in educational research as a theoretical framework. The human capital theory examines whether debt from undergraduate study influences students' enrolment in graduate school (Eagan & Newman, 2010; Malcolm & Dowd, 2012). These studies suggest that human capital theory explains students' graduate school enrolllment decisions. This then manifests as a catalyst, as

the social-economic desire becomes feasible if the expected gains after graduation are immense. Manski and Wise (1983) conducted a study on college choice in America to examine the academic, SES background, and demographic factors to predict student college enrollment. The results showed that economic and institutional considerations are essential in college enrolllment. Based on the human capital theory discussion and the benefits an individual derives from pursuing higher education, it is no wonder Kenyan students work very hard in their national examinations to secure admission to the university. The human capital theory supports and addresses the research problem of the study. It highlights the key economic variables that would be ideal in influencing students' enrollment to universities.

Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2 illustrate the various models of human capital ideologies. Both models are based on multiple monetary, direct, or indirect inputs, with a culmination of expected gains in terms of employment or social ranking/efficacy. This study adopted the model by Swanson (2001), as shown by the two figures; the idea is anchored on social-economic factors that stimulate the demand for enrollment; hence this theory supported the social-economic factors in students' enrollment decisions in public universities in Kenya

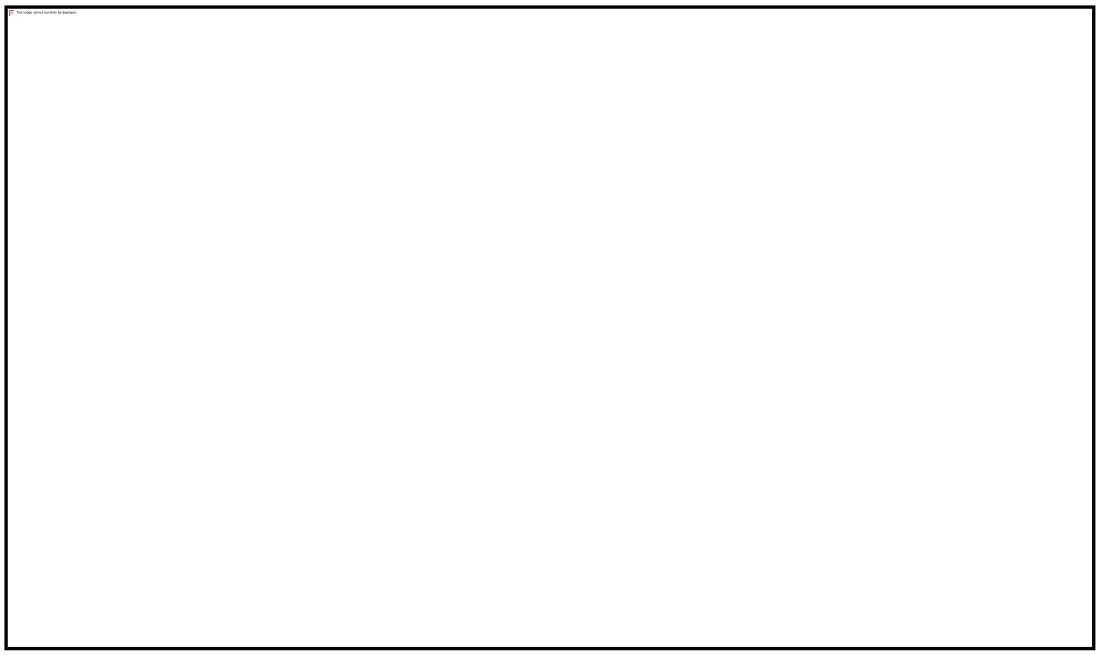


Figure 2.1: Human Capital Ideology

Source: Adapted from Swanson and Holton (200, p.110)

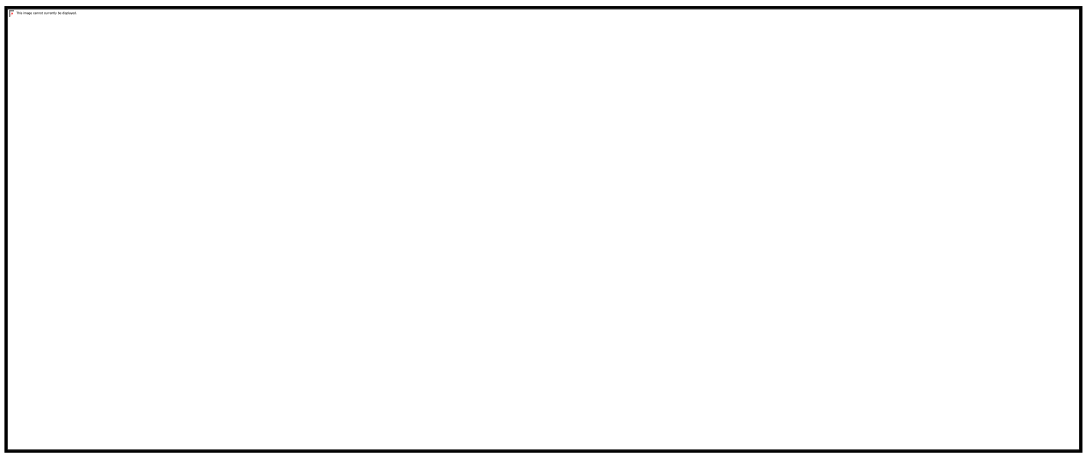


Figure 2.2: Expanded Human Capital Theory Framework

2.8.2 Status Attainment Theory

The sociological status attainment model focuses on the socioeconomic characteristics contributing to a student's educational and occupational attainment (Rowan, 2005). It provides a lens for understanding the factors that influence an individual to pursue advanced levels of education. Blau and Duncan (1967) developed the status attainment theory. It focused on the effects of an individual's background

characteristics, sense of origin, previous school experiences on educational attainment, and the influence of significant others. Ethnic diversity and gender can be measured by an individual's background characteristics, parent's income and education (Eagan et al., 2013). These characteristics contribute to students' likelihood to enroll in higher education. Therefore, students from families with educated parents and higher incomes have better chances of higher education than students from lower socio-economic backgrounds.

Studies by Burke and Hoelter (1998) and Carter (1999) examined the role of socioeconomic status in students of color. The results showed that socioeconomic status brings access to other forms of capital, including cultural and social wealth. Hearn (1991) used the status attainment model to examine students' factors when choosing a college to attend. His model focused on background socio-economic characteristics such as parental income, parental education, family size, gender, and race in college enrolment. The analysis found that students from higher socioeconomic status are more likely to attend college than low socioeconomic status students and black students. The study addresses the impact of the parent's education and social background, which influences students' enrolment in advanced levels of education.

This model (Figure 2.3) elaborates on the ethnic background, parent, and family background traits, all of which are within the demographic and social-economic determinants of the decision to enrol in tourism education, hence the choice for this study.

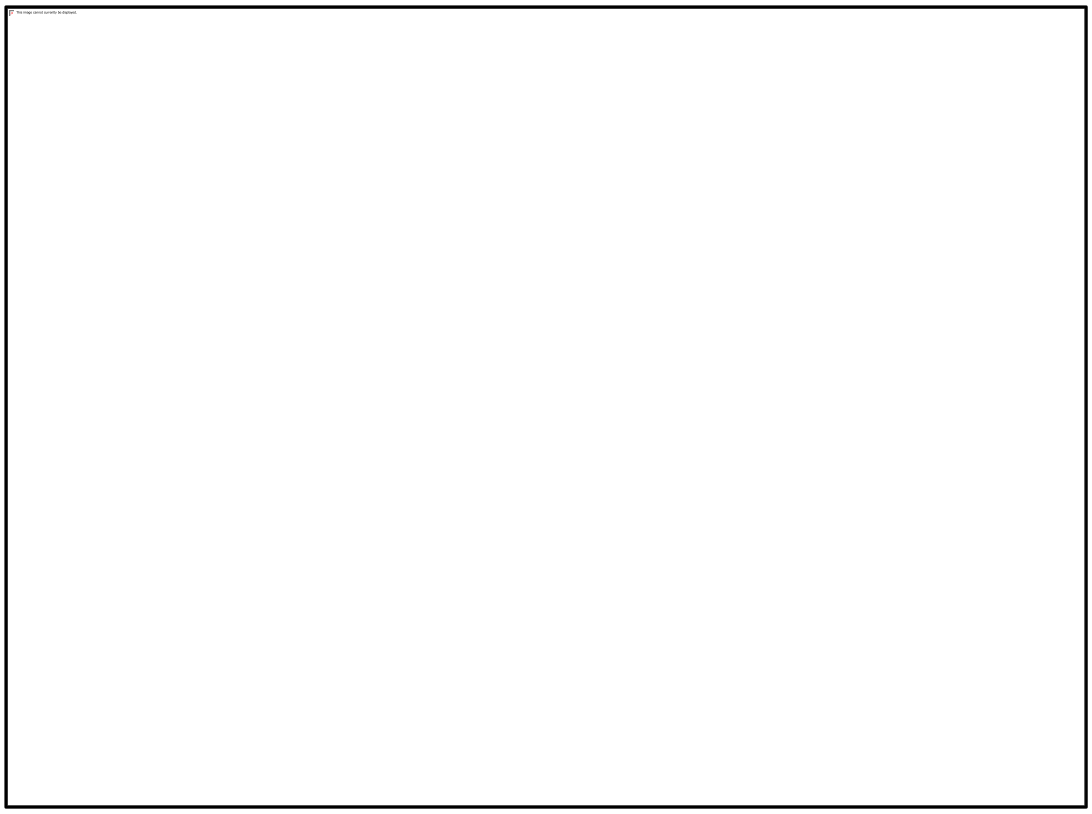


Figure 2.3: Status Attainment Model

Source: Adapted from Blau and Duncan's (1967) model

2.8.3 Social Cognitive Career Theory

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) predicts people's academic achievement, career and academic behaviors, and occupational considerations (Barak, 1981; Gore & Leuwerke, 2000; Lent et al., 1994). SCCT emphasizes several cognitive variables associated with academic performance and persistent behaviour, including self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and choice goals. Furthermore, Super (1995) stated that both internal (personal attributes) and external (environmental and social context) factors within the transition stages influence individuals' career choices and decisions as well as their career/vocational behaviors. One component of SCCT is self-efficacy, defined by Bandura (1986) as an individual's ability to judge their capability to perform designated functions. Outcome expectations are seen as individuals' belief concerning the outcome of completing a specific action (Lent et al., 2002).

According to Lent and Brown (1996), individuals with high self-efficacy anticipate positive outcomes and support higher goals, promoting and sustaining positive performance. The career exploration and commitment variable is about individuals' courage to test, explore, and attach to career choices based on career preferences (Blustein et al., 1989). The Social Cognitive Career Theory (see Figure 2.4) posits that personal inputs (gender, race, and personality), contextual factors (social/academic status, culture, and family), and learning experiences (work experiences) influence career behaviors in fundamental ways. This study found that social cognitive career theory is helpful in fieldwork and data analysis. The various tenets discussed, including; personal attributes, status, personality, gender, culture, economic prospects, and family, are correspondingly critical to the interest of the study. Therefore, the selected theory has given these issues elaborate discussion and recommends the present study in interacting and extracting information from the respondents.

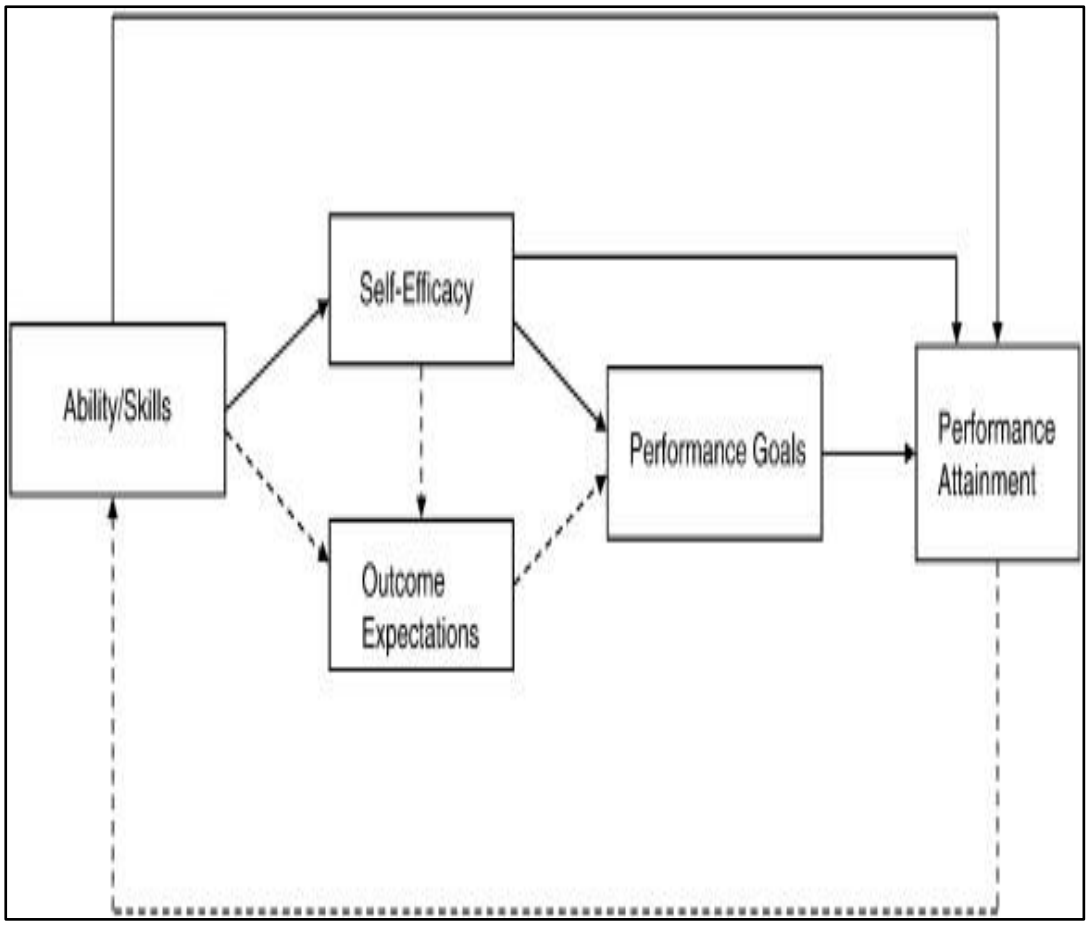


Figure 2.4: Social cognitive career theory

2.8.4 Contribution of the Three Theories in the Study

The present study's theoretical foundation was pinned on human capital theory, status attainment theory, and social cognitive career theory. The three theories formed a compounded understanding of various tenents determining why students choose a particular course. For example, the human capital theory posits that students outweigh the opportunity costs, where they view the length of study as a function of the lifetime value or wealth they will accumulate after graduation (Tytingvåg, 2015). This way, students are focused on the economic values of a program. Thus, their drive to choose such a program is determined by partial social and total economic factors. Although the theory propagates the costs incurred during the study as a function of economic benefits after graduation, it does address the social statuses sought after by a group of

students from well-up backgrounds whose parents influence their decisions to choose a course to uplift their social status in the community.

The status attainment theory addressed such a gap. This theory has shown the importance of an individual's background characteristics and how they influence their decision to enroll in a particular course in university. The imbalance between high and low social-economic status (ethnicity, gender, family/parent income, background, and education levels) comes in handy as a catalyst as to which course to enroll in (Eagan et al., 2013). Therefore, the theory provided a vivid understanding of how demographic factors can be important in a student's educational decision-making. However, there a need to accommodate students from low-class societies whose choice of a course is driven by their abilities and cognitive sense of aspirations to progress.

The social cognitive career theory emphasizes cognitive variables (self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and choice goals) and their impact on academic choice and performance (Lent et al., 1994)**.** The theory elaborates that it is not only important to choose a course cognitively, but having in mind the probability or the capability to perform well in the chosen program matters a lot. This theory was constructive during the field study and analysis, especially during the interviews, where the respondents could expound more on how the thesis relates to the current situation in students pursuing tourism degrees.

In conclusion, this elaborate theoretical pillar ensured that the researcher did not deviate from the core objectives of the study, as the guideline was evident. The theories also formed the basis of formulating the conceptual framework based on the study objective, therefore ensuring the study's relativity and flow. The theories also

anchored the study findings, and the recommendations borrowed the theories' ideas. However, it should be noted that the use of the three theories did not dictate the research methodology. However, they complemented the triangulation of data collection and analysis. Lastly, the three theories complemented one another to ensure contingencies and gaps arising from one gap are covered by the other- that is, satisfying the needs of low, middle, and high-income students, as well as those driven by results-thus acting as a firewall to support the foundational basis of the study.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

The independent variables in this study were grouped into three broad categories: socio-economic, psychological, and demographic factors. The socio-economic factors included employment upon graduation, tuition fees, and parent and family background. The second category addressed psychological factors, including self-efficacy and past educational background, while the third focused on demographic factors, including gender, ethnicity, and religion. These independent variables were assumed to directly influence the students' choice to enroll, forming the dependent variable.

The study adopted the structure of potential predictors of primary college choice developed by Crisp et al. (2009) and a conceptual framework model of college choice developed by (Perna, 2006). The Crisp et al. (2009) structure includes demographic, pre-college experiences, environmental factors, and college factors. The demographic factors refer to gender, race/ethnicity, and social-economic status. The pre-college experience characteristics address academic preparation, environmental factors focus on financial aspects, and college factors address academic achievement in college. On the other hand, Perna (2006) places students in a four-layer context: student and

family context, high school context, more elevated education context, and social, economic, and policy context. The high school context addresses student characteristics, social-economic background, academic preparation, and educational aspirations. The high school and higher education contexts form the second and third contexts that focus on the elements of colleges that may influence college enrollment. The fourth context includes social, economic, and social context, which is the context of the larger society.

As the number of students enrollled in tourism degrees increases, the push and pull effect is manifested through an increase in the number of programs and an increase in the number of institutions of higher learning offering tourism and tourism-related courses. In 2016, there were twenty-two (22) CUE accredited Universities in Kenya that provided tourism education compared to the early 1990s, when Moi University was the only institution of higher learning offering a bachelor's degree in tourism management. In addition, the number of students joining University education indicates growth in students' enrollment. For example, in 1963, only 571 students joined University education compared to 84 389 students in the 2016/2017 academic year. Figure 2.5 shows the conceptual framework.

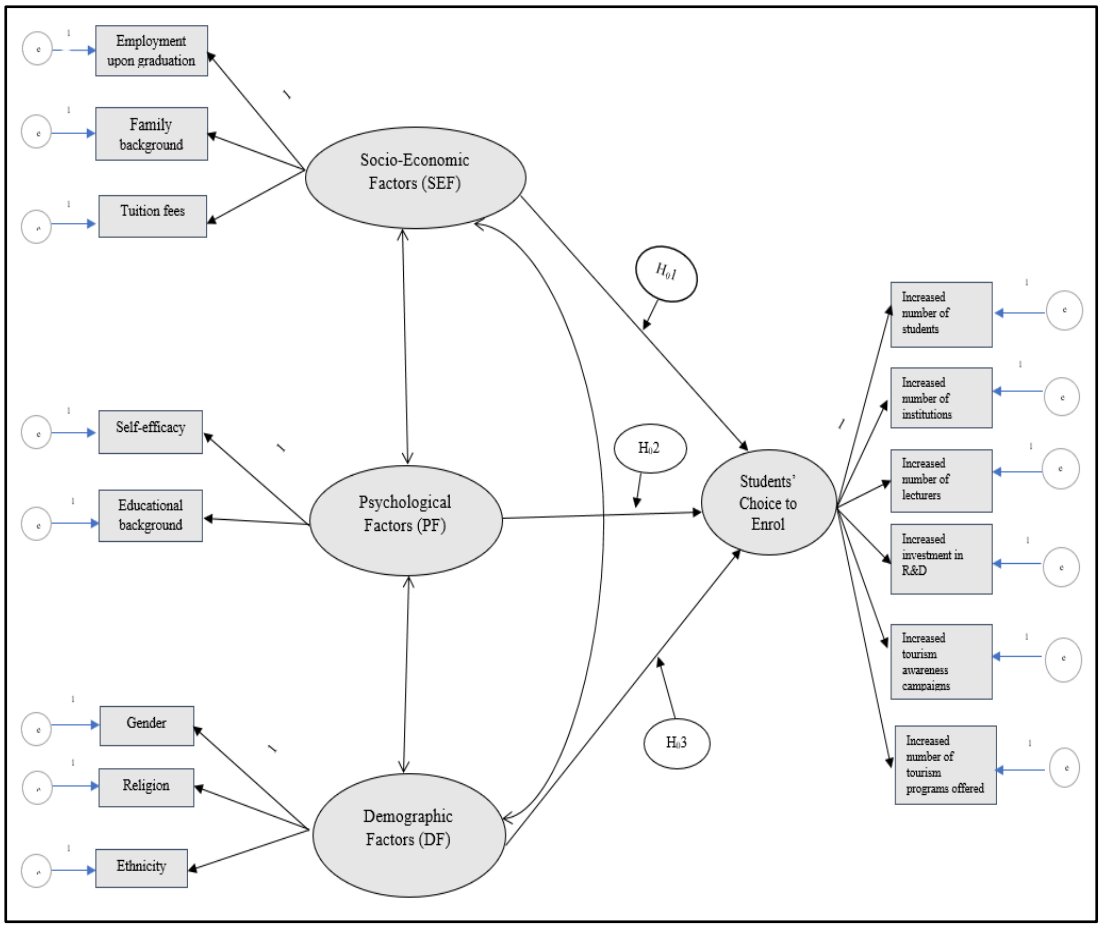


Figure 2.5: The Proposed Conceptual Framework

Source: Adapted from Amoor and Umar (2015); Betsy et al. (2016); Crisp et al. (2009); Gudo et al. (2011); Luka and Donina (2012); Matasci et al. (2020); Masanja (2010); Perna (2006); Roach et al. (2016); Saroush et al. (2015); Syed et al. (2013);

Hypotheses:

H_{01}: There is no significant influence of socio-economic factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

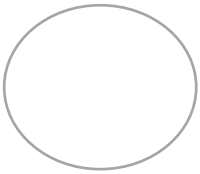
H_{02}: There is no significant influence of psychological factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

H_{03}: There is no significant influence of demographic factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

Key to the SEM Path Model Diagram Symbols used in the Conceptual Framework above:

Observed variables

Latent variables



Residual/Error term

Direct relationship

Correlations (*May be curved*)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter presents the adopted research methodologies: research design, study area, sampling techniques, sample size, data collection instruments, pilot study, measurement of variables, data analysis, and presentation. Additionally, the study limitations and ethical considerations are discussed.

3.1 Study Area

The study focused on twelve (12) Kenyan public universities that offer tourism education programs. The study area was scattered in eleven (10) counties, namely, Nairobi, Nyeri, Uasin Gishu, Mombasa, Kilifi, Narok, Siaya, Kericho, Murang'a, and Migori, as indicated in Table 3.1 (see Appendix G). The twelve universities were chosen based on their offering of tourism courses in Kenya. At the time of the study, these selected universities offered tourism and tourism-related courses.

Table 3.1: Distribution and coverage of the study area

University	County	University	County
1) Moi University	Uasin Gishu	2) Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science & Tech*nology*	Siaya
3) Kenyatta University	Nairobi	4) University of Kabianga	Kericho
5) Technical University of Kenya	Nairobi	6) Karatina University	Nyeri
7) Technical University of Mombasa	Mombasa	8) University of Eldoret	Uasin Gishu
9) Pwani University	Kilifi	10) Murang'a University of Technology	Murang'a
11) Maasai Mara University	Narok	12) Rongo University	Migori

3.2 Research Paradigm- Pragmatism

A research paradigm is a set of interrelated assumptions about the social world which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organized study of that world (Filstead, 1979,1981 and Ponterotto, 2005,p.127). Thus, the researcher is always guided in selecting research tool(s), participants, or methodology, depending on the chosen philosophical approach; paradigm type.

The researcher's thoughts are conceptualized by the selected paradigm model, which shapes his work's ideologies (Brierley, 2017; Saunders et al., 2016). For qualitative research methods, the study aims to analyze and interpret the participants' subjective perceptions about a phenomenon, mainly presented as participants' wordings describing events, lived experiences, or phenomena (Daher et al., 2017). On the one hand, quantitative research methods rely on data quantification by controlling variables to attain means and variance through a series of statistical methods (Thi, 2017). On the other hand, the emphasis is placed on measuring and analyzing correlational relationships between study variables (Sepula, 2019).

The pragmatism approach in research triangulates the correlation between epistemology and method (Daher et al., 2017). The framework presumes compatibility with both the quantitative and qualitative methods. The design and argument of pragmatists indicate a resilient incline toward the research questions instead of the research methodology (Brierley, 2017).

Many studies on students enrollment have taken a more positivist approach (Daher et al., 2017; Simiyu et al., 2016; Thi, 2017). Such studies have overemphasized data quantification, statistical analyses, and quantitative methods. Despite this route, it was not clear from empirical research if other paradigmatic approaches would be the best

fit for the current study. It is essential to mention that researchers do not explicitly confess their paradigmatic orientations in their studies (Balami & Sakir, 2014; Baliyan, 2016). Pragmatism has been hailed as the foundation of mixed methods, and depending on the nature of research, it can be adapted to yield better outcomes (Brierley, 2017).

Studies by Malubay et al. (2015) and Alananzeh (2014) cordially examined the determinants of students' choice in tourism and hospitality courses in the Philippines and Jordan. They found that family income, influence, social factors, and cultural factors are key factors in pursuing hospitality and tourism courses in their respective colleges and universities. Although they utilized content and qualitative methods, their data analysis and arrangement reveal that the coded data were extracted, verified, analyzed, and compared statistically. These two studies utilized a pragmatist approach.

This study used a pragmatic paradigm. Pragmatism is a vital milestone to display and elaborate on the epistemology-method nexus (Sepula, 2019; Daher et al., 2017). This approach appreciates the compatibility of both qualitative and quantitative methods while placing its importance on questions than a methodology or the underlying assumptions of the research methods (Daher et al., 2017). Pragmatism has been hailed as the foundation of mixed methods, and depending on the nature of research, it can be adapted to yield better outcomes (Brierley, 2017).

The culmination was attributed to the significance of pragmatist ideology for this study. Pragmatism is helpful because it considers the research question more important than the method used or the paradigm that underlies each method (Sepula, 2019). More conclusively, the importance is emphasized on the need for triangulation

by combining methodological approaches to attest to the validity of that study (Kwok, 2012; Saunders et al., 2016).

3.3 Research Design

According to Saunders et al. (2016), a research design is a general plan of the procedures a researcher follows to answer the chosen research question. It "provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data" (Bryman et al., 2015). Bryman and Bell (2015) presented the choice of research design to reflect the priority given to distinct dimensions of the research process.

This research adopted an explanatory research design since the researcher was interested in establishing the effect of socioeconomic factors, demographic factors, and psychological factors on students' enrolment in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. Exploratory research design is a research method used to investigate a phenomenon that has not been extensively studied before. The primary objective of exploratory research is to generate initial insights and hypotheses to guide future research. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), the exploratory research design is often used when the research questions are not clearly defined or when the researcher has limited knowledge about the topic. Exploratory research design is a flexible and iterative process involving qualitative and quantitative research methods (Freitas et al., 2016).

Exploratory research design has a long history dating back to the 1920s when social scientists first introduced it. Initially, exploratory research was primarily qualitative, using interviews and observations to gather data. Over time, exploratory research design evolved to include quantitative methods such as surveys and experiments. According to Tashakkori et al. (2020), exploratory research design has become more

prevalent in recent years due to the increasing complexity of research problems and the need for more in-depth investigation.

One of the primary advantages of exploratory research design is that it allows researchers to gain a deeper understanding of a phenomenon or research problem. The flexible nature of exploratory research design also enables researchers to adjust their approach as new insights emerge. However, exploratory research design also has some disadvantages. One potential limitation is that the insights gained from exploratory research design may not be generalizable to larger populations. Another potential disadvantage is that exploratory research design may not answer research questions definitively.

Researchers can take several steps to mitigate contingencies arising from exploratory research design. One approach is to use multiple methods to gather data, such as combining qualitative and quantitative methods. Another approach is to use a larger sample size to increase the generalizability of the findings. Additionally, researchers can be transparent about the limitations of their research and provide clear recommendations for future research. By taking these steps, researchers can help ensure that their exploratory research design is rigorous and valuable for informing future research. For this study, a triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative data collection analysis was used, where data was collected through questionnaires and interviews and analyzed quantitatively (inferential statistics) and qualitatively (content analysis and thematic representation).

Compared to descriptive research, explanatory studies identify the target population's causal factors and outcomes (Bhattacherjee, 2012). For instance, Tillman (2015) used an explanatory research design to explain the influence of parents on students' career

aspirations in college with success. On the other hand, descriptive studies measure the variables and then produce evidence that either supports or refutes the contention that a cause-and-effect relationship exists between the variables (Salkind, 2010).

3.4 Target Population

"Population is the total collection of elements about which the references are made" (Cooper and Schindler, 2013, p.37). According to Gall et al. (2010), a target population gives a concrete foundation to build the population rationality of the study. The target population for the present study was 730 respondents, comprising 12 HODs and 718 students from the twelve universities who joined year one in the 2017/2018 academic year, pursuing studies in tourism education (Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service (KUCCPS), 2017; Ministry of Education, 2017) (see Table 3.2). The choice of first-year students assumed that they had relevant information on the study variables, as they were immediate newcomers to the university. In addition, first-year students in this study were deemed to understand with clarity what made them choose tourism degrees, as opposed to second, third, and fourth years, who might have forgotten, or their answers compromised by the university environment or frustrated by the education system.

Table 3.2: Target Population

S/No.	**Name of the university**	**No. of students enrolled in Tourism degree**	**HODs**
1.	Moi University	100	1
2.	Kenyatta University	65	1
3.	Technical University of Kenya	24	1
4.	Technical University of Mombasa	80	1
5.	Pwani University	40	1
6.	Maasai Mara University	50	1
7.	Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science & Technology	120	1
8.	University of Kabianga	52	1
9.	Karatina University	40	1
10.	University of Eldoret	65	1
11.	Murang'a University of Technology	60	1
12.	Rongo University	22	1
	Total	**718**	**12**

Source: KUCCPUS, 2017

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Design

3.5.1 Sample Size Determination

The sample size of the students was calculated using the Yamane (1967) formula, which is denoted as:

$$n = \frac{N}{\left[1 + Ne^2\right]}$$

Where; n = Sample Size, N = Population size, and e = acceptable sampling error, which is + or – 5%.

Thus, $n = \frac{718}{[1+718(0.05)^2]} = 257$

Therefore, a sample of 257 students (35.7% of the target population) was randomly selected and differentiated against 35.7% (Adimo, 2018), as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Sample Size Determination

University	No. of Students	Sample size (%*N)
Moi University	100	36
Kenyatta University	65	23
Technical University of Kenya	24	9
Technical University of Mombasa	80	29
Pwani University	40	14
Maasai Mara University	50	18
Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science & Technology	120	43
Kabianga University	53	19
Karatina University	40	14
University of Eldoret	65	23
Murang'a University of Technology	60	21
Rongo University	22	8
Total	**718**	**257**

The sample size from HODs was attained through a census. The choice of the census to sample the target population provided an accurate sampling technique for the population in question (Saunders et al., 2016). Thus, the total sample size of the present study was 269 respondents, comprising 257 students and 12 HODs.

3.5.2 Sampling Technique

The purposive sampling technique was used to choose the public universities offering tourism courses and the first-year students for the 2017/2018 academic year. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), purposive sampling is a non-probability technique that allows the researcher to arrive at the case with the information required concerning the study's objective. This technique was deemed appropriate as the researcher perceived first-year students to have information on the factors that influenced the choice to enroll in a tourism course. After that, a simple random sampling technique was used to sample first-year students from the targeted public universities. This was done by choosing every third student in the list of students according to their arrangement in the class attendance lists. KUCCP list was only used

to identify the number of first-year students in a university. The main advantage of this technique was that it gave equal chances for all first-year students to participate in the study. Out of 718 first-year students targeted by the study, the researcher sampled 257 students. This constituted 35.7% of the total targeted population. Gay (2003) suggested that 10% of the accessible population is adequate to serve as a study sample. The researcher, therefore, considered 37.7% of the targeted population representative enough for the study.

The researcher compiled a list of all universities that offer tourism-related studies (see Appendix F). Twenty-two (22) public and private universities (31.4%) offer tourism education-related studies in Kenya. However, this study explicitly targeted public universities that provide tourism education. Therefore, the study employed a purposive sampling technique to select the public universities included in the study. From the public universities established in the sample, the head of the Department participated in the interview guide. As a result, twelve public universities were selected, and twelve (12) departmental heads participated in the study.

The students selected for this study were limited to the first year's enrolment in the tourism education program since they could still remember the factors that influenced their tourism education enrolment. Using purposive sampling, the researcher selected the students pursuing a degree in tourism management only. To get the number of students who enrolled to pursue tourism management, the researcher used the 2017/2018-degree placement summary by KUCCPS. A systematic sampling method was used to select a sample representative of male and female students.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaires and interview schedules were employed to collect data for this study. Specifically, questionnaires were distributed to the first-year students enrolled in a bachelor's degree in tourism management, from the twelve selected public universities, during the 2017/2018. The interviews were face-to-face and online through Zoom meetings with the heads of departments of the universities, right in the comfort of their offices.

3.6.1 Questionnaires

In social science, business, and management research, questionnaires are employed within the survey strategy (Saunders et al., 2016). A questionnaire is a data collection instrument in which each person responds to the same set of questions in a predetermined order and is mainly used for descriptive or explanatory research to examine and explain relationships between variables, particularly cause-and-effect relationships (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2013; Saunders et al., 2016). Thus, a questionnaire survey provides an opportunity to inquire about specific issues in a large sample, making the findings more reliable and dependable (Kothari & Gaurav, 2014).

The questionnaire used for this study was divided into five sections comprising indicators related firstly to the students' profile, including basic demographics, such as gender and level of education, and other variables related to their family income and parents' level of education, grades attained in high school, and types of schools attended (See Appendix B, Section A). This section was followed by the sections consisting of indicators on Demographic Factors (Appendix B, Section B), Socio-

Economic Factors (Appendix B, Section C), Psychological Factors (Appendix B, Section D), and Students' Choice to Enroll (Appendix 2, Section E)

The present study employed a questionnaire with structured questions. The structured sections consisted of five-point Likert scale items measuring demographic profiles, demographic factors, socio-economic factors, psychological factors, and students' choice to enroll. This study considered the five-point scale appropriate because it improves response rate and quality (Yilmaz, 2010). In this case, the questionnaire enabled respondents to provide as much information as possible on their perceptions of the determinants of students enroll in tourism programs in the universities. Consequently, data were triangulated to seek convergence (Creswell & Poth, 2017) across the survey and the semi-structured interviews for the students and the heads of departments as participants. During the analysis stage, the exploration of the study variables whose data was collected through the students' questionnaires was compared to the transcribed data from the interviews to determine areas of agreement and areas of disagreement or divergence.

Serem et al. (2013) noted several weaknesses associated with self-administered questionnaires. Notable weaknesses include the insufficient flexibility to record issues that respondents think are paramount. Secondly, there is no way to verify if the respondents understood and answered the questions appropriately. Finally, there is no honest feedback on the social context in which the questionnaire was answered. Hair et al. (2009) argue that these challenges can be mitigated using scales tested before as reliable indicators.

Before collecting the questionnaires from the students, the research assistants went through them to ensure that all questions had been answered. Upon completion of the

exercise, all returned questionnaires were cross-checked for completeness before the data entry and analysis.

3.6.1.1 The Nature of Data and Levels of Measurement

The researcher must understand the different levels of measurement, as these levels of measurement, together with how the research question is phrased, determine the type of statistical analysis to be employed. Generally, measurement is a process through which observations are translated into numbers. The nature of the measurement process produces the numbers (Saunders et al., 2016). A variable is usually categorized into four measurement levels: nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio, arranged in ascending order of precision. This present study utilized two levels of measurement: ordinal and nominal, to categorize the study variables in the hypothesized model.

The first level of measurement used in the study was the nominal level. In this level of measurement, the numerical labels (1, 2, 3, or 4) were arbitrarily assigned to variables in the demographic profile section of the questionnaire to merely classify the categorical data on the respondents' demographic aspects to place them into mutually exclusive groups without representing the absolute or relative amount of the trait being measured (Saunders et al., 2016). At this level of measurement, the empirical operation involves classifying the respondents (students), for instance, as either male (1) or female (2), Transgender (3), or Prefer Not to Say (4); their age being below 18 years (1), 18-25 years (2), 25-30 years (3), or above 30 years (4).

The other level of measurement used was the ordinal level. This level of measurement portrays some ordered relationship in the variable's observations indicating the relative position of the respondents (students) concerning some operationally defined

attributes measuring a variable. This level of measurement involved comparing the respondents' extent of agreement or disagreement with a particular attribute.

The ordinal level of measurement is prominently popular in statistical analysis in behavioral and social science research because it provides some form of continuous data appropriate for parametric tests (Awang et al., 2016; Saunders et al., 2016). For instance, researchers suggest that this level of measurement, which uses the Likert scale, is employed in parametric tests such as t-tests, regression analysis, or structural equation modeling (Awang et al., 2016).

Consistent with previous studies on students' enrollment in universities (Aydın et al., 2016; Balami & Sakir, 2014; Program et al., 2016; Sedahmed & Noureldien, 2019; Simiyu et al., 2016), the present study applied similar levels of measurement. For example, in this study, the perceptions of demographic factors, socio-economic factors, psychological factors, as well as students' choice to enroll were measured using a questionnaire on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1); "Disagree" (2), "Neutral" (3), "Agree" (4), to "Strongly Agree" (5) (See Appendix B, Section B, C, D, and E).

The research assistants gave the questionnaires to the HODs, who administered them to the students. The students were first briefed on the questionnaire's content and assured of assistance if they encountered difficulties while answering the questions. Most of them answered the questionnaires at the end of the lesson; this was intended to avoid interference with the classes; hence it was amicable to spend the last 15 minutes of a lecture answering the questionnaires. A link was sent to the absentee containing the same questionnaire questions as the rest of the absentee.

3.6.2 Interview Guide

An interview is a purposeful discourse between two or more people to help gather valid and reliable data relevant to research questions and objectives (Saunders et al., 2016). This method allows the researcher to note facial expressions, gestures, hesitation, and other expressions when engaging a respondent (Kothari, 2007; Serem et al., 2013). Serem et al. (2013) further argue that during interviews, the researcher can authenticate the responses explore issues raised, and discuss attitudes, feelings, and beliefs more easily with respondents.

It is essential to decide exactly the type of interview appropriate for exploring issues with respondents and then design a suitable interview guide schedule. Semi-structured interviews offer researchers the flexibility to add or remove questions from the schedule based on the results of each interview (Jwan & Ong'ondo, 2011). In the present study, semi-structured interviews were employed to enhance flexibility in the flow of the interview questions without deviating from the focus of the study.

Twelve heads of departments accepted to participate and were interviewed using the interview guides shown in Appendix C. Respondents were asked to explain how demographic, psychological, and socio-economic factors are dimensions of students' choice to enroll in tourism programs in the selected public universities in Kenya. Respondents were presented with a range of attributes adapted from the literature. Based on their professional experience, the interviewees explained enrollment trends and attributed factors not included in the interview guide criteria and which they thought influenced students' decision to enroll but were not included in the present study.

All interviews were conducted by the researcher, who guided the flow of the interviews and ensured that they remained well within the context of the research objectives. The interview guides had at least 8 to 10 questions, lasting roughly between 15 and 35 minutes, as suggested by (Serem et al., 2013). Furthermore, not all interviews were conducted on a face-to-face basis; 5 of the interviews were conducted through Zoom meetings virtually due to the respondents' tight schedule or the distance to be covered, while seven were conducted physically (face to face). The researcher sought permission from the respondents to use a digital voice recorder to free the researcher from frantically writing down everything being said or elaborated Serem et al. (2013), while at the same time providing an opportunity for the natural flow of the “conversation” to take place.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

Data collection procedures involve gathering and measuring information on variables of interest in an established and systematic manner to ensure that the research questions are answered, hypotheses are tested, and the outcomes are evaluated (Rugg & Petre, 2007). The researcher reviewed literature in areas that were related to the study. The data collection instruments were designed to meet the objectives of the study.

Two research assistants pursuing a Master's degree in tourism management were involved in collecting data upon training by the researcher. The research assistants returned the questionnaires from respondents and handed them over to the researcher. Data collection was carried out between February and May 2018.

3.8 Test for Validity and Reliability

3.8.1 Validity Tests

Validity determines the intentions of a study or how truthful the research results are (Pizam et al., 2016). The question of validity can be raised in three contexts; the form of the test, its purpose, and the population for whom it is intended. Ensuring that the researcher uses quality instruments while carrying out the study is critical because its conclusions are drawn from the information obtained using these instruments (Zohrabi, 2013). For this particular study, content and internal validity were applied. Content validity is whereby experts in research review research instruments (Gregory, 2014). Multiple statistics determine validity to demonstrate the relationship between the test and the behavior it is intended to measure (Hunt & Sendhill, 2011). There are two main dimensions of validity, namely internal and external validity.

Consequently, the study sought experts in research methodology and educational background, i.e., two senior lecturers in tourism education, to determine the relevance of the content used in the questionnaire and the interview guide. To boost internal validity, Merriam (1998) recommends using triangulation, member checks, long-term observation at the research site, peer examination, participatory or collaborative mode of research, and researcher bias.

The researcher used triangulation, where more than one method or technique was used, and participatory research, where the researcher continued to involve the supervisors since their ideas and views were deemed constructive and valuable. Zohrabi (2013) noted that gathering data using one tool is biased and weak. Therefore, it is recommended to collect data using more than one tool to strengthen the validity of the findings. The researcher, thus, used both questionnaires and interview schedules to enhance the study. The validity of questionnaires ensures that

respondents' responses make sense and are meant to draw reasonable conclusions from the sample studied to the research population (Creswell, 2014). The questionnaires were hand-delivered to the respondents.

3.8.2 Reliability Tests

'Reliability is the extent to which an experiment, test, or measuring procedure yields the same result on repeated trials' (Esser et al., 2012). According to Brown (1997), there are three strategies for estimating reliability: (a) test-retest reliability (i.e., calculating a reliability estimate by administering a test on two occasions and calculating the correlation between the two sets of scores), (b) equivalent forms reliability (whereby reliability is calculated by administering two forms of a test and then calculate the correlation between the two sets of scores), and, (c) internal consistency reliability (whereby reliability estimate is based on a single form of a test administered on a single occasion using one of the many available internal consistency equations).

This study adopted the internal consistency reliability, which comes in several flavors: (a) split-half adjusted, (b) Kuder-Richardson formulas 20 and 21, and (c) Cronbach Alpha (Brown, 2002). Further, Brown contends that Cronbach alpha is appropriately applied to norm-referenced tests and norm-referenced decisions such as admissions and placement decisions. Therefore, this study used Cronbach's alpha to test the reliability of the constructs. A Cronbach alpha of at least 0.7 is the criterion used to establish an expectable level of reliability (Hassad, 2009). However, the recommended Cronbach's alpha for exploratory studies is 0.6 (Robinson et al., 1991). The measurement scale items were generated using SPSS to determine the Cronbach alpha coefficient values.

Cronbach's Alpha is a standard method used to evaluate the reliability of the information on numerous questionnaire items. According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), alpha provides measures of the internal consistency for the scale, which is the extent of evaluating the same concept for all items. Thus, it is linked to the interrelatedness of the items within the examination. Cronbach's Alpha is between 0 and 1; the more significant the alpha values, the more reliable the results are.

Cronbach's alpha in the present study determined the internal consistency of items in the questionnaire to gauge their reliability. Therefore, the analysis tested the internal consistency of the instruments by computing Cronbach's alpha to assess the instrument's reliability. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.8 was taken as acceptable reliability. According to Cronbach and Green (1957), a coefficient of $0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$ is assumed to be good, while that of $\alpha \geq 0.9$ is considered excellent.

The reliability findings from cronbach coefficients aree represented in Table 3.4. From the findings, the reliability of the for sub-variables ranged between 0.71 to 0.85, meaning that all met the required threshhold of 0.7 (Cronbach & Green, 1957). Overall, the reliability was 0.9233, and all were significant as indicated in the sig. column in the Cochran's test.

Table 3.4: Reliability Statistics with ANOVA (Cochran's Q)

Item category	Cronbach 's Alpha	α on standardized items	No. of Items	ANOVA with Cochran's Test	
				Cochran's Q	Sig.
Socio-economic factors	0.847	0.841	14	531.567	.000
Psychological factors	0.710	0.714	10	509.054	.000
Demographic factors	0.737	0.744	7	258.924	.000
Students' choice to enroll	0.819	0.824	6	151.602	.000
Overall reliability	**0.923**	**0.947**	**37**	**1521.662**	**.000**

Further, the split-half method was used to test the reliability of the instruments. This method involves scoring two halves, usually odd and even items of a test separately for the category of the instruments and then calculating the correlation coefficient for the two sets of scores. The coefficient indicates the degree to which the two test halves provide the same results, describing the test's internal consistency. Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula below was used to test the reliability of the instruments:

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{2 \times Corr.\,Between the Halves}{1 + Corr.\,Between the Halves}$$

$$R = \frac{2r}{r+1}$$

Where R = reliability of the coefficient resulting from correlating the odd items' scores with the actual items' scores.

The findings as indicated in Table 3.5 shows that reliability of the four study variables was 0.658 during the first half. Further, upon analyzing the second half of the variables, the reliability became 0.855, yielding a total of 0.909 coefficients in the Spearman-Brown's coefficient. This indicated that the two-split tests yielded the same internal consistency. This was also confirmed by Cochran's test that yielded aChi-Square of 29.045, significant at 0.000.

Table 3.5: Spearman-Brown Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics				**ANOVA with Cochran's Test**
Cronbach's Alpha	Part 1	Value	**.658**	
		N of Items	2[a]	Cochran's Q
	Part 2	Value	**.855**	**29.045**
		N of Items	2[b]	
	Total N of Items		4	
Correlation Between Forms			.833	
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length		**.909**	Sig.
	Unequal Length		**.909**	**.0000**
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient			.902	
a. The items are: Demographic factors, Socio-economic factors.				
b. The items are: Students' choice to enrol, Psychological Factors.				

3.9 Pretesting

A pilot study was used to determine the reliability and validity of the research instruments. The pilot study was done through random sampling. The research instruments were also pretested on 50 Karatina University and Kenyatta University students. The respondents who participated in the pre-test formed part of the actual respondents of the study. Pretesting is usually done to detect flaws in the instrument's design before applying it to the selected sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2013). Pretesting is the method of checking whether the questions as they are worded to achieve the desired results, whether the questions are placed in the best order, whether there is a need for additional or specifying questions, and whether the instructions given to the respondents are adequate (Hilton, 2015). The instruments that were used for pre-testing were not used in the actual analysis. However, they assisted the researcher in revising the instruments for any errors that may have arisen when pretesting.

According to Connelly (2008), a pilot study should be 10% of the sample projected. Consequently, the study considered 10% of the cast sample of 271. The purpose of pretesting was to establish the accuracy and appropriateness of the data collection instruments. Both questionnaire and interview pretesting were done in-personal to observe the respondent's reactions and attitudes and test the questions' content, wording, sequence, form, and layout. Next, the results of the pretesting were used to replace all ambiguous questions, and then actual data collection commenced.

3.10 Data Analysis

3.10.1 Quantitative Analysis

Once data was collected and accuracy checks were conducted, the researcher entered the data into an SPSS program, version 22. Descriptive statistics (mean, variance, and

standard deviation) were used to describe and determine the respondents' degree of agreement with various statements under each variable constituting the factors influencing students' decision to enrol in tourism education. Additionally, structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to examine the influence of socioeconomic, psychological, and demographic factors on students' decision to enrol in a tourism program. SEM is adopted when the researcher investigates the influence of an element that is assumed to exert a causal influence on observed variables (Blackcoffer Insights, 2019).

The SEM defines the relationships between the latent variables or the constructs. It specifies which latent variables directly or indirectly influence changes in the values of other latent variables in the model. Though there are many ways to describe SEM, it is commonly a hybrid between variance analysis forms (ANOVA) and forms of factor analysis (Byrne, 2016). Therefore, the researcher is familiar with univariate and multivariate regression/ANOVA, and the basics of factor analysis and data analysis followed the SEM analysis model.

SEM is a factor analysis and Multiple Linear Regression (MLR) hybrid. CFA was conducted to test the fit of the measurement model. In addition, the reliability and validity of each latent variable were examined. Such analysis is termed explanatory factor analysis (EFA). Exploratory factor analysis helps an investigator determine how many latent variables underlie a set of items. The factor analysis was used for two reasons; first, it reveals whether the survey items independently measure the theoretical constructs they were intended to measure. This enabled the researcher to create a composite score for each socioeconomic, psychological, and demographic scale. Second, this method allowed for items to be grouped into subscales during the data analysis.

Multiple Linear Regression analysis was adopted to establish the relationships between the dependent and independent variables as described in the conceptual framework summarized below:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon \quad \ldots \text{Equation (1)}$$

Where; $Y =$ Student's enrolment in Tourism Education; $\beta_0 =$ Constant; β_1, β_2 & $\beta_3 =$ Coefficients; $X_1 =$ Demographic Factors; $X_2 =$ Social Economic Factors; $X_3 =$ Psychological Factors; and $\varepsilon =$ Residual Error

3.10.2 Qualitative Analysis

For qualitative data from the interview guide, once data cleaning, coding, and confirmation checks were conducted, the data were entered into the Excel program. The digitally recorded data from in-depth interviews and interview notes were transcribed and coded for easy analysis. From there, the content analysis was performed and different themes grouped depending on the study variables. In this case, the interview notes and recordings were analyzed for content relevant to the study objectives. From there, the content was re-evaluated and grouped into similar thematic sequences, thus giving a clear picture of how interviewees' responses matched with the study. Later, those themes were integrated into quantitative data during reporting.

3.10.3 Data Analysis Summary

In summary, data analysis followed a sequence of phases and steps. The first step in the data analysis was to find out the sample's characteristics. For this purpose, descriptive statistics were employed. The next important step was the Exploratory Factor Analysis to explore the underlying data set's dimensions. Finally, EFA was undertaken with Varimax rotation. In this process, essential suggestions by (Hair et

al., 2010) were kept in mind, such as deleting items that have a loading of below 0.4 and deleting those with a cross-loading below 0.35.

Moreover, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were also examined to see the correlations between variables. The next stage after CFA was to confirm the extracted factors. For this purpose, the two-stage Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique was adopted, with the first stage as confirmation and the second as hypothesis testing. Technically called Confirmatory Factor Analysis, the confirmation stage was performed using SPSS/AMOS software with Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE). All the extracted factors were tested in a single measurement model. After CFA, the next stage was to test the fitness of the full-fledged structural model and hypotheses. This was to ascertain if the model yields consistency in the hypothesized causal relationship with the data.

In conclusion, the three factors were grouped in a structural model and tested using a structural equation model to address critical issues; whether the proposed model results in a good fit and whether the factors had a more substantial impact on the overall choice to enrol in tourism education.

3.11 Preliminary Tests

Before data analysis, several assumptions were tested. This included outlier, normality, multi-collinearity, linearity, homoscedasticity, common method bias, and correlation in study variables. It was necessary to test all these assumptions since when they were violated, the study results were likely to give biased estimates of the parameters (Saunders et al., 2016) due to outliers in the constructs.

3.11.1 Outliers

An outlier in a data set is defined as an observation that appears inconsistent with the remainder of the data set (Barnett & Lewis, 1994). According to Aguinis et al. (2013 and Sepula (2019), outliers are identified as extreme values that may occur on one variable (univariate) or a combination of variables (multivariate), and which may result in biased estimates that could have an undesired influence on population parameters.

Outliers may occur due to a host of reasons, including human error, instrument errors, deceptive behavior, or natural deviations in the population (Hodge, 2014). In a regression model, outliers are observations long from the fitted line. Outliers might increase as the sample size increase. Univariate outliers were examined for each set of the variables using box plots. Consequentially, outliers are present in a data set, leading to misleading results. The outliers were detected using the Mahalanobis d-square test for the present study. The SPSS descriptive statistics-explore command was used to generate box plots from which the existence of outliers was assessed. In each case, outliers were shown as numbered cases beyond the whiskers. The detected outliers were dropped, after which reasonable boxplots were used to show that variables were customarily distributed before analysis.

Demographic factors were the first predictor variable and were measured using seven sub-variables; ethnicity equality in the Kenyan tourism industry, religious beliefs, Gender influence, Ethnic origin, equal opportunities, and males/females working in the industry. Examination of the box plot for demographic factors revealed no outliers (see Figure 3.1), where the median was 3.85.

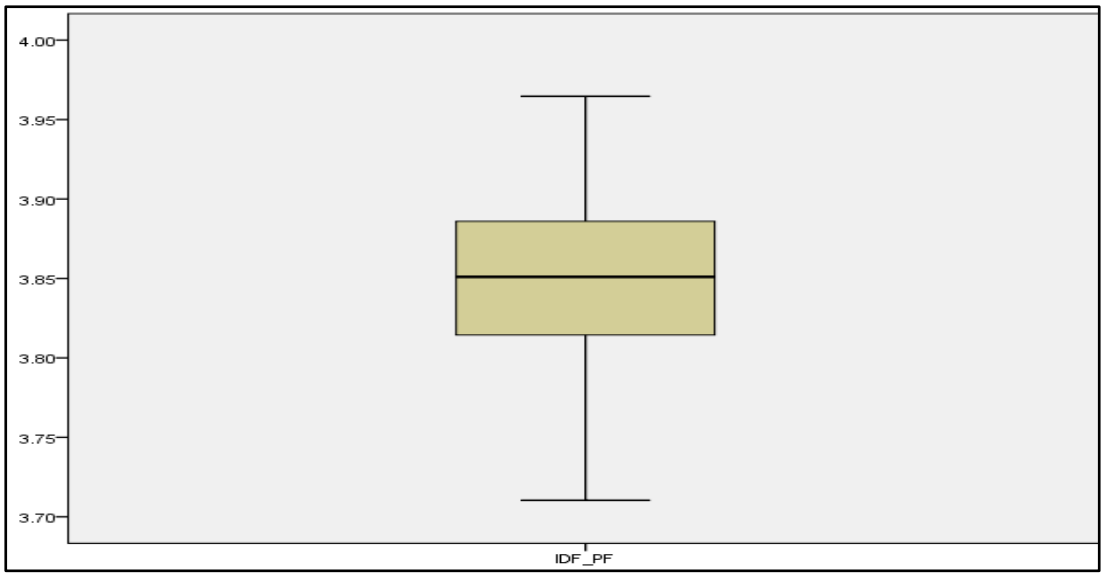


Figure 3.1: A Box Plot for Demographic Factors Showing no Outliers

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Social-economic factors were the second predictor, which was measured by 14 sub-variables. They included the influence of an offer, examination results, employment opportunities, promotional opportunities, secure future, higher starting salary, employed alumni, course fees, financial assistance, parents' income, parents' educational background, close friends' encouragement, high school teachers and counsellors, and siblings' encouragement. The social-economic factors were found to have one univariate outlier (case 91), which was deleted before further analysis was done (see Figure 3.2).

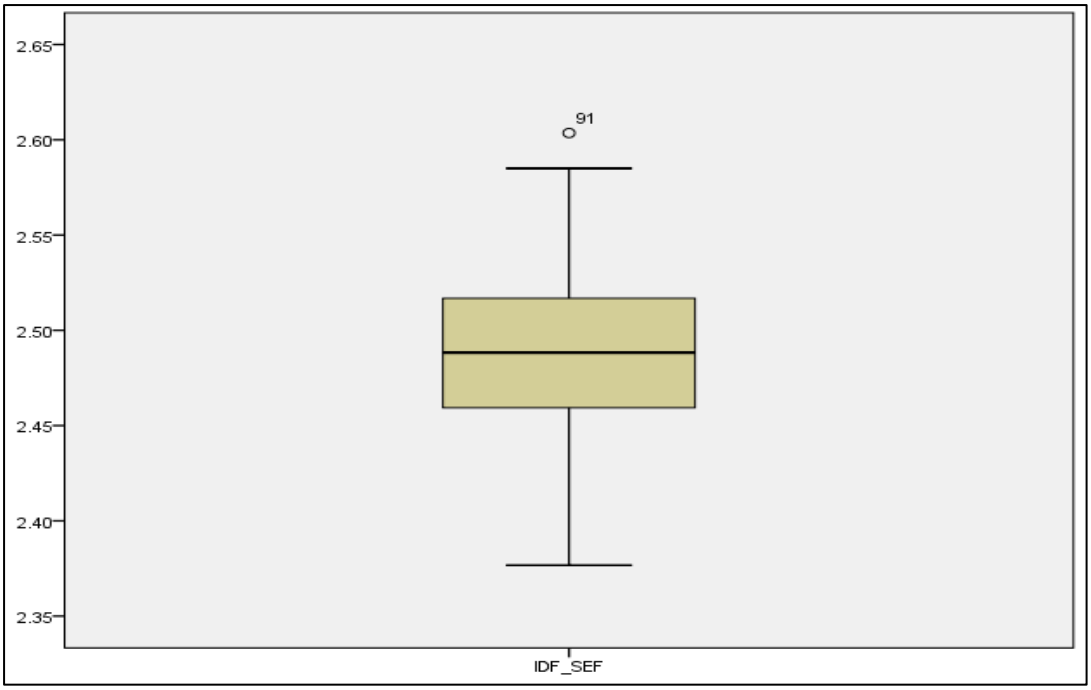


Figure 3.2: A Box Plot for Social-economic Factors Showing Outliers

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Psychological factors were the third predictor, which was measured by ten items, namely, the influence of interest to work in the tourism industry, the usefulness of tourism courses in career, tourism prestige, attitude, desire, ability development, people-oriented self-efficacy, intellectual stimulation, the necessity to have a university degree, personal confidence. As evident in Figure 3.3, there were no outliers; thus, all the items were considered for analysis.

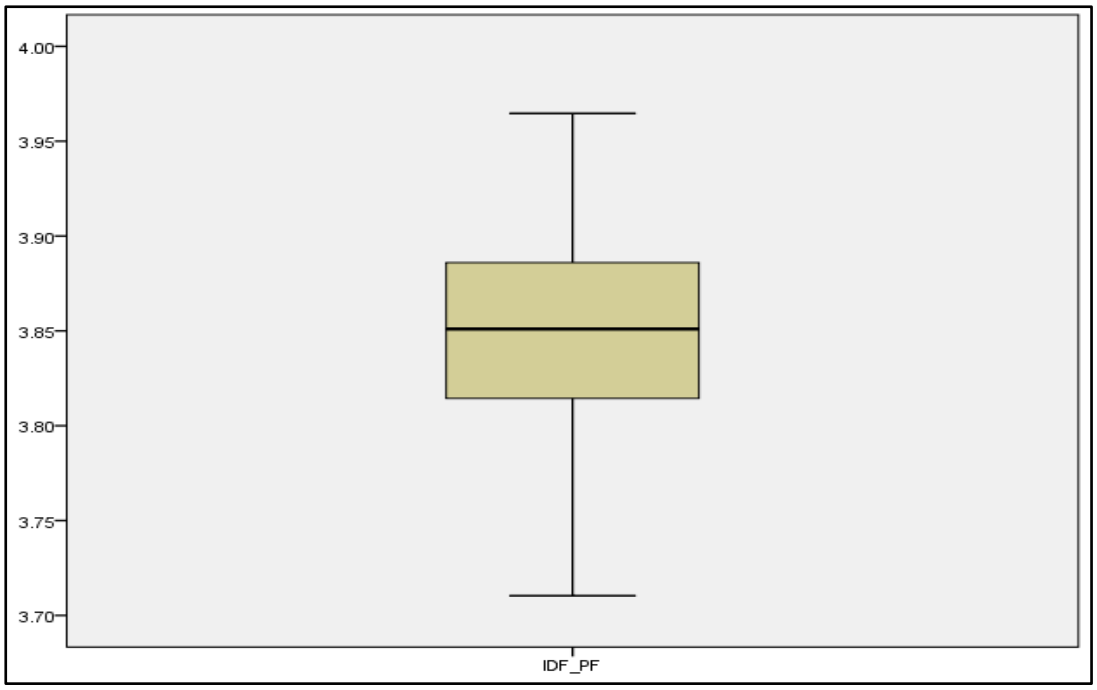


Figure 3.3: A Box Plot for Psychological Factors Showing no Outliers

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Students' choice to enroll was conceptualized as the dependent variable and was measured using six sub-variables (see Figure 3.4).

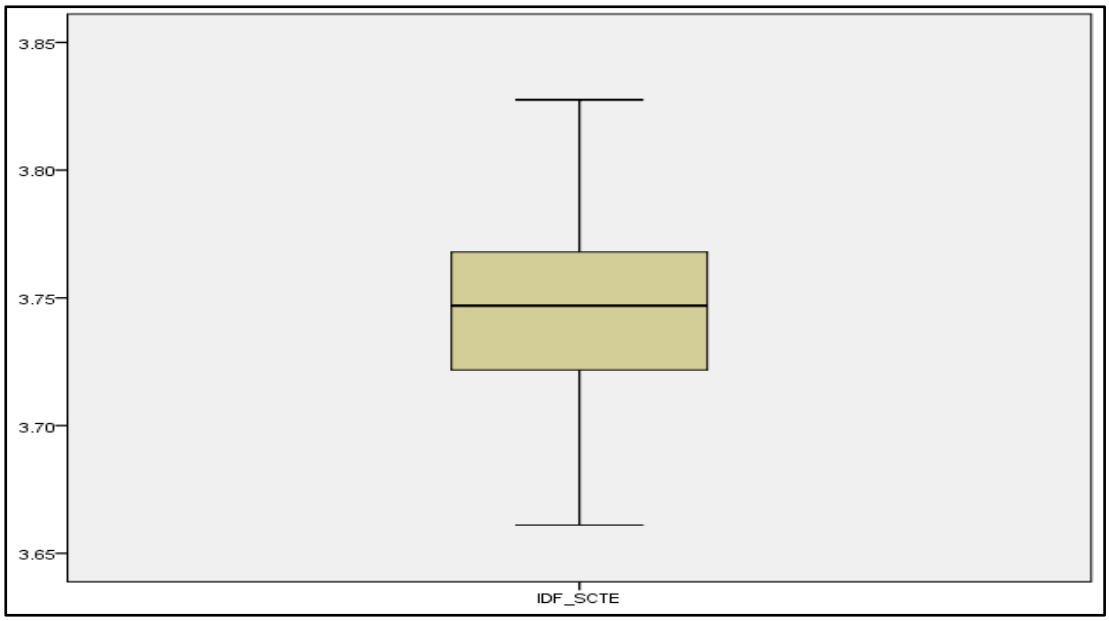


Figure 3.4: A Box Plot for students' choice to enrol showing no Outliers

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The sub-variables included an increase in the number of institutions offering tourism programs, number of students in tourism studies, number of tourism lecturers and professors, awareness campaigns regarding tourism education, government investments towards tourism research and development, and number of tourism programs on offer. Students' choice to enroll was found to have no outlier (Figure 3.4).

3.11.2 Normality Test

Field (2009) describes normality as a shape of the distribution, which is symmetrical and pointy with a mean of zero and a standard deviation. In statistics, normality tests determine if the data set is well modelled by a normal distribution and compute how likely it is for a random variable underlying the data set to be normally distributed. It should be noted that non-compliance with normality for the study variables makes all subsequent regression statistical tests invalid Hair et al. (2010).

On the SPSS software, the command Rank of independent and dependent variables was plotted against the normal distribution of construct values (Wickham et al., 2015). The study used Q-Q plots to examine the normality of data distributions in each of the four latent variables. The Q-Q plots always indicate dots close to the diagonal line focused at the center in standard distribution scenarios. Results of both the independent and dependent variables were graphically generated (see Figure 3.5).

In the Q-Q plot or the typical probability plot, the observed value for each score is plotted against the expected value from the normal distribution, where a sensibly straight line suggests a normal distribution. The results suggest a normal distribution Hair et al. (2006). However, the lower extremes revealed more extensive values than expected, leading to some slight negative skewness that was not serious. Therefore,

the normality assumption was met for student choice to enroll in tourism education for the four study constructs; DF, SEF, PF, and SCTE.

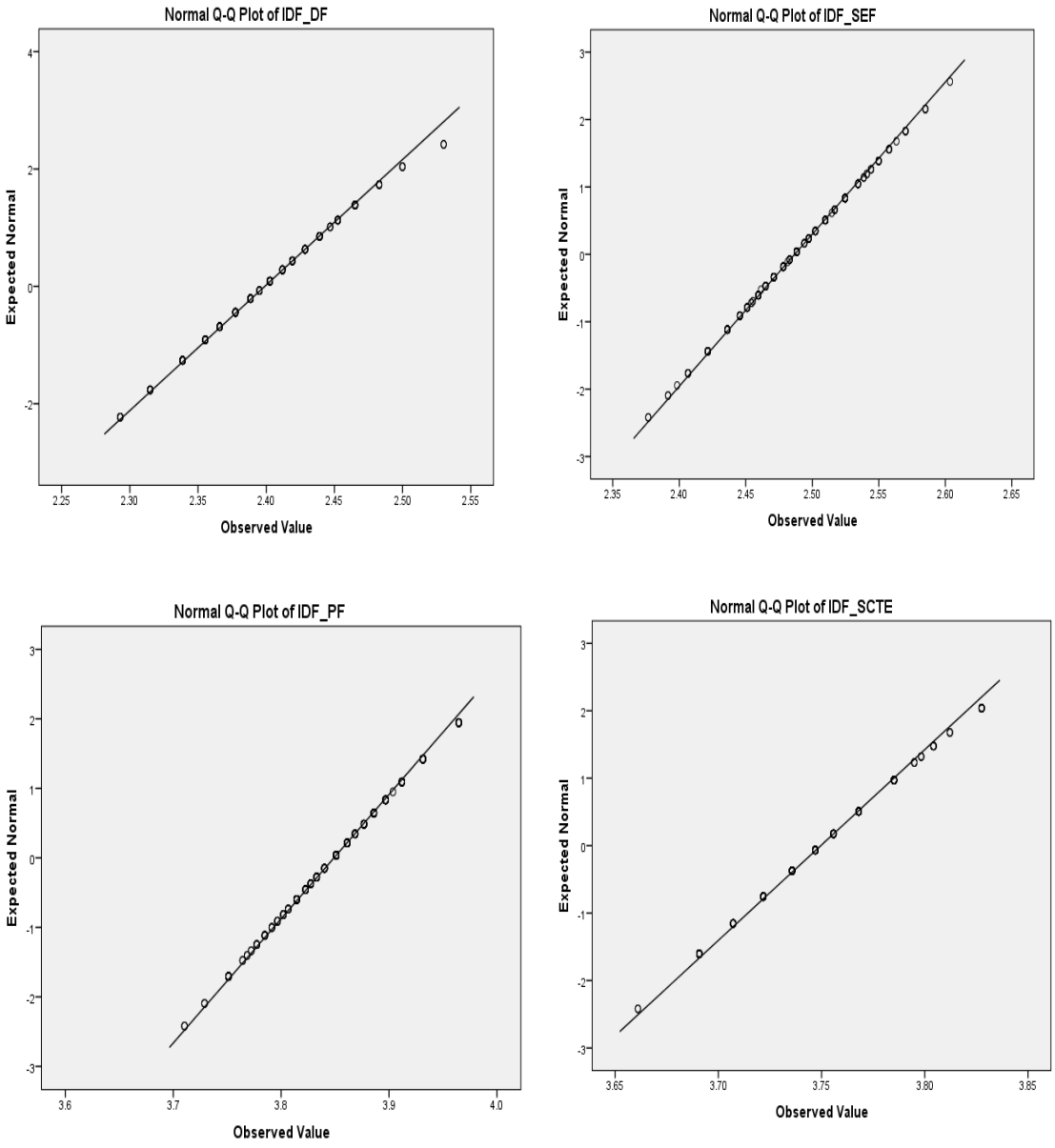


Figure 3.5: Normal Q-Q plots for DF, SEF, PF, and SCTE

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Additionally, to check for normality of the variables, skewness and kurtosis statistics as well as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilks (S-W) tests were performed as recommended by Razali and Bee (2011). A rule of thumb in statistics stipulates that a variable is reasonably close to normal if its skewness and kurtosis

have values between -1.0 and + 1.0 (Hair et al., 2010). Subsequently, the tests reject the hypothesis of normality when the p-value is more significant than or equal to 0.05 (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). From Table 4.2, the results indicate significance levels (on the Kolmogorov-Smirnov scale; as the data set was more significant than 100) for PF (.962), DF (.876), SEF (.845), and SCTE (.542). These results show that the p-values were more significant than the significance level (0.05). This implies that the PF, DF, SCF, and SCTE variables were normally distributed (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6: Test of Normality

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Psychological Factors (PF)	.048	192	.962	.988	192	.123
Demographic Factors (DF)	.056	192	.876	.989	192	.150
Social-Economic Factors (SEF)	.044	192	.845	.995	192	.745
Students' Choice to Enroll (SCTE)	.094	192	.542	.977	192	.013

Source: Survey Data (2020)

3.11.3 Linearity Test

Linearity means that the amount of change or rate of change between scores on two sets of variables is constant for the entire range of scores for the variables (Aue & Horváth, 2013). It is, therefore, the consistent slope change that represents the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Damos, 2016). If a linear model is fitted to data, which are nonlinearly related, predictions are likely to be seriously in error (Henseler et al., 2015). The problem of linearity is fixed by removing outliers Henseler et al. (2015). The study assumed the linearity of the variables by removing outliers as indicated by Figure 3.6, with standings of 2.40, 2.49, 3.85, and 3.59 for demographic factors, socioeconomic factors, psychological

factors, and indicative variable (students' choice to enroll) after dropping outliers, respectively. This indicated a sufficient attribution for data analysis.

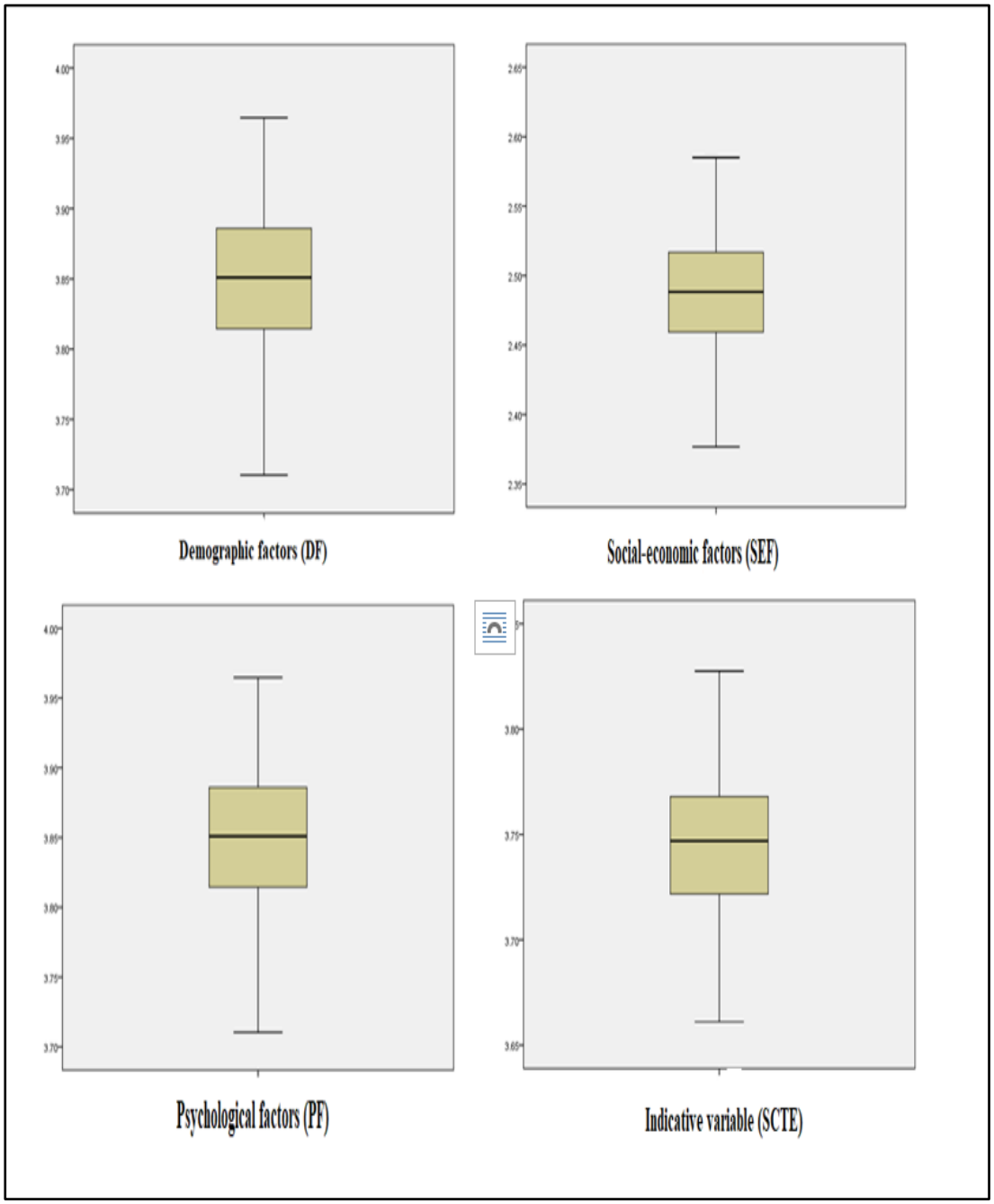


Figure 3.6: Box plot (Q-Q) after dropping the outliers

3.11.4 Homoscedasticity of the Residuals of Dependent Variable

Assessment of homoscedasticity of the residuals of dependent was conducted using the Levene Statistic. Levene Statistic was used to test the hypothesis for the homogeneity of variance; that is, the error variances are all equal. Ordinary Least

Square (OLS) assumes that the variance of the error term is constant, i.e., Homoscedastic (Greene, 2018). If the error terms do not have constant variance, they are heteroscedastic. When this assumption is violated, it biases test statistics and confidence intervals (Greene, 2018). Table 3.7 shows a Levene Statistic of 4.788 with an associated p-value of 0.000. Since the probability associated with the Levene Statistic is 0.002, which is less than the 0.05 level of significance, the study accepted the hypothesis. It concluded that the variance of the dependent variable was homogeneous.

Table 3.7: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.788	174	3	0.002

Source: Survey Data (2020)

3.11.5 Test of multi-collinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when a high correlation between two or more independent variables in a regression model exists (Field, 2009). With high collinearity, it is difficult to find the distinct effect of an individual predictor variable on the dependent variable since it increases the standard error, which affects the size of regression coefficients (Field, 2009). Therefore, this study sought to test the predictor variables for compliance with the assumption of no multicollinearity in the independent variables. Subsequently, the study adopted the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) to test this phenomenon. As indicated by Hair et al. (2010), if the VIF is greater than 10 (VIF $\geq$ 10), then it shows that there is multicollinearity. Further, O'brien (2007) suggested that a tolerance value of less than 0.20 indicates a multi-collinearity problem. The results in Table 3.8 show that VIF for all the variables is less than ten and tolerance

values above 0.85, indicating that the variables do not suffer from multicollinearity and suffice the tolerance.

Table 3.8: VIF Test of Multicollinearity

Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	**VIF**
Demographic Factors	0.88	1.13
Socio-Economic Factors	0.87	1.15
Physiological Factors	0.96	1.04

Source: Survey Data (2020)

3.11.6 Common Method Bias (CMB)

After the linearity was sorted out, the bias and variability of various dependent and independent constructs were conducted using Common method bias. Common method bias, also known as Common-method variance (CMV), is a systematic error variance shared in variables measured with and introduced as a function of the same method and source (Richardson et al., 2009). According to Jordan and Troth (2020), CMB refers to a bias in a dataset due to something external to the measures that may have influenced the response given CMB occurs due to estimated bias between constructs being measured with the same method (Antonakis, 2017). The spurious variance is attributable to the measurement method rather than the constructs the measures represent (Podsakoff et al., 2012). The customary cause is the skewness by raters to imply the same or uniform responses across all items. This could be due to the acceptance inclinations on the part of the respondents (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Spector et al., 2019). CMB can also occur due to similarities in the structure of the survey items that generate similar responses by respondents, the proximity of items in an instrument and similarity in the medium, timing, or location in the collection of measurements (Antonakis et al., 2014). Method biases are a problem because they are

one of the primary sources of measurement error. Measurement error threatens the validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures and is widely recognized as having a random and systematic component.

There is general agreement in the literature on two main detrimental effects of CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2012). The first problem is that CMB can bias the validity and reliability of measures. This problem can lead to incorrect judgements about the adequacy of a scale's validity and reliability. The second problem of CMB results in a bias in the parameter estimates of the relationships between different constructs. This bias can deflate or inflate the relationship estimates between constructs (Griffiths et al., 2019). Podsakoff et al. (2012) opine that depending on whether CMB deflates or inflates the relationship, it can lead to incorrect views about the amount of variance attributed to a criterion by the predictor variable, affect hypothesis testing leading to type II or I error, and reduce the discriminant scale validity.

A study with a significant common method bias is one in which a majority of the variance can be explained by a single factor (Podsakoff et al., 2012). A common latent factor method was used to capture the common variance in all observed variables in the model (Fuller et al., 2016; Williams & McGonagle, 2016). A latent factor was added to the AMOS common factor analysis model and ascribed items in the model. The standardized regression weights from this model were used to measure CMB. CMB should be less than 20% (0.200) (Fuller et al., 2016). In this study, the CMB was 0.28^2= 0.0780. This implies that CMB was 7.8%, much lower than the conventional CMB of 20% (0.2). This indicates that the recommended threshold was met, thus eliminating systematic response bias. This evidence shows statistically

significant differences between responses at the 0.05 level of significance (Minbashian et al., 2019) (see Figure 3.7).

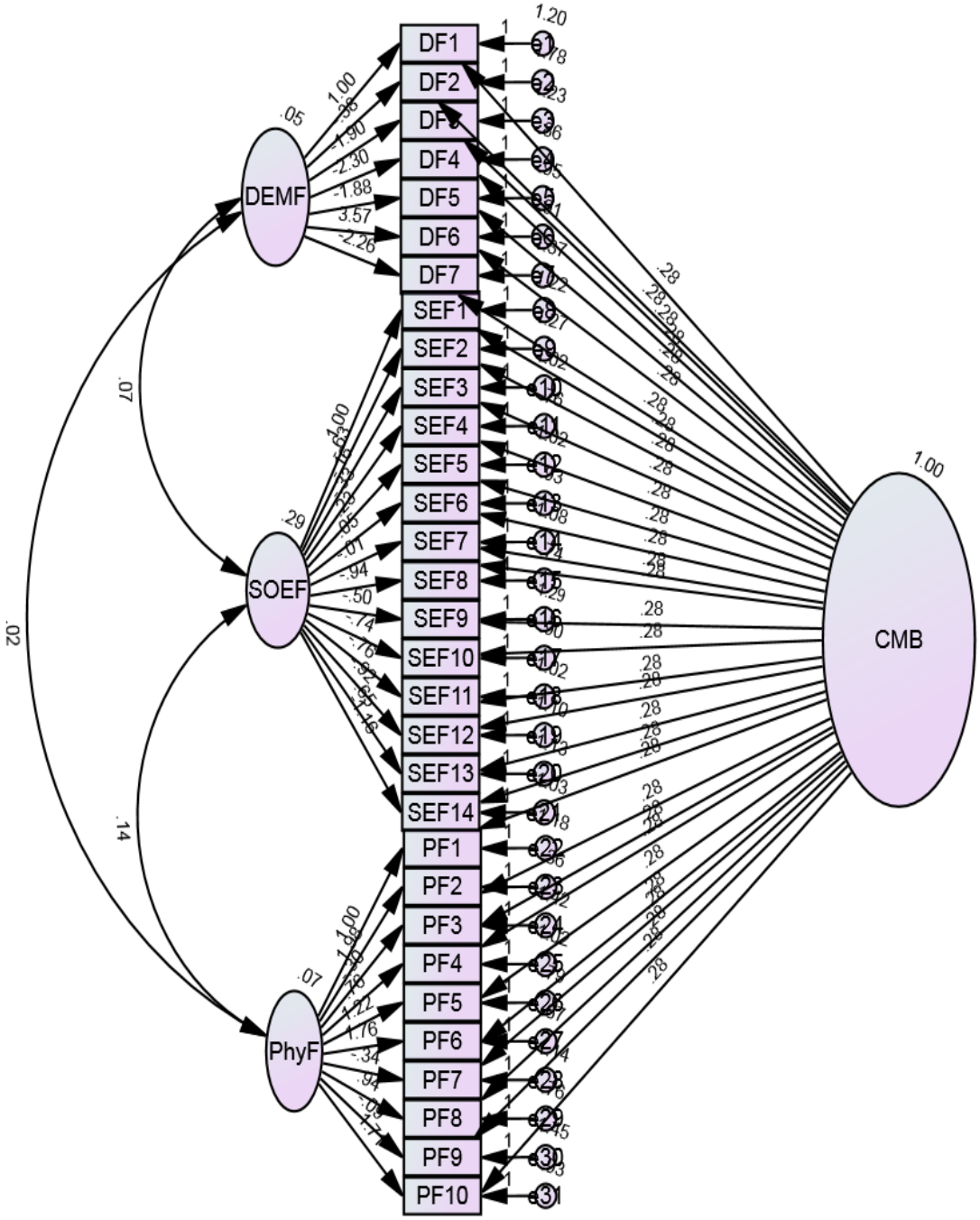


Figure 3.7: Common Method Bias

3.11.7 Correlation analysis

The study sought to determine the significance of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. The correlation was used to explore the relationship in the variables using the Pearson correlation. The Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient was used since all the variables in the study were in the ratio scale after consolidating them to form an average index. Kothari (2004) noted that the Pearson correlation coefficient measures the strength of a linear association between two variables and is denoted by *r*. The Pearson correlation coefficient ranges between -1 to +1 with a value near zero, indicating no association between the two variables. Kothari further observes that a value greater than ±0.5 indicates a positive association meaning that, as the value of one variable increases, so does the value of the other variable. A value of less than zero hence indicates a negative correlation.

From the correlation matrix in Table 3.9, the correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), with all the values having a significant level of ≥0.204 (2-tailed). Kothari (2004) posits that correlation values not close to 1 or -1 indicate that the factors are sufficiently different measures of separate variables.

Table 3.9: Correlation coefficient analysis

		Psychological Factors (PF)	Demographic Factors (DF)	Social-Economic Factors (SEF)	Students' Choice to Enroll (SCTE)
PF	Pearson Correlation	1	.207**	.520**	.353**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004	.000	.000
	N	192	192	192	192
DF	Pearson Correlation	.207**	1	.508**	.204**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004		.000	.005
	N	192	192	192	192
SEF	Pearson Correlation	.520**	.508**	1	.258**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	192	192	192	192
SCTE	Pearson Correlation	.353**	.204**	.258**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.005	.000	
	N	192	192	192	192

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

3.12 Limitations of the Study

The study only included public Universities omitting private universities, and therefore did not represent all the Universities offering tourism education in Kenya. The target Universities are located in eleven counties. The researcher and the research assistants travelled to many parts of the country, which was expensive due to transport and accommodation fees. To overcome this barrier, the researcher utilized her savings to cover all study costs.

3.13 Ethical and Logistical Considerations

3.13.1 Ethical Considerations

Prior to the commencement of the field study, the researcher obtained consent from the heads of departments of the 12 public universities. This was done to request

permission to gather data from the first-year students of the academic year 2017/2018 from the tourism schools/departments. All 12 selected public universities were granted permission to administer questionnaires or conduct interviews. The researcher adhered to the principle of informed and voluntary consent (Santillanes et al., 2011) by verbally requesting participation from the students and the heads of departments. The participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any stage without providing a reason for their actions.

To ensure the confidentiality of the participants, the researcher informed them of the use and purpose of the data collected, the integrity of their data protection, and the confidentiality involved while handling the data (see Appendix A). Moreover, name coding was used instead of actual names, promoting sincerity and honesty from the participants, thus providing unbiased information. Finally, the research authorization and approval letter from Moi University and the National Commission for Science and Technology Innovation (NACOSTI) permit (see Appendix D) were appended and submitted, along with the participants' data collection instruments, for examination. The researcher acknowledged all secondary information used in the present study appropriately.

3.13.2 Logistical Considerations

In this study, logistical planning was deemed critical, with budgetary considerations (see Appendix E), engagement of trained research assistants, and instrument pre-testing being essential components. The proposal was presented at the school level, and upon approval by the graduate school, research authorization and approval letters were obtained, enabling the data collection phase. These letters were appended to the application for a research permit from NACOSTI. While awaiting the NACOSTI

permit, the researcher visited some public universities to familiarize themselves with the process, create a good rapport, and test the study's budget limits, ensuring a seamless data collection process.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Overview

This chapter aims to analyze the results and interpret the study objectives. The study's objectives were (i) To establish the influence of socio-economic factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya; (ii) To determine the influence of psychological factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya; and (iii) To investigate the influence of demographic factors on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. Data were analyzed in three steps. The first step was data screening to ensure the collected data was clean, functional, and valid for testing. Issues like missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, and multicollinearity were evaluated in the data screening stage. The second step was to assess the developed SEM model measurements. Lastly, the developed model and research hypotheses were examined using multiple regression analyses.

4.1 Preliminary Results

The study's general objective was to investigate determinants of the choice to enroll in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. The study came up with three objectives, and three hypotheses were tested to achieve the general objective. This was based on the premise that psychological, social-economic, and demographic factors are attributed to how students study tourism education.

4.1.1 Response Rate

The need to examine the response rate was based on the urge to ascertain whether the response was representative of the targeted population and could inform decisions on

students' choice to enroll in the Kenyan Public Universities context. During the field study, 257 questionnaires were distributed to all the first-year students in the academic year 2017/2018 from the twelve public universities (see Table 3.2). Out of 257 questionnaires distributed, only 216 accounting for 84%, were returned. After data cleaning, only 192 questionnaires were deemed helpful for data analysis, representing 74.7% of the targeted sample size. This percentage was considered fit for analysis. Babbie (2007) and Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) observe that over 50% response rate is adequate for analysis. However, over 70% is rated as an excellent response rate. Further, the researcher conducted interviews on all the 12 HODs (100%).

Table 4.1: Response rate

Instrument	Targeted/Distributed	Returned/Completed	Useful for Data Analysis
Questionnaires for students	257 (100%)	216 (84%)	192 (74.7%)
Interviews for the head of departments	12 (100%)	12 (100%)	12 (100%)

4.1.2 Missing Data

The extent of missing data in the study was examined using the Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) technique. The assumption herein was that those events leading to missing data were independent of observable and unobservable parameters and occurred entirely at random (Laerkner et al., 2017). The results indicated a lack of missing values from the 192 respondents on measuring both dependent and independent variables, thereby guaranteeing SEM's statistical power on the collected data, allowing estimation of model parameters and testing the hypotheses.

4.2 Demographic Information

The study sought to establish nine (9) demographic information of the students, including their age, gender, type of high school attended, the choice of the tourism degree in course selection, grades attained in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) exams, county of origin, their parents' level of education, occupation, and annual family income. The results are summarized using tabulated frequency tables.

4.2.1 Age of the respondent

The findings presented in Table 4.2 indicate that 133 respondents representing 69.3% of the total respondents, were aged between 18-25 years, while only 50 (26%) of the respondents were in the age group 25-30 years. Additionally, nine (9) respondents were above 30 years, only 4.7% of the targeted population. These results are in line with the actual situation of the public university population since the majority of the students who join university immediately after finishing secondary school education are above 18 years.

Table 4.2: Age distribution of the Respondents

Age		Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	18-25 years	133	69.3	69.3
	25-30 years	50	26.0	95.3
	Above 30 years	9	4.7	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Older students above 25 years may be explained by late university enrollment or late-career starter, delayed enrollment due to fees, or those that go back to school even after starting a family. The age normalcy for enrolling on Kenyan universities is

capped at 16 to 19 years of age (GoK, 2017a). Although this is the case, students still enroll later; in the significant barriers to early enrollment in Kenya are fees for students from poor households (Oyelana, 2017).

4.2.2 Gender distribution

As shown in Table 4.3, there was unequal gender representation in the study sample in terms of gender. The females were 116, representing 60.4%, while male respondents were 73, 38.0% of the total sample. The higher number of females enrolling on tourism programmes was a phenomenon noted by one respondent who said:

> *"Nowadays, boys are seemingly more interested in technical courses than girls. This explains why we have more girls enrolled in tourism courses than their counterparts…. girls want adventure and something engaging in socializing, which is exactly what the tourism program offers. At some point, boys are misinformed by society that tourism is a feminine field. They end up not enrolling as needed. Most of these enrolled are driven by the passion…." [HOD09]*

Table 4.3: Respondents' Gender

Gender		Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	Male	73	38.0	38.0
	Female	116	60.4	98.4
	Transgender	1	.5	99.0
	Prefer Not to Say	2	1.0	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

On the other end, the transgender community was only represented by one respondent, 0.5%, while just 2 (1%) respondents preferred not to disclose their gender. The transgender community is a growing niche interest in university enrollment, and although they are not open to disclosing their sexuality, the government is trying to solve this as they were recognized during the 2019 census as

intersex, where they were a total of 1524 intersex communities in the whole country (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS), 2019)

4.2.3 County of origin

This study also sought to know the counties of origin of the respondents. Worth noting, that Kiambu, Machakos, Nakuru, Narok, Nyeri, Kirinyaga, Murang'a, Nairobi, Nyandarua, and Uasin Gishu counties represented 66.1% of all students enrollled in tourism education, with frequencies of 38, 11, ten (10), 14, 13, and ten (10) respectively. On the lower end, Bungoma, Kitui, Kwale, Mandera, and Taita Taveta counties only represented one student, each accounting for only 2.5%, as represented by Table 4.4. However, 13 counties were not represented by students who enrolled in tourism studies in the 2017/2018 academic year.

Table 4.4: Respondents' County of origin

	County	Frequency	Valid (%)	Cumulative %
	Baringo	2	1.0	1.0
	Bomet	5	2.6	3.6
	Bungoma	1	.5	4.2
	Busia	5	2.6	6.8
	Elgeyo-Marakwet	2	1.0	7.8
	Embu	3	1.6	9.4
	Homa Bay	2	1.0	10.4
	Kakamega	3	1.6	12.0
	Kericho	3	1.6	13.5
	Kiambu	38	19.8	33.3
	Kilifi	6	3.1	36.5
	Kirinyaga	7	3.6	40.1
	Kisii	4	2.1	42.2
	Kisumu	4	2.1	44.3
	Kitui	1	.5	44.8
	Kwale	1	.5	45.3
	Machakos	11	5.7	51.0
Valid	Makueni	4	2.1	53.1
	Mandera	1	.5	53.6
	Mombasa	2	1.0	54.7
	Murang'a	8	4.2	58.9
	Nairobi	7	3.6	62.5
	Nakuru	10	5.2	67.7
	Nandi	2	1.0	68.8
	Narok	14	7.3	76.0
	Nyamira	3	1.6	77.6
	Nyandarua	9	4.7	82.3
	Nyeri	13	6.8	89.1
	Samburu	2	1.0	90.1
	Taita-Taveta	1	.5	90.6
	Tharaka-Nithi	2	1.0	91.7
	Trans-Nzoia	4	2.1	93.8
	Uasin Gishu	10	5.2	99.0
	Vihiga	2	1.0	100.0
	Total	**192**	**100.0**	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.2.4 Respondents' High School Category

The results on high school levels distribution (see Table 4.5) revealed that 18.8% of the respondents were from national schools, 24% were from district schools, and a majority (n= 110, 57.3%) were from provisional schools. Socio-economic determinants can explain the attendance of the majority of students in provisional and national schools like classrooms, administrative offices, laboratories, dormitories and laboratories, in others, which students perceive to be motivators to perform. Both national and county schools in Kenya usually are well developed in terms of resources and perform better than district schools. This finding is similar to Simiyu et al. (2016), who found that most of the students questioned studied in national and county schools.

Table 4.5: Respondents' High school category

School category		Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	National	36	18.8	18.8	18.8
	Provisional	110	57.3	57.3	76.0
	District	46	24.0	24.0	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.2.5 The respondents' grades scored in the KCSE exam

Table 4.6 presents results from respondents for the grade they attained in KCSE results. Evidently, a majority of students (21.7%) had scored grade B, 17.8% scored grade B+, 27.8% scored grades B- and C+ (13.9% each), 12.2% scored grade C, 16.1% scored grade C-, 2.2% scored grade D+, 0.6% scored grade D, and only 1.7% attained grade A-. To give clarity on the disparity between high and low-grade students enrolling on the university, one respondent noted that:

> "*…with the changing trend on enrollment, since Dr. Matiang'i's era, even students with as low as grade E get into university. Most of them start by doing the bridging courses in mathematics and English language, where later they join colleges for certificate level…… have seen a student climb the education ladder right from certificate level and currently, he is pursuing his PhD*" [HOD11]

Table 4.6: Respondents' grade scored in the KCSE exam

Grade		Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	A-	3	1.7	1.7
	B+	32	17.8	19.4
	B	39	21.7	41.1
	B-	25	13.9	55.0
	C+	25	13.9	68.9
	C	22	12.2	81.1
	C-	29	16.1	97.2
	D+	4	2.2	99.4
	D	1	.6	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.2.6 Respondents' choice of tourism course

As evident in Table 4.7, most respondents, 66(34.4%), had a tourism course as their first choice. Furthermore, 29.2% and 19.3% had a tourism course as their second and third choice respectively. Further, 19 respondents (9.9%) had a tourism course as their fourth choice. However, 14 respondents (7.3%) did not choose a tourism course in their course selection before joining university. Generally, the above results display that 82.9% of students chose tourism as either first, second, or third choice, indicating a higher likelihood and passion for tourism studies in the respondents.

Table 4.7: The respondents' choice of tourism course

Choice		Frequency	Valid %	Cumulative %
Valid	1st	66	34.4	34.4
	2nd	56	29.2	63.5
	3rd	37	19.3	82.8
	4th	19	9.9	92.7
	Never	14	7.3	100.0
	Total	192	100.0	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.2.7 The respondents' parents' highest level of education achieved

To understand if parents' level of education influenced students' choice of tourism, respondents were asked to indicate their parents' highest level of education. From the results in Table 4.8, a majority of male parents in the families (29.7%) had attained less than high school education., 27.6% reached high school, 10.9% at least has a certificate of education, 11.5% had attained a diploma, 16.7 had attained a university degree. In comparison, only 7(3.6%) passed a postgraduate education. On the other end, most female parents in the families (28.1%) had attained at least high school education, 31.8% reached high school, 10.2% at least had a certificate education, 13.4% had attained a diploma, 12.8 had attained a university degree. In comparison, only 4.7% possessed a postgraduate education.

The finding suggests that the majority of students enrolled in tourism courses have parents with more than moderate levels of education. This can then explain their heightened interest in enrolling on university programs and their work orientation in mind, which could have been instilled in them by their parents. The same ideology is held by Kainuwa and Yusuf (2013) in their study that concluded that students who come from families with higher education levels tend to motivate to pursue higher education and simultaneously make them have positive energy toward academics.

Table 4.8: The respondents' parents' highest level of education achieved

Education level		Father		Mother	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Valid	Less than high school	57	29.7	54	28.1
	High school	53	27.6	61	31.8
	Certificate	21	10.9	19	10.2
	Diploma	22	11.5	25	13.4
	Undergraduate degree	32	16.7	24	12.8
	Postgraduate degree	7	3.6	9	4.7
Total		192	100.0	192	100

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.2.8 The respondents' parents' occupation

As a derivative of household background, respondents were asked to indicate their parents' occupation. Table 4.9 shows various positions held by mothers and fathers in their families. On the one hand, the majority of fathers in the families (31.8%) hold semi-skilled jobs, 29.2% hold administrative and clerical job positions, 19.3% hold management and supervisory positions, 9.4% hold undefined job roles (others), and only 10.4% of the fathers in the families hold professional jobs. On the other hand, 32.3% of mothers held professional jobs, 21.9% held managerial and supervisory roles, 16.1% held administrative and clerical positions, and 16.1% held semi-skilled jobs. In comparison, 13.9% held other jobs not defined in the questionnaire.

Table 4.9: The respondents' parents' occupation

Occupation		Father		Mother	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Valid	Professional	20	10.4	62	32.3
	Managerial and Supervisory	37	19.3	42	21.9
	Administrative and clerical	56	29.2	31	16.1
	Semi-skilled	61	31.8	31	16.1
	Others	18	9.4	26	13.9
Total		192	100	192	100

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.2.9 The respondents' annual family income

Another demographic characteristic the study sought to understand was the annual income per household. As per Table 4.10 results, many households (30.7%) had an annual income below Ksh. 300, 000 while only 23 households (12%) had an annual income above Ksh. 1.2Million. The rest of the household had incomes between Ksh. 300,000-480,000, between Ksh. 480,000-720,000, between Ksh. 720,000-960,000, and between Ksh. 960,000-1.2million, represented by 22.4%, 18.8%, 8.9%, and 7.3% respectively.

Table 4.10: The respondents' family annual income

	Income	Frequency	Valid %
Valid	Below Ksh. 300,000	59	30.7
	Ksh. 300,000-Ksh. 480,000	43	22.4
	Ksh. 480,000-Ksh. 720,000	36	18.8
	Ksh. 720,000-Ksh. 960,000	17	8.9
	Ksh. 960,000-Ksh. 1,200,000	14	7.3
	Over Ksh. 1,200,000	23	12.0
	Total	192	100.0

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.3 Descriptive Analysis of Study Variables

This section provides a general descriptive statistic of both dependent and independent variables to understand the attributing factors towards students' enrollment into tourism courses in Kenyan Public Universities. The respondents were asked to evaluate the various statements in the questionnaires regarding crucial determinants of enrollment in tourism courses. A 5-Likert scale was used where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree.

4.3.1 Socio-economic factors

The first study objective aimed at establishing the influence of socio-economic factors on students' choice to enroll on tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. Socio-economic factors were measured using fourteen (14) indicators and were hypothesized to have no significant influence on enrollment. Consequently, the fourteen indicators were first explored to determine their levels of perception by first-year students in the selected public universities. Table 4.11 provides a general profile descriptive statistic on socio-economic factors that could influence the enrollment of the tourism course, where students were asked about their perception of the listed aspects using a Likert scale. The overall mean score of the responses (M= 3.82) with an associated average standard deviation (SD= .810) insinuates that students perceived the socio-economic factors in enrollment decisions highly.

Table 4.11: Descriptive statistics for Socio-economic factors

	Socio-economic factors Items (SEF)	Mean	Std. Deviation
SEF1	I was delighted with the offer of a place in tourism education	3.82	.954
SEF2	My examination results only qualified me for a tourism course	4.17	.764
SEF3	The tourism industry provides more employment opportunities than other industries	4.08	.914
SEF4	The tourism industry offers more significant promotional opportunities than other industries	3.97	.862
SEF5	Working in the tourism industry provides a secure future	4.18	.925
SEF6	The starting salary expected after graduation is high	4.22	.951
SEF7	The number of alumni who have attained employment upon graduation attracted me to study tourism	3.88	.789
SEF8	The course fees for tourism education influenced my choice of tourism education	4.29	.902
SEF9	In choosing tourism education, financial assistance was an essential factor for me	4.16	.818
SEF10	My parents' income encouraged me to study tourism	3.06	.816
SEF11	My parents' educational background influenced me to study tourism	2.97	.977
SEF12	My close friends encouraged me to study tourism	3.62	.712
SEF13	My high school teachers and counsellors encouraged me to study tourism	3.47	.854
SEF14	My siblings encouraged me to study tourism	3.59	.923
	Valid N (listwise)	192	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Overall, the SEF8 (The course fees for tourism education influenced my choice of tourism education) sub-variable had the highest mean of 4.29. Further sub variable SEF12 (respondents' parents' educational background influenced them to study

tourism) had the lowest mean of 2.97. In the respondents highly recognized, the three socio-economic attributes included prospects of expected first salary (M=4.22, SD=.951), secure future (employment) (M=4.18, SD=.925), and qualification through KCES results (M=4.17, SD=.764). On the other hand, high school teachers and counsellors' influence (M=3.47, SD=.854), parents' income (M=3.06, SD=0.816), and parents' level of education (M=2.97, SD=.977) represented in the bottom three items with the lowest mean and standard deviations.

On career marketability and the role played by parent's wealth status in influencing their children's career paths, one of the HODs had this to say:

> *…Besides wanting to attain self-actualization, many people pursue a course based on marketability; tied to future job securities. In other families, parents will pursue and even make their children love what they do… not only that, some parents are wealthy hence influencing students to follow their career path of wish, in short, the dictate the career paths of their children……. [HOD07]*

Another HOD looked at the costs attributed to the course choice as a critical basis for an enormous large influx of students into Kenyan universities pursuing tourism courses:

> *…. considering many families in Kenya are below the poverty level, students from such families tend to choose a course with lower tuition fee costs, like tourism and other business-related courses…. despite the County governments offering bursaries and HELB loans from the national government, tuition fee for some courses like medicine is unmanageable by such students…… then following their perceptions or even consultation from parents, they end up settling for cheap courses…[HOD09]*

Regarding parents' education level influence, three respondents gave contradicting views. The notion is that poverty levels and levels of parents' income, though not always, lead students to choose relatively inexpensive university programs to ensure they do not overburden their parents in an already harsh life. The statements below from the HODs attest to this:

> *(1) In my opinion, it is a mixed perception…. In my village, the underprivileged parent, those who could not go beyond primary school level, their children have become victorious and pursue high-end courses like medicine, law, and medicine…. [HOD02] … (2) This can be both ways. Some parents due to a lack of education knowledge, do not know the difference between university courses; beyond the conventional community thinking. Thus their children end up choosing courses based on their grades, and not what their parents tell them…[HOD03] … (3) … As an example, my parents pushed me to take tourism because my father had done a tour guiding course at Utalii College in the '70s… I can vividly agree that parents' educational level and experiences at one point pose a significant influence on their child's career path like mine…. [HOD08]*.

4.3.2 Psychological Factors

The second objective of the present study sought to examine the descriptive pattern of the constructs that formed composite variable psychological factors and their influence on students' decision to enroll on tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. Hence, each of the ten (10) indicators of the psychological factors were examined (see Table 4.12). Students were asked how they perceived psychological factors within their societal environments in Kenya. The overall mean score of the responses (M= 4.23) with an associated average standard deviation (SD= .848) indicated a consistent and high perception of the demographic factors in enrollment decisions in public universities in Kenya by the students.

Table 4.12: Descriptive statistics for psychological factors

	Psychological Factors (PF)	Mean	Std. Deviation
PF1	The interest I have to work in the tourism industry influenced me to enroll in tourism education	3.97	.715
PF2	I firmly believe that the tourism course will be helpful in my future career	4.22	.923
PF3	The prestige associated with a major in tourism influenced my decision	4.37	.876
PF4	The attitude towards a tourism course influenced my decision	3.59	.923
PF5	I have a desire to pursue advanced/graduate education in tourism	4.56	.746
PF6	The tourism course will develop my ability to work in the industry	4.78	.983
PF7	I have high people-oriented self-efficacy, which is essential for the industry	4.23	.801
PF8	The tourism course is intellectually stimulating	4.16	.897
PF9	The necessity to have a university degree to work in the tourism industry motivated me to take a tourism course	4.03	.788
PF10	I am confident that I can do well in tourism education studies	4.41	.826
	Valid N (list wise)	192	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The descriptive statistics for the constructs forming the composite variable physiological factor showed that the majority of the construct had a mean above 3.5. The indicator which was perceived highest by the students were: respondents strongly believe that the tourism course would develop their ability to work in the industry (M=4.78, SD=.746); the desire to pursue advanced/graduate education in tourism (M=4.56, SD=.983); and confidence to do well in tourism education studies

(M=4.41, SD=.826). This showed a minimum deviation from the mean score, thus indicating the normality of the results' distribution.

Additionally, my attitude towards a tourism course influenced my decision items (M=3.59, SD=.923); the interest I have to work in the tourism industry influenced me to enroll in tourism education (M=3.97, SD=.715); and the necessity to have a university degree to work in the tourism industry motivated me to take a tourism course (M=4.03, SD=.788), represented the lowest perceived psychological factors that influenced students' decision to enroll.

The advent of early-ability recognition and personal interests while choosing a course was a key observation highlighted by one of the HODs:

> *Many students nowadays realize their skill-set early….especially students who pursue a certificate or diploma level in tourism before joining university……most of them develop linguistic skills (French and German), tour guiding skills, from office efficacy, airfare and ticketing skills in many….these skills intrigue such students to develop a considerable interest in furthering their studies in tourism careers….generally, such interests are embroiled at a personal level….ones liking or stronghold…… [HOD01]*

Although personal skills and interests are of importance in tourism education, another underscored the vital need for soft skills development as opposed to technical/hard skills before one can pursue a tourism career:

> *……. many high schools are moving towards entrepreneurial skills…. students undertake computer studies and languages including mandarin! in the long run, students are progressing towards where they are comfortable. Their energy is applicable, and they want something they can pride themselves in…. more importantly, to a more significant percentage, students are choosing tourism courses due to passion…. only backed up by prior skills attained before joining university……[HOD6].*

Progressively, it was affirmed by HOD012 that, although soft skills are essential, a key virtual in them must be the driving force in students choosing tourism courses:

> *Generally, tourism emanates from fun! Despite many emphasizing overly known skills, a key component….cognitive skills is something influencing students to like tourism…..a good example is tour guiding, and photography or even video shoots….all these require coordination….visual processing, working memory, and sustained attention are in efficacies needed…..this is evident in grown students (above25 years) who have been working in tourism sector before joining university….many I have interacted with have also stressed the importance of such skills, and to them, they motivated them into tourism……[HOD012]*

4.3.3 Demographic factors

The third objective of the present study sought to understand the descriptive pattern of the constructs that formed composite variable demographic factors and their influence on students' decision to enroll on tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. Hence, each of the seven (7) indicators of the demographic factors were examined. Students were asked how they perceived demographic factors in Kenya's societal environments. The overall mean score of the responses (M= 3.87) with an associated average standard deviation (SD= .798) indicated a consistent and high perception of the demographic factors in enrollment decisions in public universities in Kenya by the students (see Table 4.13).

The results revealed that in the highly perceived factors were that: all ethnic groups are treated equally in the Kenyan tourism industry (M=4.76, SD=.742); the tourism industry offers equal opportunities to both males and females (M=4.58, SD=.712); and the decision to study tourism education was influenced by the males/females working in the industry (M=4.27, SD=.782). Nevertheless, the influence of ethnic origin on the choice of tourism education (M=3.04, SD=.920) and the influence of gender in choosing tourism education (M=3.14, SD=.749) were perceived the lowest by the students.

Table 4.13: Descriptive statistics for demographic factors

	Demographic factors items (DF)	Mean	Std. Deviation
DF1	I believe all ethnic groups are treated equally in the Kenyan tourism industry	4.76	.742
DF2	Religious beliefs will help me with career progression in the industry	3.58	.814
DF3	Gender influenced my choice in tourism education	3.14	.749
DF4	Ethnic origin influenced my choice in tourism education	3.04	.920
DF5	My religious beliefs influenced my choice in tourism education	3.71	.866
DF6	I firmly believe that the tourism industry offers equal opportunities to both males and females	4.58	.712
DF7	My decision to study tourism education was influenced by the males/females working in the industry	4.27	.782
	Valid N (list wise)	192	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

One of the HODs stressed the contribution of demographic factors to students' motive to enroll in a course, even before a student finalizes with high school education: *Like any other course, motivation is always tied to something…. It can be either internal or external..... first off, tourism is attributed to women as they have a freelance spirit. Tourism needs wild people! Again, although not strongly instigated, the ethnic background has always influenced students… for example, Kenya is a Catholic-dominated country, and I believe its doctrine beliefs can influence the choice of a course as it is mainly attributed to hospitality traits of which Tourism education champions for good gestures to lure tourists……. [DOT04]*

Another HOD had this to say based on his 30 years of teaching, which affirmed the threshold of demographic motivators for students to be in or choose tourism courses:

> *I have observed something that is still a dilemma to date in my whole teaching career. Most of the classes I have taught are filled with females and a larger population of students comes from the Central region……. I am yet to understand the association between Central Kenya and tourism or females and tourism career……in most hotels and restaurants, and you will not miss one employee from this region…. [DOT05]*

4.3.4 Students' choice to enroll

Students' choice to enroll was conceptualized as the only endogenous variable. The variable was measured using six (6): there is an increase in the number of students in tourism studies; there is an increase in the number of institutions offering tourism programs; there is an increase in the number of tourism lecturers and professors; there is an increase in awareness campaigns regarding tourism education; there is an increase in government investments towards tourism research and development, and there is an increase in the number of tourism programs on offer. Students were asked to rate their subjective and objective perceptions of the six items of students' choice to enroll.

The results (see Table 4.14) revealed that in the highly perceived factors were that: there is an increase in the number of institutions offering tourism programs (M=3.92, SD=.821); there is an increase in the number of students in tourism studies (M=3.85, SD=.825); There is an increase in awareness campaigns regarding tourism education (M=3.53, SD=.818); there is an increase in the number of tourism programs on offer (M=3.47, SD=.897). Nevertheless, statements on there is an increase in government investments towards tourism research and development (M=3.40, SD=.87) and there is an increase in the number of tourism lecturers and professors (M=3.35, SD=.805) were perceived as the lowest by the students. In general, all sub-variables on students' choice to enroll had an average mean greater than 3.35 and a standard deviation ranging between .805 and .897.

Table 4.14: Descriptive statistics for the dependent variable

	Students' choice to enroll (SCTE)	Mean	Std. Deviation
SCTE1	There is an increase in the number of students in tourism studies	3.85	.825
SCTE2	There is an increase in the number of institutions offering tourism programs	3.92	.821
SCTE3	There is an increase in the number of tourism lecturers and professors	3.35	.805
SCTE4	There is an increase in awareness campaigns regarding tourism education	3.53	.818
SCTE5	There is an increase in government investments in tourism research and development	3.40	.874
SCTE6	There is an increase in the number of tourism programs on offer	3.47	.897
	Valid N (list wise)	192	

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Worth noting was the agreement by respondents on the growth and development of tourism education as both a career and a field of study. The following three sentiments supported this notion, as follows:

> *……we have witnessed how much tourism contributes to our economy. This is all over; for example, during this COVID-19 era, many have lost their jobs……. this tells you how many tourism-related investments have been put in place in this country…. over the years they have been on the rice, gesturing the importance and development of tourism in the modern economy*…. [HOD11)

Another one noted:

> *Many can now appreciate tourism as a field of study…..previously tourism was not taken seriously as a career or course…… you have seen the mushrooming of institutions of higher education (colleges, universities, and polytechnics) offering tourism courses, and we have the top two; Kenyatta University and Moi University releasing many tourism graduates yearly to the job market……the demand for tourism professionals is high now….this is an excellent indication that as a tourism fraternity, we are on the rise….. [HOD010]*

Another respondent observed:

> *No one can now say that tourism education is not progressing…. We now have professors, doctors, practitioners, and tourism researchers…. A professional body, Tourism Professional Association…. we have a strong foundation…. something you cannot compare with, a decade ago…… [HOD05].*

4.4 Study Variables and Model Validation

Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted on all sub-variables for both dependent and independent variables. The results presented in Table 4.15 indicate that all the items used to measure the four study's constructs had alpha coefficients above 0.8. Butler (2014) recommends an alpha coefficient value of at least 0.7. This then confirms that all the study items were consistent for measuring the study constructs.

Table 4.15: Construct Reliability

Constructs	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Socio-economic factors	14	.872
Psychological factors	10	.946
Demographic factors	7	.829
Students' choice to enroll	6	.810

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.4.1 Validation of the Measurement Models

The four latent variables, namely; socioeconomic factors, psychological factors, demographic factors, and students' choice to enroll, were conceptualized by four models and validated for discriminant validity, construct validity, confirmatory unidimensionality, and convergent validity. Unidimensionality was framed for each model and confirmed by positive factor loadings of above 0.6 (Awang et al., 2016). The factor loading or a pattern matrix contains the loadings used to express the item

in terms of the factors and the interpretation of factors (Ertel, 2013). The more the factors, the lower the pattern coefficients since more common contributions to the variance were explained. Ertel further asserts that the pattern matrix loadings are zero when a variable is not involved in a pattern and close to 1.0 when a variable is almost perfectly related to a factor pattern. In this study, the factor loadings coefficients below 0.6 were eliminated. The remaining variables are almost perfectly related to a factor pattern and were used to calculate the average index for the composite variables for hypothesis testing (Awang et al., 2016).

The average variance extracted (AVE) and factor loadings were employed to assess convergent validity. The average variance extracted calculation followed the formula: *[AVE= sum of squared factor loadings/sum of error variance+ sum of squared factor loadings]*. The study employed Henseler et al's (2015) thesis, which posits that factor loadings and AVE values should be above 0.6 and 0.50 respectively.

A final model was generated from a combination of the four mentioned models based on study constructs to determine discriminant validity. To achieve this, Fornell & Larcker's framework (1981, cited in Zait & Bertea, 2011) requires the square root of AVE in every construct to be greater than the correlations between the constructs. Further, model fit indices were calculated to determine the goodness of fit between the measurement model and the data. For standard results, the goodness of fit indices (see Table 4.16) followed the ones recommended by Cheung and Rensvold (2002) and Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003).

Table 4.16: Fit Indices Framework

χ2 d/f	GFI	AGFI	NFI	RFI	IFL	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
<5.0	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	>0.9	<0.5

Source: Cheung and Rensvold (2002) and Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003)

4.4.1.1 Socio-economic Factors

The socio-economic factors variable was measured using three leading indicators: parent and family background, employment upon graduation, and tuition fees. The three indicators were represented by fourteen (14) sub-indicators: I was very satisfied with the offer of a place in tourism education (SEF1); My examination result only qualified me for a tourism course (SEF2); The tourism industry provides more employment opportunities than other industries (SEF3); The tourism industry offers more significant promotional opportunities than other industries (SEF4); Working in the tourism industry provides a secure future (SEF5); The starting salary expected after graduation is high (SEF6); The number of alumni who have attained employment upon graduation attracted me to study tourism (SEF7); The course fees for tourism education influenced my choice of tourism education (SEF8); In choosing tourism education, financial assistance was an essential factor for me (SEF9); My parents' income encouraged me to study tourism (SEF10); My parents' educational background influenced me to study tourism (SEF11); My close friends encouraged me to study tourism (SEF12); My high school teachers and counsellors encouraged me to study tourism (SEF13); and My siblings encouraged me to study tourism (SEF14).

The examination of the unidimensionality requirements for confirmatory factor analysis revealed that five indicators; SEF3, SEF8, SEF9, SEF10, and SEF14, had factor loadings of 0.49, 0.56, 0.57, 0.59, 0.56, and 0.56 respectively, which was below

the recommended value of 0.6 (Marcucci, 1997; Mondiana et al., 2018). The five indicators failed the confirmatory unidimensionality and thus omitted from the final measurement model (see Figure 4.1).

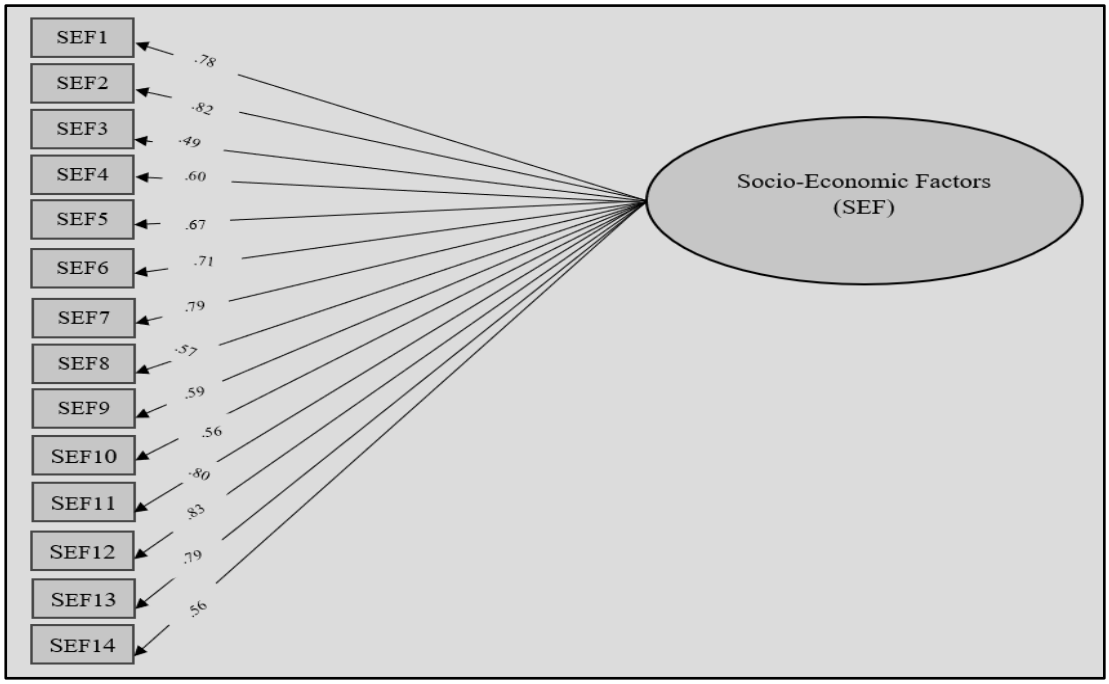


Figure 4.1: Socio-economic Measurement Model

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Further, composite reliability was calculated using Colwell and Carter's composite reliability calculator, accessed on their website (Colwell, 2016). Table 4.17 presents results indicating that the socio-economic factors indicator registered a value of .924 for convergent reliability (CR) and AVE of .605, as all other indicators (except SEF3, SEF4, SEF8, SEF9, SEF10, and SEF14) had factor loadings higher than 0.6 and AVE values exceeding the recommended 0.5 (Hair et al., 2022). Therefore, the eight remaining indicators were retained for use in the final model.

Table 4.17: Composite Reliability and AVE for Socio-economic Factors

Construct	Items	Factor Loadings	Item R-Squared	Error Variance	AVE	CR
Socio-economic Factors	SEF1	.784	.615	.385	$\frac{\Sigma fl}{\Sigma ev + \Sigma fl}$ =**.605**	**.924**
	SEF2	.821	.674	.326		
	SEF5	.673	.453	.547		
	SEF6	.712	.507	.493		
	SEF7	.791	.626	.374		
	SEF11	.804	.646	.354		
	SEF12	.834	.696	.304		
	SEF13	.791	.626	.374		
			Σfl=4.843	Σev=3.157		

******fl*** *represents Factor Loading while* ***ev*** *represents Error Variance*

Source: Calculations based on Raykov (1997)

4.4.1.2 Psychological Factors

The psychological factors variable was measured using two leading indicators: personal interest and ability, skills, and self-efficacy. Ten sub-indicators represented the two indicators: The interest I have to work in the tourism industry influenced me to enroll in tourism education (PF1); I firmly believe that the tourism course will be helpful in my future career (PF2); The prestige associated with the major in tourism influenced my decision (PF3); The attitude towards a tourism course influenced my decision (PF4); I have a desire to pursue advanced/graduate education in tourism (PF5); The tourism course will develop my ability to work in the industry (PF6); I have high people-oriented self-efficacy, which is essential for the industry (PF7); The tourism course is intellectually stimulating (PF8); The necessity to have a university degree to work in the tourism industry motivated me to take a tourism course (PF9), and I am confident that I can do well in tourism education studies (PF10).

The examination of the unidimensionality requirements for confirmatory factor analysis revealed that three indicators, PF1, PF9, and PF10, had factor loadings of 0.52, 0.42, and 0.58 respectively, which was below the recommended value of 0.6 (Marcucci, 1997; Mondiana et al., 2018). The three indicators failed the confirmatory unidimensionality and thus omitted from the final measurement model, while the remaining seven indicators were retained (see Figure 4.2).

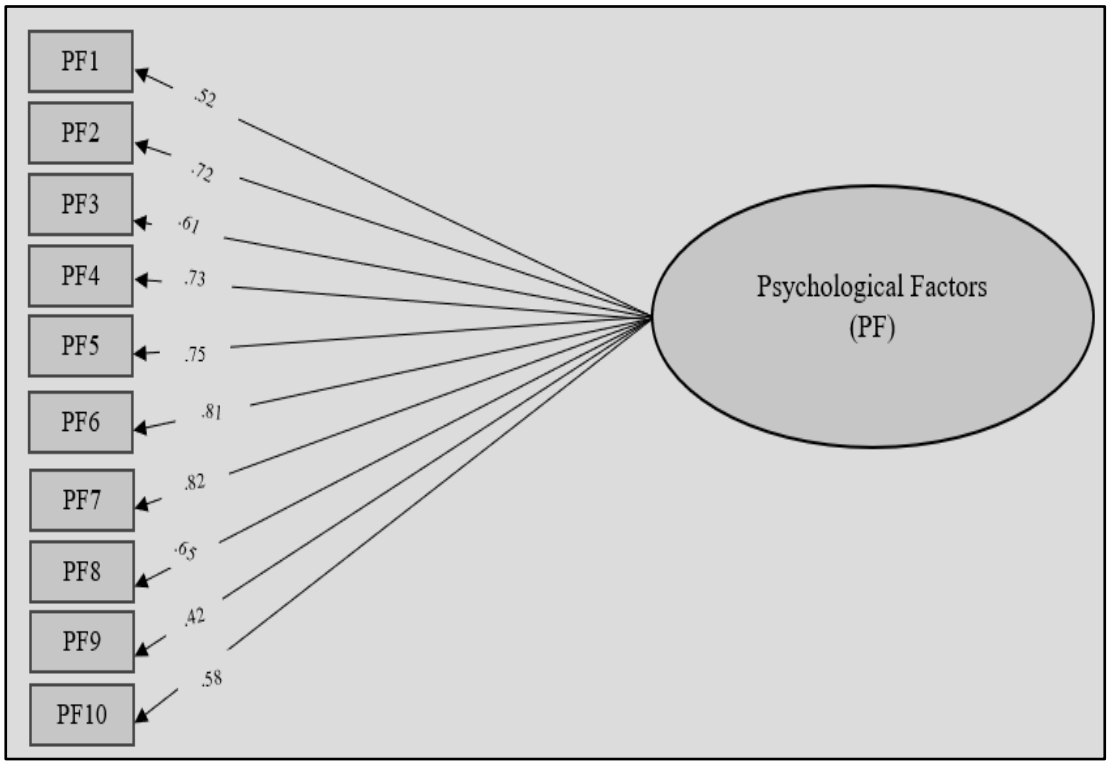


Figure 4.2: Psychological Factors Measurement Model

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The composite reliability value was found to be 0.885 while the AVE value was 0.523 (see Table 4.18), both exceeding the recommended values of 0.6 for factor loadings and 0.5 for AVE (Brown, 2002). Therefore, after removing the three indicators that failed the unidimensionality test (PF1, PF9, and PF10), the remaining seven indicators were retained for use in the final model.

Table 4.18: Composite Reliability and AVE for Psychological Factors

Construct	Items	Factor Loadings	Item R-Squared	Error Variance	AVE	CR
	PF2	.724	.524	.476		
	PF3	.614	.377	.623	$\frac{\Sigma fl}{\Sigma ev + \Sigma fl}$	
	PF4	.673	.453	.547		
	PF5	.751	.564	.436		
	PF6	.812	.659	.341		**.885**
	PF7	.824	.679	.321	=**.523**	
	PF8	.651	.424	.576		
			Σfl=3.680	Σev=3.320		

*__fl__ represents Factor Loading while __ev__ represents Error Variance

Source: Calculations based on Raykov (1997)

4.4.1.3 Demographic Factors

The demographic factors variable was measured using three leading indicators: ethnic background, religion, and gender. Seven sub-indicators represented the three indicators: I believe all ethnic groups are treated equally in the Kenyan tourism industry (DF1); Religious beliefs will help me with career progression in the industry (DF2); Gender influenced my choice in tourism education (DF3); Ethnic origin influenced my choice in tourism education (DF4); My religious beliefs influenced my choice in tourism education (DF5); I firmly believe that the tourism industry offers equal opportunities to both males and females (DF6); My decision to study tourism education was influenced by the males/females working in the industry (DF7).

The unidimensionality results found that all the indicators, except DF4 (My religious beliefs influenced my choice in tourism education), had a factor loading of 0.584 below the recommended 0.6 (Marcucci, 1997; Mondiana et al., 2018). The indicator failed the confirmatory unidimensionality and was thus omitted from the final

measurement model, while the remaining six indicators were retained for use in the final model (see Figure 4.3).

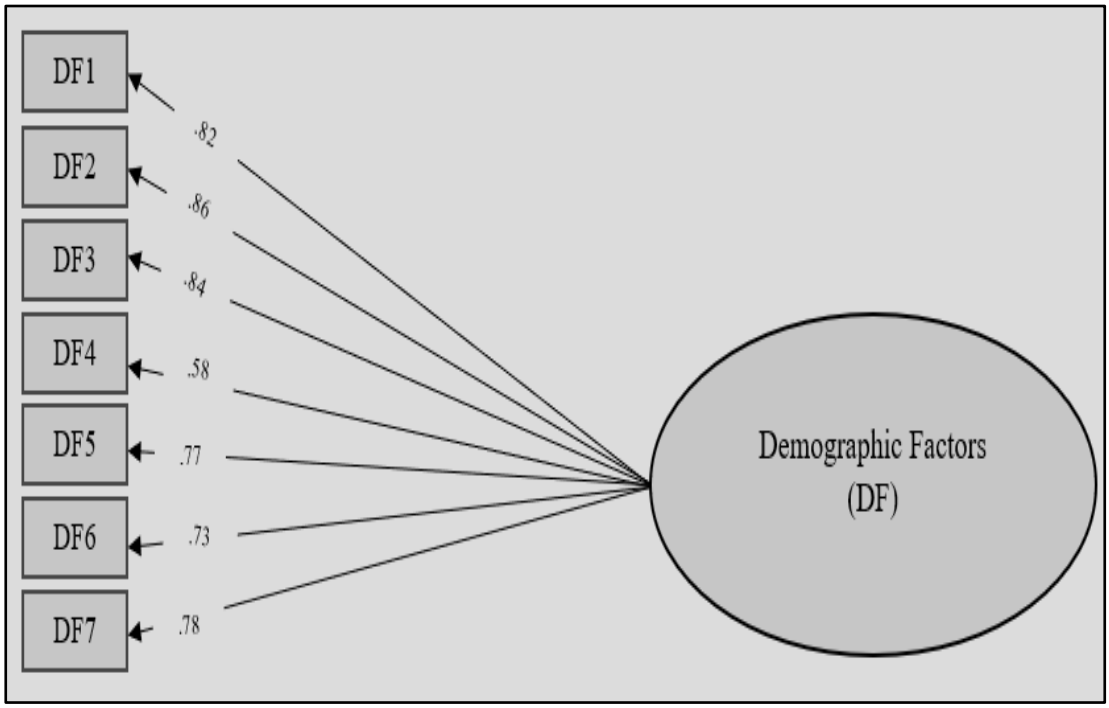


Figure 4.3: Demographic Factors Measurement Model

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The composite reliability value was found to be 0.915 while the AVE value was 0.638 (see Table 4.19), both exceeding the recommended values of 0.6 and 0.5, respectively (Brown, 2002). Therefore, the six indicators that passed the unidimensionality test were retained for constructing the final model.

Table 4.19: Composite Reliability and AVE for Demographic Factors

Construct	Items	Factor Loadings	Item R-Squared	Error Variance	AVE	CR
Demographic Factors	DF1	.824	.679	.611	$\frac{\Sigma fl}{\Sigma ev + \Sigma fl}$ =**.638**	**.915**
	DF2	.859	.738	.577		
	DF3	.836	.699	.480		
	DF5	.771	.594	.550		
	DF6	.729	.531	.639		
	DF7	.780	.608	.392		
			Σfl=3.794	Σev=2.151		

*__fl__ represents Factor Loading while **ev** represents Error Variance

Source: Calculations based on Raykov (1997)

4.4.1.4 Students' Choice to Enroll

Students' choice to enroll as an endogenous variable was measured using six leading indicators, namely: There is an increase in the number of students in tourism studies (SCTE1); There is an increase in the number of institutions offering tourism programs (SCTE2); There is an increase in the number of tourism lecturers and professors (SCTE3); There is an increase in awareness campaigns regarding tourism education (SCTE4); There is an increase in government investments towards tourism research and development (SCTE5), and There is an increase in the number of tourism programs on offer (SCTE6).

As shown in Figure 4.4, only one indicator (SCTE6) had a lower factor loading (0.57) than the recommended value of 0.6. Therefore, the remaining five indicators were unidimensional and retained for the final model.

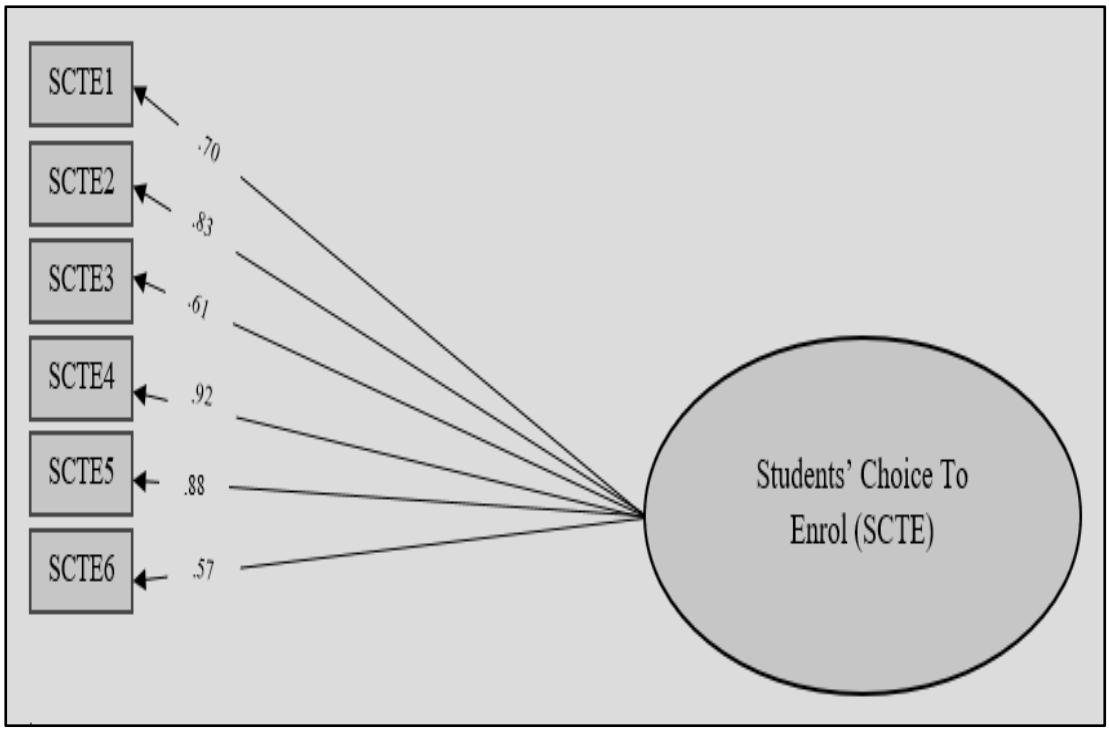


Figure 4.4: Students' Choice to Enrol Measurement Model

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The composite reliability value was found to be 0.896 while the AVE value was 0.638 (see Table 4.20), both exceeding the recommended values of 0.7 and 0.5, respectively (Brown, 2002). Therefore, the five indicators were retained for use in constructing the final model.

Table 4.20: Composite Reliability and AVE for Students' Choice to Enrol

Construct	Items	Factor Loadings	Item R-Squared	Error Variance	AVE	CR
Students' Choice to Enroll	SCTE1	.704	.496	.504	$\frac{\Sigma fl}{\Sigma ev + \Sigma fl}$ =**.638**	**.896**
	SCTE 2	.833	.694	.306		
	SCTE 3	.610	.372	.628		
	SCTE 4	.923	.852	.148		
	SCTE 5	.881	.776	.224		
			Σfl=3.190	Σev=1.810		

*__fl__ represents Factor Loading while __ev__ represents Error Variance

Source: Calculations based on Raykov (1997)

4.5 The Proposed Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a powerful, multivariate technique found increasingly in scientific investigations to test and evaluate multivariate causal relationships (Fan et al., 2016). SEMs differ from other modelling approaches as they test the direct and indirect effects on pre-assumed causal relationships. Data analysis was conducted using SEM, where the two-phase process consisting of a confirmatory measurement model and a structural model was used, Byrne (2016). The first phase involved estimating the measurement model, which assesses the relationship between the observable variables and the theoretical constructs they represent. The second phase was the specification of the structural model evaluation of the relationships proposed and testing of the hypothesis (Byrne, 2016).

4.5.1 First Phase: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Measurement Model

The first stage of SEM involved confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that evaluates the measurement model on multiple internal reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity criteria. Next, the analysis started with the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), whose key steps included the computation of the factor loading matrix. According to Ali et al. (2013a), it is conducted to understand the structure of the variables before further data analysis. Furthermore, EFA was used to identify factors based on data and maximize the variance explained (Orcan, 2018). EFA is used to conduct the study with no preconceived procedure to help in applying appropriate data analysis techniques to avoid crucial violations of key study assumptions in the consequent modelling process (Ali et al. (2013a). EFA was used to identify factors based on data and maximize the variance explained (Orcan, 2018). Before performing the EFA, two statistical tests that assess data's factorability or suitability for structure detection were

performed: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity.

KMO measure of sampling adequacy indicates the proportion of variance in your variables that might be caused by underlying factors, whereby high values close to 1.0 generally indicate that factor analysis may be helpful with the data (Cronk, 2020). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity tests the hypothesis that one's correlation matrix is an identity matrix, which would indicate that the variables are unrelated and therefore unsuitable for structure detection. Small values ($p < 0.05$) of the significance level indicate that factor analysis may be helpful with one's data. Table 4.21 indicates the test results for the suitability of structure detection. The KMO value was 0.711, which was close to 1. This means factor analysis is suitable ($p < 0.05$) as Bartlett's Test of Sphericity recommended.

Table 4.21: Test for Suitability of Structure detection

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	**Bartlett's Test of Sphericity**	
0.711	Approx. Chi-square	718.126
	df	242
	Sig.	0.000

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.5.1.1 Proposed Overall Measurement Model

The proposed final measurement model followed a correlation approach with the four models (see Figure 4.1; Figure 4.2; Figure 4.3; and Figure 4.4) after removing indicators that failed the unidimensionality test. The model had nine-factor loadings for socio-economic factors, seven psychological factors, six demographic factors, and six exogenous factors (SCTE) indicators, as shown in Figure 4.5.

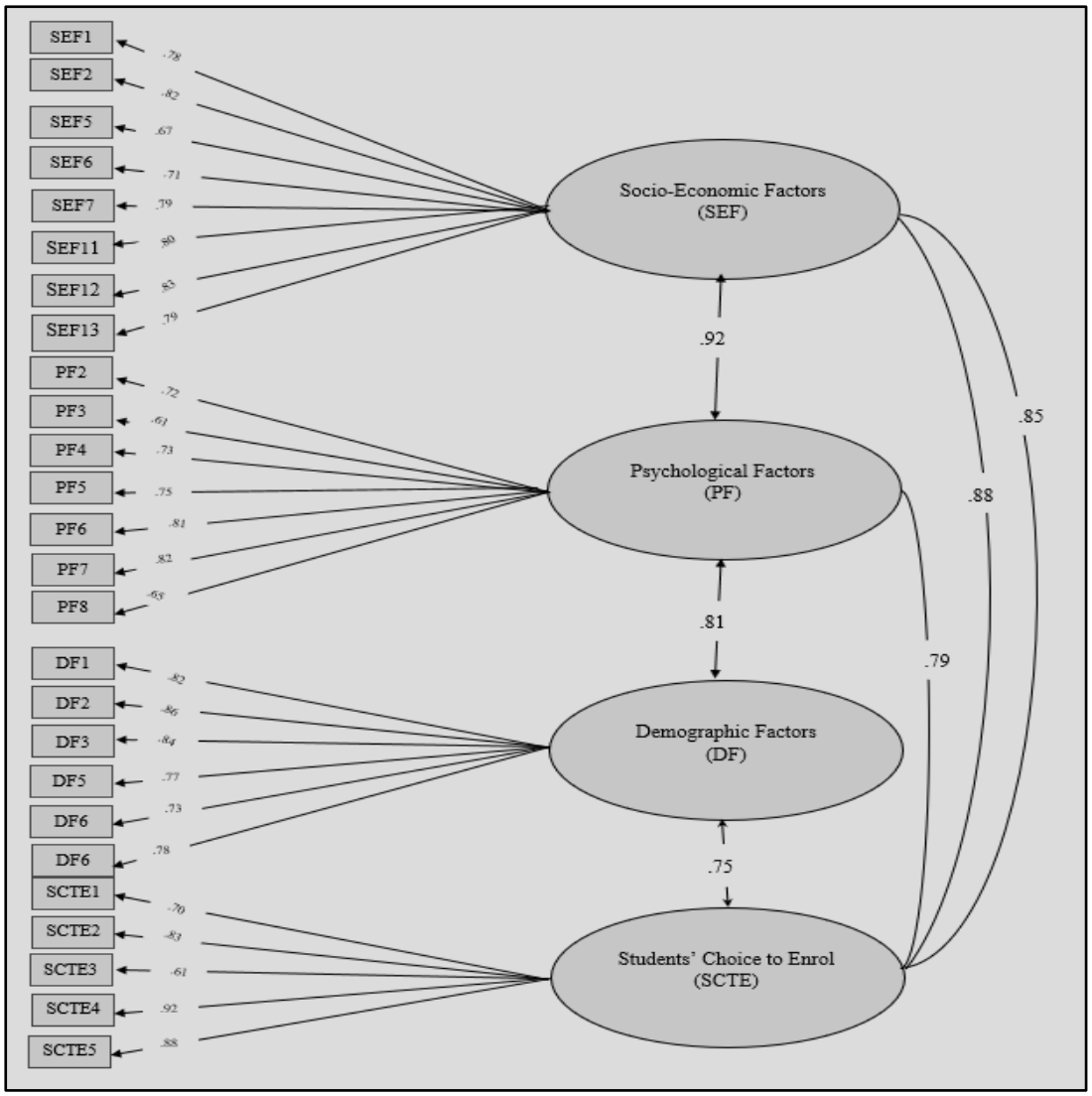


Figure 4.5: The Proposed Measurement Model

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The final check under phase one was to confirm the discriminant validity. This was done by following Fornell and Larcker's framework (1981, cited in Zait and Bertea, 2011), which requires the square root of AVE (indicated diagonally) in every construct to be greater than the correlations between the constructs (see Table 4.22). The findings confirmed that discriminant validity was achieved.

Table 4.22: Correlations and Square root of AVE Variable

Variable	SEF	PF	DF	SCTE
SEF	**0.778**			
PF	0.520	**0.723**		
DF	0.508	0.207	**0.798**	
SCTE	0.258	0.353	0.204	**0.799**

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.5.2 Second Phase: Validation of the Structural Model

The structural model had three exogenous variables and one latent (endogenous) variable. The ideal hypothesis of the model was conceptualized that the independent variables (SEF, PF, and DF) would have direct influences on the dependent variable (see Figure 4.6). The second phase of the SEM analysis was required to achieve this hypothesis. The second phase involved latent variables in testing the hypothesized relationships and to fit the structural model. To ascertain that the model provided a good fit for the data, the study also considered the minimum of four tests of model fit that need to be considered (Hair et al., 2010). Apart from picking four of the most widely respected and reported fit indices (Hooper et al., 2008), the study picked on Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RSMEA), Comparative fit index (CFI), Chi-square (χ^2) to the degree of freedom (df) which is the traditional measure for evaluating overall model fit, where it is accompanied with a p-value less than 0.05. Incremental fit indices (IFI), which compare the chi-square value to a baseline model, and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), also known as the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), is a development of the Normed Fit Index (NFI) with more consideration to sampling size.

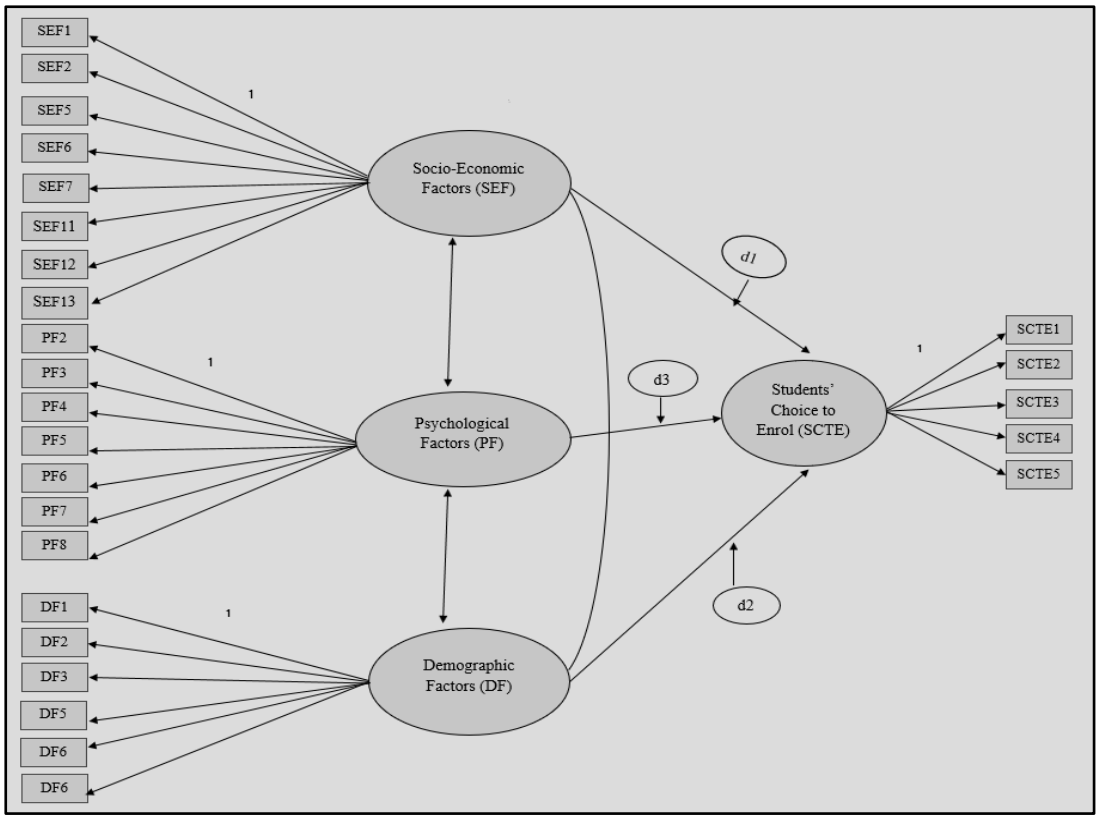


Figure 4.6: The Hypothesised Structural Model

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Results in Table 4.23 show a good fit for the measurement model compared to the cut-off points considered with the default model. Bentler (1990) found an acceptable value of RMSEA indicating a good fit associated with PCLOSE less than 0.05; CFI, IFI, and TLI were very close to 0.9, which is also acceptable (Emir, 2016). Chi-squared was also in the range between 1 and 5 associated with a significant p-value. The fit indices from Table 4.27 indicated that results in Figure 4.12 had a good fit between the model and the data ($\chi 2/df = 3.654$; IFI = 0.985; TLI = 0.943; CFI = 0.976; RMSEA = 0.0541), hence requiring no further modifications (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

Table 4.23: Goodness of fit for the Structural Model

Fit indices	Test values	Recommended values
RMSEA	0.0541	<0.08
PCLOSE	0.004	<0.05
χ^2/df	3.654	1-5
P-value	0.000	≤0.001
CFI	0.976	>0.9
IFI	0.985	>0.9
TLI	0.943	>0.9

**Recommendation for the model adapted from Cheung and Rensvold (2002)

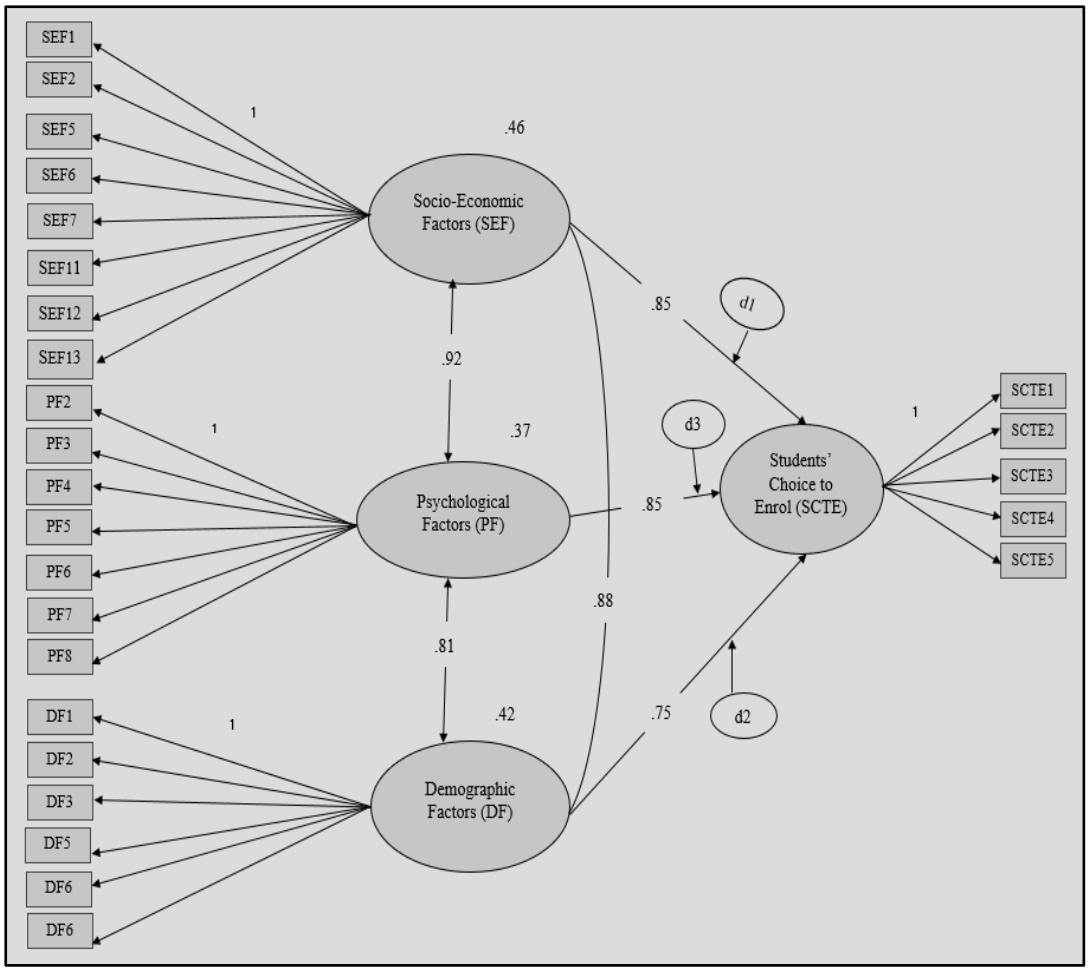
Source: Survey Data (2020)

The results also indicated that the Chi-square value (3.654) was statistically significant ($p<0.05$), and other fit values were with the acceptable values/ranges. The structural model explained 82% ($R^2 = .82$) of the proportion of variance in students' choice to enroll in tourism programs (see Figure 4.7). The results in Figure 4.7 showed direct effects of the present study, generated by the structural equation model. A single-headed arrow that pointed from one variable to the other indicated a direct effect, which appeared as standardized or unstandardized coefficients of partial regression. The results in Figure 4.14 thus point out that students' choice to enroll was directly affected three-fold by socio-economic factors (0.459), psychological factors (0.371), and demographic factors (0.421), as shown by Table 4.24.

Table 4.24 Standardized (Unstandardized) Direct (DE), and Total Effects (TE)

	Socio-economic factors			Psychological factors			Demographic factors		
	TE	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE
SCTE	0.459	0.459	-	0.371	0.371	-	0.421	0.421	-

Source: Survey Data (2020)



Fit indices: (χ2/df = 3.654; IFI = 0.985; TLI = 0.943; CFI = 0.976; RMSEA = 0.0541). Note: The factor loadings for the sub-variables in this figure as indicated in Figure 4.12 since the model was not modified.

Figure 4.7: The Hypothesised Structural Model

Source: Survey Data (2020)

4.5.3 Results of Hypothesis Testing

The final step in the analysis of the present study's field data (quantitative) was testing all the null hypotheses based on the SEM. The hypotheses were tested by assigning the statistical significance of the path coefficients. These paths were from socio-economic factors – students' choice to enroll (H01); psychological factors – students' choice to enroll (H02); and demographic factors – students' choice to enroll (H03).

Further, the study considered analyzing the path significance of each relationship, where it examined the standardized estimate (S.E), critical ratios (C.R), and p-value for each proposed hypothesis. A hypothesis is considered significant if a p-value > 1.96 and a p-value ≤0.05. Therefore, to obtain a t-value, the regression weight estimates were divided by the standard error (S.E). Therefore, the regression weight estimate of the three hypotheses in this study presented in Table 4.25 indicates that all causal paths for these three hypotheses were significant.

Table 4.25: Summary of Results (Regression Weights) of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Variables	Estimate	S. E	C.R	*P*	Decision
H_{o1}	Social-economic factors- students' choice to enroll	.872	.096	9.176	0.031	Not Supported
H_{o2}	Psychological factors- students' choice to enroll	1.742	.182	9.107	0.027	Not Supported
H_{o3}	Demographic factors- students' choice to enroll	1.433	.121	9.111	0.042	Not Supported

p<0.05; t-value > 1.96

Source: Data Analysis (2018)

Hypothesis H_{01} postulated no significant influence of socio-economic factors (SEF) on students' choice to enroll in tourism education in public universities in Kenya. The associated regression weight (Table 4.25) shows a positive and significant relationship between social-economic factors and students' choice to enroll in tourism education (β = 0.872; t=9.176; p=0.031). Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho1) that there is no significant influence of socio-economic factors on students' choice to

enroll in tourism education was not supported. This indicates that an increase of 1 standard deviation in socio-economic factors is likely to lead to a corresponding increase of 9.176 standard deviations in students' choice to enroll in tourism education. Thus, the hypothesis H_{o1} was rejected, and the opposite was accepted, concluding that socio-economic factors significantly influenced students' choice to enroll in tourism education. This finding is congruent with similar results from Simiyu et al. (2016) and Ng et al. (2016), which all concluded that socioeconomic aspects like family background tuition fees, and prospects of employment upon graduation, hugely influence students' enrollment decisions.

Hypothesis H_{02} presupposed that the psychological factors variable do not significantly influence students' choice to enroll in tourism education. The regression weights (Table 4.25) revealed that psychological factors were a positive and significant determinant of students' choice to enroll in tourism education in public universities in Kenya ($\beta = 1.742$; $t=9.107$; $p=0.027$). This resonates that an increase of 1 standard deviation in psychological factors is likely to lead to a corresponding increase of 9.107 standard deviations in students' choice to enroll in tourism education. The finding rejected the H_o2 hypothesis at a 99% confidence interval and concluded that physiological factors significantly influenced students' choice to enroll in tourism education. The empirical findings resonate with findings from previous studies by Sedahmed and Noureldien (2019) and Mata-López and Tobón (2018) that attribute psychological issues like passion, interest, personal prestige, and student's abilities to be critical factors driving students to enroll in institutions of higher learning in different environments.

Hypothesis H_{03} posited that demographic factors do not significantly influence students' choice to enroll in tourism education. The regression weights (Table 4.25) indicated that demographic factors were a positive and significant determinant of students' choice to enroll in tourism education in public universities in Kenya (β = 1.433; t=9.111; p=0.042). This resonates that an increase of 1 standard deviation in demographic factors is likely to lead to a corresponding increase of 9.111 standard deviations in students' choice to enroll in tourism education. The finding rejects the Ho2 hypothesis at a 99% confidence interval and concludes that demographic factors significantly influenced students' choice to enroll in tourism education. This conclusion supports the theses by Aničić et al. (2017) and Sigisbert (2017), who in their studies found that dimensions of gender (and disparity) and religious affiliation (though partially) determined a student's decision while deciding to enroll in a university.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

4.6.1 Social Economic Factors

Social-economic factors stimulate various attributions on perceptions arising from an individual, family, parent's influence, or the larger community. They culminate as motivators in this study towards students' enrollment rate. To understand the influence of social-economic factors on students' enrollment, the following indicators: employment upon graduation, parent and family background, and tuition fee, were explored. The study indicated that students strongly agreed that social-economic factors and their sub-variables significantly affect students' decisions on the kind of courses they pursue in universities here in Kenya. These findings agree with those of Đurišić and Bunijevac (2017) and Goyette and Mullen (2006), who found a clear

connection between parents' level of education and family income/wealth to their children's enrollment in postsecondary school education.

4.6.1.1 Parents and Family Background

The parent's and family background revolves around the wealth levels, education levels, and their influence on decision-making. The respondents consistently perceived the parent's level of education, where both fathers and mothers had attained an above certificate education level. The level of education, especially for a mother, determines a child's academic success. Students with at least one college-educated parent enroll in post-secondary education at nearly twice the rate of students whose parents have not attained a university degree (Aud et al., 2011). For example, in Australia, families where parents are better off educationally, socially, and economically foster a higher academic achievement in their children. In their study, Aud et al. (2011) found that these parents provide a higher level of psychological support for their children before, during and after enrollment, enabling them to survive and be successful at r at school (Simiyu et al., 2016).

The possible explanation behind the above finding is that when the parents have higher education levels, they are deemed to have in-depth information on the benefits attributed to higher education degrees (employment opportunities; return on investment), therefore, influencing their expectations of their children. This is so because enrollment in a university in Kenya is perceived by individuals or family members as a means of securing a job opportunity after graduation (Popov, 2019; Sigisbert, 2017). The family environment forms a significant influence in education decision-making. Still, the family members' educational background and economic conditions are undoubtedly the most basic and most important factors. This is in line

with study findings of Stergiou and Airey (2017) and Ng et al. (2016), who found that a family's educational and wealth background will not only affect an individual's decision to study at their own expense but also affects the intention of a particular course.

Moreover, borrowing from the theoretical framework, status attainment theory, parents' education may correlate with their occupation. The theory posits that being born from a wealthy family gives a person a better starting point than one born from a low-income family to earn social status. Thus, wealthy parents will have financial freedom and enough disposable income resources to pay for the tuition fees and influence the decision-making of their children's university enrollment (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2018). The study findings contradict this theory, where most fathers were found to work in semi-skilled sectors while most mothers work in high positions. In the Kenyan context, education level is not a function of the occupation one holds. Despite the hardships in attaining degrees, corruption, nepotism, and discrimination in the job market still hinders people from earning their rightful salaries depending on their educational qualifications.

Another social-economic attribute behind parent and family background is the parents' income, explaining the 'income effect' phenomenon. In this case, higher education is considered a normal consumption good or service (Hemsley-Brown & Alnawas, 2016) where the affordability of a degree is a function of a person's/family's income (Oo et al., 2018). The study findings suggest that students highly consider their parent's income before deciding on the kind of courses to pursue. This may suggest the poor state of Kenyan employment schemes, where many employers in private sectors fail to follow the pay grade framework, and the inflation rates caused by commercial corruption in the country, hence little pay regardless of

hard work. Income level then remains a conspicuous determinant of education enrollment. Without restricting this sentiment to only Kenyan public Universities, Balami & Sakir (2014) still find income to significantly affect enrollment, despite their study focusing on adult learners and their enrollment in open and distance learning programs.

4.6.1.2 Tuition fees

The tuition fee was another sub-factor of social-economic determinants of the enrollment in tourism education in public universities. The cost of attending an institution has been the focus for the stakeholders in the education field. While the institutions always want to maximize their revenue by increasing the cost of their courses, students prefer low-cost courses, especially self-sponsored ones. Cost and tuition fees have been reported as significant determinants of students' choice of higher education institutions (Saichaie, 2011). However, these findings were contradicted by Çokgezen (2014), who reported a non-significant relationship between the fee charged by an institution and the student's enrollment decision.

The financial cost of attending an institution plays a significant role in a student's enrollment. Unfortunately, the cost of a university education continues to rise without any sign of slowing down shortly, which dramatically impacts the enrollment of prospective students. It is a similar scenario in Botswana and the US whereby the institutions increase their tuition fees with no government regulations, Baliyan (2016). Students chose not to enroll in certain institutions based on several financially related factors; price sensitivity, scholarships, loans, grants offered, amount of aid, and ability to apply for aid Baliyan (2016).

In the Kenyan context, government and international sponsorship have already supported students for higher studies. Despite the partial fee subsidy given by the HELB and bursaries from both County and National governments, students still need some money (catering for accommodation, transport, and books, in other needs), deemed expensive by low-income families Ng et al. (2016). It, therefore, seems fair for such families to either acquire new means to pay in addition to their annual income or choose relatively low-cost education courses for their children. For the above reason, Hoogeveena and Rossi (2013) find financial resources a chief impediment to higher education. Additionally, Sun et al. (2017) study found a positive correlation between students' intention to study and their families' income levels. It is time that institutions should play a significant role in minimizing the cost of attending higher education institutions, especially the tuition fee if they are interested in developing human capital. Thus, institutions can sponsor students for their higher education in the country. In developing economies such as Kenya, public-private partnership is crucial for socio-economic development.

4.6.1.3 Employment upon graduation

The second most decisive choice factor for tourism education was determined employment prospects after graduation. Angulo et al. (2010) identified career opportunities as factors affecting students' choices. Students are most concerned about whether employment opportunities would be available after they graduate from an institution or not. This is because the job market in Kenya is saturated, and students face a more significant challenge of securing a job after graduation, marred by fierce competition and corruption. The new graduates have been competing with the old graduates in the same job pool, which led to high competition for potential jobs, with the unemployment rate in Kenya standing at 6.2% as of the first quarter of

2019 (KNB, 2019). However, the job opportunities have not increased correspondingly with the increase of university graduates every year. Thus, there has been an imbalance between the demand and supply of graduates in the job market in the country.

This study's finding has indicated that students unanimously agree that employment opportunity after graduation is a critical factor. They hope that tourism education will provide effective job search and placement services. An institution's reputation is also essential for prospective students and indicates that there will be a high probability of jobs being available for them upon completing their selected program. Institutions would be prudent to ensure effective placement services and job skill training. This can be achieved by establishing separate units mandated for this responsibility, such as a student training and placement directorate.

4.6.2 Psychological factors

4.6.2.1 Ability, skills, and self-efficacy

The skill-set, personal abilities, and efficacy are paramount in academics. Students who possess the three virtues are at an advantage in pursuing a course at a university. According to Kozak (2019), the number of students enrolling in volatile and dynamic courses like tourism is a worldwide concern. Students require the enthusiasm to pursue that which they love.

Globalization and the growing technological development increase the demand for tourism professionals (Aničić et al., 2017). Such demand is determined by knowing the needs of the labor market regarding the series of knowledge and skills needed by graduates. Furthermore, the profile of lecturers must fit the academic program in which they participate. Tourism education primarily encompasses managerial,

linguistic, computer literacy, and soft skills, for starters. Thus, students with the skills mentioned above and capabilities enjoy studying tourism (Todorescu et al., 2015).

Reading and writing are not enough as they are offered in the career course. After all, most of the documentation of computer programming languages is in English. Therefore, students need to take refresher courses in computer packages and take beginners courses in languages (Mandarin, French, Spanish, German, or other languages of their liking) to give them an upper hand in the job market, even after graduation.

Therefore, the influence of skills, abilities, and self-efficacy is crucial in choice-making because they culminate in empowering a student and giving determination in a course. This factor suggests that higher education institutions should keep their tourism curriculum updated with modern trends to ensure students enrich their skills and efficacy while undertaking a tourism course.

4.6.2.2 Personal Interests

Another variable under psychological factors was personal interest. In this regard, the passion one has before enrolling in a university course also influences the students' choice of tourism. The student desire for personal interest and aptitude induce students to attain higher education. The study findings contradict Sigisbert's (2017) finding, which posits that psychological interest will not significantly influence learners to enroll in the learning program. This finding contradicts the study conducted by Fujita-Starck (1996) found that motivational orientation that enhances good participation in education includes cognitive interest, communication improvement, and community service. Furthermore, Raghvan and Kumar (2007) studied learners in the Open University of Malaysia and found that participation needs

were based on professional advancement, followed closely by cognitive interest and communication improvement. It can be deduced from this study that learners' enrollment in university programs does not influence psychological interest.

The most critical psychological-intrinsic factors found in Turkish students, as reported by Korkmaz (2015), were personality, abilities, expectations, perceptions, and motivational influences. Subjective perceptions about a course, institution, or career path have not been associated with the students' enrollment choices. It then can be urged that such personal interest can change from time to time, depending on institutional or personal changes before enrollment. To ensure that universities attract more tourism students from enrollment, the tourism schools/departments within the universities should conduct continuous routine awareness about tourism degrees in high school students for those in forms three and four. This will see many appreciate tourism careers and aspire to enroll once positively coarsened.

4.6.3 Demographic factors

4.6.3.1 Ethnic background

The ethnic background in the students was identified as an essential factor to influence students' choice of tourism education. The study findings pointed towards a more significant number of students coming from the central region of Kenya. This factor can be attributed to the hospitality, nature, and spirit of adventure of the people from central Kenya. Tourism education in Kenya is portrayed as a luxurious and 'wild' career path, thus with the level of exploration connected with the people from the Mt. Kenya region, not only in academics but also in other fields including businesses and real estate, then it can be argued that the same enthusiasm is portrayed even in enrolling on tourism courses.

Although the Maa community is known for their culture worldwide, someone would think it would be in the tens of thousands of tourism graduates each year. Contrary, the Maasai people are scattered with various courses, and it is since recently that the community has seen the essence of taking their children to school. This call has been enabled by government initiatives like the *Nyumba Kumi initiative* that ensure security collaborations with the security agencies and matters of education. The implication is that graduates from such areas will be in high positions in government and environmental conservation groups after graduation, motivating others to enroll in a university.

4.6.3.2 Religion

The second variable under demographic factors was religious affiliation. The study finding depicted a picture of catholic and protestants-affiliated students' dominant in the enrollment into tourism education. Other doctrines like Hindus and Muslims were seen to have a smaller percentage. The impact of religion on students' choice for tourism was partially weak, which is in line with the findings from Sedahmed and Noureldien (2019), who could not find the relationship between enrollment and religion. However, no study has yet reported this factor influencing students' choice of tourism education. In the context of Kenya, this factor could be necessary for the simple reason of impartiality during students' admission to universities, which do not much emphasize religion. The limited slots in public institutions force other students to seek private higher education where low grades are accepted as an admission requirement.

To understand this relationship, universities should emphasize more awareness and promotion of tourism in the minority religions in Kenya to see if religion affects

tourism enrollment. In doing so, the tourism course would be popular and attract people from distinct religious groups, promoting healthy competition and cultural integration in academics and job opportunities.

4.6.3.3 Gender

The third variable of demographic factors was gender. Gender is a significant factor in any social-economic study. Studies such as those done by Ngare (2018) found that girls' enrollment into universities was minimal, which contradicts a study by Obermeit (2012), who revealed that gender does not directly affect students' university preference. The study's findings allude that more females were enrolled in tourism education in the 2017/2018 academic year, creating gender disparity. The findings support Sedahmed and Noureldien's (2019) finding that age, gender, type of institution, and academic level strongly influence students' enrollment. This finding may be attributed to the feminist stereotype campaign geared toward uplifting women in academics and other life arenas in Kenya, for example, the move to empower girls in high school with sanitary towels, scholarships, mentorships, curbing Female Genital Mutilation in the communities, and the accord to reduce entry points to the university for female students.

Gender disparities in various societal organizations and institutions have been the subject of ongoing feminist research initiatives. At this level, Matsolo et al. (2016) posit that the sharp increase of female students over their male counterparts in university enrollment might not portend well for the future, given that the idea of mainstreaming gender in universities is not to decrease the number of male students but to create parity. Their findings are also echoed by Aydın and Bayir (2016), who assert that gender transformation was happening faster in higher education. The

arguments for subsidizing higher education to increase female enrollment and academic development are weakened in countries where the gender gap is higher in secondary school than in higher education, a case example of the Kenyan education context.

Ironically, women's aspirations remained high even though they were less likely to receive family encouragement in some Kenyan communities from pursuing a college education, male patriarchs who are gender stereotypes that perceive that women are not to be educated (Mata-López & Tobón, 2018). UNICEF fights such inequality to ensure gender equity and equality in education matters. Despite the massive female support campaigns, other factors like school dropout, rape, early marriages, and pregnancies may hinder females from enrolling in their dream universities' dream courses. Many studies focus on determining the possible causes that make this phenomenon happen in the 21st century, Mata-López and Tobón (2018).

4.7 Chapter Summary

The aggregated results from the individual indicators of social-economic factors confirm that university enrollment is not accessible if socioeconomic measures are not well catered. The results show that most students consider their parents' income, parents' level of education, fees to be paid, employment expectations, and financial assistance before enrolling in a university. These attributes resonate with similar findings reported in extant literature (Atieno et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2016; Sigisbert, 2017; Stergiou & Airey, 2017). Furthermore, students should focus on these factors and continue to make immediate adjustments before deciding on their career paths.

Furthermore, institutions should conduct their study to determine which factors affect their students' decision to enroll in various courses. It should also assist in

establishing the reasons for significant differences in the institutions. Conclusively, the study findings of the study thus reveal one significant theoretical contribution to the existing body of knowledge that parents' income, parent level of education, fees, parent/family background, and future employment expectations as a dimension of socio-economic factors can potentially affect students' enrollment choice in tourism education.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

This chapter displays the conclusions and recommendations of the study and, finally, suggestions for future research. This aligns with the study's aim of examining determinants of choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The main objective of the present study was to analyze the determinants of choice to enroll in tourism education in public universities in Kenya. This study was guided by three objectives, evaluated as respective null hypotheses. The first objective was to establish the influence of socioeconomic factors on students' choice to enroll in tourism education at selected public universities in Kenya. The second objective was to evaluate the influence of psychological factors on students' choice to enroll in tourism education at selected public universities in Kenya. The last objective was to investigate the influence of demographic factors on students' choice to enroll in tourism education at selected public universities in Kenya.

Two hundred and fifty-seven (257) questionnaires were distributed to the first-year students of the 2017/2018 academic year in twelve public universities offering tourism studies. As a result, 216 questionnaires were filled and returned, but only 192 questionnaires, 74.7% of the targeted population, were deemed helpful for further analysis after screening and cleaning. This was congruent with recommendations from Babbie (2007) and Mugenda and Mugenda (2004), where above 50% of the target population is deemed adequate while above 70% is excellent.

The data set had no missing data, despite removing one outlier (case 91) from the socio-economic factors' variable before further analysis. The significance between the independent and dependent variables was tested using the Pearson Products Moment analysis and found that correlation was significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), with all the values having a significant level of above 0.204 (2-tailed) and P-value <0.05, which is in line with Kothari (2004). The study´s data-set distribution was tested using Kolmogorov-Smirnov analysis with a p-value of more prominent than 0.05 (PF=.962; DF=.876; SEF=.845; and SCTE=.542), implying a normal distribution between the variables. The Q-Q plot deducing a normal distribution of variables was plotted, whose findings are supported by Oppong and Agbedra (2016).

The VIF test of multicollinearity correlation for the predictor variables findings indicated a VIF less than ten and tolerance greater than 0.020 (DF [Tolerance=0.88, VIF=1.13]; SEF [Tolerance=0.87, VIF=1.15], and PF [Tolerance=0.96, VIF=1.104] hence the variables did not suffer from multicollinearity and tolerance effects. On the other hand, the homoscedasticity of residuals in the dependent variables was conducted using Levene Statistics, which showed a 4.788 associated with a p-value of 0.000 and a Chi-square of 0.18. Hence this study accepted the hypothesis of OLS where no heteroscedasticity was detected. Lastly, the CMB was conducted to check the influence of external factors on measurements. The Common Latent Factor captured the common variance while CFA indicated a CMB of 0.0780 (7.8%), lower than 20%, as Podsakoff et al. (2012) advocated. This indicated no statistically significant difference between the responses at the 0.05 level of significance.

An analysis of demographic profiles, particularly the students enrolled in the 2017/2018 academic year, revealed that most respondents were females (60.4%). Most students hailed from Kiambu County (19.8%). A more significant proportion of

these students came from the Former Central province of Kenya. This may suggest the hospitality attributed to the central Kenya people and their spirit of adventure in human demographics and business ventures. Most of the respondents came from provincial high schools (57.3%), having scored a mean grade of B (Plain) in their KCSE exams, with a sizable proportion choosing tourism courses as their first choice (34.4%).

Furthermore, most respondent's parents had acquired less than high school education levels, 29.7% and 28.1% for fathers and mothers. Although even for postgraduate education level, mothers were leading (4.7%) compared to fathers (3.6%), this may suggest the implication of continuity of 'uplifting girl child' campaigns that stemmed from the early '90s, leading to many women going back to further their studies. Drawing from the findings, most mothers held professional positions (32.3%), while many fathers (31.8%) occupied semi-skilled jobs. This may also confirm the narrative held by many on how parents' level of education leads to great careers and their imperative influence on their children's career paths (Đurišić & Bunijevac, 2017). Despite this insight, the findings indicated that many parents (53.1%) earned less than Ksh. 480,000 annually, with only 12% earning over Ksh. 1.2 million annually. This may suggest how poor the Kenyan economy is despite many educated parents with great jobs but poor pay.

Fundamentally, three hypotheses were developed for this study based on the three specific objectives and their analysis with SEM. The first hypothesis posits a lack of significant influence of socio-economic factors on students' choice to enroll in tourism education. It was not supported by data ($\beta = 0.872$; $t=9.176$; $p<0.001$). The second hypothesis premised on those psychological factors that had no significant

influence on students ‘choice to enroll in tourism education. However, the results indicated that the hypothesis was not supported ($\beta = 1.742$; $t=9.107$; $p<0.001$). The third hypothesis advanced that demographic factors do not significantly influence students’ choice to enroll in tourism education, and it was also not supported by the data ($\beta = 1.433$; $t=9.111$; $p<0.001$). The findings confirm that socioeconomic, psychological, and demographic factors determine students’ choice to enroll in Kenyan tourism education.

5.2 Conclusions

The study made the following conclusions: -

1. Socioeconomic factors (parent/family background, tuition fees, and employment upon graduation) were the most significant and positive influencers on students’ choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya. Therefore, this implies that public universities in Kenya should be at the forefront of championing and collaborating with education stakeholders to ensure that education costs, especially tuition fees, and industry job opportunities are guaranteed. This will see many students interested to enrol in tourism programs.
2. Psychological factors (ability, skills, efficacy, and personal interests) were found to positively and significantly influence students' choice to enroll in tourism education at public universities in Kenya. However, public universities should promote skills like computer literacy and foreign languages like Dutch and French on ensuring students are marketable and competitive after graduation. This is mainly from an early age, therefor

public universities, in collaboration with high schools, should work together to nature such skills.

3. Demographic factors (ethnic background, religion, and students' gender) were found to significantly influence students' choice to enrol in tourism education at public universities in Kenya. Although this was the case, issues of gender disparity and ethnic balance during the enrolment process should be considered to ensure equal distribution of opportunities to all ethnic groups in Kenya.
4. The compounded influence of determinants (socioeconomic, psychological, and demographic) posed a positive and significant influence on students' choice to enrol in tourism education in public universities in Kenya. This implies that public universities should consider these factors while trying to popularize tourism education to prospectus students. It, therefore, serves as a benchmark for institutions of higher education to determine whether they are playing their part to ensure smooth decision-making by the student, like promotion, scholarships and sponsorships, door-to-door visitation to the high schoolers, and also using their societal influence to popularize a course in their offering.

5.3 Research Implications

5.3.1 Practical implications

- The research findings are pertinent to education practitioners, researchers, and tourism curriculum designers, to gain in-depth insight into the demographic, physiological, and socio-economic determinants that influence students to enrol in an undergraduate degree in tourism management in Kenyan public universities. It, therefore, addresses critical gaps on which factors influencing

students' enrolment are crucial, hence formulating enrolment policies based on this study's findings.

- This study is helpful to university heads, especially those mandated on market tourism courses, as it gives them a foundational basis on what to target while drafting marketing campaigns to lure more students into choosing tourism and tourism-related courses. From the findings, such marketers will be able to understand why social-economic, demographic, and psychological factors are vital, thus helping them make decisions informed by the study findings.
- The students and universities will use the results from this study to understand the ranking criteria used by their universities (besides themselves) when choosing a university and degree program in tourism management. Overall, the students will understand how parents and friends influence a student's choice of degree programs in tourism management and universities.

5.3.2 Social implications

For years, high turnover rates of tourism management students have been typical in Kenya. Knowing the determinants of choice to enroll in a tourism management course is critical, and sources of information that define the selection of the university, and the course of study and analyze if there is an adequate intervention mechanism are vital. Therefore, from the study findings, four social implications were identified as vital in the social setting:

- The higher the students view tourism management as the potential for future success in the workplace, the higher their chances of choosing the course.
- An individual's level of passion will influence the choice of enrolling in a tourism course with the view that the stronger such desire is the chance of a student choosing the course.

- High school students with high self-efficacy and aspiring to join university courses will most likely choose the tourism course as their career path.
- The higher the expected positive outcome from enrolling in the tourism management course, the higher the chances of students choosing the course

5.3.3 New Knowledge

1. The study forms a good foundation for understanding the enrolment debate more so within the tourism context. Most previous studies have focused on STEM courses, putting tourism as an underrated area of study.
2. The study has complemented the arguments posited by human capital theory and social cognitive theory, where it has found the implications of investing in long-term tourism learning for future success. This is the observation by one of the HODs that "……. the prospects held in the mind of students that future employment will be determined by the course they take, sees them take the risk to invest their resources and time to pursue it" [HOD01].
3. The revelation that students still choose tourism programs instead of STEM programs is critical for economic policymakers in Kenya to ensure tourism is included in the agenda, even as Kenya positions itself in the manufacturing and service industries in the future.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the study's results, the following suggestions are made for further research:

i. This research has been conducted on undergraduate students. For comparison purposes, it is recommended that further similar analysis be carried out on students of different educational levels, such as those taking diplomas and postgraduate levels. This would provide a more comprehensive perspective for

forming generalizations regarding the career decision-making of tourism students.

ii. The current study evaluated the influence of demographic, physiological, and socio-economic factors in career decision-making from the tourism students' perspective. Further research needs to be conducted to evaluate the industry's perceptions of tourism graduates. This will shed some light on the imbalance between skillsets gathered in universities and industry expectations, despite the students having chosen tourism courses independently or through external influences.

iii. The present study used a descriptive survey design with a cross-sectional data collection technique to evaluate the determinants of choice to enrol in public universities' tourism education. Therefore, the present study recommends a longitudinal study where tourism students' perceptions and intentions of the industry would be evaluated before they are enrolled in the course and followed through to graduation and even beyond.

iv. The study found that demographic and socio-economic determinants influenced students' enrolment choices. Considering the difference in demographic, socioeconomic differences, and developments in Kenyan Counties, similar studies can be done to provide a County/regional picture of public universities in terms of all socioeconomic and demographic characteristics identified in the study.

v. In the current study, the participants were sampled from public universities only. This does not mean that tourism courses are not offered in private universities. Therefore, a comparative study should be conducted to establish that the variables explored in this study significantly differ in enrolment

between public and private universities. Comparison studies will enable tourism education stakeholders to understand any significant differences between what motivates students in public and private universities to choose tourism programs in Kenya.

vi. The study's findings on determinants of enrolment in Kenyan students in public universities serve as a jumpstart for future research that can dive deeper into understanding how tourism courses are/should be framed. Therefore, educators should emphasize practical and entrepreneurial courses in the tourism programs in traditional and modern public universities in Kenya. This will guide future studies into investigating whether business or entrepreneurial-centred tourism courses determine whether a student chooses the program.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Research Consent Form

Study's Title: Determinants of the choice to enrol in tourism education among students in public universities in Kenya.

Researcher: Ms. Mungai Margaret Mungai

Participant Eligibility: To be eligible to participate in this study, you must be a first-year student (academic years 2017/2018) in a public University in Kenya. You will complete the questionnaire with accurate information to the best of your knowledge. You are expected to have a good understanding of the determinants that made you choose a tourism course.

Voluntary Participation: You clearly know that your participation in Ms. Mungai's study is voluntary, and you may decide to decline to participate in it or wholly withdraw at any stage without giving any reasons. This also means you select your convenient mode of receiving the questionnaire, either through email/google form, or simply a hard copy.

Liability Release: Your participation in this study relieves the researcher any liabilities whatsoever, associated with her study.

Benefits of Participation: Through your honest answers, your opinions contribute to the body of knowledge in understanding the determinants of students' choice of a tourism program in a public University in Kenya.

Confidentiality: The answers you provide in this study are confidential. In addition, your name/email/other personal data will not be considered and instead, name coding will be used. The answer and your data are solely for academic purposes.

Participant's Statement: ", as a respondent have read and understood the study requirement. I also know my data is secure and confidential. In addition, I am aware that I can withdraw from the study anytime, reason-free. I therefore willingly agree to be part of the study. Signature: […….]

Investigator's Statement: I, as the lead researcher, having explained to the respondent on the study requirements in the language he/she understands, I confirm to have followed the perquisite ethical procedures needed for this study. For further clarifications, please contact me through mwmungai@gmail.com.

Name: Mungai Margaret Wanjiru
Signature: […….]

Appendix B: Questionnaire for Students

Dear respondent,

I am a student at Moi University undertaking a Doctorate in Tourism Management. I am currently researching *determinants of the* ***choice to enroll in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya*****.** Therefore, this is to request your participation and complete the questionnaire below. The study is purely academic, and therefore any information given will be confidential. Answer the questions as honestly as possible to enhance the true reflection of the study.

SECTION A: Demographic characteristics– **Please tick where appropriate**

1. Age:
    1. Below 18 years( )
    2. 18-25years ( )
    3. 25-30 years ( )
    4. 30 years and above ( )
2. Gender:
    1. Male ( )
    2. Female ( )

3. County of origin: Choose an item.

4. High School attended:
    1. National()
    2. Provisional ( )
    3. District ( )
5. Please state the grade scored in KCSE ----------

6. Which choice was tourism education?
    1. 1st ( )
    2. 2nd ( )
    3. 3rd ( )
    4. 4th ( )
7. What is the highest level of education attained by your parents? (Tick the boxes)

Parents	Father	Mother
1. Less than high school	☐	☐
2. High school	☐	☐
3. Certificate	☐	☐
4. Diploma	☐	☐
5. Undergraduate degree	☐	☐
6. Postgraduate degree	☐	☐

8. Describe the occupation of your parent(s) (tick the boxes)

Parents	Father	Mother
1. Professional	☐	☐
2. Managerial and Supervisory	☐	☐
3. Administrative, clerical	☐	☐
4. Semi-skilled	☐	☐
5. Others	☐	☐

9. Please indicate the approximate annual income of your family

1. Below Ksh. 300,000 ☐
2. Ksh. 300,000-Ksh. 480,000 ☐
3. Ksh. 480,000-Ksh. 720,000 ☐
4. Ksh. 720,000-Ksh. 960,000 ☐
5. Ksh. 960,000-Ksh.1,200,000 ☐
6. Over Ksh. 1,200,000 ☐

SECTION B: DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

10. Using the following scale, enter the value that best represents your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree (SD), 2-Disagree (D), 3- Neutral (N), 4-Agree (A), 5-Strongly Agree (SA).

	Statement	**SD**	**D**	**N**	**A**	**SA**
DF1	I believe all ethnic groups are treated equally in the Kenyan tourism industry	1	2	3	4	5
DF2	Religious beliefs will help me with career progression in the industry	1	2	3	4	5
DF3	Gender influenced my choice in tourism education	1	2	3	4	5
DF4	Ethnic origin influenced my choice in tourism education	1	2	3	4	5
DF5	My religious beliefs influenced my choice in tourism education	1	2	3	4	5
DF6	I firmly believe that the tourism industry offers equal opportunities to both males and females	1	2	3	4	5
DF7	My decision to study tourism education was influenced by the males/females working in the industry	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS

11. Using the following scale, enter the value that best represents your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree (SD), 2-Disagree (D), 3- Neutral (N), 4-Agree (A), 5-Strongly Agree (SA).

	Statement	**SD**	**D**	**N**	**A**	**SA**
SCF1	I was delighted with the offer of a place in tourism education	1	2	3	4	5
SCF2	My examination result only qualified me for a tourism course	1	2	3	4	5
SCF3	The tourism industry provides more employment opportunities than other industries	1	2	3	4	5
SCF4	The tourism industry offers more significant promotional opportunities than other industries	1	2	3	4	5
SCF5	Working in the tourism industry provides a secure future	1	2	3	4	5
SCF6	The starting salary expected after graduation is high	1	2	3	4	5
SCF7	The number of alumni who have attained employment upon graduation attracted me to study tourism	1	2	3	4	5
SCF8	The course fees for tourism education influenced my choice of tourism education	1	2	3	4	5
SCF9	In choosing tourism education, financial assistance was an important factor for me	1	2	3	4	5
SCF10	My parents' income encouraged me to study tourism	1	2	3	4	5
SCF11	My parents' educational background influenced me to study tourism	1	2	3	4	5
SCF12	My close friends encouraged me to study tourism	1	2	3	4	5
SCF13	My high school teachers and counselors encouraged me to study tourism	1	2	3	4	5
SCF14	My siblings encouraged me to study tourism	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS

12. Using the following scale, enter the value that best represents your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree (SD), 2-Disagree (D), 3- Neutral (N), 4-Agree (A), 5-Strongly Agree (SA).

	Statement	**SD**	**D**	**N**	**A**	**SA**
PF1	The interest I have to work in the tourism industry influenced me to enroll in tourism education	1	2	3	4	5
PF2	I firmly believe that the tourism course will be helpful in my future career	1	2	3	4	5
PF3	The prestige associated with the major in tourism influenced my decision	1	2	3	4	5

PF4	The attitude towards a tourism course influenced my decision	1	2	3	4	5
PF5	I have a desire to pursue advanced/graduate education in tourism	1	2	3	4	5
PF6	The tourism course will develop my ability to work in the industry	1	2	3	4	5
PF7	I have high people-oriented self-efficacy which is important for the industry	1	2	3	4	5
PF8	The tourism course is intellectually stimulating	1	2	3	4	5
PF9	The necessity to have a University degree to work in the tourism industry motivated me to take a tourism course	1	2	3	4	5
PF10	I am confident that I can do well in tourism education studies	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: STUDENTS' CHOICE TO ENROLL

15. To what extent do you agree with the following student's choice to enroll in tourism education? You can rate them as follows;

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree (SD), 2-Disagree (D), 3- Neutral (N), 4-Agree (A), 5-Strongly Agree (SA).

	Statement	**SD**	**D**	**N**	**A**	**SA**
SCTEI	There is an increase in the number of students in tourism studies	1	2	3	4	5
SCTE2	There is an increase in the number of institutions offering tourism programs	1	2	3	4	5
SCTE3	There is an increase in the number of tourism lecturers and professors	1	2	3	4	5
SCTE4	There is an increase in awareness campaigns regarding tourism education	1	2	3	4	5
SCTE5	There is an increase in government investments towards tourism research and development	1	2	3	4	5
SCTE6	There is an increase in the number of tourism programs on offer	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation

Appendix C: Interview Guide for Head of Departments

Instructions: This interview schedule aims to investigate determinants of the choice to enroll in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya. You are requested to answer all questions with much honesty. The researcher guarantees confidentiality for all the responses to the questions.

1. What is your perception of the enrolment levels of undergraduate students in tourism education at your University? Is it increasing or not? What are the reasons attributed to your answer?

   ……

   ……

   What do you think motivates students to choose tourism education?

2. What are some of the demographic, socio-economic, institutional factors that influence students' choice to enroll in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya?

   .....

   .....

3. How do these demographic, socio-economic, institutional characteristics influence students' choice to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya?

   .....

   .....

4. How do these characteristics influence students' choices to enrol in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya?

   .....

5. Does the University have a policy regarding the number of students that the Department can enrol in an academic year?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

   If yes in (3), indicate the number of students that the Department can handle per academic year ……

   ……..……

6. What has been the percentage increase in student's choice to enrol in tourism education for the last five years?.....
7. How satisfied are you with the current students' choice to enrol in tourism education in general? .....
8. Give the challenges that the Department encounters in students' choice to enrol with regards to tourism education

   ……

   ……

   ……

Thank you for your participation

Appendix D: NACOSTI Research Permit

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: **315353**

Date of Issue: **15/November/2018**

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Ms.. Margaret Wanjiru Mungai of Moi University, has been licensed to conduct research in Kiambu, Kilifi, Mombasa, Muranga, Nairobi, Narok, and Nyeri Counties, on the topic: Factors influencing students' enrollment in tourism education in selected public universities in Kenya for the period ending : 15/November/2019.

License No: **NACOSTI/P/21/14244**

315353

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

Appendix E: The Study's Budget

Item	Activity	Description	Person(s)	Period	Cost (Ksh)
1	Proposal writing; concept, literature review, and final draft	Review of literature, consultations, presentation, and compilation	1	6 months	33, 700
2	Formulation of research instruments	Reviews and consultations.	3	5 days	5,000
3	Proposal compilation	printing and binding	1	1 day	4,700
4	Research permit	Permit cost from NACOSTI	1	14 days	1,000
5	Pretesting	Travel, food & Allowance	3	7 days	35,800
6	Research instruments' cleaning	Re-writing, removal/addition of questions/points	3	3 days	3,000
7	Data collection	Travel, Food, & Allowance	3	3 months	75,000
8	Data Cleaning, Coding, analysis, & report writing	SPSS software, Analysis, and Consultation	3	4 months	67,800
9	Final Thesis report presentation, and compilation	Presentation day	1	1	2,500
		Printing and Binding	1	1	6,500
	Total				**233,000**
10	Miscellaneous	Contingencies (10%)	-	-	23, 300
	Grand Total				**256, 300**

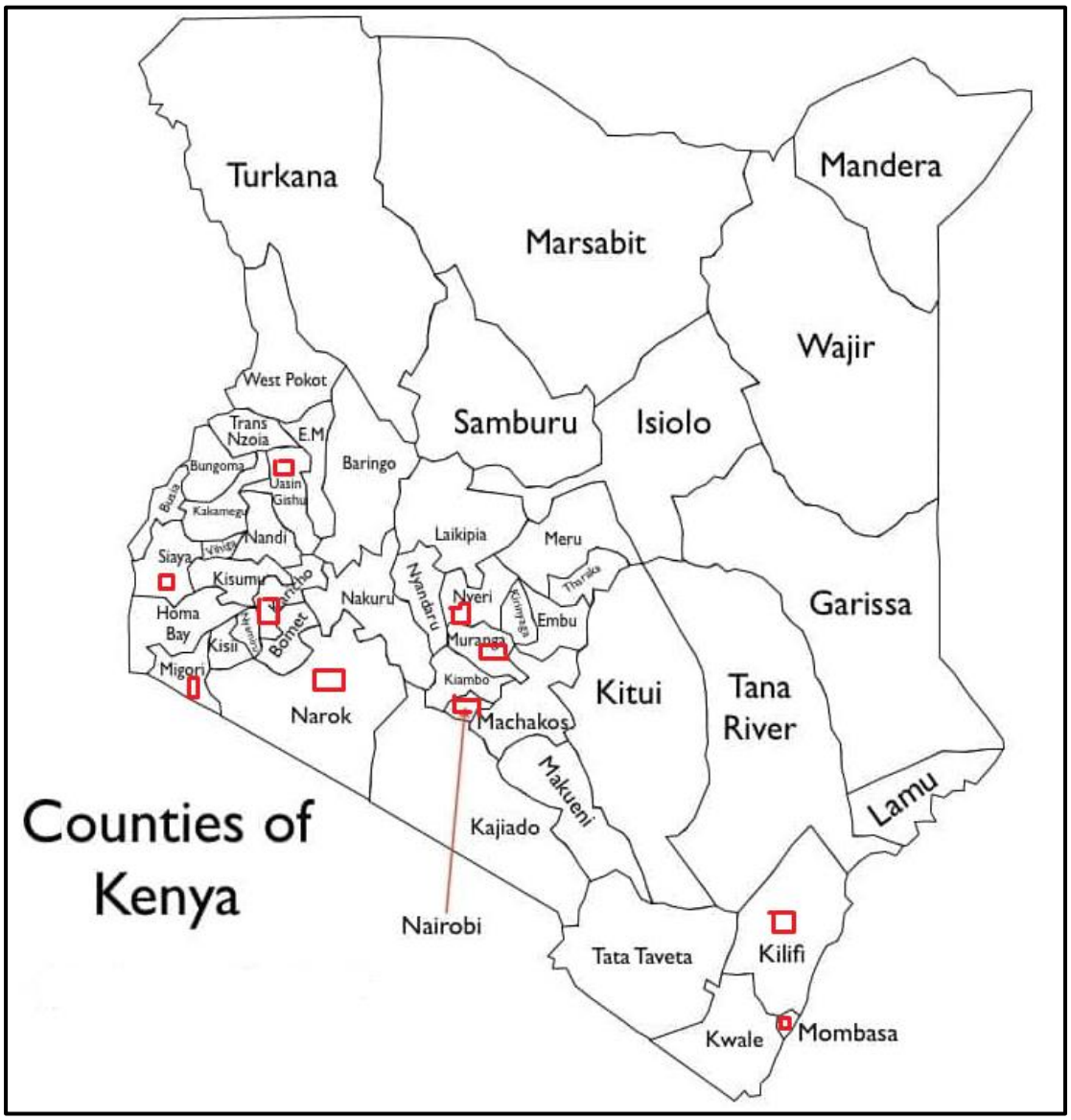
Appendix F: Accredited Universities to offer Tourism Education and Training

University	Program(s)
Chuka University	Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management Masters in Tourism Management Bachelor of Tourism Management Bachelor of Science in Ecotourism Diploma in Tourism and Hotel Management Certificate in Hospitality and Tourism Management
Dedan Kimathi University of Technology	Masters of Science in Sustainable Tourism & Hospitality Bachelor of Science in Sustainable Tourism & Hospitality Diploma in Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality
Egerton University	Bachelor of Science in Ecotourism and Hospitality Management Diploma in Ecotourism and Hospitality Management
Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology	Bachelor of International Tourism Management Diploma in Tourism Management Certificate in Tourism Management
Karatina University	Bachelor of Tourism Management Diploma in Tourism Management
Kenya Methodist University	Master of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management Bachelor of Science in Travel and Tourism Management Diploma in Travel and Tourism Management Certificate in Travel and Tourism Operations
Kenyatta University	Doctor of Philosophy in Hospitality & Tourism Management Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management Masters of Science in Tourism Management Bachelor of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management (Hospitality Option) Bachelor of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management Post Graduate Diploma (Hospitality and Tourism Management) Diploma in Tourism Management
Kisii University	Bachelor of Science in Ecotourism and Hospitality Management Master of Tourism Management (MTOUR)
Maasai Mara University	Master of Tourism Management Bachelor of Tourism Management Diploma in Tourism & Wildlife Management Certificate in Tourism & Wildlife Management
Machakos University	Bachelor of Science (Hospitality and Tourism Management) Certificate in Hospitality and Tourism Operation
Maseno University	Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Tourism Management Master of Science in Ecotourism, Hotel & Institutional Management Bachelor of Science in Ecotourism, Hotel & Institutional Management (With IT)

	Certificate in Hospitality and Tourism Diploma in Travel & Tourism Management Certificate in Hospitality and Tourism
Moi University	Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management Master of Tourism Management (MTM) Master of Science in Travel and Transport Services Management Bachelor of Tourism Management Bachelor of Travel and Tour Operations Management Diploma in Tourism Management Diploma in Sustainable Tourism and Wildlife Management Diploma in Travel and Tour Guiding Diploma in Air Travel Services Management
Mount Kenya University	Bachelors of Science in Travel and Tourism Management Diploma in Travel and Tourism Management Certificate in Travel and Tourism Operations
Pwani University	Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management Master of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management Bachelor of Science in Tourism Management Bachelors of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management Diploma in Travel and Tour Operations Diploma in Travel and Tourism Operations
Rongo University	Bachelor of Tourism Management Diploma in Tourism Management
Strathmore University	Bachelor of Tourism Management
Technical University of Kenya	Master of Science in Tourism Management Bachelor of Science (Tourism and Travel Management) Diploma in technology (Tourism and Travel Management)
Technical University of Mombasa	Bachelor of Sciences in Tourism Management Diploma in Tourism Management
United States International University	Bachelor of Science in Tourism Management
University of Kabianga	Bachelor of Tourism Management Diploma in Tourism Management
University of Eldoret	Masters in Tourism Management Bachelor of Tourism Management Diploma in Tourism Management Diploma in Travel and Tour Operations Management
University of Nairobi	Bachelor of Arts in Travel and Tourism Management

Source: (CUE, 2017)

Appendix G: Study Areas



Map of Kenya with 47 Counties. The rectangular shapes in red indicate the approximate location of a university.
Source: Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2019)

Appendix H: Description of Maasai Mara University

Maasai Mara University is a public university located in Narok County, Kenya. The University was established in 2008 as a constituent college of Moi University before it was granted full university status in 2013. The main campus of the University is situated in Narok town, along Narok-Bomet Road, approximately 1.5 kilometres from Narok town. As of 2021, the University has an enrollment of over 10,000 students pursuing various courses in different faculties. The University offers undergraduate and graduate programs in various fields, such as business, education, social sciences, natural sciences, engineering, and technology.

The University is located at 1.1006° S, 35.9336° E, which is approximately 150 kilometres west of Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya. The University is situated in a serene environment conducive to learning, with a rich cultural heritage and natural resources that provide a unique learning experience for students. In addition to academic programs, Maasai Mara University is also involved in research and community service. The University has established partnerships with various institutions, organizations, and communities to undertake research and outreach activities that are geared toward addressing societal challenges. Overall, Maasai Mara University is a vibrant and dynamic institution committed to providing quality education, research, and community service to its students and the wider community.

Appendix I: Description of Moi University

Moi University is a public university located in Eldoret, Uasin Gishu County, Kenya. It was founded in 1984 as the second public University in Kenya, and it currently has a student population of approximately 52,000. The University is named after the second President of Kenya, Daniel Arap Moi, who played a crucial role in establishing the institution. The University's main campus is located in Kesses, approximately 25 kilometres from Eldoret town. The coordinates of the main campus are 0.5136° N and 35.2698° E.

Moi University has several campuses located in different parts of Kenya, including the Nairobi campus, the Coast campus, the Kitale campus, and the Alupe campus. The University offers undergraduate and graduate programs in various fields, including education, law, engineering, medicine, and business.

In addition to its academic programs, Moi University is known for its research initiatives, particularly in agriculture, health, and science and technology. The University has established several research centres, including the Institute of Biological Sciences, the Institute of Energy and Environmental Technology, and the Centre for Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance. Overall, Moi University is a well-respected institution of higher learning in Kenya and East Africa, and it continues to play a significant role in the region's development.

Appendix J: Description of Murang'a University of Technology

Murang'a University of Technology (MUT) is a public university located in the town of Murang'a, in the Central region of Kenya. The institution was established in 2011 as a constituent Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) constituent college before being chartered as a fully-fledged university in 2016. As of 2021, the University has an enrollment of approximately 10,000 students at the undergraduate and graduate levels. The institution offers courses in various fields, including Engineering, Health Sciences, Education, Business, and Computing.

Murang'a University of Technology is situated at coordinates 0.7204° S, 37.1557° E, and covers an area of approximately 350 acres. The campus is located approximately 85 kilometers North-East of Nairobi, along the Nairobi-Thika-Garissa highway. The University has state-of-the-art facilities, including a modern library, well-equipped laboratories, and well-maintained sports fields. It is also committed to promoting research and innovation, with several research centres dedicated to various fields of study.

In summary, Murang'a University of Technology is a reputable institution of higher learning in Kenya, with a steadily growing student population located in Murang'a town, about 85 kilometres North-East of Nairobi. The University offers many courses and is committed to promoting research and innovation.

Appendix K: Description of Pwani University

Pwani University is a public university located in Kilifi County, Kenya, approximately 50 kilometers north of Mombasa. The University was established in 2007 and is situated on a 243-hectare piece of land in the serene environment of Kilifi, overlooking Kilifi Creek and the Indian Ocean. As of 2021, Pwani University has an estimated population of over 8,000 students enrolled in various undergraduate and graduate programs offered by the institution. The University has a diverse student body, with students from various regions of Kenya and other countries in East Africa.

Pwani University offers a wide range of academic programs across its seven faculties, including Humanities and Social Sciences, Education and Social Work, Science, Health Sciences, Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Business and Economics, and Engineering and Technology. The University is committed to providing high-quality education and research to its students and has a team of experienced faculty members and support staff who are dedicated to achieving this goal. The University has also invested in modern facilities and equipment to ensure that students receive hands-on training in their respective fields of study.

Regarding its geographical location, Pwani University is situated at 3.6318° S, 39.8531° E, and enjoys a favorable tropical climate throughout the year, making it an ideal location for academic and research activities. In conclusion, Pwani University is a vibrant and dynamic institution of higher learning that offers a conducive academic and personal growth environment. With its commitment to excellence and its focus on providing quality education and research, Pwani University is poised to become a leading institution of higher learning in Kenya and beyond.

Appendix L: Description of Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology

Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology (JOOUST) is a public university in Bondo, Siaya County, Kenya. The University was established in 1994 as Bondo Teachers' Training College before being upgraded to a university college in 2007. It was later chartered as a fully-fledged university in 2013 and was named after the late Jaramogi Oginga Odinga, a prominent Kenyan politician, and nationalist.

JOOUST offers undergraduate and graduate degree programs in various fields, including science, engineering, technology, business, education, arts, and social sciences. The University has several faculties, including the Faculty of Science, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Business and Economics, and the Faculty of Engineering and Technology. As of 2021, JOOUST had an estimated student population of over 7,000 enrolled in various programs. The University has a vibrant campus life with various extracurricular activities and student organizations.

JOOUST is located at coordinates 0.2183° S and 34.2792° E. The University is in Bondo town, about 25 kilometres from Kisumu City. The University is easily accessible by road, with regular public transportation services available to and from the campus. JOOUST is committed to promoting excellence in teaching, research, and innovation and has invested heavily in modern infrastructure and equipment to support these goals. The University has several state-of-the-art facilities, including well-equipped laboratories, modern lecture halls, a well-stocked library, and a computer centre with high-speed internet connectivity. In conclusion, JOOUST, as a university, offers high-quality education and research opportunities in various fields. With its strong academic programs, modern infrastructure, and committed faculty and staff, JOOUST is a great place to pursue higher education in Kenya.

Appendix M: Description of Kenyatta University

Kenyatta University is a public university located in Nairobi, Kenya. It was founded in 1985 as a constituent college of the University of Nairobi and later became a fully-fledged university in 1997. The University currently has a student population of approximately 56,000. Kenyatta University is named after Jomo Kenyatta, the first President of Kenya, and it is located in the eastern part of Nairobi, near the border with Kiambu County. The University's main campus coordinates are 1.1451° S, 36.9599° E.

The University has several campuses located in different parts of Kenya, including the City campus in Nairobi, the Ruiru campus, the Kitui campus, and the Mombasa campus. The University offers undergraduate and graduate programs in various fields, including education, business, law, engineering, and health sciences. Kenyatta University is known for its research initiatives, particularly in agriculture, environment, and health. The University has established several research centres, including the Institute of Environmental Studies and Research, the Institute of Biotechnology Research, and the Global Tourism Resilience and Crisis Management Centre (GTRCMC).

In addition to its academic programs and research initiatives, Kenyatta University is also actively involved in community outreach and engagement. The University has established several community service centres—, including the Wangari Maathai Institute for Peace and Environmental Studies and the Kenyatta University Community Health and Development Centre. Overall, Kenyatta University is a respected institution of higher learning in Kenya and East Africa, and it continues to play a significant role in the region's development.

Appendix N: Description of Karatina University

Karatina University is a public university located in Karatina, Kenya. It was established in 2010 as a constituent college of Moi University before being elevated to a fully-fledged university in 2013. The University has a current enrollment of approximately 7,000 students. The University is situated in Karatina town, which is located in the central region of Kenya. The coordinates of the University are 0.4748° S and 37.0723° E. The location is easily accessible by road and is approximately 150 kilometres from Nairobi, the capital city of Kenya.

Karatina University offers undergraduate and graduate programs in various fields, including agriculture, education, business, social sciences, and pure and applied sciences. The University is known for its commitment to research and innovation, with a focus on addressing societal challenges in Kenya and beyond. The University has several research centres, including the Centre for Research and Innovation, the Centre for Sustainable Dryland Ecosystems and Societies, and the Centre for Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance. The University also has a strong community outreach program, with initiatives aimed at empowering local communities through education and training.

Karatina University has a diverse student population drawn from different parts of Kenya and the East African region. The University provides a conducive learning environment, with state-of-the-art facilities and qualified faculty members who are committed to providing quality education. Overall, Karatina University is a reputable institution of higher learning in Kenya, and it continues to play a significant role in shaping the future of the country and the region.

Appendix O: Description of University of Kabianga University

The University of Kabianga is a public university in Kabianga, Kericho County, Kenya. Established in 2007, the University is situated at an altitude of 2,300 meters above sea level, with a geographical location of longitude of 35.1965° E and latitude of 0.4307° S. The University has a total student population of over 10,000 enrolled in various undergraduate and postgraduate programs. The institution offers business, education, agriculture, natural resources management, social sciences, humanities, and information technology courses.

The University of Kabianga has a dedicated faculty of over 500 academic staff and support personnel who provide quality teaching and research. The University's facilities include a library, student hostels, a sports centre, and well-equipped laboratories for science courses. The institution is committed to research and innovation, with several research centres established to facilitate the same. The University is also dedicated to community service, with various outreach programs to improve the lives of the local population.

In summary, the University of Kabianga is a reputable public institution of higher learning in Kericho County, Kenya. It boasts a large student population and offers various programs across various faculties. Its commitment to research, innovation, and community service makes it valuable to the local and broader Kenyan society.

Appendix P: Description of The University of Eldoret

The University of Eldoret (UoE) is a public university located in Eldoret, Uasin Gishu County, Kenya. It was established in 1946 as a teacher-training college and has since grown to become a fully-fledged university. The University is located at a longitude of 35.2927° E and a latitude of 0.5104° N. As of 2021, the University of Eldoret has a total enrollment of approximately 12,000 undergraduate and postgraduate students. The University offers courses in various fields, including agriculture, business, education, engineering, environmental studies, health sciences, humanities and social sciences, and science and technology. The University has a rich history and has undergone several transformations. It started as a small teacher training college known as the Siriba Teachers' Training College, which later became the Siriba Agricultural College in 1965. In 1984, the college was renamed the Chepkoilel Campus of Moi University, and in 2010, it was elevated to a fully-fledged university and renamed the University of Eldoret.

The University of Eldoret is located in the town of Eldoret, which is the fifth largest town in Kenya. The town is situated in the Rift Valley region and is known for its agricultural activities and the world-famous Kenyan long-distance runners who train there. Apart from academic programs, the University of Eldoret also engages in research activities in various fields. The University has several research centres, including the Centre for Water Resources and Development, the Centre for Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development, and the Centre for Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance. In conclusion, the University of Eldoret is a leading public university in Kenya with a rich history and diverse academic programs. Its strategic location in Eldoret, the heart of Kenya's Rift Valley region, provides a conducive environment for both academic and research activities.

Appendix Q: Description of Technical University of Mombasa

The Technical University of Mombasa is a public university in Mombasa, Kenya. It was founded in 1949 as the Mombasa Technical Institute and later became the Mombasa Polytechnic in 1972. The institution was elevated to university status in 2013 and renamed The Technical University of Mombasa. The University currently has a student population of approximately 13,000. The Technical University of Mombasa is located in the coastal city of Mombasa, one of Kenya's important economic and cultural centres. The University's main campus coordinates are 4.0460° S and 39.6694° E.

The University offers undergraduate and graduate programs in various fields, including engineering, applied sciences, business, and social sciences. The University is known for its strong focus on technical and vocational education and training (TVET), aligned with Kenya's Vision 2030 development agenda. In addition to its academic programs, The Technical University of Mombasa is also actively involved in research and innovation. The University has established several research centres, including the Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency, the Centre for Disaster Management and Humanitarian Assistance, and the Centre for Innovation and Entrepreneurship.

The University has also developed strong partnerships with local and international institutions and organizations, including the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD), the African Development Bank (AfDB), and the Mombasa County Government. Overall, The Technical University of Mombasa is a well-respected institution of higher learning in Kenya, particularly in technical and vocational education and training. The University plays a significant role in developing the region and the country.

Appendix R: Description Technical University of Kenya

The Technical University of Kenya (TU-K) is a public university in Nairobi, Kenya. It was founded in 1956 as the Kenya Technical Institute and later became the Kenya Polytechnic in 1961. The institution was elevated to university status in 2013 and was renamed the Technical University of Kenya. TU-K has a student population of approximately 10,000, and it offers undergraduate and graduate programs in various fields, including engineering, applied sciences, technology, and entrepreneurship. The University is located in the central part of Nairobi, near the Central Business District. The coordinates of the University's main campus are 1.2887° S, and 36.8251° E. The location is easily accessible through various modes of transport, including public and private means.

TU-K is known for its focus on technical and vocational education and training. The University has established several research centres, including the Centre for Research and Innovation, the Centre for Entrepreneurship and Innovation, and the Centre for Energy Research and Technology. In addition to academic programs and research initiatives, TU-K is also actively involved in community outreach and engagement. The University has established partnerships with industry players, government agencies, and other academic institutions to facilitate knowledge transfer and collaborative research. Overall, the Technical University of Kenya is a respected institution of higher learning in Kenya and East Africa, with a strong focus on technical and vocational education and training.

Appendix S: Description of Rongo University

Rongo University is a public university located in Rongo town, in the Migori County of Kenya. The University was founded in 2011, following the conversion of Rongo University College, which was previously a constituent college of Moi University. As of 2021, Rongo University has a student population of over 9,000 enrolled in various undergraduate and postgraduate programs. The University offers a range of academic programs, including business, agriculture, education, and social sciences, among others.

The University is located at coordinates 0.7720° S, 34.5502° E, in the western part of Kenya, close to the border with Tanzania. Rongo town is situated along the Kisumu-Migori highway, approximately 52 km south of Kisumu city and 9 km north of the Tanzania-Kenya border. Rongo University has state-of-the-art facilities, including modern lecture halls, computer labs, and a well-equipped library. The University also has a strong research culture, with several research centres and institutes focusing on various fields, such as climate change, gender and development, and sustainable agriculture. Overall, Rongo University is a leading institution of higher learning in Kenya, known for its academic excellence, research prowess, and commitment to community development.