

**DETERMINANTS OF ACADEMIC STAFF RETENTION IN
PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA**

JANE MUCHEKE NG'ETHE

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
(Human Resource Management)**

**JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY**

2013

**Determinants of Academic Staff Retention in
Public Universities in Kenya**

Jane Mucheke Ng'ethe

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Human Resource Management in the Jomo Kenyatta
University of Agriculture and Technology**

2013

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

Signature

Date.....

Jane Mucheke Ng'ethe

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University Supervisors

Signature

Date.....

Prof. G. S. Namusonge
JKUAT, Kenya

Signature

Date.....

Dr. Mike A. Iravo
JKUAT, Kenya

DEDICATION

To my loving father Jeremiah Ng'ethe, My late mother Joyce Wangari, my husband Dr. Joseph Githiomi and my children Joanne, Mercy and Eric for your prayers throughout the study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I give all the glory to God the giver of wisdom and knowledge and the source of my strength for granting me the mental and physical endurance to prepare this thesis. I have seen His mercy and faithfulness in my doctoral process. Secondly, profound appreciation goes to Prof. G.S. Namusonge and Dr. Mike Iravo who being my supervisors, provided guidance on the critical pillars of research. Their insightful suggestions, timely comments and encouragement throughout the entire research process were invaluable.

Indirect support came from Dr. John Kihoro and Dr. Vincent Ongore who planted ideas during the various group discussions and presentations which culminated in the development of this thesis. I am indebted to Professor Romanus Odhiambo for constantly challenging me to complete my thesis. Due recognition also goes to the management of the seven public universities for allowing me to conduct this research in their institutions. I thank the respondents for taking their time to complete the questionnaires and to respond to interview questions. Appreciation goes to Patrick Amunavi who spent his valuable time to keenly proof read this thesis.

Special gratitude goes to my husband, Dr. Joseph Githiomi and my children; Joanne, Mercy and Eric. Your understanding, support and encouragement gave me the zeal to complete this work.

This research work could not have been accomplished without the contribution of many other people whom I have not mentioned here. To all of you: May God bless you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	1
DEDICATION.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xii
LIST OF APPENDICES	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS & ACRONYMS.....	xiv
DEFINITION OF TERMS.....	xv
ABSTRACT.....	xvii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
1.0 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	9
1.3 Objectives of the Study.....	14
1.3.1 General Objective.....	14
1.3.2 Specific Objectives.....	14
1.4 Research Questions.....	15
1.5 Research Hypotheses	15
1.6 Importance and Justification of the Study	17
1.6.1 Universities	17
1.6.2 Academicians and Researchers	17
1.6.3 Policy Makers.....	18

1.6.4 Community.....	18
1.7 Scope of the Study.....	18
1.8 Limitations of the Study.....	19
CHAPTER TWO.....	20
2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	20
2.1 Introduction.....	20
2.2 Theoretical Framework.....	20
2.2.1 Equity Theory.....	20
2.2.2 Expectancy Theory.....	21
2.2.3 McClelland Theory.....	23
2.2.4 Human Capital Theory.....	24
2.2.5 Herzberg Two Factor Theory.....	25
2.3 Conceptual Framework.....	28
2.4 Review of Determinants of Staff Retention.....	29
2.4.1 Extrinsic Factors Influencing Staff Retention.....	29
2.4.2 Intrinsic Factors Influencing Staff Retention.....	40
2.4.3 Effect of Personal Characteristics.....	49
2.4.4 Staff Retention.....	51
2.5 Critique of the Existing Literature.....	55
2.6 Research Gaps.....	57
2.7 Summary.....	59
CHAPTER THREE.....	60
3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	60
3.1 Introduction.....	60

3.2	Research Design	60
3.3	Target Population	61
3.4	Sampling Frame	62
3.5	Sample and Sampling Technique	62
3.6	Data Collection Methods.....	63
3.7	Data Collection Procedure	65
3.8	Pilot Study	65
3.9	Data Processing and Analysis	66
3.9.1	Qualitative Analysis	67
3.9.2	Reliability Analysis	67
3.9.3	Inferential Statistical Analysis	68
3.9.4	Moderating Effect Analysis	71
3.9.5	Measurement of Variables	72
CHAPTER FOUR		75
4.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS.....		75
4.1	Introduction	75
4.2.	Response Rate	75
4.3.	Personal Information	76
4.4	Findings on the Influence of Leadership Style on Academic staff Retention	82
4.5	Findings on the Role of Remuneration in Academic Staff Retention	86
4.6	Findings on the Role of Training in Academic Staff Retention.....	90
4.7	Findings on the Role of Promotion in Academic Staff Retention.....	95
4.8	Findings on Staff Retention	100
4.9	Inferential Analysis.....	105

4.10 Relationship between Variables – Correlation Analysis	108
4.11 Multiple Regression Analysis by University	126
4.12 Moderation Analysis for Personal Characteristics on Academic Staff retention..	138
4. 13. Discussion of the Findings	143
4.13. 1. Influence of Leadership Style on Academic Staff Retention.....	143
4. 13. 2. The Influence of Remuneration and Academic Staff Retention	146
4. 13.3 Influence of Training on Academic Staff Retention	149
4. 13.4. Influence of Promotion on Academic Staff Retention	152
4.13.5 Moderating Role of Personal Characteristics on Academic Staff Retention...	154
CHAPTER FIVE	159
5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	159
5.1 Introduction	159
5.2 Summary	159
5.3 Conclusions	173
5.4 Recommendations	178
REFERENCES	184
APPENDICES	190

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Number Selected for a Random Sample -----	63
Table 4.1: Age -----	77
Table 4.2: Academic Qualifications -----	78
Table 4.3: Years worked in Current University -----	79
Table 4.4: Period of intended stay in Current university-----	79
Table 4.5: Analysis by Designation -----	80
Table 4.6: Analysis by University -----	81
Table 4.7: Leadership Style -----	83
Table 4.8: Remuneration -----	87
Table 4.9: Training -----	91
Table 4.10: Promotion-----	96
Table 4.11: Staff Retention Measures-----	101
Table 4.12: Perception on Rate of Retention-----	102
Table 4.13: Importance of Independent Variables in the Decision to Leave -----	103
Table 4.14: Cronbach's Alpha-----	105
Table 4.15: Descriptive Statistics-----	106
Table 4.16: Correlation Matrix for Egerton University-----	109
Table 4.17: Correlation Matrix for JKUAT-----	111
Table 4.18: Correlation Matrix for Kenyatta University-----	113
Table 4.19: Correlation Matrix for Maseno University-----	115
Table 4.20: Correlation Matrix for MMUST-----	117

Table 4.21: Correlation Matrix for Moi University-----	119
Table 4.22: Correlation Matrix for UoN University-----	121
Table 4.23: General Correlation Matrix-----	123
Table 4.24: Institutions Regression Model Summary-----	133
Table 4.25: Summary Multiple Regression-----	134

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework -----	28
Figure 4.1: Response by Gender-----	76
Figure 4.2: Leadership Styles Practised-----	84
Figure 4.3: Satisfaction with Remuneration-----	88
Figure 4.4: Financial Support for Conferences -----	93
Figure 4.5: Over emphasis of Publications -----	97
Figure 4.6: Satisfaction with Promotion-----	99
Figure 4.7: Rating of Variables Based on Age Category-----	139
Figure 4.8: Rating of Variables Based on Education Qualifications-----	141

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire -----	190
Appendix II: Interview Guide for Registrars -----	197
Appendix III: Exit Questionnaire -----	200
Appendix IV: Reliability Analysis Tables-----	201
Appendix V: Multiple Regression Analysis-----	204

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS & ACRONYMS

CHE	Commission for Higher Education
EVP	Employee Value Proposition
GoK	Government of Kenya
HR	Human Resource
HRM	Human Resource Management
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UoN	University of Nairobi
UASU	University Academic Staff Union
USIU	United States International University
MMUST	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
NCST	National Council for Science and Technology
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Employee Value Proposition:** It is the value or benefit an employee perceives to gain or experience by serving as member of the organization, or from the employer (Munsamy, 2000).
- Employer of Choice:** This is an employer of any size in the public, private or not for profit sector that attracts, optimizes and holds talent for long tenure because employees choose to be there. Valuable employees choose to remain rather than work with a competitor (Herman *et al.*, 2001).
- Leadership:** It is a relationship through which one person influences the behaviour or actions of other people towards a goal (Gwavuya, 2011).
- Leadership Style:** A leadership style refers to a particular behaviour applied by a leader to motivate his or her subordinates to achieve the objectives of the organization (Northouse, 2007).
- Public University:** This is an institution of higher learning which is partly funded by the exchequer and which provides an educational program for which the institution awards a bachelor's degree or post graduate degree (GoK, 2006).
- Remuneration:** It is the distinct type of financial rewards which include salary, direct benefits and performance pay (Mtazu, 2009).

Retention Cognition:	Thoughts that employee have about leaving their employing organization (Sutherland, 2004).
Staff Retention:	Ability of an organization to engage valuable staff for a long period. It is a voluntary move by an organisation to create an environment which engages employees for long term (Michael, 2008).
Supervision:	This is the ability to get work done through other people so that organizational objectives are achieved (Okumbe, 2001).
Turnover Intention:	It is the voluntary intention of an employee to leave an organization (Berry, 2010).
Training:	It involves the application of formal processes to impart knowledge and help people to acquire the skills necessary for them to perform their jobs satisfactorily (Armstrong, 2010).

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to establish determinants of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities. Universities in Kenya are operating in a highly competitive environment and one of the challenges they face is employee retention. This has been occasioned by globalisation which has intensified competition and increased the mobility of highly skilled employees yet the universities depend on these staff for success and sustainability. Specifically, the objectives of the study were to establish whether the extrinsic factors (leadership style, remuneration) and intrinsic factors (training, promotion) influenced retention of academic staff, and the moderating effect of personal characteristics (age and education level) on academic staff retention.

The study was conducted using survey design. The total population of the academic staff in the seven full fledged public universities covered by the study was 4967. Stratified random sampling was used in the first stage to ensure all subgroups were represented. The second stage employed simple random sampling and a total of 496 respondents were sampled for the study from the seven public universities. Data was collected using a questionnaire which had both closed-ended (Likert type scale 1-5) questions and open-ended questions. Items from the main questionnaire were arranged and grouped according to specific research objectives. Registrars in charge of administration of the seven public universities were interviewed in order to get in-depth information on retention. Through snowball method, a total of 70 responded to exit questionnaire. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation. Inferential statistics included correlation, multiple regression enter method and multiple regression

(Stepwise) for moderation analysis. Qualitative data was put into categories based on themes that were aligned to research objectives and was integrated in the discussion of findings. The study revealed that leadership style negatively influenced academic staff retention. This study therefore brought to the fore, the role of leadership and their leadership style in academic staff retention. The findings also indicated that promotion influenced academic staff retention. In the presence of leadership style, training and promotion, remuneration did not influence academic staff retention. The findings also indicated that in the presence of leadership style, promotion and remuneration, training did not influence academic staff retention. Further, the study established that majority of those who left for studies abroad especially to the United States of America did not return. The findings showed that personal characteristics such as age and education level did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. The study however established that on average the academic staff possessed PhD degree unlike previously where empirical findings had indicated that there was a paucity of PhD degrees in public universities in Kenya.

The study recommended that leadership style and promotion practices be enhanced to decrease intention to leave and thus enhance academic staff retention in these institutions. The study also recommended that the unfavorable aspects raised regarding remuneration and training be addressed in order to make these institutions competitive. Additionally, the study suggested that public universities embrace current trends in employee retention such as employer branding in order to retain the core employees- the academic staff.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The most valuable asset available to an organisation is its people, thus retention of staff in their jobs is essential for an organisation. Indeed there is a paradigm shift from human resource to human capital which consists of the knowledge, skills and abilities of the people employed in an organisation which is indicative of their value (Armstrong, 2010). When employees leave their jobs, it is often a sign that something is going wrong. Guma (2011) contends that poor job retention among employees lead to many costs associated with employee turnover which include additional burden on remaining staff, recruitment and training costs, lost productivity, loss of clients and loss of intellectual capital. Another more insidious cost of turnover involves the sharing of a company's methods, technology, and clients with competitors who may have hired the employee. It thus goes with little emphasis that undesirable employee turnover is costly and disruptive, drains resources and can cause inefficiency (Harting, 2008).

Despite the aforementioned, the social, economic and political developments in combination with the processes of globalization and the space time compression that has come with the development in the area of information and communication technologies have contributed towards the flow of highly skilled individuals from one end of the world to the other (Tettey, 2006). Consequently, staff retention has become a challenging

phenomenon for both public and private organizations. As the labour market has changed open competition for other companies' staff, once a rarity in business, is nowadays an accepted fact, and strategic poaching of key employees has become common practice. In the modern world of work, the psychological contract between the employer and employee has changed fundamentally and long term commitment to an organization is no longer expected by either party (Sutherland, 2004). According to Dibble (1999), one of the characteristics of the new contract is that employees continually change jobs throughout their career, endeavouring to secure the best for themselves.

Universities are no exception to the challenge of staff retention particularly with the core employees - the academic staff, and it is obvious that these institutions will be increasingly obliged to make retention of academics a strategic priority (Pienaar *et al.*, 2008). Indeed, the problem of academic staff retention is global and affects both developing and industrialized countries. A survey of full time faculty members in the US in 2000 showed that more than 40% of them had contemplated changing careers (Sanderson *et al.*, 2000). In a study carried out in Australian higher education institutions, 68% of the academic personnel indicated that they wished to leave higher education (Yousaf, 2010). In South African higher education institutions, the problem of staff retention is evident, since available data indicates that a substantial number (between 5% and 18%) of academics leave higher education institutions (Pienaar *et al.*, 2008).

Locally, Kenya is no exception to the phenomenon of staff retention which is manifested more in form of brain drain. Kamoche *et al.*, (2004) note that Kenya is losing its skilled human resources, especially professional and technical personnel to Europe and America. Further, South Africa and Botswana have become popular destinations for Kenyan academics from major state universities. This is supported by Waswa *et al.*, (2008) who observe that qualified academic staff have resigned from Kenyan public universities and secured better paying jobs abroad.

The Public Universities Inspection Board established that many qualified academic staff from public universities emigrate each year. In most universities, it is impossible to replace departing staff because of financial constraints. In many cases, universities have found that the graduates sent abroad for training tend to remain abroad or join private sector or quit shortly after their return in search of better remuneration. The phenomenon of brain drain among academic staff is real within the public universities and this affects staff retention. Additionally, internal brain drain is also rampant with movement of highly skilled professionals away from institutions of higher education to other sectors within the same country (GoK, 2006).

According to Lewa (2009), Kenyan public universities do not train for retention and have no retention strategy. They operate on the assumption that there will always be people ready to join university as tutorial fellows, lecturers, associate professors and professors. Clearly, there is need for policy direction in regard to staff retention in these institutions

if they aspire to be competitive locally and internationally. This study aims to establish the determinants of academic staff retention which will form the basis for policy formulation.

The concept of employee retention emerged with regularity in 1970's and early 1980's because prior to this, most people joined organisations and they remained there for a very long time, sometimes for the entire duration of their working life. But as job mobility and voluntary job changes began to increase dramatically, employers found themselves with the problem of employee turnover and a matching management tool known as employee retention began to be developed (Mckeown, 2002). According to Kochachathu (2010), employee retention is an important element in determining the success of the organisation and it is one of the primary indicators of an organisation's health.

In this study, job retention refers to the maintenance of employment status by an academic staff for a considerable long period of time. The main purpose of retention is to prevent competent employees from leaving the organisation as this could have adverse effects on productivity and service delivery (Chiboiwa, 2010). The objective of retention policies should be to identify and retain committed employees for as long as it is mutually profitable to the organisation and the employee (Sutherland, 2004). To achieve quality retention programmes, organisations ought to determine the retention factors relevant to each of their employee groups and then focus strategies on these factors. Employees in an organisation are said to have a high job retention when all or most of the

established posts in that organisation are filled, when they have low or no intentions to turnover, have had a consistency in job status, have had a career development or when employees keep their jobs for a considerable long period of time (Chew, 2004).

Retention strategies such as employer branding and employer of choice have been fronted as a panacea to improved staff retention in organizations. An employment brand creates an image that makes people want to work in the organization because it is a well managed organization where employees are continually learning and growing (Branham, 2001). Given the increased competition for human resources, the development of an employer brand is now being recognized as important in that, in addition to helping attract external candidates, it keeps current and potential employees constantly and actively aware of the company's value proposition and the benefits of being committed to that organization (Hughes *et al.*, 2010).

According to Guma (2011), employer of choice is an employer who is highly regarded by a targeted population of employees because the organization offers great opportunities, rewards, compensation and other benefits that are in line with that niche market's personal and professional value system. In other words, the employer becomes so attractive to people that they choose to work for that employer rather than a competitor. The proponents of this strategy posit that employees want to work for the best employers and therefore, organizations strive to be the best company to work for because the statement translates to lower rate of turnover.

Another trend in employee retention is Employee Value Proposition (EVP) and this makes clear to the employee “what’s in it for them” or what extrinsic and intrinsic benefits they will receive in exchange of their labour both now and in the future (Hughes *et al.*, 2010). It consists of what an organization has to offer that prospective or existing employees would value and which would help persuade them to join or remain in the organization. Armstrong (2010) argues that this will include remuneration, non- financial factors and opportunities for personal and professional growth among other factors. Research findings show that organizations that are perceived to be delivering on the EVP promises enjoy substantially higher levels of employee commitment and retention (Munsamy *et al.*, 2009). This research conceptualizes value proposition to be composed of intrinsic and extrinsic factors as promulgated by Herzberg in his dual factor theory.

Dibble (1999), an employee retention guru, strongly argues that retention of employees needs to be managed, and he identifies remuneration, development, career opportunity, work environment, performance management and work, family and flex time as areas that have an effect on retention of employees. Dockel (2003) identified the following as top retention factors; training and development, supervisor support, career opportunities, skill variety, work life policies, job autonomy, job challenge, and salary. Chew (2004) categorizes retention tools into two categories as follows: Human Resource (HR) factors which include person organization fit, remuneration, training and development, and career opportunities and organizational factors which include: leadership behaviour; teamwork relationship, company culture, work environment, and communication.

Price (2000) indicates that intention to leave or stay studies should address organisational factors, psychological factors and personal factors. Personal characteristics such as age, education level and tenure are indicated in studies (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002; Chew, 2004; Pienaar *et al.*, 2008) to have moderating effect on employee intention to leave or stay. From these studies, it is clear that retention is influenced by an array of factors both intrinsic and extrinsic, and hence those critical to particular organisations can be established through empirical research which will then form the basis of EVP that will make them become the employer of choice.

This study was undertaken within the context of Kenyan public universities. Kenya gained independence from the British colonialists in 1963. By independence, it had one university college (University College of Nairobi) which was affiliated to the University of East Africa. It became a fully – fledged University in 1970. From one public university, there are currently seven public universities and 23 private universities, while the student population has increased from 571 to about 112,229 students as at 2010 (Kipkebut, 2010). The fully fledged public universities include University of Nairobi (UoN), Kenyatta University (KU), Moi University, Maseno University, Egerton University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST).

Universities, whether public or private, are training grounds for students undertaking various comprehensive courses in order to translate theory into practice (Adenike, 2011).

The fundamental goal of these institutions is to provide manpower needs for both private and public sector for overall national development. The Kenyan public universities admit both privately sponsored students and those partly sponsored by the government through the Joint Admission Board (JAB).

The major issue in public universities in Kenya is the rapid expansion amid declining funds which has seen universities experience challenges in terms of physical facilities, overcrowding and staff disillusioned due to several factors including inadequate and non-competitive salaries, and dissatisfaction with non monetary factors such as poor working conditions, heavy workload, institutional governance among others (Tettey, 2006). These factors have led to the exodus of teaching staff to the private sector or abroad in search for better opportunities despite the fact that these institutions have invested heavily in training them. Kenyan public universities have experienced rapid expansion in terms of enrolment of regular and self- sponsored students over the last decade without corresponding increase in staff numbers and replacement of those who leave due to various reasons including turnover and brain drain.

According to Kipkebut (2010), the biggest challenge occasioned by expansion of student numbers in public universities is staff shortage which has forced universities to recruit from each other. The recruitment vendetta has come to be known as poaching with the most vulnerable lecturers being those who have not been promoted by their respective universities either because they did not meet the requirements for promotion or because

there were no available positions in the establishment. The public universities are guided by statutes and policies such as promotion and training policies, however the manner in which these policies are implemented has led to academic staff disillusionment.

Globalisation is another issue which has led to liberalisation of trade and commerce hence opening the country to competition which is notable in the higher education sector (GoK, 2006). Due to social demand of university education and globalization, private universities (both local and international) have been established. Also, public universities have established privately funded programmes as a way of supplementing income due to reduced budgetary allocation by the government. All these clearly show that there is competition in the provision of university education among public universities themselves but also with private universities. Therefore, this means, there is increased regional and international competition for qualified university staff which leads to brain drain and loss of some of the most highly qualified academic staff (GoK, 2006).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The problem of academic staff retention has been a pertinent issue in Kenyan public universities. Kamoche *et al.*, (2004) observe that staff retention of skilled staff such as the academic staff is a challenge to the public institutions in Kenya. Similarly, Mwiria *et al.*, (2006) note that management of human resources in public universities in Kenya is wanting especially in regard to remuneration, and the inability of these universities to offer good salaries has led to exodus of lecturers to other countries and to Kenyan private universities such as USIU which has attractive remuneration packages. This is supported

by studies (Waswa *et al.*, 2008; Tettey, 2009; Kipkebut, 2010) which cited factors such as poor institutional governance, poor remuneration, heavy workload and lack of promotional opportunities as causes of staff attrition in the public universities. Obwogi (2011) observes that mobility of teaching staff in Kenyan universities has grown over the last few years and notes that it is becoming a challenge. The industrial strike called by Universities Academic Staff Union (UASU) at the end of year 2011 and which lasted for two weeks, in demand of better remuneration and terms of service, is an indicator of their disillusionment and this may impact on retention of this cadre of staff.

The Public Universities Inspection Board (GoK, 2006) projected that the number of university academic staff required in the seven fully fledged public universities by the year 2010 would be 6000 but the target is yet to be realised two years later since the current numbers is 4967, yet student enrolment continue to increase. This is evident in the student-staff ratio. For example, Kenyatta University student-staff ratio stands at 26:1 as opposed to acceptable ratio of 15:1 and below, with the School of Engineering having a student-staff ratio of 154:1, an indication of the magnitude of academic staff capacity issues in public universities (Tettey, 2009). The problem of lack of adequate staff was expected to get worse with the double intake in 2011/2012 academic year. Some courses such as Engineering and ICT related courses are facing serious shortages to the extent that they are unable to meet faculty requirements for accreditation by the registering bodies (GoK, 2006; Tettey, 2009).

World Bank (1994) had noted that staff retention in African countries was a challenge due to poor remuneration and poor working conditions and had recommended development of alternative sources of income to supplement inadequate salaries. It is noted that although public universities have developed alternative sources of funds such as the self sponsored programmes the effect seem not to have reached academic staff as a significant number continue to quit in search of better working conditions.

Records covering the period 2006 to 2011 indicate that public universities had lost quite a substantial number of academic staff through brain drain both internal and external. For example, in JKUAT, a total of 100 academic staff members had left; University of Nairobi lost 98; in Kenyatta University, 121 had left; Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology had lost 88; Maseno University, 124 had left, while Egerton University had lost 102 and in Moi University, 100 had left. While the number may not be astronomical, losing even one academic staff member means loss in human capital by the concerned university because they invest heavily in training the academic staff. This therefore makes retention of existing staff an issue of paramount importance.

Due to the problem of staff retention and the excessive reliance on part-time staff, the ability of public universities to deliver their mandate of providing the required capacity to the country for development, and their ability to become centres of excellence as they were conceived to be, has been put to question. Indeed, their performance in the world ranking has been dismal with the University of Nairobi being the only public university

to appear among the top 5000 universities in the world at position 4,046 (Webometric, 2009). Research (Tettey, 2006; Kipkebut, 2010) has therefore called for intensified focus on factors influencing staff retention in these institutions.

Ngome (2010) argues that universities are not only competing for customers (students) but also for staff. The Kenyan public universities therefore require a compelling Employee Value Proposition to attract and retain the academic staff who are the critical resource, that can provide competitive advantage. A people centered strategy is an important source of competitive advantage because, unlike technology, cost or new product development, people are difficult to imitate (Dockel, 2003). Retention strategies can only be formulated with the knowledge of the factors influencing retention among this cadre of staff. This empirical research addresses this gap. These factors once identified will help these organisations establish a winning EVP that will enable them become employer of choice. The implication of the failure to develop retention strategies by the public universities is that, these institutions cannot compete favourably in the global market place.

Hausknecht *et al.*, (2009), note that despite the vast literature on employee turnover which is aimed at identifying factors that cause employees to quit, much less is known about factors that compel employees to stay. The reasons why people stay are not always the same as the reasons why people leave, a fact that is often overlooked. A recent study by Guma (2011) established that the organisational factors that influenced employee

retention included career development, remuneration, recognition, staff engagement and management. Studies (Radivoev, 2005; Daly *et al.*, 2006; Al- Omari *et al.*, 2009; Gaiduk *et al.*, 2009) indicate that employee retention is a pertinent issue globally, but there is no consensus on which factors are critical in influencing staff retention among the various organizations. The onus then is on the public universities to establish which among the array of factors are quite significant in the retention of core staff.

Despite the foregoing, there is a dearth of research on retention of academic staff in the Kenyan context. As such it is important for public universities in Kenya to know why academic staff remain in their organisations. This study therefore, sought to establish the organizational determinants of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities. However, to come up with the determinants, the researcher sought to find out; the influence of leadership style on academic staff retention; how remuneration contributes to academic staff retention; whether training assist in academic staff retention; the influence of promotion on academic staff retention; the role of personal characteristics in academic staff retention and sought suggestions on academic staff retention strategies that can help Kenyan public universities to maintain high academic standards and become employer of choice.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study was guided by general and specific objectives.

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess the determinants of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The following were the specific objectives of the study:

- a. To determine the influence of leadership style on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- b. To establish the influence of remuneration on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- c. To determine the influence of training on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- d. To establish the influence of promotion on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- e. To establish the moderating influence of personal characteristics on academic staff retention in public universities.

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

- a. To what extent does leadership style influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities?
- b. How much does remuneration influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities?
- c. How much does training influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities?
- d. To what extent does promotion influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities?
- e. What is the moderating effect of personal characteristics on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided the study:

Hypothesis 1

H₀₁: Leadership style does not significantly influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

H_{a1}: Leadership style significantly influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

Hypothesis 2

H_{O2}: Remuneration does not significantly influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

H_{a2}: Remuneration significantly influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

Hypothesis 3

H_{O3}: Training does not significantly influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

H_{a3}: Training significantly influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

Hypothesis 4

H_{O4}: Promotion does not significantly influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

H_{a4}: Promotion significantly influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

Hypothesis 5

H_{O5}: Personal characteristics do not have moderating effect on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

H_{a5}: Personal characteristics have a moderating effect on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities

1.6 Importance and Justification of the Study

The study was important because it sought to establish the determinants of academic staff retention in public universities with the underlying understanding that academic staff adequacy is critical in the functioning of these institutions which the society heavily relies on for the production of human resource to steer development in the country.

The rationale was also to propose ways of managing staff retention of this population in order for these institutions to compete favourably both locally and internationally. The study findings would be beneficial to various stakeholders as follows:

1.6.1 Universities

This study will provide empirical information to the management organs of Kenyan public universities for improvement of academic staff retention in order to save on unnecessary expenditure and avert the loss of human capital. It was envisaged that this research would provide empirical information on the current critical retention factors which could be useful to the institutions in formulating retention strategies and reviewing existing ones.

1.6.2 Academicians and Researchers

The study pointed out other research areas for possible consideration by other researchers that could contribute to the existing body of knowledge on employee retention. One of this is a comparative study focusing on the private universities to find out if the findings could be similar.

1.6.3 Policy Makers

The findings provide the policy makers with viable opportunities to revise policies related to retention of academic staff such as policies on salaries. This could in turn benefit the country in the provision of quality education by ensuring the best academic staff are retained for longer time in these institutions.

1.6.4 Community

As the community gears towards the realization of Kenya Vision 2030 retention of academic staff will ensure that these institutions have adequate capacity to produce the human resource required to support the various social-economic activities. In the current environment which is characterized by high social demand for higher education coupled with massive enrollment in these institutions, retention of academic staff will facilitate in meeting the demand by having adequate capacity of the staff in place.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The study was carried out in Kenyan public universities because staff capacity and retention are pertinent issues that have been raised in studies and regularly in print and electronic media. Only the seven fully fledged universities were included in this study since the constituent colleges have not acquired full university status then. The study addressed staff retention of full time academic staff. The part-time academic staff were excluded from the study as they may not have basis to form any long lasting attachment with the concerned universities. These universities are University of Nairobi (UoN),

Kenyatta University (KU), Moi University, Maseno University, Egerton University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST).

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The study had a number of limitations. It was a cross sectional survey and hence the researcher could not monitor whether the turnover cognitions were actualized. The measurements relied on the perceptions of the respondents and not their actions. A longitudinal study would have revealed whether the staff left. However, cross sectional studies (Chew, 2004; Sutherland, 2004) has consistently proved that employee's behavioural patterns of intention to leave their employers are the strongest predictors of actual turnover and is used in retention studies. Also, response of the respondents limited the study results particularly the freedom which respondents felt in disclosing their beliefs about leadership style, promotion and training unlike the free expression noted on items on remuneration. However the use of exit questionnaire and interviews gave additional information that led to valid conclusions. The study was also limited by the fact that it was based on seven public universities that were fully fledged prior to August, 2012 when data was collected therefore the study findings may only help in understanding staff retention issues in these institutions. However the additional universities that attained full university status after August, 2012 have been in existence for a relatively short period of time and the study established that majority of those who had left joined these institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with literature review and in particular theoretical framework, conceptual framework, extrinsic and intrinsic factors influencing staff retention, personal characteristics, critique of existing literature on staff retention, research gaps and summary of the literature.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

According to Philip *et al.*, (2003) employee retention involves being sensitive to employee needs and demonstrating the various strategies in meeting these needs and hence the application of relevant motivation theories in this study. Most notable are Equity theory (1965), Expectancy theory (1964); McClelland theory (1971); Human Capital theory and Herzberg two factor theory (1959), all of which are relevant to this study.

2.2.1 Equity Theory

Equity theory (1965) is concerned with the perceptions people have about how they are treated compared to others. Adams (1965), the proponent of this theory posit that employees seek to maintain equity between the input they bring into a job (education, time, experience, commitment and effort) and the outcome they receive from it (promotion, recognition and increased pay) against the perceived inputs and outcomes of

other employees. This theory proposes that individuals who perceive themselves as either under-rewarded or over-rewarded will experience distress, and that this leads to efforts to restore equity within the organization. Failing to find equity may make them behave in ways that harm the organization for example, they may quit. When high performers leave the organization, the company loses its productive talent and the capacity to gain competitive advantage since majority of those who leave join competitors (Chiboiwa *et al.*, 2010). The major strength of this theory is that, it recognizes that individual input such as education, experience and effort should be recognized in such away that equity is achieved. It also shows that individual employees are part of the larger system. This theory therefore guides in understanding what may influence academic staff to leave in that they keep on comparing what academic staff earn in other universities and other comparable organizations in order to realize equilibrium between the inputs-outcome ratios. In turn, this contributes to labour mobility within and outside academia. The major weakness of this theory is subjectivity inherent in the comparison process. There is a tendency in human nature to distort their inputs especially in regard to effort and hence become subjective when comparing (Beardwell *et al.*, 2007).

2.2.2 Expectancy Theory

Another theory that is widely used in studies (Tettey, 2006; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008) on turnover intentions and retention is the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Lawler, 1994). Basic to the idea of expectancy theory is the notion that people join organizations with expectations and values, and if these expectations are met, they will remain members of these organizations. According to turnover and retentions

frameworks developed from this theory, decisions to stay or leave an organization can be explained by examining relationships between structural, psychological and environmental variables.

The theory suggests that organizational members have certain expectations for the structural properties of work (Price, 2001). Daly *et al.*, (2006) surmise that for faculty members, these structural expectations may include collegial communication, equitable rewards, work autonomy, job security, and a role in organizational decision making. It posits that when these structural expectations are met, faculty members will report higher levels of job satisfaction and stronger commitment to the employing organization, which in turn strengthen intent to stay. Conversely, when structural expectations are not fulfilled, levels of satisfaction and commitment decline, and intent to leave increases. In this way, perceptions of organizational structures affect psychological dispositions toward staying or leaving the institution. Daly *et al.*, (2006) further observe that relationship between faculty perceptions of organizational structure and their psychological attitudes toward work may be mitigated however by environmental factors such as employment opportunities. Price (2000) developed a model of intent to stay based on expectancy theory. The model suggests that perceptions of work environment (for example, organization structure) and perceptions of external environment (for example, availability of alternate jobs) explain intent to stay.

Empirical studies (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004; Daly & Dee, 2006; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008,) employ the model of employee intent to stay that is grounded in expectancy theory which includes structural, psychological and environmental variables. Structural variables include, work environment, autonomy, communication, distributive justice and workload. Psychological variables include job satisfaction and organizational commitment and the environmental variables include availability of job opportunities. However, Sutherland (2004) established that job satisfaction and organizational commitment do not necessarily lead to loyalty, long defined as the intention to remain with the employer.

2.2.3 McClelland Theory

McClelland (1971) theory was also found to be relevant to this study. The theory suggests that individuals learn needs from their culture or environment including their workplace. The three primary needs are first, the need for affiliation which is characterized as a desire to establish social relationships with others. Secondly there is the need for power which reflects a desire to control one's environment and influence others. Finally, is the need for achievement which is associated with desire to take responsibility, set challenging goals and obtain performance feedback.

According to Beardwell (2007), the main point of the learned needs theory is that when one of these needs is strong in a person, it has the potential to motivate behavior that leads to its satisfaction including leaving the organization. Cole (2005) observes that among the three needs, the need for achievement is the most significant and is used widely to encourage achievement through training courses. It is also relevant in

promotions, which, together with training, are some of the independent variables in this study. Further, from this theory, the implication for managers is that they should develop understanding of whether and, to what degree their employees have one or more of these needs and the extent to which their jobs can be constructed to satisfy them. The major weakness of this theory is its emphasis on isolating the needs because it is difficult to predict when a certain need become important (Beardwell, 2007).

2.2.4 Human Capital Theory

The current world of work puts the importance of human capital at the centre of the current organizational environment. Attracting and retaining intellectual capital, a cadre of highly skilled employees with idiosyncratic skill is essential. Therefore organizations must move from human resources to the notion of human capital. Human capital theory was proposed by Schutz (1961) and developed extensively by Becker (1964) and the theory posits that the knowledge and skill a worker has generate a certain stock of productive capital. This approach also sees people not as an expense item on their income statements, rather as an asset capable of not only adding value to their organizations but also in some cases ensuring its very survival in the current competitive environment (Sutherland ,2004).

Armstrong (2009) defines human capital as human factor in the organizations, the combined intelligence, skills and expertise that gives the organization its distinctive character. The human elements of the organization are those that are capable of learning, changing, innovating and providing the creative thrust which if properly motivated can

ensure the long term survival of the organization. Human capital comprises intellectual capital (which are the unique knowledge and skills that people possess), social capital (which is flexible networks among people that allow the organizations to link, embed and leverage its diverse knowledge) and the organizational capital (which is the institutionalized knowledge possessed by an organization that is stored in databases and manuals). Sutherland (2004) also adds emotional capital which is the ability to convert the potential in intellectual capital into committed realized action.

According to Stewart (1998) in Sutherland (2004) a significant amount of an organizations value is possessed by its employees and when the key employees leave companies, they take this value with them. It is indeed the knowledge, skills and abilities of individuals that create value, which is why the focus has to be on means of attracting, retaining, developing and maintaining the human capital they represent. Universities put a lot of investment in the training of the academic staff and it is therefore through greater employee attachment and tenure that can make the investment pay off. The present study examines retention factors with the underlying assumption that human capital is critically important.

2.2.5 Herzberg Two Factor Theory

Herzberg two factor theory is considered relevant in understanding the determinants of retention among academic staff in Kenyan public universities and hence provides the theoretical background for this study. Herzberg (1959) argued that employees are motivated by internal values rather than values that are external to their work. In other

wards, motivation is internally generated and is propelled by variables that are intrinsic to the work which Herzberg called the motivators. These intrinsic variables include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Conversely, certain factors induce dissatisfying experiences to employees and these factors largely result from non-job related variables also called extrinsic variables. These variables were referred to by Herzberg (1959) as hygiene factors which although do not motivate employees, nevertheless, must be present in the workplace to make employees happy. The dissatisfiers are company policies, salary, coworker relationships, supervisory or management styles and work environment (Armstrong, 2010).

According to Herzberg (1959) motivation would only occur as a result of the use of intrinsic factors and if they are lacking the employees are likely to leave the organization (Samuel *et al.*, 2009). Although, extrinsic factors do not provide motivation for improved performance of employees, it does not mean that employees do not pay attention to them. For example, employees who think that they are not receiving fair compensation or that they have to work under unpleasant working conditions, will tend to reduce their productivity and even leave the work organization. This theory is relevant to this study in that it recognizes that employees have two categories of needs that operate in them and that both should be addressed. If extrinsic needs are not met, the employee will seek ways to satisfy them and similarly with the extrinsic needs.

This study is hinged on Herzberg theory with intrinsic and extrinsic needs and leaves out the category of environmental factors because public universities may have no control of environmental factors such as availability of job opportunities but can address extrinsic and intrinsic factors to enhance retention. Studies such as Ssesanga *et al.*, (2005) used a model developed from Herzberg theory to establish factors influencing job satisfaction of academics in Uganda. Michael (2008) and Samuel *et al.*, (2009) used the theory to establish motivational variables influencing staff retention in private and public organizations in South Africa. Radivoev (2005) used the theory to study factors influencing retention of Sales Consultant in South Africa. Hughes *et al.*, (2010) observe that the employee value proposition makes clear to the employee what extrinsic and intrinsic benefits they will receive in exchange of their labour, both now and in the future and hence the need to use intrinsic and extrinsic categories of variables in this study.

Studies (Sutherland, 2004; Netswera *et al.*, 2005; Radivoev, 2005; Michael, 2008) indicate that extrinsic factors (competitive salary, good working environment, job security) and intrinsic factors (training, development and challenging work) influence employee retention in organizations. This is consistent with Herzberg's two factor theory focusing on intrinsic and extrinsic factors. According to Samuel *et al.*, (2009), the implication is that the management should not rely only on intrinsic variables to influence employee retention, rather, a combination of both should be considered as an effective retention strategy. This theory guided the development of the conceptual framework because of its dual factors, that is intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework shows the relationship between the independent, moderating and dependent variables. The conceptual framework of this study is based on two categories namely the extrinsic variables (leadership style, remuneration) and intrinsic variables (training, promotion) and these are the independent variables in the study. Staff retention is the dependent variable whose indicator is intention to leave or stay. Employee personal characteristics (age, education level) were addressed as the moderating variables. These variables were developed based on the literature review and the purpose of this study. A conceptualization of the relationship between independent variables, moderating variable and the dependent variable is illustrated in figure 2.1

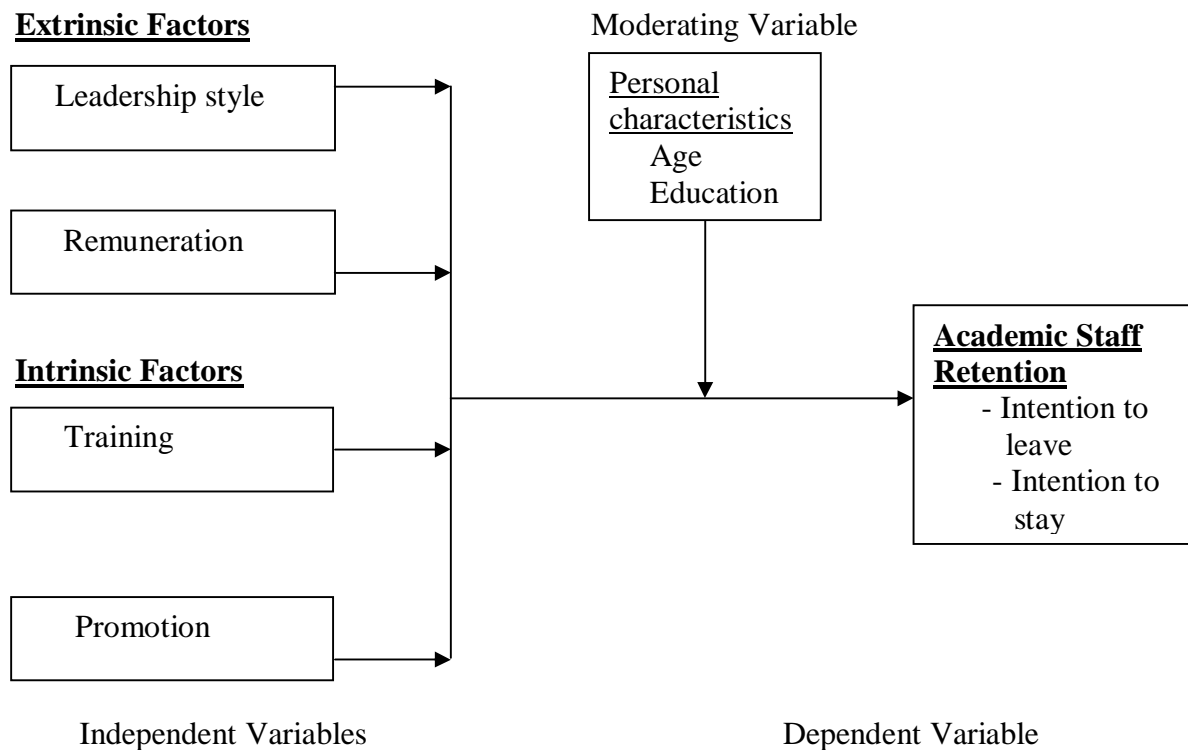


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.4 Review of Determinants of Staff Retention

The decision to remain in an organisation is influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic factors. As shown in the Herzberg (1959) two factor theory and the conceptual framework, determinants of academic staff retention are classified as intrinsic and extrinsic and therefore the determinants are reviewed following these dual categories.

2.4.1 Extrinsic Factors Influencing Staff Retention

These are factors outside the employee which drives them to perform or behave in a certain way and are also referred to as hygiene or maintenance factors by Herzberg. They include leadership or supervisor support and remuneration which are the variables under the category of extrinsic factors.

a) Effect of Leadership Style on Staff Retention

Leadership is the process of encouraging and helping others to do something of their own volition, neither because it is required nor because of the fear of the consequences of non compliance. Management and leadership are used interchangeably. Management is about developing, planning and controlling of organizations resources while leadership is about aligning the people to the expected outcomes of the vision. In order to lead, one must be able to manage and hence the two are closely related (Gwavuya, 2011). On the other hand, leadership style refers to a particular behaviour applied by a leader to motivate his or her subordinates to achieve objectives of the organization (Northouse, 2007). It may cover aspects such as ability to involve others in decision making, showing concern for

personal issues, fair treatment to all staff, ability to communicate and have open door policy, and also prompt response to staff issues.

Leadership is very important in an organization because it is their behaviour that ruins or builds an organization. The direction of the organization relies on the style of the leaders. Since leadership helps to chart the future direction of the organization the behaviour of the leaders is the catalyst in directing the followers to achieve the common goals hence followers follow the leader's behaviour when carrying out their duties (Thrush, 2012).

Globally, the environment of higher education is facing relentless and rapid change. These circumstances underscore the crucial role of leadership and management in maintaining morale, enhancing productivity, and helping staff at all institutional levels cope with momentous and rapid change. Those in higher education management and leadership positions are finding it essential to understand shifting demographics, new technologies, and the commercialization of higher education, the changing relationship between institutions and government and the move from an industrial to an information society (Chacha, 2004). Therefore, leaders in universities must possess an array of leadership skills to be effective. Rosser (2003) argues that there are many components of effective leadership in the education sector which includes the ability to lead a heterogeneous faculty, possess critical thinking skills and have the ability to lead by example.

According to the Public Universities Inspection Board (GoK,2006), proper management practices in public universities in Kenya is essential because it enhances quality and relevance, leading to cost effective utilization of resources and encouraging innovations amongst staff and students to work towards excellence. The current environment of limited resources, wider democratic space and emphasis on good governance demand that there be a paradigm shift in public universities towards management styles which are transparent, accountable, result oriented, inclusive, innovative and cost effective.

Leaders in the public universities in Kenya comprise of Vice Chancellors who are the Chief executives of these institutions and are appointed through a competitive process. Their leadership forms a critical component for the effective and efficient management of the universities. Below these are the Deputy Vice Chancellors who in most of these institutions are three in number representing the three major divisions of the university which are research, academic and administration. The head of operational units are Deans of Faculties and Head of Departments who act as line managers and immediate supervisors to the academic staff under them. All these play a key leadership role. However there is little or no formal leadership training for these academic leaders because many rise through the ranks to the various positions from the academic staff cadre and from diverse disciplines (Thrush, 2012).

One of the critical roles of management is to create a work environment that will endear the organization to employees. It also includes influencing these employees' decision to

be committed and remain in the organization even when other job opportunities exist outside the organization (Michael, 2008). Beardwell (2007) observes that the role of leadership and a supervisor is crucial in staff retention, and argues that employees leave managers not companies.

Leadership and leadership styles are very crucial in university setting. Leaders influence a group of individuals to work together to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2007). One of the most significant challenges facing leaders today is their ability to adapt to a constantly changing global environment while at the same time maintaining the dynamics of the organization. The style and type of leadership employed plays a major role in the successful completion of their duties and the overall success of their organizations (Thrush, 2012).

Leadership manifests itself through different leadership styles. According to Okumbe (1998) there are three commonly known styles of leadership. The democratic leadership also known as participative or consultative decentralizes power and authority. In this style, leadership is responsible for any decisions. However, the democratic leader invites employees to contribute to the decision making process. By using this style employees feel motivated and empowered in their place of work and as a result contribute more than just for financial rewards. Employees who feel empowered are less likely to have intentions to quit consequently this kind of leadership is favorable for retention.

Authoritarian or autocratic leadership style centralizes power, authority and decision making. The leader dictates decisions down to the subordinates, and few opportunities are given to employees for making suggestions even if these are in the organizations best interest (Gwavuya, 2011). This inflexibility and high levels of control exerted by the leader builds resentment and demoralizes staff. Autocratic leadership often leads to high levels of absenteeism and staff turnover intent as employees become angry and demotivated. This leadership style is not favourable where staff value autonomy and flexibility and where creativity and innovation is expected to thrive as the case is with regard to the academic staff. It works well where there are rules, regulations and procedures to be followed in execution of duties and it is highly bureaucratic.

Free reign or laissez faire leadership style is sometimes described as “hands off” style because the leader provides little or no direction to the followers giving them as much freedom as possible and leaves the employees to get on with their work. According to Northouse (2007), laissez faire manager abdicates his or her responsibility, and makes no effort to satisfy the needs of his or her colleagues or subordinates. This leadership behaviour is harmful to the organization productivity and morale and the staff may get frustrated and decide to quit. This kind of leadership works well where the employees are very experienced and highly skilled.

According to Tettey (2006), consultation with, and participation by academics in decision- making help them feel part of the organization and give them a sense of

ownership in the outcomes of those decisions. Employees are more likely to remain with an organization if they believe that their managers show interest and concern for them, if they know what is expected of them, if they are given a role that fits their capabilities and if they receive regular positive feedback and recognition. The quality of relationship an employee has with his or her immediate managers elongates employee stay in an organization (Michael, 2008).

According to Gwavuya (2011), incompetent leadership results in poor employee performance, high stress, low job commitment, low job satisfaction and turnover intent. Research conducted on the state of South African training industry indicated that leadership style was the most prominent retention factor in South Africa (Netswera, 2005). The leadership in the universities which include top management and Chairmen of Departments who are the immediate supervisors to the academic staff can play a crucial role in portraying to the staff that their University is the employer of choice.

b) Effect of Remuneration on Employee Retention

Reward encompasses non-financial rewards such as promotion, recognition, responsibility. These are rewards that do not involve any direct payments and often arise from the work itself. On the other hand are the financial rewards commonly known as remuneration. The objectives of reward systems are to attract, motivate and retain highly performing employees and to improve organizational success (Armstrong, 2010). Remuneration is the distinct type of financial rewards which include salary, direct

financial benefits such as house allowance, commuting allowance and subsistence allowance as well as the performance related pay such as bonus and profit sharing. Competitive and fair remuneration is indicative of the value the employers place on their employees. Also, pay may be one way employees measure whether the time they spend and the effort they put in working are worthwhile. According to Dockel (2003) financial rewards are extrinsic monetary rewards that organizations pay to their staff for services delivered by them.

Attractive remuneration packages are one of the very important factors of retention because it fulfils the financial and material desires as well as provides the means for employee status (Shoaib *et al.*, (2009). Compensation has always been at the heart of any employment relationship. A well designed compensation plan gives an organization a competitive advantage. It helps to attract the best job candidates, motivates them to perform to their maximum potential and retain them for the long term. To encourage valuable staff members to remain, the compensation system must offer competitive rewards for these employees to feel contented when they compare their rewards with those received by individuals performing similar jobs in other organizations.

Kotachachu (2010) argues that if compensation policies are below market level, there will be a problem retaining employees because their compensation needs are not being met. This is consistent with Guma (2011) who observes that remuneration constitutes the largest part of employee retention process. Employees always have high expectations

regarding their compensation packages. An attractive compensation package plays a critical role in employee retention.

In compensation, the theme of equity is crucial and it relates to the perception of fairness in the distribution of rewards. There are different types of equity, for example external equity which involves comparisons of rewards across similar jobs in the labour market. In addition there is internal equity which deals with comparisons of rewards across different jobs within the same organization and individual or procedural equity which is concerned with the extent to which an employee's compensation is reflective of his or her contribution and the fairness with which pay changes such as increases are made. According to Mtazu (2009), to gain workforce support and commitment, organizations should offer remuneration and rewards that are internally and externally equitable as inequity in remuneration is the source of employee discontent and turnover. This principle is clearly underlined in the equity theory which is one of the theories guiding this study.

The key component of the financial rewards or remuneration is the salary. Shoaib *et al.*, (2009) argues that attractive salary packages are one of the very important factors of retention because it fulfills the financial and material desires. However, empirical findings on the role of salary in intention to leave or stay have been mixed. Johnshrud *et al.*, (2002) observe that salary has never been shown to be the primary motivator for faculty members and hence does not influence their decision to leave or stay.

Armstrong (2010) argues that money in form of pay or some other sort of remuneration is the most obvious extrinsic reward and provides the carrot that most employees want but its motivation does not have intrinsic meaning. Moreover, people who work just for money may find their tasks less pleasurable.

Dibble (1999), the employee retention guru posit that managers of many companies think that financial reward is the only thing that can help retain highly skilled employees but whereas money lure people to companies, more than any other factor, it does not help retain them. He therefore argues that organisations need to be competitive with rewards when recruiting employees but should realise that benefit alone cannot retain employees. This is echoed by Beardwell *et, al.*, (2007) who observes that there is a growing realisation that higher pay cannot be enough to retain employees and hence schemes such as profit sharing, other perks as well as a secure career and better communication are often offered to retain employees in sectors with highly skilled employees.

On the other hand, salary has been shown to be an important personal issue that may affect the satisfaction of faculty members in colleges and universities. Rosser (2004) observes that although much of the overall research on faculty members suggests that salary, in and of itself, is not the most important aspect of their work life and satisfaction, salary is one of the primary reasons why faculty members leave their institution. In examining faculty workload and compensation of Australian academics, Comm and Mathaisel (2003) cited in Kipkebut (2010) found that 51% of the faculty did not believe

that they were compensated fairly, relative to those other comparable institutions. As a result, 50% of the respondents felt the need to work outside their institutions to earn extra income.

Salaries in public universities in Kenya are based on a structured salary scale with a predetermined yearly increment. However, the erosion of the absolute values of salaries, especially in the public sector relative to the private sector, has negatively affected employee motivation and therefore, resulted in highly-qualified personnel preferring to join the private sector where they expect to be suitably remunerated (Kipkebut. 2010).

In Kenya, public universities have almost exclusively depended on the government for remunerating their staff. The little income generated internally goes to subsidize staff salaries as the government funding is not enough to sustain the payroll as well as provide for operation and maintenance of university facilities. The salaries and house allowance for academic staff are standard across universities save for compensation from other sources such as consultancy and part-time teaching. This has led to a situation where staff are not paid well in comparison to their counterparts in the developed societies (Obwogi, 2011).

According to Tettey (2006), some universities in Africa, Kenya included, offer various allowances as a way of supplementing the employees' base salaries which include house allowance, commuting allowance, book allowance and professional allowance. However,

Tettey observes that allowances provide useful supplements to staff income but this should not mean that the staff are well catered for because these allowances are expected to be channeled to the intended purposes and furthermore, the inflation in the cost of living erodes much of the cushion provided by the allowances. Some universities have creative ways of rewarding the academic staff by giving salary top-ups from funds raised from self sponsored programmes and other income generating activities but this has often raised conflicts because the income generating activities vary across faculties and hence creating disparities in terms of benefits. In addition, these revenue generating schemes are not always guaranteed to yield consistent and desired levels of funding and hence can only be supplementary.

According to Udi (2010) organizations provide bonus and gain sharing as a form of incentive. A bonus system is an incentive for retention that is often based on some kind of performance. A goal is set and if reached it is often rewarded in monetary forms. A difficult aspect of bonus system is specifying what kind of performance is desired and how it is determined. Poorly designed and administered reward systems can do more harm than good but when performance is effectively related to bonus pay, it can motivate, attract and retain key contributors. Metcalf *et al.*, (2005) argues that universities would be able to improve retention in their sector through ensuring that the implementation of discretionary pay is conducted fairly, justifiably and transparently.

In the African context, Tettey (2006) established that dissatisfaction with salary is one of the key factors undermining the commitment of academics to their institutions and careers, and consequently their decision or intention to leave. A study of academics in Makerere University by Amutuhaire (2010) established that remuneration is one of the factors influencing their retention. Poor remuneration has been one of the major factors influencing academic staff strikes in Kenyan public universities (Waswa *et al.*, 2008).

2.4.2 Intrinsic Factors Influencing Staff Retention

Intrinsic factors originate from a strong sense of emotional interest in an activity. They originate from within the individual and appeal to satisfaction of psychological needs. Herzberg refers to them as motivators. These factors include needs for advancement which are achieved through promotion and growth as addressed by training and development.

a) Effect of Training on Staff Retention

In today's competitive global market the only strategy for organizations to improve workforce productivity radically and enhance retention is to seek to optimize their workforce through comprehensive training and development programmes. To accomplish this undertaking, organizations will have to invest in vast resources to ensure that employees have the information, skills and competencies they need to work effectively in a complex and rapidly changing environment. It is therefore important for organizations to invest in their human resource or human capital development which in general terms is

the process of helping employees become better at their tasks, their knowledge, their experiences and add value to their lives. This is achieved through training, education and development (Michael, 2008).

Training is considered a form of human capital investment whether that investment is made by the individual or by the firm. Training provides employees with specific skills or helps to correct deficiencies in their performances (Chew, 2004). The purpose of training in the work context is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future manpower needs of the organization. In addition to initial training, training to improve employee skills is important in order to enhance employees' performance in the organization (Michael, 2008).

According to Waleed (2011), training is not simply a means of arming employees with skills they need to perform their jobs. It is also often deemed to be representative of an employer's commitment to their workforce. It may also be perceived to reflect an overall organizational strategy that involves adding increased value as opposed to reducing cost. Many scholars agree that organizations that train their employees consistently have better outcomes than those that do not. An organization that invests in training of its employees remains competitive. Further, employees in training programmes tend to be committed to the organizations and will be less likely to consider turnover.

Training comes in different dimensions and can take the form of on or off - the job methods. On the - job (internal) training techniques include mentoring, self learning and attaching an employee to learn a new skill under a colleague or a superior. Organizations also organize in house training for their employees where they are specifically trained on the job requirements peculiar to the organization. Off - the job (external) training technique include seminars, workshops, lectures and case studies that are conducted outside the premises of the organization. Many organizations encourage their employees to add value to themselves through acquisition of additional training by approving study leaves with or without pay or through part-time studies (Michael, 2008).

Training practices in organizations should be guided by policies which should be adhered to always. Training policies in public universities in Kenya cover both academic and non teaching employees and address matters such as processing study leave, criteria for staff for further training, bonding of staff in training, renewal of study leave, funding for training internally by universities commonly referred to as fee waiver, scholarships and self sponsorship (GoK, 2006). It also includes attendance of seminars, workshops and conferences.

Training is beneficial to the organization as well to the individual. With a well trained workforce, the organization will turn out a high standard of goods or services, probably in more cost-effective manner than others, and therefore, with a better chance of achieving organizational goals be they profit oriented or service oriented. Other benefits to the

organization include maintenance of a sufficient and suitable range of skills amongst employees; development of knowledge and skills in the workforce; achievement of improved job performance and productivity; improved quality; improved service to customers and increased motivation among employees. There are also benefits to individuals which include increase in personal repertoire of skills; increased satisfaction; increased value of employees in the labour market and improved prospects of internal promotion (Cole, 2005).

Opportunities for training are among the most important reasons why employees stay especially young and enthusiastic ones. Indeed, according to Dockel (2003) investment in training is one way to show employees how important they are. One of the factors that Herzberg identifies as an important motivator is the growth opportunities. Armstrong (2010) argues that people enjoy learning and continuous training provides for this. Therefore, training is a satisfying and rewarding experience and makes a significant contribution to intrinsic motivation.

Employees want good training opportunities to increase their marketability. The conventional wisdom used to be that if the company makes them marketable, employees will leave at the first opportunity. But today, companies are finding that the more training employees get, the more likely they are to stay on. Indeed, when the training ends, turnover tends to begin (Hill, 2002 cited in Chew 2004). Dockel (2003) strongly argues that when employees believe that the company is doing a good job of providing proper

training, they feel that the company is concerned with improving employees' skills and ability, making them attached to their company and hence the willingness to stay is enhanced.

Tettey (2006) observes that professional development is the engine that keeps the universities true to their mandate as centers of ideas and innovation. Without efforts in this direction, intellectual capital can stagnate and the relevance of universities to society may diminish. Academic staff thrive on intellectual and collegial stimulation from their peers when they attend professional activities and national and international research meetings. Thus, development activities for faculty members continue to be an important aspect associated with their professional work lives (Rosser, 2004).

In emphasizing the importance of staff training in increasing effectiveness in the university, it was argued that staff development facilitates professional development for individuals and groups, enabling them to achieve their potential and contribute to the provision of excellence in teaching and research in the university (Chacha, 2004). It is also important because it prevents knowledge obsolescence and plays a key role of advancing knowledge and skills of staff for them to play new roles. As universities are faced with accelerating changes in their environment, teachers need to improve their skills in the acquisition and management of new knowledge (Obwogi, 2011).

Public universities train their academic staff locally and through scholarships they are sent abroad especially in disciplines where such training is not available locally. According to the Public Universities Inspection Board (GoK, 2006), human resource development through staff training abroad suffers greatly because many staff members do not return to their sponsoring universities after long periods of study leave and this affects staff retention in these institutions. In addition, the board observes that what is stated in the written training policy is not what is practiced in regard to staff training and this is riddled with favouritism.

According to Chacha (2004), staff training is one of the areas that lag behind and impacts negatively on teaching and research. Up to two thirds of university teachers have had no initial pedagogical training. Most of these institutions are relying on individuals who have not acquired their highest level of academic training as lecturers. To improve their efficiency and effectiveness in delivering their services, staff and especially the academic staff, must be trained continually in relevant areas. Universities must have a clear training policy, outlining their strategy for human resource development.

According to Dockel (2003), employees stay at companies that promote career opportunities through learning, and the ability to apply their newly learned skills. Dockel (2003) argues that when employees believe that the company is doing a good job of providing proper training, they feel that it is concerned with improving an employee's skill and ability making them attached to their company and hence willingness to stay

longer. According to Chew (2004), level of employee turnover and training are expected to be inversely related; the higher the level of training, the lower the turnover intention. This expectation is based on the reasoning that the longer an employee stays with an employer, the higher will be the return on training. According to Waleed (2011), appropriate training contributes positively to employee retention because it makes employee feel recognized for their strengths and creates possibilities to develop their qualities.

Kipkebut (2010) argues that provision of adequate training opportunities sends a message to the employees that they are valued by their universities resulting in strong psychological bonding and a willingness to contribute more to the achievement of their university objectives. In addition, employees who receive support from their universities in developing their skills and knowledge, become more satisfied with their job as this improves their chances of getting promoted, resulting in better pay and improved status in their universities and hence strengthens their intention to stay. Studies (Chew, 2004; Shoaib 2009; Kikebut, 2010) indicate that lack of training and development influences employees' intention to leave.

b) Effect of Employee Promotion on Retention

Promotional opportunities refer to the degree an employee perceives his or her chances to grow and be promoted within the organization. Employees expect to work in jobs that provide them with opportunities to be promoted to new and challenging positions.

Dockel (2003) strongly argues that people should not only be rewarded financially but they should also be offered opportunities to grow within the organization. Promotion offers opportunities for advancement and is also one of Herzberg motivators which can be used to enhance retention. Employees who feel stagnant in their positions generally are not motivated and will not stay in unfulfilling positions. On the other hand, employees who are promoted receive increased pay, high status and their esteem is boosted, resulting in increased job satisfaction unlike employees who stagnate in the same position.

Promotion systems and procedures can play a major role in retention within the university affecting the need to leave for career progression elsewhere. Since it is not possible to promote all employees, Kipkebut (2010) recommends that the promotion procedures must be seen to be fair, clear and objective thereby mitigating the negative feelings of employees who are not promoted. According to Armstrong (2010), the aim of the promotion procedures of a company should be to enable management to obtain the best talent available within the company to fill more senior posts and second, to provide employees with the opportunity to advance their careers within the company, in accordance with the opportunities available (taking into account equal opportunity policies) and their own abilities. In any organization where there is frequent promotional moves and where promotional arrangements cause problems, it is advisable to have a promotion policy and procedure which is known by both the management and employees and which would be adhered to always.

Promotion policy and guidelines are crucial in every organization. The policy should state the organization's intention to promote from within wherever this is appropriate as a means of satisfying its requirements for high quality staff. The policy could, however, recognize that there will be occasions when the organization's present and future needs can only be met by recruitment from outside. In addition, the policy should state that employees will be encouraged to apply for internally advertised jobs, and will not be held back by the line managers, however reluctant the latter may be to lose them (Armstrong, 2010).

Career minded employees consider career growth and development as a crucial deciding factor in their decision to remain in an organization or leave. Where growth is not guaranteed, employees leave for alternative employment. Career growth in terms of promotion help employees to plan for the future and to be better equipped with the right skills in order to remain competitive. As vacancies occur, employees must be given equal opportunity and necessary encouragement to apply alongside external candidates for higher positions within the organization. When the employees have the opportunity to be promoted they tend to build their career life around the organization and this can inform their decision to remain. Managers should also focus on helping employees progress in their career especially young and inexperienced ones who if unable to get on with their jobs are likely to leave the organization for another which they consider offers better job prospects (Michael, 2008).

According to Kipkebut (2010), promotion for academic staff is dependent on teaching, research and publications. However, due to financial constraints; non-prioritization of research by government and inadequate publishing facilities, publishing of refereed articles has become a monumental challenge for Kenya and other African academics. Tetey (2006) observes that the promotional procedures in African Universities are long, stressful and cumbersome while the requirements are unreasonable and indicate that academics are frustrated by the inconsistencies and rigidity in the application of the promotion criteria.

In a study of Nigerian higher education institutions Mallam (1994) found that the second most influential factor on voluntary turnover was the opportunity for promotion. It is not merely the lack of promotions itself which was seen as a problem by academics, but also the criteria on which it was based. In Kenya, Waswa *et al.*, (2008) noted that other than the inconsistent promotion criteria, another challenge in public universities is how to de-link promotion from establishments and the availability of funds given by the exchequer that this ends up denying deserving persons their rightful upward mobility. Kipkebut (2010) indicated that there is a relationship between promotion and promotional opportunities with intention to leave among the employees in universities in Kenya.

2.4.3 Effect of Personal Characteristics

Personal characteristics also known as demographic variables are among the most common in turnover and retention literature. A number of studies (Chew, 2004; Tetey 2009) found age, education, job level, gender, experience and tenure with the

organization to be significant determinants of turnover and retention. The personal characteristics are discussed as follows:

a) Age

Age as a personal characteristic influences employee behavior and has been found in studies to be negatively related to turnover intentions. Price and Mueller (1981) cited in Kipkebut (2010) found that younger employees were more likely to leave than older ones because they had the most routine jobs, participated less in decision making process, lacked knowledge about their jobs, had fewer friends and received less pay. Kipkebut (2010) established that younger employees were more likely to quit. Unlike younger employees, older employees were less likely to quit because of the investments they had in their universities, the experiences they had accumulated over the years, limited alternative employment opportunities and due to declining expectations from their jobs

According to Berry (2010), age is a restraining factor keeping employee on the job and decreasing turnover intention. Young workers below the age of 35 years have high expectations from the work place and hence at risk of turnover. Older employees on the other hand, prefer to retain the status quo since they do not want to disrupt their benefits such as pension. Studies (Zhou *et.al.*,2004; Pienaar *et al.*, 2008) observes that young workers are likely to have high turnover intentions compared to mid career and mature workers. Tettey (2009) established that from those who had resigned in universities in Africa, majority were below the age of 40 years and this contributed to concentration of

majority of academics being over fifty years raising concern of aging professorate without adequate replacements at lower ranks due to resignations. Kipkebut (2010) established that older employees were less likely to quit their jobs as compared to younger employees. It was therefore expected that the younger employees were likely to have turnover intentions than the older employee.

b) Education level

Employees with higher education qualifications have higher expectations from the employer and may easily move if they feel their knowledge is not being utilized or no additional benefits such as salary increment and promotion are awarded. Kipkebut (2010) established that education is a positive predictor of intention to leave of employee in the university. Employees with lower levels of education were more committed to their universities and were less likely to quit their jobs because they had fewer employment options than employees with higher levels of education. Tettey (2009) established that majority of those who left from the African universities were those who possessed PhD degree. This study sought to establish the moderating effect of the level of education on academic staff retention.

2.4.4 Staff Retention

A core belief in Human Resource Management (HRM) is to retain and develop employees to obtain a competitive advantage. Retention of human resource is critically important in organizations and institutions where financial sustainability and survival in a competitive environment depend on the scarce human and specialist skills. The situation

is further exacerbated if these individuals are rare or when it becomes difficult to obtain and retain these kind of staff (Phillips *et.al.*, 2003). Organizations therefore, must continuously discover current retention factors and integrate them in the organization. Without empirical evidence, it is not known if the current organizational retention strategies are outdated as they may have little or no influence on employees' decision to stay with an organization (Sutherland, 2004).

One of the major reasons why staff retention is important is due to the numerous negative outcomes that are associated with labour turnover. These organizational outcomes include high direct and indirect financial costs; a decrease in financial sustainability, a decrease in productivity; the rendering of service and standards; interruption in workflow; loss of experience and specialist knowledge; an increase in administrative processes; a decline in the organizations image; an interruption in the internal and informal social liaison and communication channels and an increased feeling of job dissatisfaction among the remaining staff (Pienaar *et al.*, (2008).

Labour turnover can on the other hand be an advantage for higher education institutions in that these institutions may save on the financial remuneration packages of experienced employees by appointing novices at the lower scale (Rosser, 2004). It is obvious, however, that the disadvantages of increased labour outweigh the advantages. For this reason it is important that organizations should attempt to retain as many employees who consider leaving their current organization as possible (Pienaar *et al.*, (2008).

Various studies have identified an array of factors that influence employee retention. Chew (2004), in a study on retention of employees in Australian organizations, established that younger employees focused on remuneration, training and development, career advancement, challenging work, growth opportunities and recognition. For older employees, autonomy, opportunities to mentor and job challenge were of great importance. A study by Daly *et al.*, (2006) on turnover intention of academics established that structural factors such as faculty work environment, autonomy, communication, distributive justice and workload were related to intent to stay. Amutuhaire (2010) in a study of academics in Makerere University established that remuneration and tenure influenced their retention.

Locally, a study of staff retention in service organisations (Udi, 2010) established that lack of adequate reward and compensation and lack of career development in terms of promotion influenced employees to leave. Kipkebut (2010) in a study on organisational commitment and job satisfaction of employees in universities in Kenya established that role conflict, promotional opportunities, age were some of the factors that influenced employee intention to quit from the university and hence affected staff retention. These findings reflect a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

Staff Retention Measurement

Staff retention was measured using intention to leave and intention to stay. In general terms, intention to leave is simply referred to as a worker's intention to leave his or her

present organization. Specifically, intention to leave refers to the subjective estimation of an individual regarding the probability of leaving an organization in the near future. According to Daly *et al.*, (2006) intention to leave is the degree of likelihood that an employee will terminate his or her membership in a work organization. Conversely, intent to stay refers to the extent to which an employee plans to continue membership with his or her employer.

Organizations do not pay serious attention to intention to leave, opting to deal with actual turnover which is a manifestation of intention to leave. Yet it is cost effective to deal with intention to quit than managing the cost of turnover. According to Chew (2004) studying turnover intention, rather than the actual turnover is important in that it is easier to measure and tends to be more accurate. Further, it is difficult to gain access to people who have already left to determine why they really quit, thus making the study of intention to leave more appropriate than actual turnover. Similarly, administrative records are sometimes closed to outside researchers or may be incomplete or inaccurate. Additionally, those employees who are thinking of quitting may still be swayed by changes in the work environment whereas, it is too late to change the work environment for those who have already left employment, advancing the justification for studying intention to quit rather than the actual turnover (Chiboiwa, 2010).

Studies (Chew, 2004; Rosser, 2004; Al- Omari *et al.*, 2009) have successfully used intention to leave or stay to measure staff retention or turnover. According to Chan *et al.*,

(2000), since intention to stay or leave indicate future plans, a better understanding of intention may make it possible to institute changes to affect this intent prior to actual turnover and subsequently prevent the costs associated with staff turnover. This therefore means that if retention factors are known, it will be possible to address intention to quit of academic staff in Kenyan public universities and hence enhance their retention.

2.5 Critique of the Existing Literature

It is evident that employee retention and indeed academic staff retention is critically important because the excellence of higher education institutions is a function of the people it is able to enlist and retain in its faculties. On the contrary however, a clear picture of determinants influencing academic staff retention has not emerged from previous studies. It is also noted, the studies are inclined towards staff turnover (Rosser, 2004; Johnshrud *et al.*, 2002; Al-Omari *et al.*, 2008). Also, most of the available studies are based on corporate sector. Due to the paucity of research on academic staff retention in Africa, Tettey (2006) recommended institution based studies and surveys in order to develop efficacious strategies for academic staff retention.

Empirical studies (Zhou *et al.*, 2004; Daly& Dee, 2006) employ the model of employee intent to stay that is based on expectancy theory which includes structural, psychological and environmental variables. Structural factors may be a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, psychological variables include job satisfaction and organizational commitment and the environmental variables include availability of job opportunities and

environmental variables. However, Sutherland (2004) established that job satisfaction and organizational commitment do not necessarily lead to loyalty, and hence are not indicators of staff retention. Further, these frameworks address environmental factors such as availability of job opportunities yet these are beyond the control of employer. Therefore, this study employs intrinsic and extrinsic approach to identify the factors that the universities may influence to alter intention to leave of the academic staff.

The literature review has established that different studies on staff retention have employed different study designs. In a study on retention of employees in Australian organizations, Chew (2004) used qualitative and quantitative methods. Pienaar *et al.*, (2008) employed longitudinal design to study retention of academics in early career phase in order to determine whether those who had considered leaving the institution indeed did so over a period of time while this method is beneficial such studies may not be practical for studies aimed at award of degree because they take considerable time to complete.

Tettey (2006, 2009), employed case study method across African countries and while a case study analyses an issue in detail, it is limiting in that the researcher concentrates only one organisation. Kipkebut (2010) carried out a cross sectional study using quantitative methods in her study on organisational commitment in universities in Kenya, and used purposive sampling to identify the public universities for the study yet purposive sampling is one cause of biases in studies. Udi (2010) engaged quantitative method to

study staff retention in service Organisations hence leaving out the qualitative aspects which are crucial in retention studies because they give insights into employee opinions and gives room for suggestions. The researcher employed cross sectional design because of the time required for completion of the study and used both quantitative and qualitative methods in data collection and analysis since these methods reinforced each other.

2.6 Research Gaps

From the foregoing literature review, it is noted that most of the studies conducted on staff retention are from other countries. In addition they are based on business oriented environments, and the few studies conducted in higher education in Africa are addressing the issue of brain drain. Most of these studies on academic staff retention are case studies of various countries and only one by Tettey (2009) incorporated one Kenyan public university, Kenyatta University. Tettey (2006) recommended studies on staff retention be carried out by individual countries in order to develop effective strategies to address staff retention.

Public Universities Inspection Committee Board (GoK, 2006) had brought to the fore issues of staff capacity and retention in public universities and hence establishing the basis for this study to investigate this area. A study by Waswa *et al.*, (2008) carried out in public universities in Kenya address some of the variables in this study such as remuneration and promotion in light of industrial actions that had occurred but not in light of turnover intentions. A study by Kipkebut (2010) addressed organisational

commitment in higher education institutions and addressed both academic and non teaching staff. There was therefore need to address academic staff separately since they are the core employees. Further, a study by Udi (2010) addressed one service corporation which is not representative of all the service organisations.

It was also noted that other than going to other countries for employment there is also local competition of employees from other public universities, private universities and the corporate sector and hence the need to enhance retention for competitiveness. It is evident that the problem of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities is a pertinent issue and staff capacity issues were expected to be worse with the double intake in 2011/2012 academic year. Universities hold the key to the realisation of Kenya Vision 2030 by providing the manpower with the requisite skills and knowledge. These institutions can only achieve this noble goal if they themselves have adequate capacity in terms of human and other resources. In addition an understanding of why faculty leave or remain in the academic realm would enable those in higher education to take the proper steps to ensure retention of the best and brightest academic staff in an effort to create an exceptional faculty (Ssesanga *et al.*, 2005). It would also ensure the quality of work amongst them and enable them to compete in the global market. Hence this research was geared towards examining the critical intrinsic and extrinsic determinants of academic staff in Kenyan public universities.

2.7 Summary

As evident in the literature review, staff retention is of interest to employers because of the adverse implications of high staff turnover. Equity theory (1965), expectancy theory (1964), McClelland theory (1971), Human Capital theory (1964) has been reviewed in relation to the study and Herzberg theory (1959) was found to be appropriate because of its dual factors of motivators and hygiene which are considered as intrinsic and extrinsic respectively. Conceptual framework has been developed based on this theory with dependent variable being academic staff retention. Independent variables are extrinsic factors (leadership style, remuneration) and intrinsic factors (training, promotion). These factors are intrinsic and extrinsic and can be used by organizations to develop a compelling EVP to influence employee retention in Kenyan public universities.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods of the study. It describes the research design, study population, sampling frame, sample and sampling techniques, data collection techniques and methods of data analysis. The statistical measurement models used in the analysis and the tests for hypotheses are also provided.

3.2 Research Design

The aim of the study was to assess the determinants of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities and to achieve this, survey research design was employed. A survey is an attempt to collect data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of that population with respect to one or more variables (Gay, 1992). It is appropriate where large populations are involved which are geographically spread which was the case in this study. Survey design was also appropriate for this study because it allows collection of information for independent and dependent variables using interview and questionnaires (Orodho, 2003). The design enabled the study to combine both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Qualitative approaches enables collection of data in form of words rather than numbers. It provides verbal descriptions rather than numerical (Kothari, 2009). According to Mugenda and Mugenda, (2003), qualitative methods can be used to gain more in depth information that may be difficult to

convey quantitatively. Quantitative approach strives for precision by focusing on items that can be counted into predetermined categories and subjected to statistical analysis (Simiyu, 2012). The use of these two approaches reinforces each other (Kombo *et al.*, 2006). The research used this approach because the data collected using the main questionnaire was quantitative which was analysed using statistics. Qualitative approach on the other hand involved interpretation of phenomena without depending on numerical measurements or statistical methods. Interviews for the Registrar Administration and exit interviews for those who had left provided qualitative data. The approaches were used successfully in a study on “The Influence of Human Resource Management Practices on the Retention of Core employees of Australian Organisation (Chew, 2004)”. A study on “Factors Affecting Retention of Knowledge Workers (Sutherland, 2004)” also used the two approaches successfully.

3.3 Target Population

Population in this study is the larger group from which the sample was taken. The population of the study comprised of all the academic staff members in public universities in Kenya. For this study, target population comprised all the 4967 academic staff teaching in the seven full fledged public universities in Kenya by August, 2012. Middle colleges that were converted into constituent colleges after 2007 to date were not included in this study because they had not acquired full university status.

3.4 Sampling Frame

There are seven public universities in Kenya and this formed the sampling frame. The list of the Kenyan public universities is provided in the UNESCO Kenya strategy report (2010). This report outlines on yearly basis, the strategies to be used by UNESCO to address education issues including in Kenyan public universities. The sampling frame for the academic staff was provided by the Registrar in charge of Administration in each of the universities using written permission to carry out research. Such a sampling frame enabled the researcher to draw a reasonably adequate random sample, where all members of the population of interest had an equal chance of being selected for the sample.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique

A sample in this study is a portion of the population of interest. The purpose of sampling is to secure a representative group which will enable the researcher to gain information about a population. According to Gay (1992) and Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), social researchers recommend that 10% of the accessible population is enough, and at least 30 cases are required per group, for statistical data analysis.

Stratified random sampling using gender and designation was used in the first stage to ensure representation of the subgroups in these institutions. In the second stage simple random sampling was used to arrive at the required sample of 10% of the target population which was 496 respondents. This is more than the generally recommended sample size of 100 cases for statistical data analysis (Alreck *et al.*, 2004). The sampling of the respondents is indicated in table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Number Selected for a Random Sample

University	Male population	Female population	Total population	percent	Sample Size
Egerton	365	120	485	10	48
JKUAT	450	200	650	10	65
UoN	1141	390	1531	10	153
Kenyatta University	615	306	921	10	92
Maseno University	285	103	388	10	39
Moi University	491	160	651	10	65
MMUST	251	90	341	10	34
TOTAL	3537	1369	4967	10	496

3.6 Data Collection Methods

This section outlines the methods used to collect primary data which were; questionnaire and interview. It also indicates the methods used to collect secondary data for the study.

1. Primary Data

Primary data was collected using questionnaire and interview techniques. These are described as follows:

Questionnaire

Primary data was collected by use of one main structured questionnaire that captured the various variables of the study. The questionnaire was designed to address specific objective, research question or test hypothesis (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). A questionnaire having both closed - ended and open - ended questions was administered to the academic staff members who participated in the study. The closed ended items give

precise information which minimise information bias and facilitate data analysis. This was in form of a Likert scale anchored by a five point rating ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Items in the Likert scale were modified from Kipkebut (2010), Chew (2004) and Price (2000). Open - ended items were used because as Gay (1992) maintains, they give respondents freedom to express their views or opinion and also to make suggestions.

Interview

Face to face interview were conducted where the Registrars in charge of Administration in the seven public universities were interviewed because they dealt with staff issues and are the custodians of staff records. In Moi University, Kenyatta University and JKUAT where Human Resource Departments have been established, the Registrars delegated the role to the person in charge of the Human Resource Department. The interviews were used to elicit information on retention from the management perspective. Exit interview was used to collect data from those who had left their universities using a self administered questionnaire. The interview and the exit questionnaire gave further support on the reasons why academic staff left their institutions.

2. Secondary Data

Secondary data was obtained from literature sources or data collected by other people for some other purposes. Secondary data was collected through review of published literature such as journals articles, published theses and textbooks. The researcher also made use of

secondary data from universities records. These sources were reviewed to give insight in the search for primary information. They gave insight on variables selection, development of instruments and discussion of the findings.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained an introduction letter from the university and a research permit from the National Council for Science and Technology (NCST). Permission to collect data was also sought from the seven public universities. This was followed by recruitment of research assistants for each of the universities selected. The researcher and the research assistants used drop and pick method in the data collection. The respondents were given a maximum of a week after which the questionnaires were collected. However, the period was extended since the respondents were not available as some institutions were having end of semester examinations. This method was appropriate considering the length of the questionnaire, the availability of the respondents and the geographical dispersion of the sample selected.

3.8 Pilot Study

Before the actual data collection, piloting of questionnaire was done using academic staff members who were not included in the final study. The suitability of the questionnaire for this study was tested by first administering it on 46 academic staff members who were approximately 10% of 496, the total number of respondents. They were asked to evaluate the questions for relevance, comprehension, meaning and clarity. Piloting enabled the researcher to ascertain the validity and reliability of the instrument. Validity is the extent

to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest. According to Gay (1992), validity is established by expert judgement. In this regard the questionnaire was constructed in close consultation with the university supervisors and other experts.

The reliability of the questionnaire was analysed using Cronbach's alpha. During the pilot the alpha for leadership style was 0.897, remuneration had alpha of 0.636, training had 0.922, promotion had an alpha of 0.681, and intentions to leave had an alpha of 0.647. A negatively word question was added to each set of items measuring a variable to control guessing. The questionnaire was refined on the basis of the responses and the items which required revision were done to make them more meaningful before the actual collection of data. The revised items that were used to collect data are included in the appendices 1-3. During pilot it was also established that systematic sampling that had been proposed could not yield the required results because it did not address the various subgroups in the population for example gender and designation of the academic staff and hence stratified random sampling was used instead.

3.9 Data Processing and Analysis

Data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 16). All the questionnaires received were referenced and items in the questionnaire coded to facilitate data entry. After data cleaning which entailed checking for errors in entry, descriptive statistics and frequencies were estimated for all variables and information

presented in form of frequency tables and graphs. Descriptive statistics were used because they enable the researcher to meaningfully describe distribution of scores or measurements using a few indices (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Further they provide the basic features of data collected on the variable and provide the impetus for further analysis on the data.

Variable aggregation to come up with indices for different variables was undertaken to facilitate further statistical analysis. To report the data analysis for the Likert Scale, the researcher used what Gwavuya (2011) refers to as the "Collapsing Response" method. This is done by adding the 'strongly disagree' percentage responses with the 'disagree' responses (SD +D), similarly, the 'strongly agree' with the 'agree' responses (SA +A). The method was extended to all response type tables when reporting the findings.

3.9.1 Qualitative Analysis

Questions used to collect qualitative data were aligned to the research objectives. The responses were summarized into most occurring in categories according to research objectives. These qualitative findings were integrated with the quantitative findings in discussions.

3.9.2 Reliability Analysis

Data reliability which is a measure of internal consistency and average correlation was measured using Cronbach's alpha coefficient which ranges between 0 and 1 (Kipkebut, 2010). Higher alpha coefficient values means there is consistency among the items in

measuring the concept of interest. As a rule of thumb acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70 or above. Cronbach's alpha is a general form of the Kuder- Richardson (K – R) 20 formula derived from Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). The formula was as follows:

$$KR_{20} = \frac{(K)(S^2 - \sum s^2)}{(S^2)(K - 1)}$$

Where: KR_{20} = Reliability coefficient of internal consistency

K = Number of items used to measure the concept

S^2 = Variance of all scores

s^2 = Variance of individual items

The Cronbach's alpha for all the variables were all above 0.70 and hence the questionnaire was therefore considered reliable.

3.9.3 Inferential Statistical Analysis

Inferential data analysis was done using Pearson correlation coefficient, regression analysis (enter method) and multiple regression analysis (stepwise method). According to Tanton (2007), in many statistical methods in particular parametric measures one presumes a (at least approximate) normal distribution of the variables. Therefore, for the purposes of using parametric statistics such as Pearson correlation and regression analysis, normal distribution of variables is needed and hence the variables were internally standardised. However the regression analysis equation is given for standardised and unstandardised coefficients.

a. Correlation Analysis

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), correlation technique is used to analyze the degree of relationship between two variables. The computation of a correlation coefficient yields a statistic that ranges from -1 to +1. This statistic is called a correlation coefficient(r) which indicates the relationship between the two variables and the bigger the correlation the stronger the coefficient between the two variables being compared. The direction of the relationship is also important in that if it is positive (+) it means that there is a positive relationship between the two variables and this means that when one variable increases the other variable increases or when one variable decreases the other variable also decreases. A negative relationship (-) means that as one variable decreases the other variable increase and vice versa and hence an inverse relationship. If there is no relationship the coefficient is equal to zero. Pearson's Product - moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength and the direction of the relationship between dependent variable and the independent variables. This was carried out for each of the seven public universities and also for all the universities together. The hypothesis used is as follows:

$$H_0 : \rho_{xy} = 0$$

$$H_1 : \rho_{xy} \neq 0$$

The analysis using Pearson's Product - moment correlation was based on the assumption that the data was normally distributed and also because the variables were continuous.

b. Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used to establish the relations between extrinsic and intrinsic factors and staff retention. Multiple regression is a statistical tool that was used because it is the procedure that uses two or more independent variables to predict a dependent variable. Hypothesis testing was done using p - value because it aids in decision regarding the null hypothesis but also gives additional insight into the strength of the decision. The significance level of 0.05 was used because it is the level mostly used in business and social research (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). This represents that the results are at 95% confidence level and this is what was applied in this study. The p - value obtained was interpreted based on the alpha level or significance level.

c. Statistical Measurement Model

The study used multiple regressions analysis (enter method) to analyse the collected data to measure academic staff retention. Multiple regression attempts to determine whether a group of variables together predict a given dependent variable (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Since there are four independent variables in this study the multiple regression model was as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon \quad \text{where:-}$$

Y = represents the dependent variable, academic staff retention,

β_0 = constant

X_1 = represents leadership style

X_2 = represents remuneration

X_3 = represents training

X_4 = represents promotion

ε = error term

$\beta_1 \dots \beta_4$ are the regression coefficients

3.9.4 Moderating Effect Analysis

A moderator is a variable that affects the direction and the strength of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent criterion variable. This variable may reduce or enhance the direction of the relationship between a predictor variable and a dependent variable, or it may change the direction of the relationship between the two variables from positive to negative. A moderator is supported if the interaction of predictor and moderator on the outcome of the dependent variable is significant (Berry, 2010).

The study used multiple regressions analysis (stepwise method) to establish the moderating effect of age and education level (z) on relationship between independent variable and dependent variable. Age was dichotomised as follows: 0 = below 40 yrs and 1= 40 years and above. Education level was dichotomized as follows: (0 = Below PhD and 1= PhD).

The statistical model used for analysis was as follows:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_Z Z + \beta_{1Z} X_1 Z + \beta_{2Z} X_2 Z + \beta_{3Z} X_3 Z + \beta_{4Z} X_4 Z + \varepsilon$$

where:-

Y is the dependent variable, academic staff retention,

β_0 is the constant

β_i is the coefficient of x_i for $i = 1,2,3,4$,

X_1 is the leadership style

X_2 is remuneration

X_3 is training

X_4 is promotion

Z = the hypothesized moderator (Age or Education level)

β_{iZ} is the coefficient of $X_i * Z$ the interaction term between age or education and each of the dependent variables for $i = 1,2,3,4$

ε = error term

The null hypothesis for interaction is $H_0 : \beta_{iZ} = 0$. Rejecting the null hypothesis that the coefficient of the product term $\beta_{iZ} = 0$ indicates the presence of a moderating or interaction effect.

3.9.5 Measurement of Variables

Staff retention: This is the dependant variable and was measured using two dimensions. Intention to leave which had two items and intention to stay which similarly had two items. Intention to leave which was used in the analysis was measured by reversing the items of intention to stay so that the four items were combined to measure the same indicator. The four items were aggregated to capture academic staff retention using intention to leave as a measure since it is the inverse of intention to stay and both measure the same aspect. The researcher used a five point Likert scale (with 5 =strongly Agree, to 1=strongly disagree). These dimensions and combining of the items was

successfully used in a study by Chew (2004) on “The Influence of Human Resource Management Practices on the Retention of Core employees of Australian Organisation”. It had also been successfully used earlier in a study by Price (1996) on “Determinants of career intent among Physicians at a US Air force Hospital”. This was measured in PART VI of the main questionnaire.

Leadership style: This was measured using items indicative of leader/supervisor effectiveness. The eleven items captured leader competence, whether he or she involves staff in decision making, regular communication, and concern over personal problems and fairness in the treatment of all staff. The researcher used a five point Likert scale (with 5 =strongly Agree, to 1=strongly disagree). This was measured in PART II of the questionnaire.

Remuneration: This was measured using ten items that captured whether salary and remuneration is regular, adequate, commensurate with work done, competitive. The researcher used a five point Likert scale (with 5 =strongly Agree, to 1=strongly disagree). This was measured in PART III of the questionnaire.

Training: This scale consisted of ten items which measured employees’ perceptions of the availability of training opportunities, whether training opportunities are regular, whether implementation of the training policy is fair and support given in attending professional conferences. The researcher used a five point Likert scale (with 5 =strongly Agree, to 1=strongly disagree). This was measured in PART IV of the questionnaire.

Promotion: This scale consisted of nine items which measured whether promotions are based on merit, whether they are regular, whether promotion criteria is fair and whether internal promotions are more than external appointments. The researcher used a five point Likert scale (with 5 = strongly Agree, to 1=strongly disagree). This was measured in PART V of the questionnaire.

Personal characteristics: The key moderating variables are age and education level. Age was indicated in number of years and education level by the highest academic certificate that the academic staff member had attained. This was measured in Part I of the questionnaire.

To capture holistically critical variables influencing academic staff retention, PART VII of the questionnaire asked respondents to evaluate all the variables using a four point scales (1= Not important at all, 4 = Critically Important).

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents information on the findings of the study using descriptive and inferential statistics as well as qualitative data. It starts with the response rate, personal characteristics of the sample, and provides findings according to the following study objectives:

- a. To determine the influence of leadership style on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- b. To establish the influence of remuneration on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- c. To determine the influence of training on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- d. To establish the influence of promotion on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.
- e. To establish the moderating effect of personal characteristics on academic staff retention in public universities.

4.2. Response Rate

A total of 496 respondents were sampled in the study (see Table 3.1). The response rate was 100% since a total of 547 responded. A total of 7 registrars in charge of

administration were interviewed representing 100%. A total of 733 academic staff had left during the period 2006-2011. 10% (73) of these were sampled for exit interview questionnaires. Seventy out of 73 responded to the exit interviews representing 95.8% response rate. This response rate indicates a reasonable representation of the sample and of the entire population.

4.3. Personal Information

In this section the personal characteristic of the respondents are discussed as follows:

1. Gender Representation

Out of the 547 respondents 65% (358) were male and 35% (189) were female from the sampled public universities as provided in Figure 4.1. This indicates that generally there were more male respondents for the study than females indicating the wide disparity between male and females in employment of this cadre of staff in the public universities.

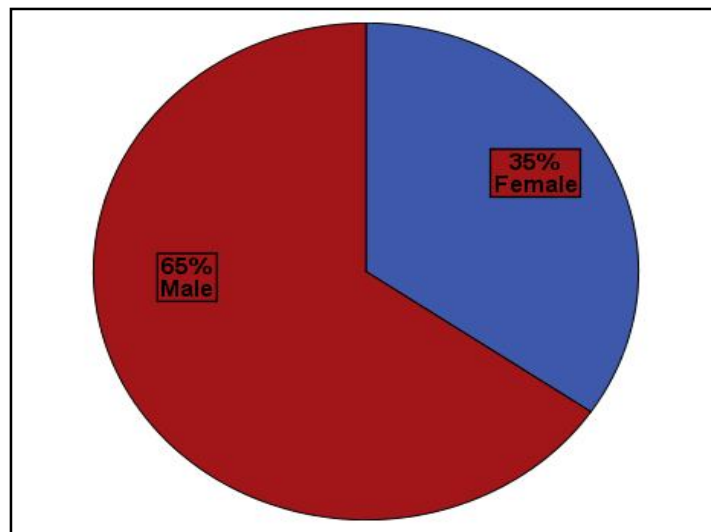


Figure 4.1 Response by Gender

2. Age

The age of the respondents show that 0.6% were between 20-24 years, 8.2% between 25-29 years, about 13.9% between 30-34 years, about 16% were between 35- 39 years, 21.6% were between 40-44years, 14.3% were between 45-49 years and 25.5% were over 50 years. High responses were received from 50 and above age brackets and 40-44 age brackets giving 25.5% and 21.6% respectively (see Table 4.1). Lower responses were received from 20-24 and 25-29 years age brackets as this category mostly comprises of Graduate Assistants who are normally few in universities. The study shows that the public universities have all age groups represented among the academic staff. These findings are in line with Tettey (2009) who established that majority of the academic staff were over 50 years which paused a challenge of aging professoriate with no equivalent replacement at the lower levers.

Table 4.1: Age

Class interval in years	Frequency	Percent
20-24	3	.6
25-29	44	8.2
30-34	75	13.9
35-39	86	16.0
40-44	116	21.6
45-49	77	14.3
50 and above	137	25.5
Total	538	100.0

3. Academic Qualifications

The level of education was also sought in the questionnaire. Those with PhD degree were 52.5%. About 43.4% possessed masters degree and 4.1% were degree holders. The finding that majority of the respondents possessed PhD degree comprising of 52.5% indicates that over half of the academic staff meet the requirements of teaching in universities (in Table 4.2). Previously, studies such as Tettey (2006) and Tettey (2009) had established that majority of the academic staff teaching in African universities did not possess PhD certificate which was a crucial qualification for teaching at the university level.

Table 4. 2: Academic Qualifications

Education level	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
PhD	284	52.5	52.5
Masters	235	43.4	95.9
Bachelors	22	4.1	100.0
Total	541	100.0	

4. Experience of the Respondents in their Current Universities

On average, the respondents had worked in their current universities for between 5-9 years with 20.8% having experience in their current institutions for 1-4 years (in Table 4.3). A high percentage of 50.7% (273) had worked in their current institutions for less than 10 years, while 49.3% (265) had experience of over 10 years. Studies suggest that for investment on human capital to be realized employees should remain in the

organizations for a long period. In university set up it is reasoned that more than 10 years is ideal because below 10 years the academic staff are mostly engaged in Masters and PhD studies training.

Table 4.3: Years Worked in the Current University

Class interval in years	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
0-1	18	3.3	3.3
1-4	112	20.8	24.2
5-9	143	26.6	50.7
10-14	87	16.2	66.9
15-19	72	13.4	80.3
20 and above	106	19.7	100.0
Total	538	100.0	

5. Period of Intended Stay in Current University

Majority of the respondents 35.3 % (187) intended to work in their university for over 9 years. On average, the respondents intended to work for between 5 to 7years (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Years of Intention to Work in the University

Years	Frequency	Valid Percent
Less than 1 year	14	2.6
1 to less than 3 years	38	7.2
3 to less than 5 years	147	27.8
5 to less than 7 years	106	20.0
7 to less than 9 years	37	7.0
Over 9 years	187	35.3
Total	529	100.0

A significant percentage 37.6% (199) intended to work for less than five years. This is indicative of a significant number with turnover intentions. This finding is in line with Mwiria *et.al*, (2007) who argue that there is a substantial number of staff who leave public universities generally. According to Adenike (2011), almost half of the teachers in universities leave their field during the first five years of their employment and this should be of great concern to the employers because it affects service delivery. Further this implies that majority are the young and hence posing a challenge off replacement of retirees.

6. Designations

A descriptive analysis by designation shows that a large number of respondents were Lecturers followed by Senior lecturers with 40.7% and 15.8% respectively. Associate Professors and Professors constitute 13.9%. Those in training positions such as Assistant Lectures, Tutorial Fellows and the Teaching Assistants comprise 29.7% (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Analysis by Designation

Designation	Frequency	Valid Percent
Teaching Assistant	30	5.5
Tutorial fellow	60	11.0
Assistant Lecturer	72	13.2
Lecturer	222	40.7
Senior Lecturer	86	15.8
Associate Professor	48	8.8
Professor	28	5.1
Total	546	100.0

Therefore all the categories of academic staff were represented in this study as shown in this analysis. These findings tally with findings on education level (see table 4.2) since majority of those with PhD certificates are employed in these institutions at the lecturer level. Also because of the promotion procedures and years of experience required, there are few at the top levels of Professors and Associate Professors. It is worth noting that a substantial percentage is at the lecturer grade and this are the likely group to move in search of promotion especially if they possess PhD degree.

7. Distribution of the Respondents in the Seven Universities of the Study

In this research, the highest number of respondents were received from University of Nairobi with 28.3%, followed by Kenyatta University (20.8%), then JKUAT (13.3%), Moi University (12.2%), Egerton university had 10.1%, Maseno University about (7.9%), and MMUST had 7.3% (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Analysis by University

University	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Egerton	55	10.1	10.1
JKUAT	73	13.3	23.4
KU	114	20.8	44.2
Maseno	43	7.9	52.1
MMUST	40	7.3	59.4
Moi	67	12.2	71.7
UoN	155	28.3	100.0
Total	547	100.0	

This reflects the population of the academic staff in each of the universities with University of Nairobi having the highest number of academic staff since it is the largest and the oldest among the public universities. University of Nairobi is the oldest public university in Kenya with almost all disciplines and hence has a high population of academic staff. MMUST was the last to be awarded full university status in the year 2007. This explains why the population of the academic staff is relatively low.

4.4 Findings on the Influence of Leadership Style on Academic staff Retention

From the results, most of the respondents, 64% agreed that organizational leadership style makes positive contribution to overall effectiveness of the organization which includes enhancing employee retention. Majority 56.6% disagreed that the leadership of the university listens to and addresses staff issues promptly. 38% agreed that the leaders communicates to staff regularly on matters important to them while 46.3% disagreed and 15% were neutral. On average the respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with the leadership style of the managers in their university (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Leadership Style

Statement	SD %	D %	N %	A %	S %	Index
Organizational leadership style makes positive contribution to overall effectiveness of the organization	7.0	15.3	13.5	50.1	14.0	41.8
My manager treats every one fairly	6.9	19.5	18.0	40.1	15.6	30.3
Leaders/supervisors assists individual lecturers in their personal problems	8.9	27.1	22.0	36.2	5.9	6.1
Leaders/supervisors represents my needs, ideas and suggestions to his/her manager	5.7	31.4	23.5	33.3	6.1	3.4
The leaders often involves staff in decision making, problem solving and policy making in the university	9.8	37.1	18.1	28.6	6.5	0.9
Leaders/supervisors rarely assists individual lecturers in their personal problems	8.0	29.1	25.0	30.2	7.8	0.9
I have opportunity to interact with management above my immediate supervisor	7.4	32.9	11.5	36.8	11.3	7.8
I am satisfied with the competence of supervisors and leadership in this university	8.3	35.2	17.5	31.7	7.2	31.4
The leadership of this university listens to and addresses staff issues promptly	15.7	40.9	18.2	20.8	4.4	31.4
The leaders communicates to staff regularly on matters important to them	10.3	36.3	15.3	31.0	7.0	8.6
I am satisfied with the leadership style of the managers in this university	13.8	34.7	20.4	26.1	5.0	17.0

SD= strongly disagree; D= disagree; N= neither agree nor disagree; A=Agree; SA= strongly agree

When asked about the leadership style commonly practiced by the leaders in their universities, 8.08% indicated laissez faire and 38.35% indicated democratic style. However, majority of the respondents, 53.57% indicated that the leadership style commonly practiced by the managers in the universities was authoritative (see Figure 4.2). This explains why majority were not satisfied with the leadership style of the managers (in Table 4.7). This is consistent with Tetey (2006) who reported that some academic staff were dissatisfied with the way their institutions were managed as some of the managers were dictatorial, insensitive and unresponsive to the needs of the staff .

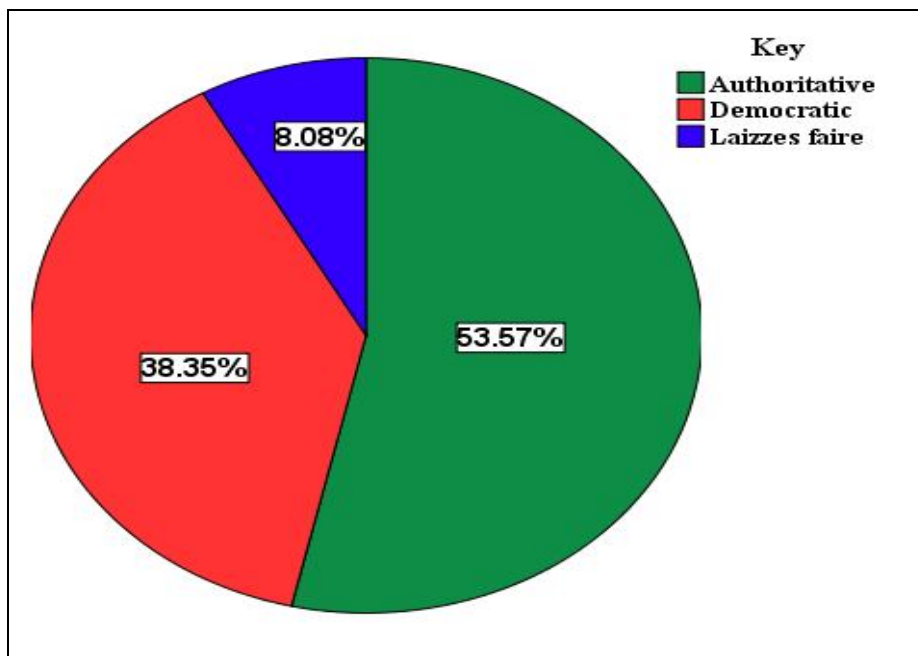


Figure 4.2 Leadsership Styles Commonly Practised

Perception on whether Leadership Style Influences Academic Staff Retention

Majority of the respondents (63.62 %) were of the opinion that leadership style used by the managers in the university influences academic staff retention. About 34% felt that

leadership style of the managers did not increase academic staff retention. When asked about the percentage of retention occasioned by the leadership style, majority 41.4 % (217) respondents indicated 1-25%. About 33.6% indicated 26-50%, 22.3% indicated 51-75%, and only 2.6% indicated 76-100%.

Written responses and interviews indicated that academic staff were not satisfied with leadership style practiced in the universities. The study established that consultation in decision making was not adequate. Other unfavorable aspects related to the leadership style that were cited included lack of adequate communication to the staff from the management, failure by managers to treat staff fairly and equitably, failure to listen and respond to staff issues promptly, bureaucracy and lack of competence in managerial skills of those in management. These findings on the unfavorable aspects on leadership style are consistent with the findings of Muindi (2011) who established that similar aspect such as lack of participatory decision making and failure to communicate to staff regularly especially on matters affecting them caused dissatisfaction among academic staff in the University of Nairobi.

The interviews with the Registrars indicated that leadership style was not cited as a reason for leaving by those who left. Further they showed that academic staff were involved in decision making through representation in various committees including full Council Committee where decisions on matters affecting their institutions are addressed. Staff were also informed of matters that were important to them through departmental meetings. The respondents suggested that the universities management establishes other

modes of involvement in decision making other than through committees system, impartiality in treatment of staff should be practiced always, leaders should listen and promptly respond to staff issues, and managerial training for leaders especially on people management should be offered regularly to enhance their skills.

4.5 Findings on the Role of Remuneration in Academic Staff Retention

Majority of the respondents (72.7%) disagreed that they were satisfied with the amount of salary they earned for their work, whereas 15% were satisfied (see Table 4.8). The respondents disagreed that their universities offer attractive allowances to the academic staff (68.5%). Most of the respondents disagreed (67.6%) that their university provides regular salary supplements. Further majority (72.5 %) disagreed that financial incentives such as bonus are allocated fairly and in a transparent manner. A high percentage of 74.6% indicated that they were not satisfied with the amount of salary they earn compared to other employees in other organizations with similar qualifications. These findings are consistent with the Public Universities Inspection Committee Report (GoK, 2006) which indicated that dissatisfaction with pay was one of the major causes of internal brain drain in Kenyan public universities.

Table 4.8: Remuneration

Statement	SD	D	N	A	S A	Index
	%	%	%	%	%	
The salary I earn is adequate to meet my desired needs and aspirations	34.7	38.0	12.3	12.8	2.2	57.7
I am satisfied with the amount of remuneration I receive for my work	35.7	42.3	11.2	9.4	1.5	67.1
The university offers attractive allowances to academic staff	24.0	44.5	12.9	16.3	2.2	50.0
Salary raises are regular	20.8	43.5	15.8	17.3	2.6	44.4
I am satisfied with the amount of salary I earn compared to other employees in other organizations	33.6	41.0	12.9	10.3	2.2	62.1
I am satisfied with the amount of salary I earn compared to academic staff in the university	23.9	36.5	16.3	20.2	3.0	37.2
Salary raises are rare	6.0	16.8	22.0	39.4	15.9	32.5
The university provides adequate part-time opportunities to supplement academic staff earnings	10.1	27.1	21.3	36.0	5.6	4.4
The remuneration in this university is competitive	18.2	42.3	19.7	17.9	1.9	40.7
Overall the financial rewards I receive from this university are fair	16.3	39.9	16.7	24.9	2.2	29.1
The university provides regular salary supplements in form of bonus	33.8	33.8	13.3	17.4	1.7	48.5
Financial incentives such as bonus are allocated fairly and in a transparent manner	39.7	32.8	16.4	8.6	2.6	61.3

SD= strongly disagree; D= disagree; N= neither agree nor disagree; A=Agree; SA= strongly agree

From Figure 4.3 majority, 42.3% and 35.7% who translate to 78.0% indicated that they were not satisfied with the amount of remuneration awarded in the universities for their work. This is consistent with the findings of Muindi (2011), who established that the academic staff in University of Nairobi were not satisfied with their remuneration. The interviews with the Registrars revealed that the basic salary and house allowance are defined at the national level and were paid through government capitation given to these institutions. Various allowances such as commuting, subsistence and responsibility among others were paid by the universities and the amounts to be paid were arrived at through Collective Bargaining resulting to Collective Bargaining Agreement.

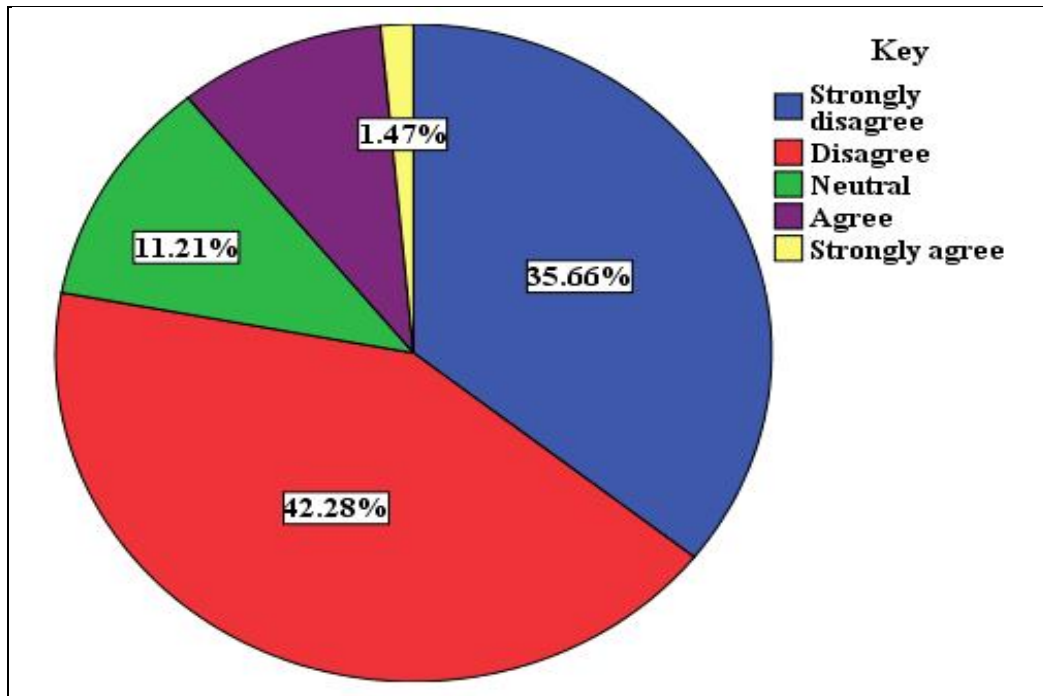


Figure 4.3 Rating of Satisfaction with remuneration

Perception whether Remuneration Increases Academic Staff Retention

Majority (51%) indicated that remuneration given to the academic staff in public universities did not increase their retention. Also a high percentage (81.7%) of the respondents indicated that remuneration was one of the main reasons why academic staff exited from Kenyan public universities. This tallies with earlier studies (Mwiria *et al.*, 2006; Waswa *et al.*, 2008; Kipkebut, 2010) which indicate that poor remuneration had contributed to departure of academic staff from their institutions in pursuit of reasonable remuneration.

The written responses and exit interviews indicated salaries were not competitive, were low below what was being offered in the public service and was not in cognizance of the cost of living. Commuting allowance was far below the traveling costs, and there was inequity in award of financial incentives. Book allowance was offered in only one university yet this was necessary to enable them buy books and journal articles for teaching. Financial incentives such as bonus from self sponsored programmes profits were not paid regularly and in other universities were not paid at all. The way the allocations were done was not transparent thus causing inequality. This is consistent with findings of Tetey (2006) who established that although African universities had done commendable job of generating extra income there were disparities between the strong income generating faculties and the weak ones which created disparities in terms of benefits allocation to the staff.

The Registrars of universities corroborated the findings that some of those who had left was due to remuneration and had left in search of higher salaries and allowances. The respondents suggested that for improvement on remuneration given to the academic staff, universities should pay competitive salaries by negotiating with the government to do so, harmonize salaries with the public service since colleagues with similar qualification are paid better salaries in the civil service, align salaries to the cost of living, and improve commuting allowance to address fuel costs, introduce book allowance in all the public universities to enable academic staff access teaching materials and journals, pay financial incentives regularly and in a transparent manner.

4.6 Findings on the Role of Training in Academic Staff Retention

Majority, (84%) agreed that the knowledge of their job acquired in their institutions would transfer easily to other organizations. This means that the academic staff can acquire jobs easily in equivalent organizations (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: The Role of Training in Academic Staff Retention

Statement	SD	D	N	A	S A	Index
	%	%	%	%	%	
The skills and knowledge learnt on the job would transfer easily to other similar organizations	3.1	5.5	7.0	61.3	23.0	75.7
Am satisfied with the training for my present job	5.4	16.3	16.8	47.1	14.4	39.8
Training opportunities are offered regularly	9.0	27.4	17.7	37.9	7.9	9.4
Financial support is regularly given to attend conferences and workshops	15.5	37.6	18.6	22.8	5.5	24.8
The university readily invests in professional development for academic staff	11.1	33.1	23.0	27.8	5.0	27.9
What is stated in the training policy is what is practiced	11.4	42.2	30.1	13.5	2.8	37.3
Fairness is practiced all the time in implementation of training policy	16.4	41.0	24.4	15.1	3.0	39.3
What is stated in the training policy is rarely practiced	6.8	17.9	27.7	38.8	8.9	36.6
University has good training opportunities compared to other organizations	10.4	28.2	24.5	30.1	6.9	1.6
Training opportunities outside the country influences staff to quit	9.6	21.0	19.9	38.9	10.5	18.8
Am satisfied with the training practices in this university	11.5	34.6	25.0	24.6	4.3	17.2

SD= strongly disagree; D= disagree; N= neither agree nor disagree; A=Agree; SA= strongly agree

A high percentage of respondents (61.5%) agreed that they were satisfied with training for their current job. This tally with the analysis of the respondents on academic qualifications since an average percentage (52.5) possessed PhD degree which is the main requirement for teaching in universities. On average, 53.4% disagreed that what is stated in the training policy is what is practiced always and a similar percentage (57.4%) disagreed that fairness is practiced all the time in implementation of training policy. This was in tandem with the findings of the Public Inspection Committee Report (GoK, 2006) which established that training practices and policy were not implemented in a fair and transparent manner.

A significant percentage of 49.4% agreed that training opportunities outside the country influenced academic staff to leave. These results echo the findings of Public Universities Inspection Board (GoK, 2006) that human resources development through staff training abroad had suffered greatly because many academic staff members did not return to their universities after long periods of study leave. This was corroborated through interviews for the Registrars of the seven public universities who indicated that those who went abroad for further studies especially to United States of America did not return.

Although majority were satisfied with the training practices in their institutions, on average (53.1%) disagreed that the financial support is regularly given to attend conferences and workshops to enhance professional development (see Figure 4.4).

Professional development through conferences and workshops for academic staff is crucial because it gives them forums to exchange ideas and keep abreast with current practices in their profession. This aligns with Tettey (2006) observation that professional development is the engine that keeps the universities true to their mandate as centers of ideas and innovation. Without efforts in this direction, intellectual capital can stagnate and the relevance of universities to society may diminish. Faculty members thrive on intellectual and collegial stimulation from their peers when they attend professional activities and national and international research meetings.

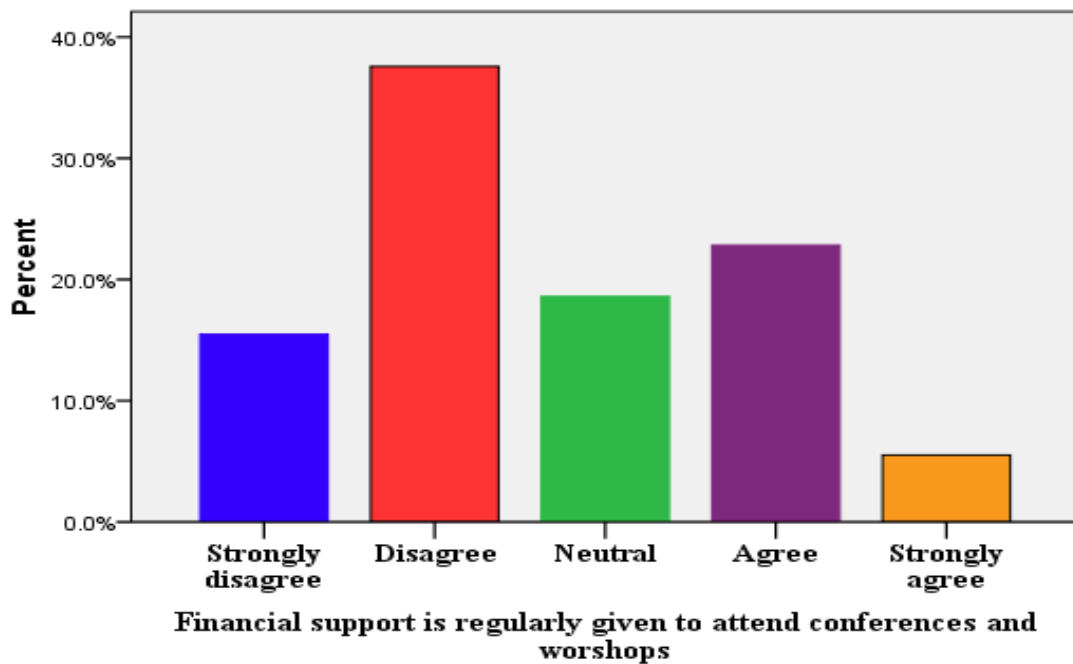


Figure 4.4 Regular Financial support is given to attend conferences and seminars

Perception whether Training Increases Academic Staff Retention

Most of the respondents 60 % agreed that training offered in the public universities increases academic staff retention whereas 40% disagreed. On their perception of the percentage increase resulting from training offered in the universities, 39.5 % indicated 26-50%. However majority of the respondents (52.9%) were negative that lack of training was one of the major reasons why academic staff left their institutions for employment elsewhere. This rating can be attributed to the finding that a majority (61.5%) agreed that they were satisfied with the training they had received for their present job in Table 4.9.

From the qualitative analysis, respondents indicated that they were satisfied with training opportunities for academic related courses. The registrars confirmed the findings that the universities supported training for the academic staff through fees waiver, study leave and in some cases they were sponsored to study in local universities. They further indicated that training was rarely cited as the reason why staff left for employment elsewhere because training opportunities were favourable in most of these institutions.

The written response and the exit questionnaire, however, revealed that the respondents were unhappy with partial implementation of training policy. They were also not satisfied with the financial support given to attend conferences and workshops on the basis that it was not adequate. This is consistent with the findings of Tettey (2006) and Berry (2010) who established that academic staff were not given adequate support to attend conferences and workshops yet these were the main forums to keep abreast with trends in

their professional career. In addition, the respondents observed that there was no process of assessing training needs annually and the staff appraisal was not linked to training which in practice, should inform training deficiencies. These findings tally with the findings of the Public Universities Inspection Board (GoK, 2006). The respondents suggested that universities should ensure equity in the implementation of the training policy, provide adequate support to attend conferences and workshops to enhance professional development, and staff appraisal to be linked to training so that gaps can easily be filled.

4.7 Findings on the Role of Promotion in Academic Staff Retention

A significant percentage (48.8%) disagreed that academic staff promotions are regular with the employer. A significant percentage of 58.4% disagreed that what is stated in the promotion criteria is practiced always (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: The Role of Promotion in Academic Staff Retention

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA	Index
	%	%	%	%	%	
Academic staff promotions are regular with my employer	16.8	32.0	21.1	26.4	3.7	18.7
There are good opportunities for promotion in my university	12.0	28.6	19.9	34.7	4.8	1.1
Promotions are always based on merit	14.5	38.4	21.7	21.2	4.3	27.4
The promotion criteria over emphasizes on publications at the expense of teaching and other duties	4.4	10.6	10.2	45.9	28.9	59.8
Internal promotion is more regular compared to external recruitment	9.8	21.2	25.6	37.5	5.9	32.0
There is a clear promotion policy/criteria	8.1	30.1	19.0	34.7	8.1	4.6
What is stated in promotion policy/criteria is what is practiced always	15.1	43.3	24.5	13.2	3.9	41.3
The promotion criteria over emphasizes on teaching at the expense of publications and other duties	25.7	47.6	13.9	9.0	3.9	60.4
Promotions are rarely based on merit	8.9	22.9	27.9	32.2	8.0	8.4
Am satisfied with the promotion practices	15.2	38.3	25.5	18.3	2.8	32.4
Employee upward career growth is important to this organization	8.6	17.4	23.1	31.3	19.6	24.9

SD= strongly disagree; D= disagree; N= neither agree nor disagree; A=Agree; SA= strongly agree

On average (52.9 %), the respondents disagreed that promotions are based on merit and 58.4% disagreed that what is stated in the promotion policy/criteria is what is practiced always. These findings are in tandem with Obwogi (2011) who established that majority of teaching staff felt that promotion was not based on merit. High percentage of 74.8% agreed that the promotion criteria over emphasizes on publications at the expense of teaching and other duties. This tallies with the findings that majority (72.3%) disagreed that the promotion criteria over emphasizes on teaching at the expense of publications and other duties (see Figure 4.5).

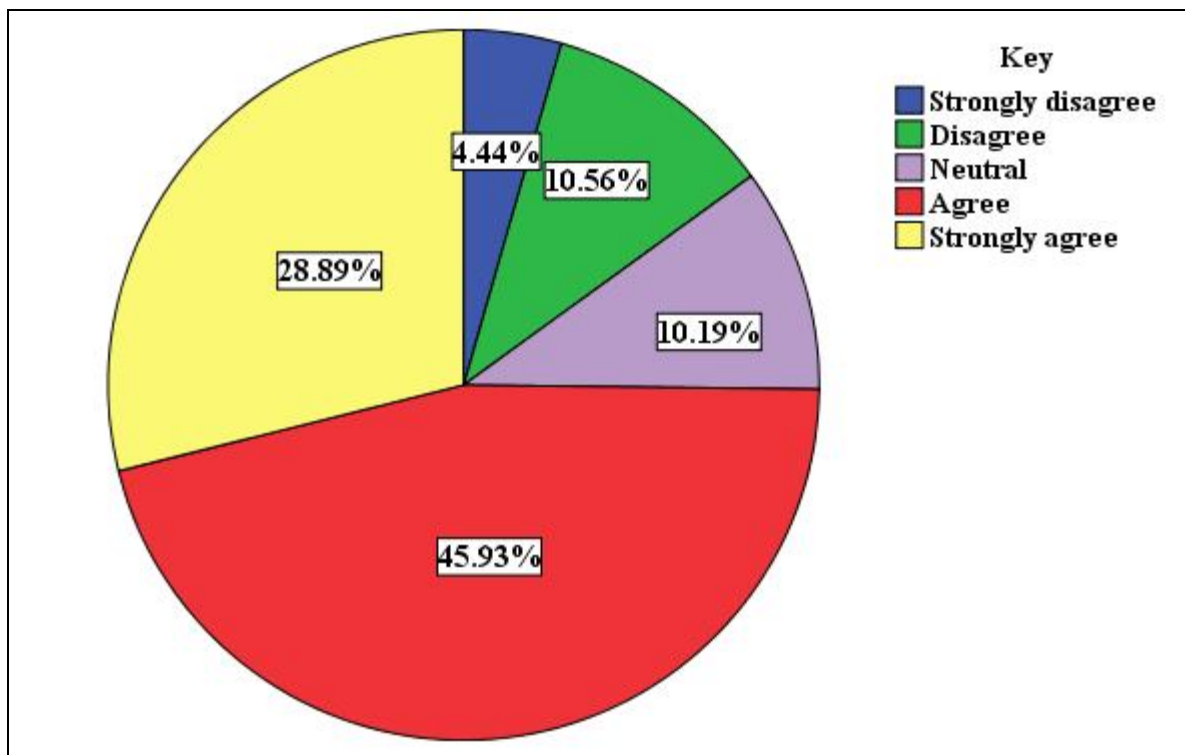


Figure 4.5 Rating of Overemphasis of Publications in the Promotion Criteria

From Figure 4.5, a majority 45.93% and 28.89% translating to 74.82% agreed that the promotion criteria overemphasizes on publications at the expense of other duties as a requirement for promotion as a result many of the academic staff remained in one grade for long and hence spurring intention to leave. In the written responses, the respondents indicated that publications were a major requirement yet this had become an uphill task due to increased workload with the self sponsored programmes and the double intake in 2011/2012 academic year. This is consistent with the findings of Kipkebut (2010) who established that publishing was a challenge for the academic staff due to increased workload and financial expenses involved.

About 73.3% disagreed that promotion criteria over emphasizes on teaching at the expense of publications and other duties and added in written responses that teaching workload and effectiveness was not considered during promotions. This is in tandem with Obwogi (2011) who recommended that university management should give cognizance to the weighting of teaching against research in promotions because it forms the primary duty of the academic staff.

On average (53.5%) the respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with the promotion practices in their institutions (see figure 4.6). These results tally with findings of Tettey (2006) who observed that the teaching staff were dissatisfied with promotion practices in their institutions.

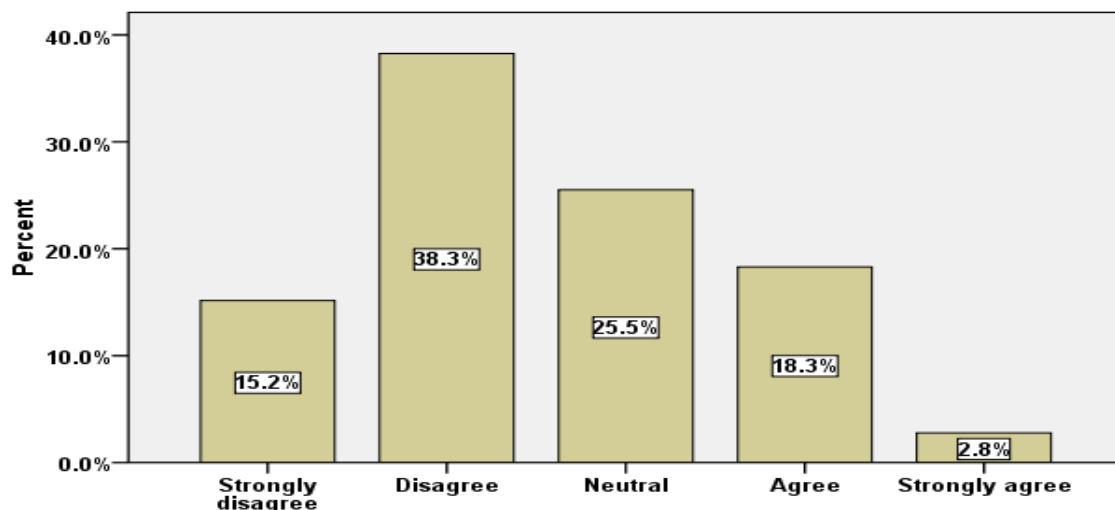


Figure 4.6 Rating of satisfaction with promotion practices

Perception whether Promotion Increases Academic Staff Retention

Most of the respondents (60 %) agreed that promotion and promotional practices in the public universities increases academic staff retention whereas 35.9% disagreed. On their perception of the percentage increase resulting from promotion practices in the universities 39.4 % indicated 26-50%. A very high percentage (84%) indicated that lack of adequate promotion was one of the major reasons why academic staff left their institutions for employment elsewhere.

These findings were corroborated by the findings of the qualitative analysis where Registrars of the seven public universities indicated that promotion was one of the main reasons why academic staff left. The key finding was that most of these institutions had

promotion guidelines either in form of criteria, career progression or policy. However the respondents indicated that this was not always adhered to. Also, there were other aspects of promotion practices that were unfavorable which included promotions were not regular; promotions were not based on merit; promotion criteria was not balanced as it leaned towards publications at the expense of other important duties such as teaching, mentoring and workload; and internal promotions were not always considered before external appointments.

The qualitative analysis also established that promotions were tied to establishments and this prevented deserving staff from being promoted. This is consistent to findings of Waswa *et,al.*,(2008) who established that the link of promotion to establishment was denying deserving academic staff upward mobility. Further, the respondents indicated that the whole of promotion procedures were bureaucratic and hence caused unnecessary delays which led to staff leaving and the promotion practice of ring fencing was unfavorable because it was causing inequity.

4.8 Findings on Staff Retention

The measures of staff retention are intention to stay and intention to leave. On average (51.8%) the respondents indicated that they planned to work at their present job as long as possible and a significant percentage of 40.9% indicated that they would hate to quit their current job (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11: Staff Retention Measures –Intention to Leave and Intention to Stay

Statement	SD %	D %	N %	A %	S A %	Index
I plan to work at my present job as long as possible	10.5	16.2	21.4	37.8	14.0	25.1
I am actively searching for an alternative	11.1	25.0	22.6	30.8	10.4	5.1
I would hate to quit this job	11.9	29.0	27.0	21.9	10.2	8.8
As soon as possible I will leave	16.1	26.2	26.4	22.2	9.2	10.9
I am in this university for lack of an alternative employer	6.4	7.5	29.5	38.8	17.8	42.7

From table 4.11, a substantial percentage (41.2%) indicated that they were actively searching for an alternative and hence had intention to leave. Similarly, on average (56.6%) indicated they were in their current institutions due to lack of alternative employment implying that they had turnover intentions if opportunities were available.

Perception of Rate of Academic Staff Retention

When asked about their perception of the rate of academic staff retention in their institutions, 18.0 % rated retention in their institutions to be between 1-25%. A significant percentage of respondents (49.3%) rated the staff retention in their institutions to be between 26-50%. 29.1% rated it to be between 51-75% and a minimal percentage of 3.6 % rated it to be between 76 - 100%. This rating indicates that there were retention issues since in the absence of retention problem majority would have indicated 76-100% but this was not the case (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Perception on Rate of Staff Retention

Statement	1-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	Total
Rate of academic staff retention	18.0	49.3	29.1	3.6	100.0
Overall effect of leadership style, remuneration, training and promotion	15.0	30.6	39.1	15.4	100.0

When asked about their perception of overall effect of leadership style, remuneration, training and promotion on academic staff retention, 15% rated the overall effect to be between 1-25%. 30.6% rated the overall effect to be between 26-50%, 39.1% indicated 51-75% and 15.4% indicated the overall effect of the independent variables on staff retention to be between 76-100%. This implies that respondents felt that the independent variables of the study had impact on staff retention in their institutions.

Rating of Importance of Independent Variables in Deciding to Leave

The respondents were asked to rank in order of importance the independent variables in their decision to leave. About 7.9% indicated that leadership style would not be important at all, about 20.0% indicated that it would be of little importance, 42.2% felt that it would be important, and 29.9 % indicated that leadership style would be of critical importance in their decision to leave (see Table 4.13).

Table 4.13: Rating of Importance of Independent Variables in Deciding to Leave

Determinant	Not important at all	Little importance	Important	Critically important	Total
	%	%	%	%	%
Leadership style	7.9	20.0	42.2	29.9	100.0
Remuneration	2.3	3.9	24.8	69.0	100.0
Training	5.3	16.4	49.1	29.1	100.0
Promotion	2.4	8.1	25.5	64.0	100.0

Therefore, generally, leadership style was not rated highly in the decision to leave since none of the categories had 50%. However the 42.2% who felt that leadership style would be important in their decision to leave represent a significant percentage. Only 2.3% indicated that remuneration would not be important at all in their decision to leave. Similarly, a small percentage of 3.9% indicated that remuneration would be of little importance. A significant percentage 24.8% indicated that it would be an important factor in their decision to leave and a majority of 69.0% indicated that remuneration would be critically important in their decision to leave.

From this rating, it is evident that remuneration would play a critical role in deciding whether to leave among the academic staff. A small percentage 5.3% indicated that training would not be important in their decision to leave. About 16.4% indicated that training would be of little importance, 49.1% indicated that training would be important and about 29.1% indicated that training would be critically important in their decision to

leave. These results indicated that generally the rating was low meaning that training would not play a critical role in their decision to leave. A small number 2.4% indicated that promotion would not be important in their decision to leave. About 8.1% indicated that promotion would be of little importance, 25.5% indicated that promotion would be important and a high percentage of 64.0 % indicated that promotion would be critically important in their decision to leave. These results align with findings from qualitative analysis where remuneration and promotion were cited by the respondents as dissatisfying and major contributors to turnovers and turnover intentions in public universities.

The study established from written responses and from exit questionnaire that staff retention was not given prominence. This was exemplified by the fact that only two out of the seven universities conducted exit interviews. Also, only one university had developed a retention policy yet the respondents felt that this was necessary in the current competitive environment. The respondents felt that the public universities were like training grounds after which the staff move to newly created colleges to seek for promotion since the promotion criteria in these colleges is more flexible. The Registrars confirmed that majority of academic staff who had left joined other public universities particularly the newly created constituent colleges. A few cases joined private sector and a minority did not return after the completion of their studies abroad especially those who went to study in the United States of America.

4.9 Inferential Analysis

This section presents the findings on test of reliability, aggregation of variables, correlation analysis for each university and for all universities, multiple regression analysis on institution basis and for all universities.

1. Test of Reliability and Internal consistency

The basis of interpreting the reliability of the scale in the current study was Cronbach's alpha. The alpha can take any value from zero (no internal consistency) to one (complete internal consistency). As a rule of the thumb, acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70. However Cronbach's alpha of as low as 0.50 is acceptable (Kipkebut, 2010). Cronbach's reliability value for each of the variables was calculated. The alpha values of all variables were above 0.70 (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.14: Summary of Cronbach's alpha Reliability Coefficient

Determinant	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Leadership style	10	.920
Remuneration	11	.884
Training	10	.863
Promotion	10	.817
Intention to leave	4	.837

Leadership style had alpha of 0.920, Remuneration had 0.884, training had 0.863, promotion had 0.817 and intention to leave had 0.837. This indicates strong internal

consistency among measures of variable items. This implies that respondents who tended to select high scores for one item were likely to select high scores for others. Similarly, those who select low scores for one item are likely to select low scores for others. The data collection instrument was therefore reliable and acceptable for the purposes of the study. This enhances the ability to predict outcomes using the scores and justifies the aggregation of the arithmetic mean.

2. Aggregation of Variables

The set of items that measured each variable was aggregated by computing the average. However, the one negatively worded item in each set that had been included to control guesswork was excluded. The minimum and maximum were indicated which in this case refers to the maximum and minimum scores given to each of the four independent variables (see Table 4.15).

Table 4.15: Descriptive Statistics of Aggregated Variables

Determinant	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership (X1)	547	1.00	5.00	3.0039	.86616
Remuneration (X2)	546	1.00	5.00	2.3141	.73869
Training (X3)	546	1.00	5.00	2.9958	.72941
Promotion (X4)	546	1.00	4.70	2.8785	.67749
Intention to leave	547	1.00	5.00	2.9131	.98336

Leadership style has a mean of 3.00, remuneration has a mean of 2.3, training has a mean of 2.9 and promotion has a mean of 2.8. Comparing the means of the variables, leadership had higher rating than the other factors, meaning was rated more favourably than the other variables. Remuneration had a mean of 2.3 which is below three. This means that remuneration variable was rated lowest showing the dissatisfaction with remuneration in general among the respondents since 2.3 is within the disagree scale. This is consistent with the findings in Table 4. 8, where majority, (72.7%) disagreed that they were satisfied with the amount of salary earned for their work.

Training had a mean of 2.9 and promotion had a mean of 2.8 and hence was less than three. This is in tandem with the findings in table 4.10 that shows that on average, (53.5) of the respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with promotion practices in their universities and a high percentage of 84% indicated that lack of promotion was one of the major reasons why academic staff left their institutions for employment elsewhere. Staff retention was measured using intention to leave and intention to stay. However, intention to leave is the inverse of intention to stay and hence the items for both were combined to use only one dimension intention to leave. Intention to leave had a mean of 2.9. The aggregation of the items therefore was not only crucial in establishing the mean but it enabled the researcher to carry out further statistical analysis.

4.10 Relationship between Variables – Correlation Analysis

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), correlation technique is used to analyze the degree of relationship between two variables. The computation of a correlation coefficient yields a statistic that ranges from -1 to +1. This statistic is called a correlation coefficient (r) which indicates the relationship between the two variables and the bigger the correlation the stronger the coefficient between the two variables being compared (Carver *et.al.*, 2009). The direction of the relationship is also important in that if it is positive (+) it means that there is a positive relationship between the two variables and this means that when one variable increases, the other variable increases or when one variable decreases the other variable also decreases. A negative relationship (-) means that as one variable decreases, the other variable increase and vice versa and hence an inverse relationship. The score 1 indicates perfect correlation, which is found only when a variable is correlated with itself. 0 indicates no correlation at all.

The researcher carried out correlation analysis between the variables of the study using Pearson correlation coefficient. Correlation Coefficient was used to test whether there existed interdependency between independent variables and also whether the independent variables were related to the dependent variable intention to leave on institution basis. This section outlines the correlation analysis for each of the seven fully fledged universities in this study.

1. Correlations Analysis for Egerton University

From the correlation matrix, all the independent variables had a negative but significant relationship with the dependent variable (see Table 4.16). Leadership, remuneration, training and promotion) had an inverse relationship with intention to leave ($r = -0.451, p < 0.001$; $r = -0.404, p < 0.001$; $r = -0.544, p < 0.001$ and $r = -0.648, p < 0.001$) respectively at 0.01 level of significance.

Table 4.16: Correlation Matrix for Egerton University

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intent to Leave	Leadership Style (X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to Leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.451**	-.404**	-.544**	-.648**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.002	.000	.000
	n	55	55	55	55	55
Leadership Style(X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.451**	1	.650**	.730**	.638**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000	.000	.000
	n	55	55	55	55	55
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.404**	.650**	1	.532**	.548**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000		.000	.000
	n	55	55	55	55	55
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.544**	.730**	.532**	1	.782**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	n	55	55	55	55	55
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.648**	.638**	.548**	.782**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	n	55	55	55	55	55

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

When correlated among themselves, all were found to be associated. Remuneration was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.650, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Training was positively and significantly related to leadership ($r = 0.730, p < 0.001$) and to remuneration ($r = 0.532, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 level of significance. Promotion was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.638, p < 0.001$), to remuneration ($r = 0.548, p < 0.001$), and also to training ($r = 0.782, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Evidently, the relationship between promotion and intention to leave had the highest coefficient ($r = -0.648, p < 0.001$) with the lowest being remuneration and intention to leave ($r = -0.404, p < 0.001$).

Therefore, from this results, all the variables have a role to play in intention leave and conversely on intention to stay. Further, the interdependence between the variables is also an indicator that all the variables explain intention to leave at Egerton University. It is noted that there is a strong significant relationship between promotion and training which is normally follows because additional training often leads to promotion.

2. Correlations Analysis for JKUAT

When the independent variables are correlated with intention to leave the findings indicate that all the variables were inversely related to intention to leave in JKUAT. Leadership style had a significant relationship with intention to leave ($r = -0.467, p < 0.001$). Intention to leave was also significantly related to remuneration ($r = -0.361, p = 0.002$) and to promotion ($r = 0.413, p < 0.001$). Intention to leave had a

weak but significant relationship with training ($r = -0.249, p = 0.035$) at 0.05 significance level. When correlation analysis was carried out among the independent variables they were all positively correlated (see Table 4.17).

Table 4.17: Correlation Matrix for JKUAT

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intention to leave	Leadership Style(X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to Leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.467**	-.361**	-.249*	-.413**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.002	.035	.000
	n	72	72	72	72	72
Leadership Style(X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.467**	1	.665**	.521**	.630**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	n	72	73	73	73	72
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.361**	.665**	1	.523**	.633**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000		.000	.000
	n	72	73	73	73	72
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.249*	.521**	.523**	1	.675**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035	.000	.000		.000
	n	72	73	73	73	72
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.413**	.630**	.633**	.675**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	n	72	72	72	72	72

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

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

Remuneration had a positive significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.665, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Training was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.521, p < 0.001$) and to remuneration ($r = 0.523, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Promotion was positively related to leadership style ($r = 0.630, p < 0.001$), to remuneration ($r = 0.633, p < 0.001$) and to training ($r = 0.675, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

From the correlation analysis the inverse relationship of the independent variables with the dependent variable was moderate with the highest being the inverse relationship with leadership style ($r = -0.467, p < 0.001$) and the lowest being the relationship with training ($r = -0.249, p = 0.035$) at 0.01 and 0.05 significance level respectively. Therefore enhancement of leadership style will contribute substantially to the decrease of the intention to leave of academic staff members at JKUAT. However each of the independent variables has a role to play in decreasing the intention to leave.

3. Correlations Analysis for Kenyatta University

Correlation analysis of all the independent variables when correlated with the dependent variable, intention to leave indicated a significant negative relationship with intention to leave for Kenyatta University. Intention to leave was negatively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = -0.373, p < 0.001$), to remuneration ($r = -0.398, p < 0.001$), to training ($r = -0.374, p < 0.001$), and to promotion ($r = -0.295, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level (see Table 4.18).

Table 4.18: Correlations Matrix for Kenyatta University

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intention to leave	Leadership Style(X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.373**	-.398**	-.374**	-.295**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.002
	n	113	113	113	112	113
Leadership Style(X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.373**	1	.519**	.526**	.532**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	n	113	114	113	112	113
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.398**	.519**	1	.450**	.420**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	n	113	113	113	112	113
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.374**	.526**	.450**	1	.505**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	n	112	112	112	112	112
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.295**	.532**	.420**	.505**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000	.000	
	n	113	113	113	112	113

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

The independent variables were positively and significantly related to each other in Kenyatta University. Remuneration and leadership style were positively related ($r = 0.519, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 level of significance. Training was positively related to

leadership style ($r = 0.526, p < 0.001$) and to remuneration ($r = 0.450, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 level of significance. Promotion was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.532, p < 0.001$), to remuneration ($r = 0.420, p < 0.001$) and to training ($r = 0.505, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 level of significance. It is evident from the results that all the independent variables had a significant positive relationship. However the relationship between intention to leave and the independent variables though significant was weak with the strongest being remuneration with coefficient $r = -0.398$ and the weakest promotion having a coefficient $r = -0.295$. The relationship with the independent variables between themselves was strong with the weakest being between promotion and remuneration with coefficient $r = 0.420$. The relationship between promotion and leadership style was strongest with coefficient $r = 0.532$. The positive relationship among this independent variable implies that when one variable increases the other also increases and hence for the university to enhance its retention all the variables play a role. In addition, to reduce intention to leave of the academic staff, Kenyatta University may require addressing all the independent variable but also address remuneration issues more than leadership style, training and promotion.

4. Correlations Analysis for Maseno University

When the independent variables were correlated with Intention to leave, the results indicated a negative and significant relationship for Maseno University. Intention to leave was significantly related to leadership style ($r = -0.435, p = 0.004$), to remuneration ($r = -0.439, p = 0.003$), to training ($r = -0.489, p = 0.001$) and to promotion ($r = -0.345, p = 0.025$) (see Table 4.19).

Table 4.19: Correlations Matrix for Maseno University

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intention to leave	Leadership Style(X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.435**	-.439**	-.489**	-.345*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004	.003	.001	.025
	n	43	43	43	43	42
Leadership Style (X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.435**	1	.582**	.670**	.651**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004		.000	.000	.000
	n	43	43	43	43	42
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.439**	.582**	1	.677**	.754**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000		.000	.000
	n	43	43	43	43	42
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.489**	.670**	.677**	1	.733**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000		.000
	n	43	43	43	43	42
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.345*	.651**	.754**	.733**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025	.000	.000	.000	
	n	42	42	42	42	42

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

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

All independent variables were positively and significantly related. Remuneration had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.582, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Training was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.670, p < 0.001$) and to remuneration ($r = 0.677, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 level of significance. Promotion was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.651, p < 0.001$), to remuneration ($0.754, p < 0.001$) and to training ($r = 0.733, p < 0.001$).

Form these findings, it is evident that training had the strongest negative and significant relationship with intention to leave with a coefficient $r = -0.489$. Therefore, for Maseno University to enhance retention, training requires more attention than the other variables. On the other hand, promotion had the weakest negative relationship with intention to leave at $r = -0.345$. The relationship between the independent variables was positive and significant and also strong, with the strongest relationship being between promotion and remuneration with a coefficient of $r = 0.754$ and the weakest being remuneration and leadership style $r = 0.582$. This indicates a strong positive relationship and hence for optimal retention in Maseno University, all factors need attention.

5. Correlations Analysis for MMUST

When the independent variables were correlated with the dependent variable; intention to leave, the findings indicate that some of the variables were inversely and significantly related to intention to leave while others did not have a significant relationship for MMUST (in Table 4.20).

Table 4.20: Correlations Matrix for MMUST

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intention to leave	Leadership Style(X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.685**	-.143	-.319*	-.377*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.379	.045	.017
	n	40	40	40	40	40
Leadership Style(X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.685**	1	.421**	.610**	.604**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.007	.000	.000
	n	40	40	40	40	40
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.143	.421**	1	.264	.361*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.379	.007		.100	.022
	n	40	40	40	40	40
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.319*	.610**	.264	1	.593**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.000	.100		.000
	n	40	40	40	40	40
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.377*	.604**	.361*	.593**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.000	.022	.000	
	n	40	40	40	40	40

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

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

Intention to leave had a significant negative relationship with leadership style ($r = -0.685, p < 0.001$), with training ($r = -0.319, p = 0.045$), with promotion ($r = -0.377, p = 0.017$) at 0.01 significance level. Intention to leave was related to remuneration ($r = -0.143, p = 0.379$) but the relationship was not significant in MMUST.

Correlation among the independent variables indicated positive relation between all the variables. Remuneration and leadership style had a positive and significant relationship ($r = 0.421, p = 0.007$) significant at 0.01 significance level. Training had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.610, p < 0.001$). Training was related to remuneration but the relationship was not significant ($r = 0.264, p = 0.100$). Promotion had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.604, p = 0.001$) with remuneration ($r = 0.361, p = 0.022$) and with training ($r = 0.593, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

It is noted that in this university, the relationship between intention to leave and remuneration was not significant since $p - value = 0.379$ and also relationship between training and remuneration was not significant since $p - value = 0.100$. Hence all the other variables except remuneration can be used to decrease intention to leave and hence enhance retention at MMUST.

6. Correlations Matrix for Moi University

Correlation analysis of all the independent variables with the dependent variable intention to leave indicated negative relationship in Moi University (see Table 4.21).

Table 4.21: Correlations Matrix for Moi University

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intention to leave	Leadership Style(X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.486**	-.497**	-.237	-.489**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.056	.000
	n	67	67	67	66	66
Leadership Style(X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.486**	1	.562**	.180	.452**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.149	.000
	n	67	67	67	66	66
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.497**	.562**	1	.396**	.620**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.001	.000
	n	67	67	67	66	66
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.237	.180	.396**	1	.435**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	.149	.001		.000
	n	66	66	66	66	66
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.489**	.452**	.620**	.435**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	n	66	66	66	66	66

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

Intention to leave had a negative and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = -0.486, p < 0.001$), with remuneration ($r = -0.497, p < 0.001$) and with promotion ($r = -0.489, p = 0.001$). The relationship between training and intention to leave was not significant ($r = -0.237, p = 0.56$). When the independent variables were correlated with each other, remuneration had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.562, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Training and remuneration were positively and significantly correlated ($r = 0.396, p = 0.001$). However, the relationship between training and leadership style was not significant ($r = 0.180, p = 0.149$). Promotion had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.452, p < 0.001$), with remuneration ($r = 0.620, p < 0.001$), and with training ($r = 0.435, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

In this university, the relationship between intention to leave and training was not significant since $p - value = 0.056$ was greater than the significance level. Therefore all other variables can be used to enhance retention except training in Moi University. Also relationship between leadership style and training was not significant since the p value ($p - value = 0.149$) was greater than the significance level. Training therefore does not influence intention to leave or stay in this university.

7. Correlations Analysis for University of Nairobi

When the independent variables were correlated with the dependent variable intention to leave, the results indicated a negative and significant relationship for University of Nairobi (see Table 4.22).

Table 4.22: Correlations Matrix for UoN

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intention to leave	Leadership Style(X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.638**	-.494**	-.489**	-.606**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	n	154	154	154	154	154
Leadership Style (X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.638**	1	.672**	.735**	.686**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	n	154	155	155	155	155
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.494**	.672**	1	.624**	.594**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	n	154	155	155	155	155
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.489**	.735**	.624**	1	.738**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	n	154	155	155	155	155
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.606**	.686**	.594**	.738**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	n	154	155	155	155	155

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

The dependent variable intention to leave had a negative and significant relationship with leadership-style ($r = -0.638, p < 0.001$). It also had a negative relationship with

remuneration ($r = -0.494, p < 0.001$), with training ($r = -0.489, p < 0.001$) and with promotion ($r = -0.606, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

The independent variables were all positively and significantly related in this university. Remuneration had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.672, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Training was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.735, p < 0.001$) and with remuneration ($r = 0.624, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Promotion was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.686, p < 0.001$), with remuneration ($r = 0.594, p < 0.001$) and with training ($r = 0.738, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

Intention to leave had a strong negative relationship with leadership style with a coefficient $r = -0.638$ and with promotion $r = -0.606$. Training contributes the least in the intention to leave at University of Nairobi ($r = 0.489$). All the independent variables had strong positive relationships hence all can explain intention to leave in Nairobi University. However, intention to leave can be decreased substantially by enhancing leadership style and promotion respectively.

8. General Correlation Analysis for all Universities

When staff retention using intention to leave was correlated with the independent variables in the study, the results indicated a negative and significant relationship in the analysis for all universities (see Table 4.23).

Table 4.23: General Correlation Matrix for all universities

Variable	Pearson Correlation	Intention to leave	Leadership Style(X1)	Remuneration (X2)	Training (X3)	Promotion (X4)
Intention to leave	Pearson Correlation	1	-.512**	-.397**	-.402**	-.480**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	n	544	544	544	542	542
Leadership Style (X1)	Pearson Correlation	-.512**	1	.589**	.615**	.608**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	n	544	547	546	544	543
Remuneration (X2)	Pearson Correlation	-.397**	.589**	1	.526**	.558**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	n	544	546	546	544	543
Training (X3)	Pearson Correlation	-.402**	.615**	.526**	1	.643**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	n	542	544	544	544	542
Promotion (X4)	Pearson Correlation	-.480**	.608**	.558**	.643**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	n	542	543	543	542	543

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

Intention to leave had a negative and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = -0.512, p < 0.001$), with remuneration ($r = -0.397, p < 0.001$), with training ($r = -0.402, p < 0.001$) and with promotion ($r = -0.480, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. This analysis indicates that leadership style has stronger relationship with intention to leave than the other variables since it had the highest negative coefficient ($r = -0.512$), followed by promotion with a coefficient $r = -0.480$. Remuneration contributes the least in the intention to leave with a coefficient of $r = -0.397$.

The independent variables were also tested to establish their interdependency and the results show a positive and significant relationship. Remuneration had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.589, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Training had a positive and significant relationship with leadership style ($r = 0.615, p < 0.001$) and with remuneration ($r = 0.526, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level. Promotion was positively and significantly related to leadership style ($r = 0.608, p < 0.001$), to remuneration ($r = 0.558, p < 0.001$) and to training ($r = 0.643, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

From these findings the null hypothesis that correlation coefficient is equal to zero is rejected since all the variables correlated hence there exists a significant relationship. These results imply that further statistical analysis can be carried out such as regression analysis. Further, the results indicate that while some of the factors may have higher

influence on retention, a balance between all these factors is necessary for optimal retention of the academic staff. The correlation results also rule out the problem of multicollinearity which arises in regression analysis in that none of the independent variables were highly correlated. A common rule of thumb is that correlations among the independent variables of between -0.70 and 0.70 do not have difficulties for regression analysis (Mason *et, al.*, 1999).

From the correlation results of university by university, it is evident that all the independent variables had a positive relationship with one another with all these relationships having a *p – value* = 0.001 significant at 0.01 significance level except in Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology where training and remuneration were not significantly related ($r = 0.264, p = 0.100$ and Moi University where training and leadership style were not significantly related ($r = 0.180, p = 0.149$). The results therefore indicate that in most of the public institutions, the predictor variables (Leadership style, remuneration, training, and promotion) are related to academic staff retention. Further, the correlation results indicate that while some of the factors may have higher input in decreasing the intention to leave a balance of all the factors is necessary for optimal retention of the academic staff.

It is also evident that all the independent variables have significant relationship with academic staff retention measured using intention to leave except in Moi University where training and intention to leave are not significantly related ($r = -0.237, p = 0.56$) and also Masinde Muliro where remuneration and intention to leave are not

significantly related ($r = -0.143, p = 0.379$). All have an inverse relationship which means that when each of the variable increases the intention to leave decreases. This implies that if these universities can enhance leadership style, remuneration, training and promotion practices intention to leave among the academic staff will decrease and hence they will be able to retain the staff.

4.11 Multiple Regression Analysis by University

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), although a correlation coefficient indicates the relationship between variables, it does not imply any casual relationship between variables and hence the need for further statistical analysis such as regression analysis to help establish specific nature of the relationships. In this section, multiple regression analysis is presented for each university followed by the analysis for all the universities. The aim of this analysis was to identify those variables simultaneously associated with a dependent variable and to estimate the separate and distinct influence of each variable on the dependent variable.

Multiple regression analysis explains or predicts variation in a dependent variable because of the independent variables and this is assessed using the coefficient of determination known as R square and the larger the coefficient, the larger the effect of the independent variable upon the dependent variable. The R Square can range from 0.000 to 1.000, with 1.000 showing a perfect fit that indicates that each point is on the line (Carver *et.al.*, 2009). The coefficients or beta weights for each variable allows the researcher to

compare the relative importance of each independent variable. In this study the unstandardized coefficients and standardized coefficients are given for the multiple regression equations. However discussions are based on the standardized coefficients.

The general model was subjected to testing using multiple regression (stepwise method) institution by institution to establish whether each university had its own predictors of intention to leave.

The model is presented algebraically as follows:

$$\text{Intention to leave} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{Leadership style Index}) + \beta_2(\text{remuneration Index}) + \beta_3(\text{ training index}) + \beta_4(\text{ promotion index}) + \varepsilon$$

where:- Y is the dependent variable, academic staff retention measured using intention to leave

β_0 is the constant

β_i is the coefficient of each of the independent variables for $i = 1,2,3,4,$

ε is the error term

The findings of the multiple regression analysis for this model on university basis are as follows:

1. Multiple Regression Results for Egerton University

Linear regression analysis was carried out using multiple regression model (stepwise) and the whole model was valid and significant since ($F(1,53) = 38.355, p < 0.001$), R square for the model is 0.420 representing 42 % predicting power.

Using the unstandardized coefficients the following equation applies:

$$Y = 5.552 - 0.856 X_4$$

Where; y is the intention to leave, 5.552 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis and X_4 is promotion index

The equation of the fitted model using the standardized coefficients is: $Y = -0.648 X_4$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_4 is promotion index. It also means that an increase of one unit of X_4 decreases Y by 0.648. This means that promotion is significantly and negatively influencing intention to leave in Egerton University (see Appendix V, Model 4)

2. Multiple Regression Results for JKUAT

The multiple regression models (stepwise) was used for the analysis and it was found to be valid and significant as a whole since ($F(1, 70) = 19.516, p < 0.001$), R square for the model is 0.218 implying 21.8% predicting power.

Using unstandardized coefficients the fitted model equation is: $Y = 4.461 - 0.551 X_1$

Where; y is the intention to leave. 4.461 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis and X_1 is leadership style index

The fitted model equation using standardized coefficients is: $Y = -0.467 X_1$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_1 is leadership style index

This implies that an increase in one unit of X_1 decreases Y by 0.467

Therefore leadership style is negatively and significantly influencing intention to leave in JKUAT (see Appendix V, Model 4).

3. Multiple Regression Results for Kenyatta University

The multiple regression model (stepwise) as a whole was valid and significant since ($F(2,109) = 14.351, p < 0.001$, R square for the model is 0.208 representing 20.8 % predicting power.

The equation of the fitted model using unstandardized coefficients is

$$Y = 4.980 - 0.480 X_2 - 0.357 X_3$$

Where; y is the intention to leave, 4.980 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis. X_2 is remuneration index and X_3 is training index.

The equation of the fitted model using standardized coefficients is:

$$Y = -0.293 X_2 - 0.242 X_3$$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_2 is remuneration index and X_3 is training index

This means that remuneration and training are negatively and significantly influencing intention to leave in Kenyatta University. It also means that an increase of one unit of X_2 decreases Y by 0.293 and an increase in X_3 decreases Y by 0.242 (see Appendix V, Model 4).

4. Multiple Regression Results for Maseno University

Multiple Linear regression analysis was carried out using stepwise method. The whole model was valid and significant since $(F (1, 40) = 8.910, p < 0.001)$. The R square for the fitted model is 0.182 which indicates 18. 2% predicting power.

The equation using unstandardized coefficients is:

$$Y = - 4.338 - 0.507 X_3$$

Where; y is the intention to leave, 4.338 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis and X_3 is training index

The fitted regression model equation using standardized coefficients is

$$Y = -0.427 X_3$$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_3 is training index .This means training is significantly and negatively influencing intention to leave at Maseno University. It also means that an increase of one unit of X_3 decrease Y by 0.427 (see Appendix V Model 4).

5. Multiple Regression Results for MMUST

The multiple regression model (stepwise) as a whole was valid and significant since $(F (1, 38) = 33.540, p < 0.001)$, R square for the model is 0.469 representing 46.9 % predicting power.

The fitted model equation using unstandardized coefficients is: $Y = 5.703 - 0.877 X_1$

Where; y is the intention to leave, 5.703 is the constant, the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis and X_1 is leadership style index.

The equation using standardized coefficients is: $Y = -0.685 X_1$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_1 is leadership style index

This implies that an increase in one unit of X_1 decreases Y by 0.685

Therefore leadership style is significantly and negatively influencing intention to leave in Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (see Appendix V Model 4).

6. Multiple Regression Results for Moi University

The multiple regression model (stepwise) as a whole was valid and significant since ($F(2,63) = 13.551, p < 0.001$, R square for the model is 0.301 representing 30.1 % predicting power.

The fitted model equation using unstandardized coefficients

$$Y = 4.478 - 0.362 X_1 - 0.368 X_2$$

Where; y is the intention to leave, 4.478 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis. X_1 is leadership style index and X_2 is remuneration index.

The equation using standardized coefficients is: $Y = -0.290X_1 - 0.331X_2$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_1 is leadership style index and X_2 is remuneration index. This means that an increase of one unit of X_1 decreases Y by 0.290 and an increase in one unit of X_2 decrease Y by

0.331. Therefore, leadership style and remuneration are significantly and negatively influencing intention to leave in Moi University (see Appendix V Model 4).

7. Multiple Regression Results for University of Nairobi

Multiple regression analysis was carried out using stepwise method for UON. The whole model was valid and significant since ($F(2, 151) = 64.641, p < 0.001$). The R square for the fitted model is 0.461 which indicates 46.1% predicting power.

The fitted model equation using unstandardized coefficients is;

$Y = 5.390 - 0.406X_4 - 0.401X_1$ Where; y is the intention to leave, 5.390 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis. X_4 is promotion index and X_1 is leadership style index.

The fitted model equation using standardized coefficients is: $Y = -0.318X_4 - 0.420X_1$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_4 is promotion index and X_1 is leadership style index.

This means that an increase of one unit of X_4 decreases Y by 0.318 and an increase in X_1 decrease Y by 0.420. It also means leadership style and promotions are significantly and negatively influencing intention to leave in University of Nairobi.

It is noted that all the independent variables are predictors of dependent variable intention to leave in university by university analysis although they differ per every institution as indicated in Table 4.24. However, leadership style as a predictor dominates in four universities; JKUAT, MMUST, Moi University and UoN (see Appendix V Model 4).

Table 4.24: Regression Model Summary all universities (Standardized coefficients)

	β_1	β_2	β_3	β_4	R^2
UNIVERSITY	Leadership style	Remuneration	Training	Promotion	
Egerton	-	-	-	- 0.648	0.420
JKUAT	- 0.467	-	-	-	0.218
KU	-	- 0.293	- 0.242	-	0.208
Maseno	-	-	- 0.427	-	0.182
MMUST	- 0.685	-	-	-	0.469
MOI	- 0.290	- 0.331	-	-	0.301
UoN	- 0.318	-	-	- 0.420	0.461

8. Multiple Regression Analysis for all Universities

The dependent variable of the proposed model was intention to leave and the independent variables of the study were leadership style, remuneration, training and promotion. The model is presented algebraically as follows:

$$\text{Intention to leave} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{leadership style Index}) + \beta_2(\text{remuneration Index}) + \beta_3(\text{training index}) + \beta_4(\text{promotion index}) + \varepsilon$$

Where:- Y is the dependent variable, academic staff retention measured using intention to leave, β_0 is constant

β_i is the coefficient of each of the independent variables for $i = 1, 2, 3, 4,$

ε is the error term

The model was tested to find out if it was valid in predicting the determinants of academic staff retention for all the universities together. The null hypothesis for the test asserted that the independent variables have no influence on intention to leave of the academic staff. Multiple regression analysis (enter method) was used to test the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The model analysis of variance indicates that it is valid and significant since ($F(4,536) = 59.568, p < 0.001$) hence there is a significant linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The analysis is indicated in Appendix V, Model 1. The summary of the results of model testing is given in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Summary of General Multiple Regression Analysis for all universities

Dependent variable	Predictor variable	Standardized coefficient (β)	P - Value	R^2
Intention to leave	Leadership style (X_1)	- 0.310	0.000	0.308
	Remuneration(X_2)	- 0.071	0.134	
	Training(X_3)	- 0.014	0.777	
	Promotion (X_4)	- 0.244	0.000	

0.05 significance level

From Table 4.25, the regression model equation fitted using unstandardized coefficients is; $Y = 10.532 - 0.703 X_1 - 0.188 X_2 - 0.039 X_3 - 0.708 X_4$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

10.532 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis

X₁ is leadership style index

X₂ is remuneration index

X₃ is training index

X₄ is promotion index

The regression model equation using standardized coefficients is;

$Y = -0.310 X_1 - 0.071 X_2 - 0.014 X_3 - 0.244 X_4$ Where; y is the intention to leave.

X₁ is leadership style index

X₂ is remuneration index

X₃ is training index

X₄ is promotion

From the Table 4.25 it is noted that leadership style has a significant relationship with intention to leave at 0.01 significance level. Remuneration has a negative effect on intention to leave ($\beta = -0.071$). However the relationship is not significant since $p - value = 0.134$ which is greater than the significance level. Similarly the relationship between training and intention to leave is negative ($\beta = -0.014$) however this is not significant since $p - value = 0.777$ which is greater than the significance level. The results indicate that leadership style negatively and significantly influences intention to leave ($\beta = -0.310; p < 0.001$). Similarly, promotion negatively and significantly influences intent to leave ($\beta = -0.244; p < 0.001$).

The predicting power of the model depicted by $R^2 = 0.308$ implying that 30.8 % of the variation in the dependent variable intention to leave is explained by the all the variables in the equation. It is noted that from the standardized coefficients and the t- values that leadership style (t- value = - 0.653) contributed more as a predictor than promotion (t- value = - 4.742).

The results of multiple regression analysis (stepwise) analysis differ per university. In Egerton University, the predictors of intention to leave is promotion ($\beta = -0.648$; $p < 0.001$) with an R square of 0.420, the other variables were eliminated from the equation. For JKUAT the predictor of intention to leave is leadership style ($\beta = -0.467$; $p < 0.001$) and the R Square is 0.218. For Kenyatta University two variables emerged as predictors of intention to leave. Remuneration which was a stronger predictor ($\beta = -0.293$; $p < 0.001$) and training ($\beta = -0.242$; $p < 0.001$) with an R square of 0.208.

In Maseno University, the predictor of intention to leave is training ($\beta = -0.427$; $p < 0.001$) with an R square of 0.182. For Masinde Muliro the predictor of intention to leave is leadership style ($\beta = -0.685$; $p < 0.001$) with an R square of 0.469. Moi University has two predictors of intention to leave which are leadership style ($\beta = -0.290$; $p < 0.001$) and remuneration ($\beta = -0.331$; $p < 0.001$) with an R Square of 0.301. Similarly, University of Nairobi has two predictors of intention to leave which are Leadership style ($\beta = -0.420$; $p < 0.001$) and promotion ($\beta = -0.318$; $p < 0.001$) with an R square of 0.461. In general analysis for all universities the predictors of

intention to leave are leadership style ($\beta = -0.310$; $p < 0.001$) and promotion ($\beta = -0.244$; $p < 0.001$) with an R square of 0.308.

As noted from the results, the leadership style which is a significant predictor of intention to leave in general model analysis for all universities was consistent as predictors in four institutions which are JKUAT, MMUST, Moi University and University of Nairobi and was not significant for Kenyatta University, Egerton University and Maseno University. Promotion which is a predictor of intention to leave in the general analysis is also a significant predictor in University of Nairobi and Egerton University only. Remuneration which is not significant as a predictor in the general analysis for all universities is significant predictor for Kenyatta University and Moi University. Similarly training which is not a significant predictor in the general analysis is a significant predictor in Kenyatta University and Maseno University. These findings therefore, show that all the independent variables are significant predictors of academic staff retention using intention to leave as the dependent variable although the significance vary across the seven universities and hence one may be applicable as predictor for a certain university and not for the other university. Also the predicting power of the model varies as depicted by the R square in each case.

One explanation of the inconsistencies in the findings between the general multiple regression analysis and the analysis based on the universities can be found in the sample sizes. Thrush (2012) observes that analysis is more precise when it is based on a large

sample and argues the bigger the sample the better the results. This is evident in the case of University of Nairobi which had a high sample (155 respondents) in that the findings tally with the findings in the general analysis for all universities.

These findings, although differing from institution to the other, are pointers to the issues each institution may need to emphasize on to address intention to leave of the academic staff members because studies such as (Chew, 2004 ; Sutherland, 2004) indicate that in most cases intention to leave lead to actual turnover.

4.12 Moderation Analysis for Personal Characteristics on Academic Staff retention

Moderator variables influence the relationship between dependent variable and other independent variables. The direction and the magnitude of the relationship between the dependant variable and the independent variable is dependent on the value of a moderator (Berry, 2010).

1. Moderation Effect of Age on Academic Staff Retention

In this study, age was hypothesized to be a moderator affecting the relationship between intention to leave and the independent variables (leadership style, remuneration, training, and promotion). For purpose of testing moderating effect age was given in two categories (0 = below 40 yrs and 1= 40 and above). From figure 4.7 it is noted the rating of the respondents on the variables of the study is almost similar. For example the rating of remuneration was the lowest with those below 40 years as well as those above 40 years at

2.323 and 2.325 respectively. The rating of those below 40 years on training was higher at 3.104 indicating that training was more favourable for this category. On the dependent variable intention to leave, the rating is slightly lower for those above forty years hence their intention to leave is higher than those below forty years.

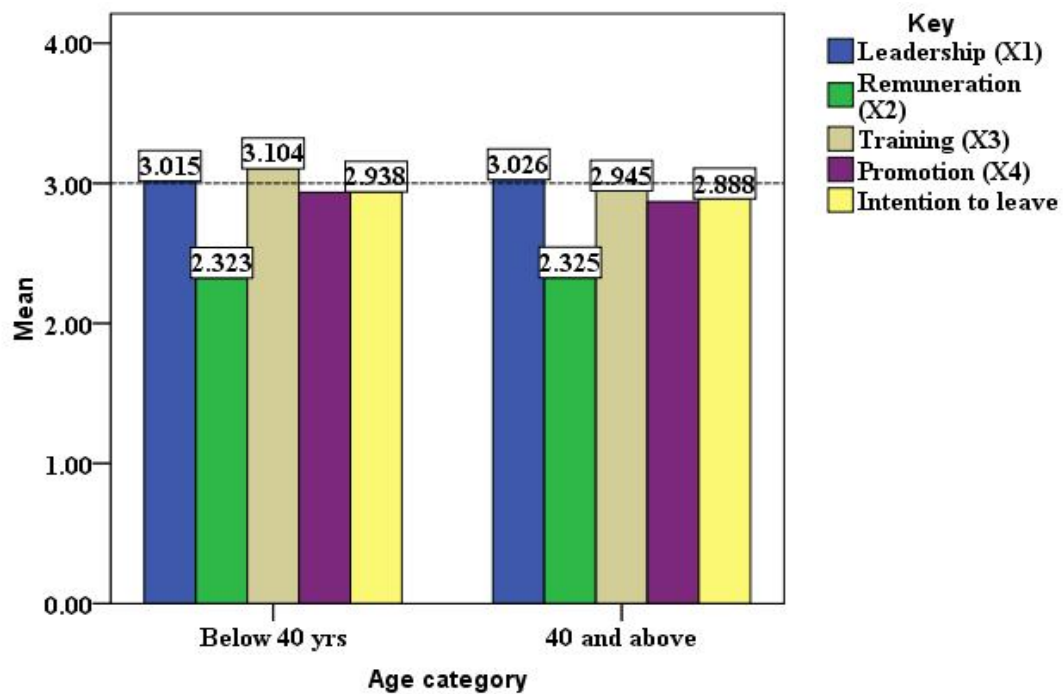


Figure 4.7: Rating of Variables based on Age category

Although from the ratings all variables are almost similar, it was necessary to carry further statistical analysis to establish whether age category influenced the relationship between independent variables and intention to leave and hence multiple regression analysis was carried out (see Appendix V, Model 2).

The model used to test the moderating effect of age and education level is depicted in Chapter 3 (3.9.4). Multiple regression analysis (Stepwise) was used to test the moderating effect of age where all the independent and moderating variables were entered in the model. The model analysis of variance indicates that it is valid and significant as a whole ($F(2,529) = 117.530, p < 0.001$). R square remains the same as in the general model ($R^2 = 0.308$) hence acceptance of the hypothesis $H_0: \beta_{iz} = 0$ which implies that age does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between leadership style, remuneration, training, promotion and staff retention. This means that all moderating variables entered in the stepwise procedure were eliminated.

The fitted regression model equation based on unstandardized coefficients is;

$$Y = 10.496 - 0.807 X_1 - 0.775 X_4$$

Where; Y is the intention to leave.

10.496 is constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis

X_1 is Leadership style index

X_4 is promotion index

The equation using standardized coefficients is; $Y = -0.353 X_1 - 0.266 X_4$

X_1 is Leadership style index

X_4 is promotion index

This means that an increase in one unit of X_1 decreases Y by 0.353 and an increase in one unit of X_4 decreases Y by 0.266. Therefore the resulting equation has no moderating term hence, leadership style and promotion remained as the predictors of intention to leave just like is the case in the general model even in the presence of age in the testing model.

2. Moderation Effect of Education Level on Academic Staff Retention

In this study, education level was hypothesized to be a moderator and multiple regression analysis (Stepwise) was used to test the moderating effect of education level on the relationship between the independent variables (leadership style, remuneration, training, and promotion) and dependent variable (intention to leave). For purpose of testing moderating effect education was given in two categories (0 = Below PhD and 1= PhD).

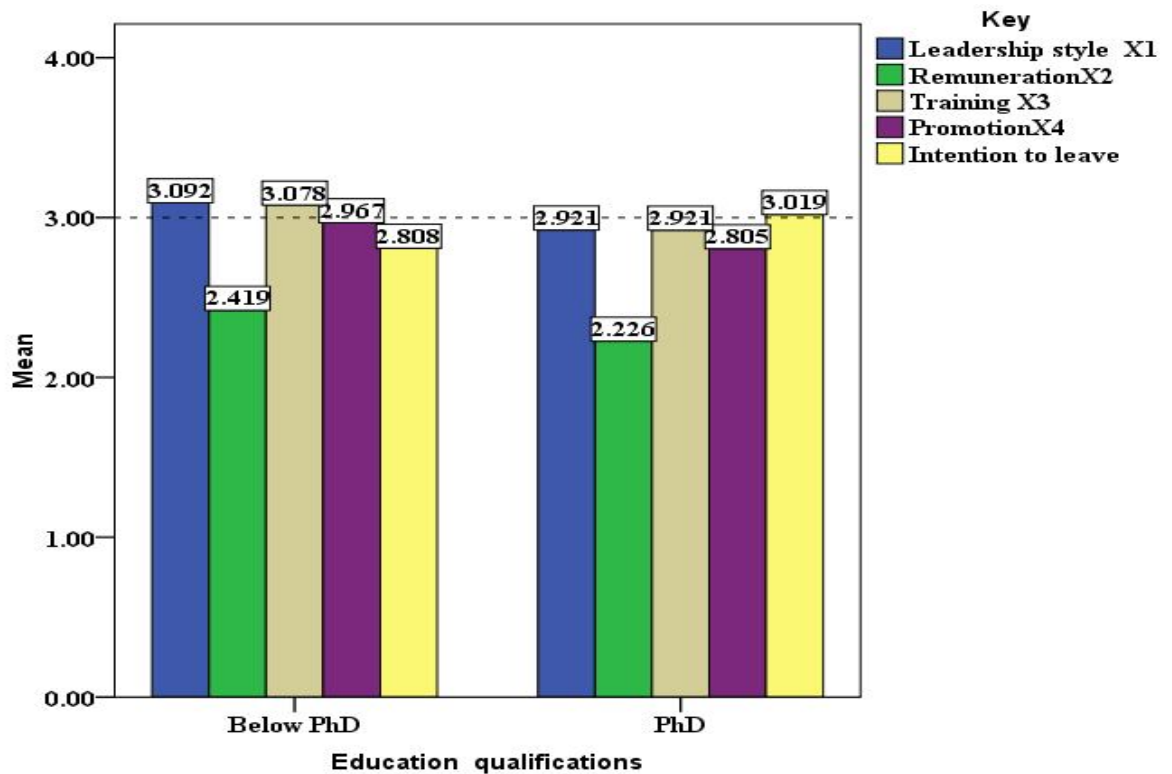


Figure 4.8: Rating of Variables Based on Education

From figure 4.8 it is noted that leadership style, training and intention to leave were rated slightly above the mean rate of three. The lowest rating for both groups was remuneration

with those with PhD rating it lower at 2.226. and those without PhD rating it on average at 2.419. Promotion was also rated lower at 2.805 by those with the PhDs indicating that this group was more dissatisfied with promotion than those without PhD who rated it at 2.967. Training was more favourable for those below 40 years as their rating was above 3. Those without PhD indicated a higher intention to leave with a mean of 2.808 than those with PhD at 3.019. Further statistical testing was necessary to establish whether the differences shown by the means were significant (see Appendix V, Model 3).

Multiple regression analysis (stepwise) was engaged to establish the moderating effect of education level on the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. The model analysis of variance indicates that it is valid and significant as a whole ($F(2,532) = 116.422, p < 0.001$). $R^2 = 0.304$ is slightly lower than in the general analysis ($R^2 = 0.304$) but the change is minimal. The hypothesis: $H_0: \beta_{iz} = 0$ which implies that education does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between leadership style, remuneration, training, promotion and staff retention is accepted.

The fitted regression model equation using unstandardised coefficients is as follows:

$$Y = 10.452 - 0.773 X_1 - 0.795 X_4$$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

10.452 is the constant the place where the regression equation crosses the Y-axis

X_1 is leadership style index

X_4 is promotion index

The equation using standardized coefficients is: $Y = -0.340 (X_1) - 0.275 (X_4)$

Where; y is the intention to leave.

X_1 is Leadership style index,

X_4 is promotion index.

This means that an increase in one unit of X_1 decreases Y by 0.340 and an increase in one unit of X_4 decreases Y by 0.275. Leadership style and promotion remained as the predictors of intention to leave like the case in the general model even in the presence of education level as a moderator in the model.

4. 13. Discussion of the Findings

This section discusses the research findings presented in the previous section based on the objectives and hypotheses of the study as follows:

4.13. 1. Influence of Leadership Style on Academic Staff Retention

To measure this objective correlation analysis and regression analysis were carried out both on institution basis and a general analysis for all the universities.

Correlation analysis at the institution basis shows that leadership style was positively and significantly related to remuneration, to training, and to promotion except, in Moi University where the relationship with training was not significant. In the general analysis in respect to all universities, leadership style was strongly and positively related with all the other determinants. It had a strong positive relationship with remuneration

($r = 0.589, p < 0.001$), with training ($r = 0.615, p < 0.001$) and with promotion ($r = 0.608, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

In the correlation analysis on institution basis leadership style was negatively and significantly related to intention to leave in Egerton University ($r = -0.451, p < 0.001$), in JKUAT ($r = -0.467, p < 0.001$), in Kenyatta University ($r = -0.313, p < 0.001$), in Maseno University ($r = -0.435, p = 0.004$), in MMUST ($r = 0.685, p = 0.001$), Moi University ($r = -0.486, p < 0.001$) and UoN ($r = -0.638, p < 0.001$). As can be deduced from these findings leadership style had a strong negative influence on intention to leave at Nairobi University and MMUST and a moderate influence on intention to leave in the rest of the universities.

In the general correlation analysis the finding was that leadership style had a negative and significant relationship with intention to leave ($r = -0.512, p < 0.001$). This finding indicates that the more the leadership style is favourable to the academic staff the less likely their intention to leave. In the institution by institution regression analysis leadership style contributed to intention to leave in JKUAT ($\beta = -0.467, p < 0.001$) in MMUST ($\beta = -0.685, p < 0.001$) in Moi University ($\beta = -0.290, p < 0.001$) and UoN ($\beta = -0.318, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level but not for Egerton University, Kenyatta University and Maseno University. Further leadership style was a stronger predictor of intention to leave at MMUST. In the general regression model

analysis the results indicated that leadership style was significantly related to intention to leave ($\beta = -0.310, P < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level.

The multiple regression analysis findings indicate that leadership style in public universities was contributing to intention to leave by the academic staff. These findings are supported by the descriptive analysis where majority (56%) indicated that the leadership style commonly practiced in their institutions was autocratic and hence was unfavourable to academic staff retention. These findings are further validated by qualitative data which highlighted unfavourable aspects of leadership style that the staff were not satisfied with. It is worth noting that these findings therefore, confirm the hypothesized relationship that leadership style influences academic staff retention in Kenyan Public Universities. Leadership style is therefore a determinant of academic staff retention and this is important for the population because with their high level of education and the current democratic space espoused by the new constitution, leadership behaviour is critical to their professional career.

These findings are consistent with Gwavuya (2011), who established that leadership had direct influences on lecturer's turnover intentions in Zimbabwe. Further, the quality of leadership impacted on turnover decision. They are also in tandem with Waleed (2011) who established that leadership style influences intention to leave since when leadership is perceived to be positive, there is decreased chance of voluntary turnover.

Locally, these findings are consistent with observations of Kipkebut (2010) who strongly argue that leadership aspects such as involvement of employees in decision making and keeping them informed about what is happening in their universities and departments sends a message to them that they are valued and trusted. The findings are also in tandem with Waswa *et.al.*,(2008), who observed that autocratic leadership was prevalent within the Public university system and was exemplified in poor communication which in turn was the cause of industrial actions in these institutions. These finding therefore confirm the widely held view that employees leave leaders or managers and not organization and underscore the role of leaders in academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya. These leaders can create an environment that encourages the academic staff to remain through participative leadership style.

4. 13. 2. The Influence of Remuneration and Academic Staff Retention

In establishing the influence of remuneration on academic staff retention using correlation analysis, a comparison of the seven universities reveals different findings. Correlation analysis on institution basis indicates that remuneration is positively and significantly related to leadership style, to training and to promotion. Remuneration is negatively and significantly related to intention to leave in Egerton University ($r = -0.404, p < 0.001$), in JKUAT ($r = -0.361, p = 0.002$), in Kenyatta University ($r = -0.398, p < 0.001$), in Maseno university ($r = -0.439, p = 0.003$), in Moi University ($r = -0.497, p < 0.001$) and in UoN ($r = -0.494, p = 0.001$), at 0.01 significance level. This means that the more remuneration is favourable the less the intention to leave among the academic staff in public universities. The relationship

between remuneration and intention to leave at Masinde Muliro University is not significant ($r = -0.143, p = 0.379$) since the p-value was greater than 0.05 significance level.

In the correlation analysis for all universities remuneration was positively and significantly related to all the other determinants indicating the interdependence between these variables. The results also show that remuneration had a negative significant relationship with intention to leave ($r = -0.397, p < 0.001$) however, the relationship is moderate. In the institution by institution regression analysis remuneration was found to be a predictor of intention to leave in Kenyatta University ($\beta = -0.293, p < 0.001$) and also Moi University ($\beta = -0.331, p < 0.001$) at 0.01 significance level but not for the rest of the universities. In the general regression model analysis, the results indicated that remuneration was related to intention to leave but the relationship was not significant ($\beta = -0.071, p = 0.134$).

The explanation on why remuneration was a significant predictor for some universities and not for others is because although salary and house allowance as components of remuneration are defined at the national level and hence are uniform across the universities, qualitative data from the Registrars in charge of administration in these institutions confirmed that, allowances such as commuting allowance and subsistence allowance are different across the universities. This can be explained in part by the fact that each university negotiates through Collective Bargaining on allowances other than

the house allowances and for this, some universities were ahead in negotiated allowances than others and this was confirmed by the Registrars in these universities.

Similarly, other financial incentives differed across the universities as corroborated from qualitative data, some universities did not offer bonus from self sponsored programmes to the staff instead, all the funds were directed to the university wide development project but while this is a noble goal, Dockel (2003) argues that salary alone provides insufficient motivation for many employees, but monetary compensation in form of bonuses and profit sharing gives feedback to the employees on their performance and is one of the most effective retention strategies. However, in the general analysis, the influence of remuneration on intention to leave was not significant. This therefore implies that remuneration is not a determinant of academic staff retention and hence the hypothesized relationship was not supported.

The hypothesis that remuneration influences staff retention was based on literature and hence the results showing contrary were unexpected. Consistent with this result however, is a study by Rosser (2004), which established that faculty members do not leave due to pay offers but due to other organisational factors such as work environment and better research facilities. Another explanation may be derived from the common held belief that teaching is like a vocation and hence the academic staff remain in their professions because of the interest in their job. This aligns with Tettey (2006) who established that the academic staff remained in their professions despite the uncompetitive remuneration

in the African universities because of their interest and passion for the job. Locally, a study by Udi (2010) established that remuneration did not predict turnover intentions of employees in service organisations.

An additional explanation for the research findings that remuneration is not a predictor of staff retention can be found in the relationship between promotion and remuneration which was found to be significant and positive in correlation analysis and also, relationship between leadership style and promotion which was positive and significant. When employees are promoted, together with the new title are salary and additional perks and hence remuneration goes up. Therefore, indirectly, remuneration is addressed through promotion. Leadership style of organisation influences remuneration and hence in the presence of leadership style in the equation, remuneration is addressed indirectly. However, the research objective was achieved because although the hypothesis testing revealed that remuneration was not a predictor of intention to leave, the interviews and written responses brought out the issues related to remuneration that were a cause of dissatisfaction among the staff.

4. 13.3 Influence of Training on Academic Staff Retention

This objective was assessed using correlation analysis and regression analysis on institution basis and general analysis for all universities. At the institution level the correlation results indicate that training is positively and significantly related with leaderships style, training and promotion, except at Moi University where training and

leadership style are not significantly related ($r = -0.180, p = 0.149$). Further in the general analysis for all universities training has a positive and significant relationship with all the other determinants.

The results of correlation of training with intention to leave indicate that training had a negative and significant relationship at Egerton University ($r = -0.544, p < 0.001$), in JKUAT ($r = -0.249, p = 0.035$), in Kenyatta University ($r = -0.374, p < 0.001$) in Maseno ($r = -0.489, p < 0.001$) at MMUST ($r = -0.319, p = 0.045$ and in UoN ($r = 0.489, p < 0.001$). The relationship between intention to leave and training was not significant at Moi University ($r = -0.237, p = 0.056$).

From these results it can be deduced that training had a strong relationship with intention to leave at Egerton University and moderate influence on intention to leave in the rest of the universities. Further, influence of training on intention to leave in Maseno University had similar strength with the relationship of training and intention to leave in UoN. In the general correlation analysis for all universities training had a significant and negative relationship with intention to leave ($r = -0.402, p < 0.001$).

Regression analysis results at the institution level indicate that training contributed to intention to leave at Kenyatta University ($\beta = -0.242, p < 0.001$) and also Maseno University ($\beta = -0.427, p < 0.001$) but not for the rest of the universities. Further, training was a stronger predictor of intention to leave at Maseno University. In

establishing the influence of training on academic staff retention, a comparison of the seven universities revealed different findings. The explanation could be found in the practices which varied per institutions. For instance, some of the universities were not ready to release their staff for full study leave and the staff did not feel they were being fully supported by their employer because they still continued to balance their huge workloads and their studies which was a challenge. However, in the general analysis, it was established that the influence of training on intention to leave was not significant ($\beta = -0.014, p = 0.777$) at 0.05 significance level hence in the presence of leadership style, remuneration and promotion, training does not influence academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.

The findings based on the general analysis were unexpected because there are many studies that indicate that training is a predictor of intention to leave and they were the basis of the hypothesized relationship. The explanation could be because the public universities are supportive of training especially academic related courses and hence staff would not want to leave to look for training elsewhere. This is evident in the findings on descriptive analysis where majority agreed that they were satisfied with the training for their current job in their respective institutions. The interviews confirmed that the academic staff were supported in their training in terms of study leave and fee waiver. This argument is supported by Rodrigues (2008) who observes that while training may have no impact on job mobility, training that is wholly paid by the individual is likely to be a prelude to job search. In contrast, when employers pay for training the negative

relationship to job mobility is observed as employees are more likely to stay. This is the case in the public universities where academic related training expense is paid by the employer. The relationship between promotion and training which in this study is positive and significant provides another explanation is. One cannot acquire promotion unless they have undergone some training especially with the lower ranks from Teaching Assistants to Assistant lecturer. Therefore, indirectly in away, training is covered through promotion which has been found to be a predictor of intention to leave in this study. The hypothesized relationship was not supported, however the unfavourable aspects related to training that came out in the interviews and written responses are a pointer that there are training aspects that need to be addressed since they were a cause of dissatisfaction among the staff.

4. 13.4. Influence of Promotion on Academic Staff Retention

To establish the influence of promotion on academic staff retention correlation analysis and multiple regression were engaged. Correlation analysis on institution basis shows that promotion is positively and significantly related to leadership style, to remuneration, and training. It was also positively related to all these determinants in the general analysis for all universities. This shows the interdependence of the independent variables of this study. The results of correlation of promotion with intention to leave on institutions basis indicate that promotion is negatively and significantly related to intention to leave at Egerton University ($r = -0.648, p < 0.001$), at JKUAT ($r = -0.413, p < 0.001$) at Kenyatta University ($r = -0.295, p = 0.002$), at Maseno ($r = -0.345, p = 0.025$),

in MMUST ($r = -0.377, p = 0.017$), in Moi University ($r = 0.489, p < 0.001$) and in UoN ($r = -0.606, p < 0.001$).

As can be deduced from these results promotion had a strong inverse relationship with intention to leave at Egerton University and UoN. It had a moderate relationship with intention to leave ($r = -0.480, p < 0.001$). This shows that the more promotion practices are favourable the less the intention to leave among the academic staff in public universities. Regression analysis results at the institution level indicate that promotion contributed to intention to leave at Egerton University ($\beta = -0.648, p < 0.001$) and also UON ($\beta = -0.420, p < 0.001$) but not for the rest of the universities. The explanation for these differences is based on the promotion criteria and practices which differ across the universities. For example, it was established through qualitative data that every university had a promotion policy or criteria which was defined at university level, and although these institutions benchmark from each other the differences may arise in that, the requirements for example, as pertains to number of years of experience and the number of publications required to move to the next grade varies.

In the general regression model analysis the results indicated that promotion had a negative and significant relationship with intention to leave ($\beta = -0.244, p < 0.001$). This means that when promotion practices are not favourable, intention to leave increases among the academic staff. These findings therefore support the hypothesis that promotion influences academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya. The results are

validated by the descriptive statistics where on average (53.3%) indicated that they were not satisfied with the promotion practices in their universities.

The findings are consistent with Tettey (2006) who established that academic staff were dissatisfied with promotion practices in their universities. The findings are also consistent with Obwogi (2011) who established that promotion were not based on merit and that the whole process of internal appointment was bureaucratic which in turn influenced academic staff to leave. They are also consistent with Kipkebutt (2010) who established that promotion and promotional opportunities were predictors of commitment which enhanced intention to stay, conversely decreasing intention to leave of the employees in universities in Kenya. The findings are also consistent with Waswa *et.al.*,(2008) who established that promotion related issues were some of the grievances contributing to industrial action in public universities which in turn led to negative implications including turnover. The implication of these findings is that public universities should address promotion practices in order to enhance retention of academic staff.

4.13.5 Moderating Role of Personal Characteristics on Academic Staff Retention

In this section, the discussions of the findings of moderating effect of personal characteristics which in this study were age and education level as stated in the fifth objective are presented.

1. Moderating Effect of Age on Academic Staff Retention

For purposes of regression analysis, age was put in two categories of those below 40 years and 40 years and above based on literature. Pienaar *et.al.*, (2008) argue that the early career phases comprise of two stages namely, establishment and achievement and this period can extend up to age 40. This is because the dominant theme of early career, becoming established and making it, can maintain itself in one form or another for a full 15 years. 39 % of the respondents were below the age of 40 years while 61% were 40 years and above.

According to Berry (2010), age is a restraining factor keeping employee on the job and decreasing turnover intention. The study findings indicate that age has no moderating effect on intention to leave. The most likely explanation to these unexpected results is similar to Tetty (2006) findings that unlike before where the young academics were most likely to leave, turnover of academic staff was no longer confined to the young but the old were also leaving especially those in the decade prior to retirement as well. The reason for this was that quitting academia in good enough time and taking up positions that are better paying was more likely to enable them accumulate enough to ensure a more comfortable retirement. The findings are also consistent with the study of Amutuhair (2010) who established age did not influence intention to leave of the academic staff of Makerere University. These findings are also consistent with Zhou *et.al.*, (2004), who had hypothesized that age influenced intention to leave but established that age had no direct or indirect effects on faculty departure intentions.

Another explanation to these findings is based on the scenario in the current university landscape where private universities and constituent colleges are being opened regularly and all these require staff from professors to tutorial fellows which in itself indicates staff in different age groups. When these competitors advertise, the positions cut across different positions in the academia and in most cases, they draw staff from the fully-fledged public universities since they have better terms of service. The Registrars confirmed that majority of those who leave join the upcoming universities. In addition, the young who are most likely to leave according to literature, may not do so because from 40 years and below majority are building their career by pursuing masters and PhD degrees and after completion, they serve bonds that indicate they should not resign until they serve their institutions for a minimum of three years after completion of their training. The implication of these results is that retention strategies for academic staff in the public universities should be directed to staff in all the age groups.

2. Moderating effect of Education Level on Academic Staff Retention

For the purposes of this analysis, education level was put into two categories; those below PhD and those with PhD. This is based on the reasoning that this degree qualifies one to competently teach and supervise students at university level whereas, those without PhD are considered to be in training positions. From the descriptive analysis, it was established that 52% of the respondents possessed PhD degree while 48% were non PhD holders. This is indication that majority of the academic staff in the public universities possess PhD degree. This is a key finding compared with past findings. For

example, Tettey (2006) and Tettey (2009) established that there was a paucity of PhD holders in universities in Africa. This contradiction can be explained by the fact that there is emphasis of training locally and offers of fees waiver by the public universities to the academic staff in training positions is encouraging them to pursue studies with ease. Also, in most of these institutions, promotion to lecturer grade requires an employee to have a PhD certificate and hence the heightened acquisition of this degree.

The findings of Moderation analysis indicate that education level did not have an effect on the relationship between dependent variable (academic staff retention) and the independent variables (leadership style, remuneration, training and promotion). These findings were unexpected since the hypothesized relationship was based on literature. For instance, Kipkebut (2010) established that education is a positive predictor of intention to leave of employee in the university. The finding of this study are however, consistent with Zhou *et.al.*, (2004), who had hypothesised that possession of doctorate degree influenced intention to leave but established that having doctorate degree did influence faculty' intention to leave.

The main explanation that education is not a moderator is based on the current higher education environment where constituent colleges are being established regularly. Most of the academic staff that leave the fully fledged Kenyan public universities join these colleges because they have flexible appointment and promotion criterion where even those without PhDs are considered for higher positions. Also, these colleges are

employing those without and those with the PhD certificate as well. In addition, the implementation of performance contracting in universities entails setting targets on the number of students to graduate from Bachelors to PhD level and this has increased number of graduates at PhD level, majority of whom are academic staff members in these institutions. Therefore, for academic staff in public universities, education level does not influence their intention to leave. The implication of these results is that retention strategies for academic staff in the public universities should be directed to all academic staff regardless of their education level.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study as guided by specific objectives, research questions and hypotheses, conclusions reached based on the findings and recommendations for enhancing academic staff retention in public universities as well as recommendations for further research.

5.2 Summary

Retention of employees is crucial to the overall success of any organization. It reflects organizational health and effectiveness. Literature indicates that retention of the core employees can give an organization competitive advantage in this era of stiff competition. This study was anchored on the fundamental reasoning that academic staff are a critical resource for public universities and their retention is of paramount importance because of the role these institutions play in the development of the country.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to establish the determinants of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities. The specific objectives of the study were to determine the influence of leadership style on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities; to establish the influence of remuneration on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities; to determine the influence of training on academic staff

retention in Kenyan public universities; to establish the influence of promotion on academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities and to establish the moderating effect of personal characteristics (age and education level) on academic staff retention in public universities. Staff retention was measured using intention to leave.

In this research, survey design describing the phenomenon associated with the subject population was utilized in order to obtain information concerning the current phenomenon and where possible, to draw valid general conclusions from facts discussed. Further, survey design allows testing of relationship between variables and this was fundamental for this study. In order to achieve this objective, the study utilised both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The target population comprised of the academic staff members in public universities in Kenya totalling to 4967. Stratified random sampling using gender and designation was used in the first stage to ensure representation of the subgroups in these institutions. In the second stage, simple random sampling was used to arrive at the required sample of 10% of the target population which was 496 respondents, however, a total of 547 responded. In addition, a total of 71 responded to exit interview questionnaire, and seven Registrars in charge of Administration in the seven full fledged public universities were interviewed.

Data was collected using a questionnaire with assistance of research assistant in each of the seven fully fledged Kenyan public universities. This yielded a commendable response rate of 100%. The collected data was analysed using quantitative techniques, such as

descriptive statistics (response rate, measures of central tendency, measures of dispersion, frequencies and percentages), correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis using SPSS. Reliability and internal consistency of the measurement items were tested using Cronbach's alpha and all the variables attained value above 0.70 indicating that the measures were reliable. The qualitative data collected from the exit interviews, written responses and interview with the Registrars of the public universities was analysed based on themes and the findings were integrated with the quantitative findings.

Objective 1: Determine the Influence of Leadership Style on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public Universities

According to literature reviewed, leaders and their leadership style can help promote an organization and make it attractive to employees or they can cause high turnover. This underscores the fact that leaders are critically important in staff retention. Therefore, the study sought to find out if the leadership style influences academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya.

Descriptive analysis showed that majority 65% agreed that leadership contributes to the overall effectiveness of the organization which includes ability to retain staff. This supports the earlier argument that leaders have a pivotal role to play in staff retention. On average (56.4%) indicated that the leadership in their institutions does not respond to staff issues promptly and a significant percentage (46.9%) disagreed that staff were involved

in decision making compared to (33.1 %) agreed that staff were involved. Further a significant number (46.3%) disagreed that the leaders communicated regularly on matters important to them against (31.7%) who agreed that there was regular communication. In addition 56% indicated that the leadership style commonly practiced in their institutions was authoritative. From the qualitative findings, other issues in regard to leadership included inequitable treatment, lack of regular communication, failure to respond to staff issues promptly and lack of competency in management skills since some had no managerial background.

From the correlation analysis on university basis leadership was negatively and significantly related to intention to leave in all the seven public universities. Leadership style also had a strong positive and significant relationship with remuneration, with training, and with promotion which is indicative of the interdependence between the determinants. From all universities correlation analysis the general finding was that leadership style had a negative and significant relationship with intention to leave. This implies that the more favourable leadership style becomes the less the intention to leave among the academic staff. In the institution by institution regression analysis leadership style was found to be a predictor of academic staff retention in JKUAT in MMUST, in Moi University and UoN but not for the rest of the universities. In the general regression model analysis the results indicated that leadership style was negatively and significantly related to intention to leave.

Therefore, these findings show that the research which sought to establish the influence of leadership style on academic staff retention was achieved because it established that leadership style influences academic staff retention. It also established through qualitative data that, employees preferred leadership style that was more participatory and involves staff in decision making, practices regular communication, responds to staff matters promptly, is impartial always, as well as competent.

Objective 2: Establish the Influence of Remuneration on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public Universities

Competitive and fair remuneration is indicative of the value the employers place on their employees. Also, pay may be one way employees measure whether the time they spend and the effort they put in working are worthwhile. In public universities scenario, remuneration has been singled out as major issue and one that has often led to industrial action. Remuneration aspects include satisfaction with salary whether the salary is competitive and fair, whether it is comparable to similar organizations, or whether the institution provides salary supplements, financial incentives and whether these incentives are fairly awarded. Therefore, this study sought to establish whether remuneration influences academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya.

The findings in the descriptive statistics showed that majority of the respondents (71%) which is a high percentage, indicated that academic staff salary was not adequate to meet

their needs and a similar high percentage of 78.0% indicated that they were not satisfied with remuneration they received for their work. When compared with those with similar qualifications outside their organization, majority (74%) indicated that they were not satisfied with their salary. Majority, 60.4% indicated that they were not satisfied with their salaries when compared with those of their colleagues in their institutions. 67% disagreed that their universities provide regular salary supplement in form of bonus and 72.5% were of the perception that bonuses were not allocated fairly. Majority (81.7 %) had the perception that remuneration is one of the main reasons why academic staff exited from Kenyan public universities.

Qualitative analysis indicated that remuneration was one of the reasons why academic staff left their institutions and cited unfavourable aspects such as salary was not competitive and was not aligned to the cost of living. The allowances such as commuting allowance did not consider the constant increase of fuel prices and expenses of traveling to work in various duty stations since universities had several campuses. Other reasons that were cited include unfair distribution of financial incentives such as bonuses and failure to match salaries to those of their colleagues in the civil service.

Correlation analysis on university basis indicated that remuneration was positively and significantly related to leadership style, to training and to promotion. Remuneration was negatively and significantly related to intention to leave in Egerton University, JKUAT, Kenyatta University, Maseno University, Moi University and in UoN. This means that

the more remuneration is favourable the less the intention to leave among the academic staff in public universities. However, the relationship between remuneration and intention to leave at Masinde Muliro University was not significant. In the correlation analysis for all universities remuneration was positively and significantly related to all the other determinants indicating the interdependence between these variables. The results also show that remuneration had a negative significant relationship with intention to leave however, the relationship is moderate. This means that the more remuneration is favourable the less the intention to leave among the academic staff in public universities.

In the institution based regression analysis, remuneration was found to be a predictor of intention to leave in Kenyatta University and also Moi University but not for the rest of the universities. In the general regression model analysis for all universities, the results indicated that remuneration was related to staff retention but the relationship was not significant. Therefore, these findings show that in the presence of leadership style, training and promotion, remuneration does not influence academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya. Although there is literature to show that staff retention is not influenced by remuneration, these findings were unexpected. The explanation could be found in the commonly held belief that academic staff remained in their institutions even when the remuneration is not adequate and competitive because of their interest and passion for their job.

Another explanation for the research findings that remuneration is not a predictor of academic staff retention can be found in the relationship between promotion and remuneration which was found to be significant and positive in the correlation analysis. Also, in the relationship between leadership style and promotion which was positive and significant. When employees are promoted, together with the new title are salary and additional perks, hence remuneration goes up. Therefore, indirectly, remuneration is addressed through promotion. Leadership style of organisation influences remuneration and hence in the presence of leadership style in the equation remuneration is addressed indirectly. Therefore, these findings indicate that the research which sought to establish the influence of remuneration on academic staff retention was achieved because it established that in some institutions it influenced academic staff retention. Further, although remuneration was not a determinant of academic staff retention, interviews and written responses revealed aspects related to remuneration that were unfavorable and hence require serious attention.

Objective 3: Determine the Influence of Training on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public Universities

Training is important to the organization as well as to the individual employees. Many of the world's best successful organizations are aware that the provisions they make for training and development activities lie at the heart of their ability to attract and retain the best employees in their organization. From the employee perspective, training makes

employees feel recognized for their strengths and also creates possibilities for developing their careers. Aspects related to training include availability of training opportunities, satisfaction with the training offered by the organization, application of the training policy, comparison of training opportunities with other organizations and satisfaction with training practices. This study sought to find out whether training influences academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya.

From the descriptive analysis, majority (84.2%) agreed that the skills and knowledge learnt on the job would transfer easily to other similar organizations indicating that the academic staff felt that they could easily fit in other similar organizations. On average (57.0 %) the respondents disagreed that there is fairness in the implementation of the training policy. Also on average, 53.0% disagreed that the financial support is regularly given to attend conferences and workshops to enhance professional development for the academic staff. However a significant percentage (46.1%) agreed that they were satisfied with the training practices in their institutions as opposed to (28.9%) who disagreed they were satisfied. Majority of the respondents (60.0%) agreed that training offered in public universities increased academic staff retention.

From the qualitative analysis the respondents were satisfied with training offered in their institutions and in most of the universities fee waiver and study leave was granted in support of training for Masters and Doctorate degrees. However, the academic staff were unhappy with partial implementation of training policy. They were also not satisfied with

the financial support given to attend conferences on the basis that it was not adequate. Further, there was no process of assessing training needs annually and staff appraisal was not linked to training.

The correlation analysis indicated that there was a significant negative relationship between training and intention to leave. Training was also strongly correlated with leadership style, with remuneration, and with promotion. From the correlation analysis on institution basis, training had a negative significant influence on intention to leave at Egerton University, JKUAT, at KU, Maseno University, MMUST and at UoN. The relationship between intention to leave and training was not significant at Moi University. In the correlation analysis for all universities training had a significant and negative relationship with intention to leave. The implication of this is that the more training practices were favourable the less the intention to leave among the academic staff.

In the institution by institution regression analysis, training was found to be a predictor of intention to leave in Kenyatta University and also Maseno University but not for the rest of the universities. In the general multiple regression analysis, the relationship between intention to leave and training was not significant. This means that, in the presence of leadership style, remuneration and promotion, training does not influence intention to leave of the academic staff and hence it is not a determinant of academic staff retention.

These findings therefore show that the study which sought to establish the influence of training on academic staff retention was achieved because it established that in some institutions it influenced intention to leave. Further, although training was not a significant predictor in the general analysis for all universities and hence not a determinant of intention to leave, interviews and written responses gave in-depth information on aspects related to training that were unfavorable for the public universities management attention.

Objective 4: Establish the Influence of Promotion on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public Universities

Promotion is viewed as desirable by employees because of the impact it has on pay, authority, responsibility and the ability to influence broader organizational decision making. For the academic staff upward mobility is highly desirable since majority are career oriented. The main aspects of promotion in public universities include availability of promotion policy, whether promotions are regular, whether there are good promotional opportunities, whether promotion criteria/policy is balanced or skewed towards certain duties, whether promotion is based on merit, and whether internal promotions are considered before external appointments. Therefore, the study sought to find out whether promotion influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities.

From the descriptive analysis, it was established that on average (52.9) the respondents disagreed that promotions are based on merit. On average (53.5%) the respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with the promotion practices in their institutions. In addition, 74.8% agreed that promotion criteria was skewed towards publications at the expense other duties. A high percentage (84%) indicated that lack of adequate promotion was the main reason that contributed to academic staff leaving.

From the qualitative analysis, majority of those who had left cited lack of promotion as the major factor that influenced them to leave. The aspects related to promotions that were unfavourable included lack of consistency in the application of the promotion criteria and partiality. Another one is the overemphasis on publications yet staff handled increased workload due to self sponsored programmes and double intake in 2011/2012 academic year. Another unfavorable issue cited was pegging promotions on establishment which was prohibitive even when the staff had qualified. Further, the respondents cited the bureaucratic procedures governing the promotion process which caused unnecessary delays. The practice of promoting staff to prevent them from leaving popularly referred to as ring fencing was found to be unfair and had accelerated the interest to look for jobs in order to use the same to ask for promotion. The Registrars in charge of administration confirmed that ring fencing was done especially in regard to staff with unique specialization that was not easy to find in the labour market, but also added that such cases were rare.

Institution by institution correlation analysis showed that promotion was significantly and negatively related to intention to leave for Egerton University, JKUAT, Kenyatta University, Maseno University, MMUST, Moi University and in UoN. Therefore promotion had a negative and significant relationship with intention to leave in the seven universities and this means that increase in the favourable aspects related to promotion would decrease intention to leave and hence enhance retention of the academic staff. When correlated with the other independent variables the results indicated strong positive relationship. Promotion was positively and significantly related to leadership style, with remuneration and with training. The general correlation analysis established that promotion had a negative significant relationship with intention to leave. This indicates that the more promotion practices are favourable, the less the intention to leave among the academic staff in public universities.

In the institution by institution regression analysis promotion was found to be a predictor of intention to leave in Egerton University and also UoN but not for the rest of the universities. In the general regression model analysis the results indicated that promotion had a negative and significant relationship with intention to leave. Therefore, these findings show that the research which sought to establish the influence of promotion on academic staff retention was achieved because it established that promotion influenced intention to leave and conversely influenced retention of the academic staff. It also established through qualitative data that the academic staff preferred consistent promotion criteria and practices, universal application of the criteria to all staff, regular

internal promotions, all inclusive promotion criteria and to avoid ring fencing practices since they created inequality. Also, the practice may be counterproductive in retaining valued staff as it encourages them to look for other jobs in order to use them to bargain for promotion.

Objective 5: Establish the Moderating Effect of Personal Characteristics on Academic Staff Retention in Public Universities

Literature review indicates that a variety of personal variables such as age, gender, highest degree level, personal health, and marital status exert potential influences on intention to leave. This study sought to find out whether age moderated the relationship between the independent variables of the study and the dependent variable. From the descriptive statistics, it was established that those below 40 years comprised 38.7% (208) while those in the category of 40 years and above were 61.3% (330). Carrying out moderation using the two age categories was based on literature. Pienaar *et.al.*, (2008) argue that the early career phases comprise of two stages namely, establishment and achievement and this period can extend up to age 40. The findings indicated that age did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent. The expectation was that the young employees were the ones who had turnover cognition as opposed to the older employees. Therefore, from these findings, employees may choose to leave or stay regardless of their age since age does not influence whether they leave or stay.

This study also sought to establish whether education level moderated the relationship between the four independent variables of the study and the dependent variable. From the descriptive statistics, it was established that 52% of the respondents possessed PhD degree while 48% did not possess PhD degree. Therefore, for purposes of testing this hypothesis, education level was put into two categories those below PhD and those with PhD. Literature reviewed indicates that employees with higher levels of education had greater alternative employment opportunities and higher expectations which were not likely to be met by their employers and hence were more likely to leave. The multiple regression analysis results indicated that education level did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent. Therefore employees may choose to leave regardless of their education level since their education level does not influence staying or leaving their institutions.

5.3 Conclusions

The study set out to establish the determinants of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities. The study generally concluded that a mixture of intrinsic and extrinsic variables influence intention to leave of academic staff as exemplified by leadership style which is an extrinsic variable and promotion as intrinsic variable which were identified as predictors of academic staff retention.

The study further concluded that current trends such as employer branding, employee value proposition and employer of choice have not been well embraced by Kenyan public universities. Most of these institutions as confirmed from qualitative data, did not have

retention policy or strategy and hence had not made retention of their core employees (the academic staff) a priority despite the current competitive higher education environment that requires so.

1. Influence of Leadership Style on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public Universities

Based on the findings of this study, this research concluded that leadership style influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities. There was an inverse relationship between leadership style and intention to leave. Intention to leave is the measure commonly used in studies to assess staff turnover and retention. When leadership style is unfavourable intention to leave increases and when it is favorable intention to leave decreases, hence enhancing staff retention. Further, this study established that leadership style had more predicting strength than the other independent variables. This aligns to the argument that employee leave leaders and not organizations.

This study also concluded that the leadership practiced by most of the leaders in these institutions was not favourable for retention since from the findings majority indicated that autocratic leadership style was commonly practiced. Further the study concluded that the academic staff were not adequately involvement in decision making and regular communication was lacking. Similarly, the study also concluded that staff issues were not addressed promptly and the competence of the leaders did not meet staff expectations.

2. Influence of Remuneration on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public

Universities

Based on the findings, the study concluded that in the presence of leadership style, promotion and training, remuneration for the academic staff did not influence their retention. In other words their earnings did not influence their staying or leaving. However, the significant relationship between remuneration and intention to leave that came out in the correlation analysis and also in institution by institution analysis should not be disregarded.

The study established that despite remuneration not being a predictor of academic staff retention, there were various aspects of remuneration that did not meet staff expectations. The staff were not satisfied with their remuneration because it did not reflect cost of living and was not competitive. The academic staff believed that they were paid poorly compared to their colleagues in the civil service. Further, universities did not give regular financial incentives and that these incentives were not fairly awarded. The study therefore concluded that such findings are a pointer that academic staff are dissatisfied with the remuneration earned and although they may not quit, this dissatisfaction is not healthy since it impacts negatively on service delivery.

3. Influence of Training on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public Universities

The findings led to the conclusion that training offered to the academic staff did not influence their retention. In the presence of leadership style, remuneration and promotion staff training was no longer a predictor of intention to leave or stay. This results though unexpected because the hypothesis was based on research, led the researcher to conclude that since there was a strong relationship between promotion and training, indirectly, training is addressed because most promotions are based on additional training. However, the significant correlation results and the analysis on institution by institution should not be disregarded. Further, the findings indicated aspects of training practices and policy that were unfavourable such as partiality in the implementation of the training policy that public universities require to seriously address.

The study also concluded that the academic staff were not adequately supported to attend conferences and workshop as a way of enhancing professional development. The researcher also drew conclusion that training offered outside the country influenced staff to leave since majority did not return confirming the Public Universities Inspection Board findings that staff who went abroad for further studies rarely returned (GoK, 2006). The study further concluded that training needs analysis was not carried out properly and that there was disconnect between the process and staff appraisal.

4. Influence of Promotion on Academic Staff Retention in Kenyan Public Universities

Based on the findings, the study concluded that promotion influences academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities. There was an inverse relationship between promotion and intention to leave implying that the more promotion was perceived to be unfavourable, intention to leave increased and vice versa. The promotion and promotional practices in these institutions were not favourable for staff retention.

The researcher concluded that the promotion criteria or practices were not fairly applied and there were inconsistencies with the criteria. Further, the researcher concluded that the criteria was not all inclusive and was skewed in favour of publications at the expense of other duties such as teaching and student supervision. The promotional practices did not meet staff expectations and were not aligned with the fundamental tenet of equity theory which is equality. Also the whole promotion process was encumbered by bureaucratic procedures that caused unnecessary delays in its execution and the ring fencing practice created disparities among staff.

5. Moderating Effect of Personal Characteristics on Academic Staff Retention in Public Universities

Based on study findings, the researcher concluded that personal characteristics in terms of age that had been hypothesized to have a moderating effect on intention to leave had no effect on the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent

variables. This finding implies that leaving or staying in their institution was not influenced by age for the population under this study. Despite the fact that the hypothesized relationship was backed by previous research, age related differences were not seen.

This study also concluded that education level of the academic staff did not have a moderating effecting on intention to leave among the academic staff in public universities in Kenya. Based on research, it was hypothesized that the academic staff with higher level of education in this case PhD degree were more likely to leave than those with lower education level because there were more opportunities for them and higher expectations which were unlikely to be met by the employer. Despite the backing of research, education level related differences were not seen. The researcher concluded that since majority of academic staff had acquired PhD as shown in the descriptive statistics, the high level of education was no longer a deciding factor on whether to leave or stay.

5.4 Recommendations

In this section, recommendations related to policy and for the management of public universities as well as areas for further research are given as follows:

1. Policy Recommendations

A policy and practical area that this research can be applied is in remuneration. Whereas it is clear that individual public universities have no control over the basic salary and

house allowance given to academic staff, the universities can improve on financial incentives to supplement the inadequate salaries and ensure these are fairly awarded to staff. This could forestall the regular industrial actions in these universities related to remuneration. The universities should also be sensitive to remuneration equity issues.

Public universities in Kenya have largely depended on the government for remuneration of their employees leading to a situation where employees are not paid as well as their counterparts in the more developed societies, in the private universities and recently, in the public sector. Therefore, the government has a role in ensuring the salaries are competitive for the academic staff and also to harmonize them with those of the better paid public sector employees to avoid apparent disparities. This will enable public universities to compete favorably with other players in the labour market for their core employees.

It is suggested that universities should revise their training policies to ensure fairness and accountability in their implementation. It is also recommended that universities increase financial support for conferences and workshop attendance both local and international to help academic staff keep abreast with the best practices in their profession. Since those who have acquired their PhD degrees may not be involved in further formal training, regular attendance of conferences and workshops will equip them with current trends and techniques in research and teaching.

Promotion policy/criteria should be clear and well communicated to the staff. The criteria should outline clearly the stand of the institution on internal promotions versus the external appointments. The criteria/policy should be revised to make it all inclusive so that it is not skewed in favour of some duties while ignoring others and also to reflect fairness. The bureaucratic procedures surrounding the promotion process should be revised to avoid unnecessary delays especially in large institutions where the promotion process is centralized.

2. Recommendations for the Management

Academic staff members in Kenyan public universities are a critical resource in the current competitive higher education landscape and possess the ingredients for these organizations to acquire competitive advantage. Their training and research imparts in them stocks of knowledge that cannot easily be replaced with their departure. Consequently, public universities should make retention of these staff a priority to guarantee quality services and products. To do so, they need to embrace the modern retention trends such as employer branding and having compelling value proposition in order to become the employer of choice for the academic staff in their respective institutions.

There is great need to recognize retention of core employees as of prime importance in public universities since it is a global trend in organisations. It is crucial to adopt a proactive approach to retention by having progressive retention strategies in place. The

study shows that employees remain in organizations due to a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The management of these institutions should develop retention policies and strategies that capture both dimensions and constantly review them for effectiveness because employees' needs and expectations are dynamic.

This study brought to the fore the critical role of leadership and leadership style in retention of academic staff. It is recommended that the leadership in these institutions should embrace favourable leadership practices to enhance retention of academic staff since leaders have an influence on plethora of organizational factors which affect retention. A lesson for the universities regarding leadership style pertains to the area of involvement of staff in decision making and communicating regularly. Providing more avenues for participation in decision making and regular communication will enable the staff to contribute to organizational policies and goals.

The competence of the leaders does not meet academic staff's expectations. While it is appreciated that leaders in university set up come from diverse disciplines, experience and natural disposition and some have little or no formal training in leadership skills, they are expected to possess an array of leadership and interpersonal skills. The research recommends continuous management capacity development so that the leaders can keep abreast with trends in people management to enhance retention of academic staff.

3. Areas for Further Research

A review of literature indicated that there has been limited amount of research on academic staff retention in the Kenyan context. Thus, the findings of this study serve as a basis for future studies on retention and on this population. Academic staff as a population, has not been widely studied which presents gaps in African and Kenyan contexts. The study has contributed to knowledge by establishing that leadership style and promotion influence retention of this population in the Kenyan context.

Some of the findings have generally vindicated the long held positions regarding the various relationships that were studied. Other findings, however, such as the role of training and remuneration in intention to leave and the moderating effect of age and education level on intention to leave were inconsistent with pertinent literature and results of previous studies thus preparing ground for paradigm shift in such factors in relation to this population.

The research has clearly pointed out the role of leadership and leadership style in employee retention. Studies have concentrated on employee behaviour, satisfaction, dissatisfaction and commitment in employee retention. This study therefore highlights the role of leaders in employee retention, an area that has not been much explored.

This study used qualitative and quantitative techniques. It was also a cross sectional study and hence other studies using longitudinal design could be carried out to establish

whether turnover cognitions are actualized. Also, an exploratory study would enrich findings because such a study would have a wide range of factors that influence academic staff retention addressed other than the ones identified in this study.

Interaction effects should be investigated. According to Price (2001) interaction effects are a major focus in organizational research and it is likely that such interactions exist with other variables other than age and education level that were investigated in this study. The interaction effects may be re-examined at a later period because of the constant changes that take place in organizations.

This study confined itself to the seven fully-fledged public universities in Kenya. A comparative study should be carried out to compare whether the findings also apply for the private universities in Kenya in order to validate whether the findings can be generalized to academic staff in private universities.

REFERENCES

- Adonike, A. (2011). Organisational Climate as a Predictor of employee job satisfaction; Evidence from Covenant University. *Business Intelligence Journal*, 4(1), 151-165.
- Amin, M. (2012). *The Relationship of Principals/Directors' Leadership Styles, as Perceived by Faculty, to the Job Satisfaction of the Faculty Members in a Public University of Punjab, Pakistan*: PhD Thesis. University of Leicester.
- Al-Omari, A.A., Qablan, A.M., Khasawneh, S.M. (2008). Faculty Members Intention to Stay in Jordanian Public Universities. *International Journal of Applied Educational Studies*, 1(1), 26-42.
- Amutuhaire, T. (2010). *Terms of Service and Job Retention among Academic Staff in Makerere University*. Master of Arts in Higher Education Studies Thesis, Makerere University, Kampala.
- Alreck, P.L., & Settle R.B. (2004). *The Survey Research Handbook*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Armstrong, M.A. (2010). *Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*. London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Berry, L. M. (2010). *Examining Turnover Intent: Examining the Effect of Employee Engagement, Compensation Fairness, Job Satisfaction and Age*: PhD Thesis. Tennessee University.
- Bradley, D.A. (2005). To what End? The effectiveness of Quality Assurance in Higher Education. *Biennial Conference on Quality, Assurance and Diversity*.
- Beardwell J., & Claydon, T. (2007). *Human Resource Management. A contemporary Approach*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Branham, L. (2001). *Keeping the People who Keep you in Business. 24 Ways to Hang on your most Valuable Talent*. New York: Amacom.
- Carver R.H., & Nash, J. G. (2009). *Data Analysis with SPSS. Version 16*. Cengage Learning, India.
- Chan, E., & Morrison, P. (2000). Factors Influencing the Retention and Turnover Intentions of Registered Nurses in a Singapore Hospital. *Journal of Nursing and Health Sciences*, 2, 113-121.
- Chacha, N. C. (2004). *Reforming Higher Education in Kenya: Challenges, Lessons and Opportunities*. State University of New York Workshop with the Parliamentary Committee on Education, Science and Technology. Naivasha Kenya.

- Chew, J. C. (2004). *The Influence of Human Resource Management Practices on the Retention of Core Employees of Australian Organisation*: PhD Thesis. Murdoch University.
- Chiboiwa, W. M., Samuel, M.O., & Chipunza J. (2010). An Examination of Employee Retention Strategy in a Private Organisation in Zimbabwe: *African Journal of Business Management*, 4 (10), 2103- 2109.
- Cole, G. T., (2005). *Organisational Behaviour: Theory and Practice*. UK: Thomson Learning.
- Daly, C.J., & Dee, J.R. (2006). Greener Pastures: Faculty Turnover Intent in Urban Public Universities. *Journal of Higher Education*, 77.5 (8/9), 59-64.
- Dibble, S. (1999). *Keeping your Valuable Employees: Retention Strategies for your Organisation*. Canada: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Dockel, A. (2003). *The Effect of Retention Factors on Organisational Commitment: An Investigation of High Technology Employees*. Master of Human Resource Thesis. University of Pretoria.
- Gaiduk, R. & Gaiduk, J. (2009). Limiting the Brain Drain. Determinants of Employee Organisational Attachment in Lithuania. *Baltic Journal of Management*. 4 (2) 149-168.
- Gay, L. R. (1992). *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Applications*. 4th Edition, New York: Macmillan Publishers.
- Government of Kenya (GoK), (2006). *Transformation of Higher Education and Training in Kenya: Report of the Public Universities Inspection Board*. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Government of Kenya (GoK), (2007). *Code of Regulations for Civil Servants Kenya*: Nairobi. Government Printers.
- Guma, P.V. (2011). *Organisational Factors Impacting on Employee Retention*. Master of Business Administration Thesis, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.
- Gwavuya, F. (2011). Leadership Influences on Turnover Intentions of Academic Staff in Institutions in Zimbabwe. *Academic Leadership Journal*, 9 (1), 1-15.
- Harting, D. (2008). *Employees -Your Most Valuable Asset*. http://ezinearticles.com/expert=Dennis_Harting, accessed on 25 July, 2011.
- Hausknecht, J. P., Rodda J., & Howard J. M. (2009). Targeted Employee Retention: Performance Based and Job-Related Differences in Reported Reasons for staying. *Human Resource Management*, 48 (2), 269-288.

- Herman, E. R., & Gioia, J.L. (2001). *How to become an Employer of Choice*. Canada: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Hughes, J.C. (2008). Talent Management; A Strategy for Improving Employee Recruitment, Retention and Management within Hospitality Organisations. *Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management Education*, 20 (7), 743-757.
- Johnshrud, L., & Rosser, J. (2002). Faculty Members' Morale and their Intention to Leave: Multilevel Explanation. *Journal of Higher Education*, 73 (4), 518 -542.
- Kamoche, K. N., Nyambegera, S.M., & Mulinge, M. M. (2004). *Managing Human Resources in Africa*. London : Routledge.
- Kipkebut, D. J. (2010). *Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction in Higher Educational Institutions: The Kenyan Case*. PhD Thesis, Middlesex University.
- Kochachathu, P. (2010). *Influence of Human Resource Practices on Employee Retention*. Masters Thesis, University of Malaysia.
- Kothari, C.R (2011). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.
- Lewa, P. (2009). *Talent Management Strategies for Increased Competitiveness*. United States International University (USIU-Kenya) Colloquium ,20th May, 2009.
- Kothari, C.R (2009). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.
- Mallam, U. (1994). A National Research Study, on Factors Influencing Faculty Turnover at Selected Nigerian Colleges of Technology. *Higher Education*, 27, 229-238.
- Mason, D.R.,Lind D.A.,& Marchel, W.G. (1999). *Statistical Techniques in Business and Economics: USA:.* Mc Graw-Hill.
- McKeown, J. L (2002). *Retaining Top Employees*. New York: Mc Graw-Hill.
- Metcalf, H., Rolfe P., & Weale. M. (2005). *Recruitment and Retention of Academic Staff in Higher Education*. National Institute of Economic and Social Research, Research Report RR658.
- Michael, S.O. (2008). *Using Motivational Strategy as Panacea for Employee Retention and Turnover in Selected Public and Private Sector Organisations in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa*. Master of Commerce Thesis, University of Fort Hare.
- Muhammad, E.M., Nawab.S., .& Naeem. B. (2010). Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment of University Teachers in Public Sector of Pakistan. *International Journal of Business Management*, 5 (6), 17- 26.

- Munsamy, M., & Venter, B.A (2009). Retention Factors of Management Staff in the Maintenance Phase of their Careers in Local Government. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7 (1), 187-195.
- Muindi, F.,(2010). *The Relationship between Participation in Decision Making and Job Satisfaction among Academic Staff in the School of Business University of Nairobi*. Master of Business Administration Thesis, University of Nairobi.
- Mtazu, S.P. (2009). *Evaluating Remuneration and Reward Systems at Lobels Bread*. Master of Business Administration Thesis, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University's Business School.
- Mwiria, K., Nge'the, N., Ngome, C., & Odero D.C. (2006). *Public and Private Universities in Kenya: New Challenges Issues & Achievements*. Nairobi: East African Educational Publishers.
- Netswera, F.G., Rankhumise, E.M., & Mavundila, T. R. (2005). Employee Retention Factors for South African Higher Education Institutions: A Case Study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3 (2), 36-40.
- Ngome, C.K. (2010). *Massive Growth of University Education in East Africa and the Challenges Facing the Sector from 2000 to 2010. The Case of Kenya*. IUCEA Conference, 19th – 21st October, 2010. Kampala.
- Northouse,P.G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*: London: Sage Publishers
- Obwogi, J. (2011). *Factors that Affect Quality of Teaching Staff in Universities in Kenya*. PhD Thesis. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology.
- Okumbe J. A. (2001). *Human Resource Management: An Educational Perspective*. Nairobi: Educational Development and Research Bureau.
- Orodho, J. A. (2005). *Techniques of Writing Research Proposals and Reports in Education and Social Sciences*. Nairobi : Kenezja HP enterprises.
- Pienaar, C., & Bester, C.L. (2008). Retention of Academics in the Early Career Phase. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6 (2), 32 - 41.
- Phillips, J., & Connell, O. (2003). *Managing Employee Retention. A Strategic Accountability Approach*. USA: Heinemann.
- Price, J. (2001). Reflections on the Determinants of Voluntary Turnover: *International Journal of Manpower*, 22 (7), 600-624.
- Radivoev, J. (2005). *The Retention of Sales Consultants in the Security Industry*. Master of Business Management Thesis. University of Johannesburg.

- Rosser, V. (2004). Faculty Members' Intention to Leave. A National Study on their Work- life and Satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education*, 45 (3), 285 -309.
- Samuel, O., & Chipunza, C. (2009). Employee Retention and Turnover: Using Motivational Variables as a Panacea. *African Journal of Business Management*, 3 (8), 410-415.
- Sanderson, A., Phua, V. & Herda, D. (2000). *The American Faculty Poll*. TIAA-CREF, New York: National Opinion Research Center, Illinois: Chicago.
- Simiyu, A. N. (2012). *Performance Contract as a Tool for Improving Performance in Local Authorities in Kenya*. PhD Thesis. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology.
- Shoaib, M., Noor A., Tirmizi, S., & Bashir, S. (2009). *Determinants of Employee Retention in Telecom Sector of Pakistan*. Proceedings 2nd CBRC, Lahore, Pakistan, 14th November, 2009.
- Ssesanga, K. & Garrett, R.M., (2005). Job satisfaction of University Academics: Perspectives from Uganda. *Higher Education*, 50, 33-56.
- Sutherland, M. M., (2004). *Factors Affecting the Retention of Knowledge Workers*. Published PhD Thesis, Rand Afrikaans University.
- Tanton, S.N. (2006). *Talent Management in the Role of Employee Retention*. Masters Thesis. University of South Africa.
- Tettey, J.W. (2006). *Staff Retention in African Universities: Elements of a Sustainable strategy*, Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Tettey, J.W. (2009). *Deficits in Academic Staff Capacity in Africa and Challenges of Developing and Retaining the Next Generation of Academics*. Partnership for Higher Education in Africa.
- Thrush, A., (2012). Leadership in Higher Education. *International Journal of Human Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2 (13), 1-12
- Udi, G., (2010). *Determinants of Staff Retention in Service Organisations. A Case of Consumer Insight Ltd*. Masters Thesis, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology.
- UNESCO (2010). National Education Support Strategy (UNES) for the Republic of Kenya, 2010-2011.
- Waleed, A., (2011). *The Relationship between Human Resource Practices and Employee Retention in Public Organisations. An Exploratory Study Conducted in the United Arab Emirates*. PhD Thesis, Edith Cowan University.

- Waswa, F., & Katana G. (2008). Academic Staff Perspectives on Operating Beyond Industrial Actions for Sustainable Quality Assurance in Public Universities in Kenya. *International Journal of Environment*, 4(1), 45-58.
- Webometrics (2009). Ranking web by country: Top Colleges and Best universities in Kenya. <http://www.webometrics.info/rank,bycountry.aspCountry=ke>, accessed on 03/02/2009.
- World Bank, (1994). *Retaining Teaching Capacity in African Universities. Problems and Prospects*. African Region No. 39 Kenya. Washington DC. The world Bank.
- Yousaf, A. (2010). *One Step Ahead: Examining New Predictors of Affective and Organisational Occupational Commitment*. PhD Thesis, University of Twente.
- Zhou, Y., & Volkwein, J. (2004). Examining the Influences on Faculty Departure Intentions: A comparison of Tenured Versus Non-tenured Faculty at Research Universities: *Research in Higher Education*, 45 (2), 139-176.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Jane Ng'ethe, a PhD student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. This questionnaire has been developed to facilitate a study aimed at establishing the determinants of academic staff retention in Kenyan public universities. You have been identified as a critical player in this field, and your input in this study would be most valuable. Kindly, therefore, respond to these questions as honestly and precisely as possible. Responses will be treated as confidential and will be used for academic purposes only. Please tick where appropriate or fill in the required information on the spaces provided.

PART I: Personal and Contextual Data

1. Gender Male Female
2. Your age in years (Please tick as appropriate)
 20 - 24 25 - 29 30 - 34 35 - 39
 40 - 44 45 - 49 50 and above
4. Academic qualifications
 PhD Masters Bachelors
5. How many years have you worked in this university? ----- years
6. How much longer are you intending to work in this university----- years
7. Your current designation (Please tick as appropriate)
 Professor Associate Professor Senior Lecturer
 Lecturer Assistant Lecturer Tutorial fellow
 Teaching Assistant

PART II: Leadership Style. Using the Likert type scale below, indicate how accurately the following statements describe the leadership style in your University. SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, D= disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

Leadership Style	SA	A	N	D	SD
i) Organisational Leadership style in this university makes positive contribution to the overall effectiveness of the organisation					
ii) My manager treats every one fairly					
iii) Leaders/supervisor assists individual lecturers in their personal problems.					
iv) Leadership/supervisors represents my needs, ideas and suggestions to his/her manager					
v) The leaders often involves staff in decision making, problem solving and policy making in the university					
vi) Leaders/supervisor rarely assists individual lecturers in their personal problems.					
vii) I have the opportunity to interact with management above my immediate supervisor					
viii) I am satisfied with the competence of the supervisors and Leadership in this University					
ix) The leadership of this university listens to and addresses staff issues promptly					
x) The leaders communicates to staff regularly on matters important to them					
xi) I am satisfied with the leadership style of the managers in this university.					

2. In your opinion does leadership style of the management in your university increase academic staff retention? Yes No

3. Kindly tick from the scale provided the rate of increase of the academic staff retention occasioned by the leadership style of the current university management.

1 -25% 26-50% 51-75% 76-100%

4. Which among the following is the leadership style commonly practised by the management in your university (Tick one). Authoritative/Dictatorship

Democratic /participative Laizzes faire/Free reign

5. What areas of leadership styles should the university management improve on to enhance academic staff retention?.....
.....

PART IV: Training

1. Using the scale given below indicate how accurately the following statements describe the effectiveness of your University’s training practices: SA= strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= neither agree nor disagree, D= disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

Training	SA	A	N	D	SD
i) The skills and knowledge learnt on the job in this University would transfer easily to most other similar organisations					
ii) I am satisfied with the training by the University for my present job					
iii) Training opportunities are offered regularly in this university					
iv) Financial support is regularly given by the University to attend conferences and workshops to enhance my professional growth					
v) The university readily invests in professional development for the academic staff					
vi) What is stated in the training policy is what is practised always					
vii) Fairness is practised all the time in the implementation of training policy for the academic staff					
viii) What is stated in the training policy is rarely practised					
ix) This university has good training opportunities compared with other organisations					
x) Training opportunities outside the country influences staff to quit					
xi) I am satisfied with the training practices in this university					

2. In your opinion do you think training offered to the academic staff in your university increases their retention? Yes No

3. Kindly tick from the scale provided the rate of increase of the academic staff retention occasioned by the training given by this university.

1 -25% 26-50% 51-75% 76-100%

4. In your opinion is lack of provision of adequate training by the university one of the main reasons why academic staff leave for employment elsewhere?

Yes No

5. What issues should your university address to improve staff training in order to enhance academic staff retention?

.....

PART V: Promotion

1. Using the scale given below, indicate how accurately the following statements describe the promotion provided in the university. SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, D= disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

Promotion	SA	A	N	D	SD
i) Academic staff promotions are regular with my employer					
ii) There are good opportunities for promotion in my University					
iii) Promotion are always based on merit in this university					
iv) The promotion criteria in this university over emphasises on publications at the expense of teaching and other duties					
v) Internal promotion is more regular in this university compared to external recruitment					
vi) In my university there is a clear promotion policy/criteria					
vii) What is stated in the promotion policy /criteria is what is practised always					
viii) The promotion criteria in this university over emphasises on teaching at the expense of publications and other duties					
ix) Promotions in this university are rarely based on merit					
x) I am satisfied with the promotion practices in this university					
xi) An employee upward career growth is important to this organisation					

2. In your opinion do you think your university promotion practices increase academic staff retention? Yes No

3. Kindly tick from the scale provided the rate of increase of the academic staff retention occasioned by the promotion practices in the university.

1-25% 26-50% 51-75% 76-100%

4. Would you say that failure to get promotion is one of the main reasons why academic staff leave this university for employment elsewhere? Yes No

5. What areas in regard to promotion practices should your university improve to encourage academic staff retention?.....

PART VI: Staff Retention

1. Using the scale given below indicate, how accurately the following statements describe your plans for staying with this organization.

SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neither agree nor Disagree, D= disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

	Intention to stay/ Leave	SA	A	N	D	SD
i)	I plan to work at my present job for as long as possible					
ii)	I am actively searching for an alternative to this University					
iii)	I would hate to quit this job					
iv)	As soon as is possible, I will leave this University					
v)	I am in this university for lack of an alternative employer					

2. In your opinion what percentage would you assign the level of academic staff retention in your university?

1 - 25% 26-50% 51-75% 76-100%

3. Using the scale provided, what in your opinion is the overall effect of leadership style, remuneration, training, and promotion on academic staff retention.

1 -25% 26-50% 51-75% 76-100%

PART VII: Ranking of the Determinants

1. If you were to leave your current position at your university to accept another position in another university or outside academia how important would each of the following be in your decision?

1= Not important at all

2= Little Importance

3= Important

4 = Critically Important

	Determinants	1	2	3	4
i	Leadership style				
ii	Remuneration				
iii	Training				
iv	Promotion				

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION AND CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX 11: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR REGISTRARS

1. Approximately how many academic staff members do you have in the university?
.....
2. How many academic staff members in total had left between the period 2006 to 2011?.....
3. Which departments are affected more in losing staff?
.....
4. Do the academic staff who leave go to private sector, public sector or abroad?
.....
5. In your exit interviews with the academic staff, what are the main reasons cited for Leaving?
.....
.....
.....
6. i) In your opinion, does leadership style influence academic staff retention in the university?
ii) If your answer is yes in what ways does leadership style in the university influence the academic staff to remain? Which aspects influence them to leave?
.....
.....

7. i) In your opinion, does remuneration offered to the academic staff influence the academic staff to stay longer in the university or leave?

.....

ii) . If your answer above is yes, kindly elaborate on specific aspects

.....

.....

8 i) Do you think training provided by this university influences the academic staff to remain longer in the university or to leave?

.....

ii) . If your answer above is yes kindly elaborate on which aspects influences them to leave.....

.....

.....

.....

9.i) In your opinion, does promotion influence academic staff to stay or leave this university?

.....

ii) . If your answer above is yes kindly elaborate on specific aspects

.....

.....

10. i. Do you have a retention policy?

.....

ii. If yes, comment on its effectiveness in retaining academic staff.

.....

11. In your opinion, what can be done to enhance academic staff retention in public universities in view of the current competitive university education environment?

.....

.....

APPENDIX 111: EXIT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Gender Male Female

2. Your age in years

20-29 30-39 40-49 50 and above

3. Academic qualifications

PhD Masters

4. What are the most attractive aspects of your current employer?

5. i). Which among the following could have influenced your leaving the public university that was your former employer (can tick more than one)

Leadership style

Remuneration

Training

Promotion

Others-----

ii. Kindly elaborate on the aspects related to the reason you have given above that were unfavorable to you.-----

6. From your experience what recommendations would you have for your former institution? -----

APPENDIX IV: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS TABLES

1. Reliability – Leadership style

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	512	93.6
	Excluded ^a	35	6.4
	Total	547	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.920	10

2. Reliability – Remuneration

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	497	90.9
	Excluded ^a	50	9.1
	Total	547	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.884	11

3. Reliability – Training

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	509	93.1
	Excluded ^a	38	6.9
	Total	547	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.863	10

4. Reliability – Promotion

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	513	93.8
	Excluded ^a	34	6.2
	Total	547	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.817	10

5. Reliability – Intention to Leave

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	529	96.7
	Excluded ^a	18	3.3
	Total	547	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.837	4

APPENDIX V: MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

MODEL 1: General Multiple Regression Analysis

(a) Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.555 ^a	.308	.303	1.63962

a. Predictors: (Constant), Promotion (X4), Remuneration (X2), Training (X3), Leadership (X1)

(b) ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	640.560	4	160.140	59.568	.000 ^a
	Residual	1440.953	536	2.688		
	Total	2081.513	540			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Promotion (X4), Remuneration (X2), Training (X3), Leadership (X1)

b. Dependent Variable: Intention to Leave

(c) Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	10.532	.338		31.194	.000
	Leadership (X1)	-.703	.116	-.310	-6.053	.000
	Remuneration (X2)	-.188	.125	-.071	-1.499	.134
	Training (X3)	-.039	.138	-.014	-.283	.777
	Promotion (X4)	-.708	.149	-.244	-4.742	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Leave

Model 2- Moderation Analysis (Using Age as Moderator)

(a) Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.512 ^a	.262	.261	1.67720
2	.555 ^b	.308	.305	1.62617

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1), Promotion (X4)

(b) ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	529.631	1	529.631	188.281	.000 ^a
	Residual	1490.882	530	2.813		
	Total	2020.513	531			
72	Regression	621.603	2	310.802	117.530	.000 ^b
	Residual	1398.910	529	2.644		
	Total	2020.513	531			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1), Promotion (X4)

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to leave

(c) Coefficients^a

Model	Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	9.349	.268		34.933	.000
	Leadership (X1)	-1.169	.085	-.512	-13.722	.000
2	(Constant)	10.496	.324		32.368	.000
	Leadership (X1)	-.807	.103	-.353	-7.838	.000
	Promotion (X4)	-.775	.131	-.266	-5.897	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Leave

Model 3- Moderation Analysis (Education Level as Moderator)

(a) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.507 ^a	.257	.255	1.69727
2	.552 ^b	.304	.302	1.64348

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1), Promotion (X4)

(b) **ANOVA^c**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	530.432	1	530.432	184.132	.000 ^a
	Residual	1535.420	533	2.881		
	Total	2065.852	534			
2	Regression	628.914	2	314.457	116.422	.000 ^b
	Residual	1436.938	532	2.701		
	Total	2065.852	534			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1), Promotion (X4)

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to leave

(c) **Coefficients^a**

Model	Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	9.297	.265		35.041	.000
	Leadership (X1)	-1.152	.085	-.507	-13.570	.000
2	(Constant)	10.452	.320		32.637	.000
	Leadership (X1)	-.773	.103	-.340	-7.477	.000
	Promotion (X4)	-.795	.132	-.275	-6.038	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to leave

Model 4- Multiple Regression Analysis for Each University

(a) **Model Summary**

Institution	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
EGERTON	1	.648 ^a	.420	.409	.69868
JKUAT	1	.467 ^b	.218	.207	.87095
KU	1	.402 ^c	.162	.154	.96607
	2	.457 ^d	.208	.194	.94298
Maseno	1	.427 ^e	.182	.162	.84415
Masinde (MMUST)	1	.685 ^b	.469	.455	.77410
MOI	1	.493 ^c	.243	.231	.74645
	2	.548 ^f	.301	.279	.72309
UoN	1	.638 ^b	.407	.403	.70684
	2	.679 ^g	.461	.454	.67614

a. Predictors: (Constant), Promotion (X4)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1)

c. Predictors: (Constant), Remuneration (X2)

d. Predictors: (Constant), Remuneration (X2), Training (X3)

e. Predictors: (Constant), Training (X3)

f. Predictors: (Constant), Remuneration (X2), Leadership (X1)

g. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership (X1), Promotion (X4)

(b)		ANOVA ^h					
Institution	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
EGERTON	1	Regression	18.723	1	18.723	38.355	.000 ^a
		Residual	25.872	53	.488		
		Total	44.595	54			
JKUAT	1	Regression	14.804	1	14.804	19.516	.000 ^b
		Residual	53.099	70	.759		
		Total	67.903	71			
KU	1	Regression	19.783	1	19.783	21.197	.000 ^c
		Residual	102.662	110	.933		
		Total	122.444	111			
	2	Regression	25.521	2	12.761	14.351	.000 ^d
		Residual	96.923	109	.889		
		Total	122.444	111			
Maseno	1	Regression	6.349	1	6.349	8.910	.005 ^e
		Residual	28.504	40	.713		
		Total	34.853	41			
MMUST	1	Regression	20.098	1	20.098	33.540	.000 ^b
		Residual	22.771	38	.599		
		Total	42.869	39			
MOI	1	Regression	11.451	1	11.451	20.551	.000 ^c
		Residual	35.660	64	.557		
		Total	47.111	65			
	2	Regression	14.170	2	7.085	13.551	.000 ^f
		Residual	32.941	63	.523		
		Total	47.111	65			
UoN	1	Regression	52.192	1	52.192	104.461	.000 ^b
		Residual	75.943	152	.500		
		Total	128.135	153			
	2	Regression	59.103	2	29.552	64.641	.000 ^g
		Residual	69.032	151	.457		
		Total	128.135	153			

(c)		Coefficients ^a					
Institution	Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	Beta		
EGERTON	1	(Constant)	5.552	.440		12.620	.000
		Promotion (X4)	-.856	.138	-.648	-6.193	.000
JKUAT	1	(Constant)	4.461	.413		10.806	.000
		Leadership (X1)	-.551	.125	-.467	-4.418	.000
KU	1	(Constant)	4.313	.321		13.446	.000
		Remuneration (X2)	-.659	.143	-.402	-4.604	.000
	2	(Constant)	4.980	.409		12.187	.000
		Remuneration (X2)	-.480	.157	-.293	-3.070	.003
		Training (X3)	-.357	.141	-.242	-2.540	.012
Maseno	1	(Constant)	4.338	.519		8.363	.000
		Training (X3)	-.507	.170	-.427	-2.985	.005
Masinde	1	(Constant)	5.703	.439		12.997	.000
		Leadership (X1)	-.877	.151	-.685	-5.791	.000
MOI	1	(Constant)	3.812	.297		12.857	.000
		Remuneration (X2)	-.548	.121	-.493	-4.533	.000
	2	(Constant)	4.478	.410		10.931	.000
		Leadership (X1)	-.362	.159	-.290	-2.281	.026
		Remuneration (X2)	-.368	.141	-.331	-2.605	.011
UoN	1	(Constant)	4.894	.179		27.292	.000
		Leadership (X1)	-.609	.060	-.638	-10.221	.000
	2	(Constant)	5.390	.214		25.206	.000
		Promotion (X4)	-.406	.105	-.318	-3.888	.000
		Leadership (X1)	-.401	.078	-.420	-5.133	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Intention to leave							