

**EFFECT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
PRACTICES ON WORKPLACE DIVERSITY IN PUBLIC
UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA**

WAHIDA MAHMUD BANA

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

(Human Resources Management)

**JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY**

2017

**Effect of Human Resource Management Practices on Workplace
Diversity in Public Universities in Kenya**

Wahida Mahmud Bana

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

2017

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for a degree in any other university

Signature..... Date.....

Wahida Mahmud Bana

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

Signature..... Date.....

Dr. Wario Guyo, PhD

JKUAT Kenya

Signature..... Date.....

Prof. Romanus Odhiambo, PhD

JKUAT Kenya

DEDICATION

To my family, my sons, my sisters and my late mother for their prayers and support throughout the study. Alhamdullilla.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to thank the many people who have contributed to make this research possible. First, I must thank the almighty Allah for giving me the wisdom and wellness to do this work. Secondly, I want to give my appreciation to my supervisors Dr. Wario Guyo and Prof. Romanus Odhiambo of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology who have supported and motivated me throughout this study.

I would also like to thank my colleagues and my classmates for giving me the encouragement and academic support. My sincere thanks also go to the Technical university of Mombasa for sponsorship of this study.

Finally, I cannot forget my family particularly my loving late mother Fatuma, my sons Walid, Fahim and Nabil, my sisters Farida, Hamida and Fadiya for their close support, prayers and encouragement and always being there for me.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|--------------|
| DECLARATION..... | ii |
| DEDICATION..... | iii |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENT | iv |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS..... | v |
| LIST OF TABLES | xii |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xv |
| LIST OF APPENDICES..... | xvi |
| LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS | xvii |
| OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS..... | xviii |
| ABSTRACT | xxi |
| CHAPTER ONE..... | 1 |
| INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| 1.1 Background information | 1 |
| 1.1.1 Global Perspective of Workplace Diversity..... | 3 |
| 1.1.2 Regional Perspective of Workplace Diversity | 4 |
| 1.1.3 Local Perspective of Workplace Diversity | 5 |
| 1.1.4 Human Resource Management Practices..... | 6 |
| 1.1.5 Public Universities in Kenya..... | 8 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1.2 Statement of the Problem | 8 |
| 1.3 Research Objectives | 10 |
| 1.3.1 General Objective..... | 10 |
| 1.3.2 Specific Objectives..... | 10 |
| The specific objectives of this research are: | 10 |
| 1.4 Research Hypotheses | 11 |
| 1.5 Justification of the study | 11 |
| 1.5.1 Policy makers | 11 |
| 1.5.2 Universities in Kenya | 12 |
| 1.5.3 Researchers and Scholars..... | 12 |
| 1.5.4 Human Resource Professionals..... | 12 |
| 1.5.5 The Community | 13 |
| 1.6 Scope of the Study | 13 |
| 1.7 Limitations of the Study..... | 13 |
| CHAPTER TWO | 15 |
| LITERATURE REVIEW..... | 15 |
| 2.1 Introduction..... | 15 |
| 2.2 Theoretical Review | 15 |
| 2.2.1 Goal-setting Theory | 15 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 2.2.2 Instructional Design Theory..... | 16 |
| 2.2.3 Human Capital Theory..... | 17 |
| 2.2.4 Expectancy Theory..... | 18 |
| 2.2.5 Schein’s Model of Organizational Culture | 18 |
| 2.2.6 Four Layers of Diversity Model..... | 20 |
| 2.3 Conceptual Framework | 21 |
| 2.4 Empirical Review..... | 24 |
| 2.4.1 Hiring Practices and Workplace Diversity..... | 24 |
| 2.4.2 Performance Appraisal and Workplace Diversity..... | 26 |
| 2.4.3 Employee Compensation and Workplace Diversity | 27 |
| 2.4.4 Training and Development Practices and Workplace Diversity | 29 |
| 2.4.5 Organizational Culture and Workplace Diversity..... | 31 |
| 2.4.6 Workplace diversity | 32 |
| 2.5 Critique of the Literature..... | 35 |
| 2.6 Summary of Literature Review | 36 |
| 2.7 Research Gap | 37 |
| CHAPTER THREE | 39 |
| RESEARCH METHODOLOGY | 39 |
| 3.1 Introduction | 39 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 3.2 Research Design..... | 39 |
| 3.2.1 Research Philosophy | 40 |
| 3.3 Target Population..... | 40 |
| 3.4 Sampling frame | 41 |
| 3.5 Sample size and sampling technique..... | 41 |
| 3.6 Data Collection Instruments..... | 42 |
| 3.7 Data Collection Procedure | 43 |
| 3.8 Pilot Study..... | 43 |
| 3.8.1 Reliability of the Instrument | 45 |
| 3.8.2 Validity of the Instrument | 45 |
| 3.8.3 Data Management | 46 |
| 3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation..... | 46 |
| 3.9.1 Quantitative analysis | 47 |
| 3.9.2 Qualitative Analysis | 49 |
| 3.9.3 Hypothesis Testing..... | 50 |
| 3.10 Measurement of Study Variables | 52 |
| CHAPTER FOUR..... | 54 |
| DATA FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION..... | 54 |
| 4.1 Introduction | 54 |

| | |
|--|----|
| 4.2 Response Rate | 54 |
| 4.3 Results of Pilot Study..... | 54 |
| 4.4 Demographic Information..... | 56 |
| 4.4.1 Distribution of Respondents by Sex..... | 56 |
| 4.4.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age | 57 |
| 4.4.3 Years Worked at the University | 58 |
| 4.4.4 Length of Service in the Current Position..... | 59 |
| 4.4.5 Level of Education | 60 |
| 4.5 Descriptive Analysis | 61 |
| 4.5.1 Construct Hiring Practices | 62 |
| 4.5.2 Construct Performance Appraisal | 65 |
| 4.5.3 Construct Employee Compensation | 67 |
| 4.5.4 Construct Training and Development | 71 |
| 4.5.5 Construct Organizational Culture | 74 |
| 4.4.6 Construct Workplace Diversity..... | 76 |
| 4.6 Requisite Tests | 78 |
| 4.6.1 Factor Analysis..... | 78 |
| 4.6.2 Normality Test | 93 |
| 4.6.3 Multicollinearity Test..... | 95 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 4.7 Inferential Tests..... | 96 |
| 4.7.1 Correlation Analysis..... | 96 |
| 4.7.2 Regression Analysis | 107 |
| 4.7.3 Analysis of Variances | 118 |
| 4.8 Optimal Model | 121 |
| CHAPTER FIVE..... | 123 |
| SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS..... | 123 |
| 5.1 Introduction..... | 123 |
| 5.2 Summary of Findings | 123 |
| 5.2.1 The Effect of Recruitment and Selection Practices on Workplace Diversity | 123 |
| 5.2.2 The Effect of Performance Appraisal Practices on Workplace Diversity. | 124 |
| 5.2.3 The Effect of Employee Compensation Practices on Workplace Diversity | 125 |
| 5.2.4 The Effect of Training and Development Practices on Workplace Diversity | 126 |
| 5.2.5 The Effect of Organizational Culture on Workplace Diversity | 127 |
| 5.3 Conclusions..... | 129 |
| 5.4 Recommendations | 130 |
| 5.5 Suggestions for Further Research | 130 |

REFERENCES..... 131

APPENDICES 155

LIST OF TABLES

| | |
|--|----|
| Table 3.1: Hypothesis testing | 51 |
| Table 3.2: Measurements of Variables..... | 53 |
| Table 4.1: Reliability Analysis | 56 |
| Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Sex..... | 56 |
| Table 4.3: Distribution of Respondents by Age Group..... | 57 |
| Table 4.4: Years Worked at the University..... | 58 |
| Table 4.5: Length of Service in the Current Position..... | 59 |
| Table 4.6: Highest level of Education..... | 60 |
| Table 4.7: Descriptive Results on Hiring Practices | 63 |
| Table 4.8: Descriptive Results on Performance appraisal..... | 66 |
| Table 4.9: Descriptive Analysis of variable Employee compensation..... | 68 |
| Table 4. 10: Descriptive Analysis of variable Training and Development..... | 72 |
| Table 4.11: Descriptive Analysis of Variable Organizational Culture | 75 |
| Table 4.12: Descriptive Results on Workplace Diversity | 77 |
| Table 4.13: Total Variance Explained for HP measures | 79 |
| Table 4.14: Rotated Component Matrix for HP measures | 81 |
| Table 4.15: Total Variance Explained for PA measures | 82 |
| Table 4.16: Rotated Component Matrix for PA measures | 83 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Table 4.17: Total Variance Explained for EC measures | 84 |
| Table 4.18: Component Matrix for EC measures | 85 |
| Table 4.19: Total Variance Explained for TD measures..... | 86 |
| Table 4.20: Rotated Component Matrix for TD measures | 87 |
| Table 4.21: Total Variance Explained for OC measures | 89 |
| Table 4.22: Component Matrix for OC measures | 90 |
| Table 4.23: Total Variance Explained for WD measures | 92 |
| Table 4.24: Component Matrix for WD measures | 93 |
| Table 4.25: Multicollinearity..... | 96 |
| Table 4.26: Correlation Analysis for Recruitment and Selection (HP)..... | 97 |
| Table 4.27: Correlation Analysis for Construct Performance Appraisal Policy, Methods and Targets (PA) | 99 |
| Table 4.28: Correlations Analysis for Construct Employee Compensation (EC)..... | 101 |
| Table 4.29: Correlation Analysis for Diversity Training, Personal Training and Development (TD)..... | 102 |
| Table 4.30: Correlations Analysis for Construct Organizational Culture (OC)..... | 104 |
| Table 4.31: Correlations of all the Variables | 106 |
| Table 4.32: Regression Analysis with Recruitment and Selection Practices | 108 |
| Table 4.33: Regression Analysis with Performance Appraisal policy, Methods and Targets (PA)..... | 110 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 4.34: Regression Analysis with Employee Compensation (EC)..... | 112 |
| Table 4.35: Regression Analysis with Diversity Training, Personal Training and Development (TD)..... | 114 |
| Table 4.36: Regression Analysis with Organization Culture..... | 115 |
| Table 4.37: Regression Coefficients (Individual significance)..... | 117 |
| Table 4.38: Overall Goodness-of-Fit for combined Human Resource Management Practices..... | 117 |
| Table 4.39: ANOVA..... | 119 |
| Table 4.40: Overall Analysis of Variance Model..... | 120 |
| Table 4.41: Multiple Regression Coefficients..... | 120 |
| Table 4.42: Regression Model Summary..... | 122 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | |
|--|----|
| Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework | 23 |
| Figure 4.1: Q-Q Plot for Workplace Diversity | 94 |
| Figure 4.2: Histogram for Workplace Diversity | 95 |

LIST OF APPENDICES

| | |
|--|-----|
| Appendix I: Letter of Introduction..... | 155 |
| Appendix II: Questionnaire | 156 |
| Appendix III: Population of the Study | 169 |
| Appendix IV: Sampling Frame..... | 171 |
| Appendix V: Tests of Hypothesis and Statistical Tools | 173 |

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|-------------|--|
| AA | Affirmative Action |
| CUE | Commission of University Education |
| EEO | Equal Employment Opportunity |
| EM | Employee Compensation |
| EU | European Union |
| HEIs | Higher Education Institutions |
| HP | Hiring Practices |
| HR | Human Resource |
| HRM | Human Resource Management |
| MoE | Ministry of Education |
| NCIC | National Cohesion and Integration Commission |
| PA | Performance Appraisal |
| Rok | Republic of Kenya |
| TD | Training and Development practices |
| USA | United States of America |

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

| | |
|--|---|
| Culture | This is defined as the characteristic way of thinking, feeling and behaving shared among members of an identifiable group (Gibson & Gibbs, 2006). |
| Diversity | This is a mix of people in one social system that have distinctly different, socially relevant group affiliations like gender, age cohort, levels or types of physiological abilities, racio/ethnic identity, religion and other dimensions but also have cultural significance (Ostrom, 2005). |
| Diversity Management Policies | This term is used as an umbrella term for related concepts such as Affirmative Action, Equal Opportunity policies, and managing people from diverse backgrounds. These are all strategies which aim to achieve a better representation of excluded minorities in employment (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012). |
| Employee compensation | This are the financial incentives and the non-financial incentives as the employee compensation seek to improve employee performance as there is a direct relationship between effort and reward (Armstrong, 2010). |
| Hiring Practices | These are the current practices of recruitment, selection and outreach policies that organizations use to hire new employees in the changing environment (Paelmke, 2007). |
| Human resource management practices | This refers to a strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organization's most valued assets – the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the |

| | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Managing Diversity | <p>achievement of its objectives (Armstrong, 2010).</p> <p>This is creating a climate in which the potential advantages of having people from different cultural backgrounds for organisational or group performance are maximised while the potential disadvantages are minimized (Cox, 2001)</p> |
| Monolithic organizations | <p>This organization has a minimal presentation of different cultural groups and the one tribe/race is the dominant group (Cox, 2001).</p> |
| Multicultural organizations | <p>An organization is multicultural if it has an inclusive heterogeneous group ,values diversity, and has full structural integration (Cox, 2001)</p> |
| Organizational culture | <p>This refers to what is valued, the dominant leadership styles, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definitions of success that make an organization unique (Ojo, 2009).</p> |
| Performance | <p>These are the methods of appraisal and the application of the performance appraisal as when the appraisal is good it can enhance employee performance by evaluating them on the job and giving a chance to improve or acquire new skills (Cole,2006)</p> |
| Appraisal practices | |
| Public university | <p>This is an institution of higher learning which is partly funded by the exchequer and provides an educational program for which the institution awards a bachelor's degree or a post graduate degree (RoK, 2006)</p> |

| | |
|---|--|
| Plural organizations | This organization has a more heterogeneous membership than the monolithic organization and takes steps to be more inclusive and accepting of persons from cultural backgrounds that differ from the dominant group (Cox, 2001) |
| Training and Development practices | Training and development practices in this study entails the training opportunity available to the staff, the opportunity for development and also the education facilities for the employees (Noe, 2006) |
| Workplace diversity | In this study workplace diversity refers to the variety of difference (eg. age, sex, education and cultural background) between people in an organization (Cox, 2001).diversity. |

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to examine the effect of human resource management practices on workplace diversity in Public universities in Kenya. The HRM practices selected for the study and which formed the specific objectives of the study were to determine the effect of the Hiring, Performance Appraisals, Employee Compensation and Training and Development practices and the role of Organization Culture on Workplace Diversity. Empirical and theoretical literature on the effect of HRM practices and workplace diversity as articulated by various scholars has been discussed and from the theories and models developed a framework. The study adopted a quantitative research with the specific research design being a descriptive cross sectional survey design. The population of the study was the public universities in Kenya. The sampling frame was the 22 chartered public universities out of which a sample size of 245 managers surveyed. The sampling technique used was purposive sampling. Primary data was collected by use of questionnaires with closed-ended questions and open-ended questions and were administered through drop and pick method. Descriptive statistics were used to compute percentages of respondents' feedbacks. Factor analysis was used to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with the nature of that construct (or factor). Correlation and regression analysis were used to determine the relationship between the research variables. The study findings indicate significance relationship between workplace diversity with hiring practices, performance appraisal, employee compensation and organizational culture. The study findings indicate that, public universities in Kenya have undertaken HRM practices which are aimed at helping them to achieve their goals but they are not consistent in their application. The study recommends that the public universities in Kenya to adopt human resource management practices that favour diversity. This is by ensuring that all human resource personnel and administrative managers at the public universities are trained on human resource management skills. The HR department should play a strategic role in training and implementing diversity policies and practices. The selected HRM practices should be bundled together, because they have a synergistic link so

that the impact of each on workplace diversity is enhanced when the others are present than when used individually.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background information

As the world is shrinking through globalization, more and more people live and work in foreign countries and thus they continually come into contact with people from diverse cultural origins, involving language, norms and lifestyle. The rapidly changing global marketplace, characterized by increased technological advancement, requires organizations to demand a more flexible and competent workforce to be adaptive and to remain competitive (Singh, Winkel & Selvanrajan, 2013). The one-size-fits-all approach to management that was effective 40 years ago is arguably no longer an appropriate strategy for ensuring maximum employee performance (Ricucci, 2002). According to Luring and Selmer (2012) the improvement and management of the people on a global scale inevitably requires dealing with cultural diversity and adopting diversity management strategies in their organizations.

Diversity consists of visible and non-visible differences and diversity management seeks to harness those differences in the pursuit of more productive work environments (Shen, Ashok, D'Netto & Monga, 2009). Workplace diversity includes several dimensions starting from the legal aspect, equal opportunity, and non-discrimination to other valued people's identities and perspectives (Marquis, Lim, Harrell & Kavanagh, 2008). Diversity is based on informational differences reflecting a person's education, experience, and generational differences from the differences that exist within the workplace (Kerby & Burns, 2012; Douglas, 2010).

Diversity is advantageous to both the organization and its staff. A diverse workforce improves an organization's performance and boosts its bottom line (Ozbilgin & Tatli, 2008). The employers receive the most skilled and the most qualified candidates as building blocks of their company when they hire the employees belonging to different cultural thoughts and varied backgrounds. The chances to hire the best and brightest from labor market also amplify after the

workers are trained by diversity management trainers (Kerby & Burns, 2012). Diversity thus embraces difference of opinions and of ideologies (Llopis, 2011) and welcomes individuals to adopt each other's peculiarities while observing a better understanding of the workplace (Llopis, 2011). It helps organizations to develop their own mirrors to reflect global demographic trends which may affect global market (Kwak, 2002; Rahim, Ahmed & Uddin, 2003). The presence of multiple generations in the workplace will not only help in information transformation but will promote cultural and social cohesiveness (Douglas, 2010).

This social phenomenon affects so much the traditional practices of human resource management necessitating a modification in the practice of managing the workforce. Through effective integration of diversity management principles in the key human resource functions of hiring, performance appraisal, employee compensation, training and development and organizational culture an organization can effectively manage workplace diversity (Erwee, 2003). Cox and Blake (1993) classified the workplaces into three types: monolithic organization, plural organization and multicultural organization. Diversity is managed to minimize inter-group conflicts and eliminate institutional bias in their human resource systems (Cox & Beale, 1997; Ozbilgin & Tatli, 2008).

While contemplating people as the most important asset of every organization, it is equally important for HR strategists to recognise human inequalities, otherwise called workplace diversity and manage these effectively (Barbosa, 2007). Particularly, in the context of expansion where interactions among socially and culturally differing people is desired and also inevitable, HR managers could increase individual and group commitment to organisational goals by creating conducive diversity climate (Cox, 1993). Though diversity management is an overarching discipline, HR departments have specific roles in formulating and implementing diversity management practices. As strategic partners, HR managers translate the business strategy into action (Ulrich, Brockbank, Younger & Ulrich, 2012). So it is also reasonable to infer that effective HRM and diversity

management practices contribute to improve the overall organisational performance which in turn is pivotal for sustaining competitive strength.

Organizations having diversity management practices measure the return on diversity in three different forms: quantitative measurements, qualitative measurements and activity based measurements (Bezrukova, Jehn & Spell, 2012). The quantitative measurements focus on the amount or number of persons in an organization based on traditional affirmative action and the measures are based on representation of the workforce, hiring, development, pay equity, promotion, turnover and accessibility of programs and services. While the qualitative measurements focus on customer feedback and employee resource/affinity group. The third form is the activity-based measurements which assess the robustness of an organization's diversity effort in its recruiting, retention, training and diversity commitment.

1.1.1 Global Perspective of Workplace Diversity

Diversity has accordingly become a topic of increased global resonance, with the business case often posited as its centre-piece (Chuang, 2013). The debate has been prompted by changes in labour market demographics including the increased participation of women in the labour force and the need to recruit and retain high quality workers from all demographic backgrounds to remain competitive (Konrad, 2003). The Higher Education Institutions are in many ways operating similarly to the corporate sector in an ever-changing yet uncertain environment characterized by government and higher education policy development, demographic shifts, market forces, economic restructuring, new technologies, and globalization (Huddleston & Unwin, 2013). Higher Education Institutions not only need to respond to these changes in order to remain competitive, but also need to anticipate future changes that will require yet more redesign in the institutions' forms and practices. It is a well-known fact that Higher Education Institutions all over the world play a significant role in the development of any nation's workforce and the economy in general.

Workplace diversity acknowledges the reality that people differ in many ways, visible or invisible, mainly age, gender, marital status, social status, disability, sexual orientation, religion, personality, ethnicity and culture (Kossek & Lobel 2005). However, the predominant diversity issues in each country are different. While gender inequality is the oldest and most common diversity issue worldwide, religion and ethnicity separate people in India, Middle East and Africa and household status differentiates off-farm migrants from urbanites in China. Chinese rural migrants are routinely looked down on by urbanites and mistreated at the workplace and in society. Multiculturalism has always been the most important dimension of diversity in Western countries, including the EU nations, Australia and New Zealand, where there are a large number of international migrants with diverse cultural backgrounds. Racial equality appears to be the predominant issue in both USA and South Africa where there has been a long history of systematic discrimination against blacks and other ethnic minorities. Newly industrialized countries in Asia which are perceived as a major source of competition to Western economies are drawing much attention from both Western and Asian writers under the banner of international HRM while less developed countries especially those in sub-Saharan Africa and Kenya in particular have received limited attention (Debrah, 2007).

1.1.2 Regional Perspective of Workplace Diversity

Research studies in HRM and employment related issues have received considerable attention globally but it is only in the last three decades that some interest has been directed at the status of HRM in developing countries. Instead, enormous amount of work on sub-Saharan African countries has been carried out on issues such as economic development, trade, foreign aid, eradication of poverty, disease and various factors such as economic mismanagement, political ineptitude and corruption which have affected economic and industrial development (Kamoche, Muuka, Horwitz & Debrah, 2004). Although the effective management of human resources is critical in the successful management and development of organizations, several studies have documented the problems and challenges that are affecting most organizations in Africa (Tessema & Soeters, 2006). Some of

these challenges include inappropriate management practices, weak and inefficient decision making, political patronage and governmental interference, inability to fire people, inadequate and non-competitive rewards, particularistic recruitment procedures that includes nepotism and other forms of favouritism among other factors (Kamoche, 2001; Mulinge, 2001; Kamoche *et al.*, 2004a; Tessema & Soeters, 2006).

As a result of these challenges, most organizations, especially the public sector in Africa have been unable to attract, motivate and retain diverse employees resulting in high turnover and ‘brain drain’ levels as most trained employees seek greener pastures in other countries in Africa or overseas (Kamoche *et al.*, 2004a; Tetty, 2006). In order for the African public sector to move away from this culture of failure and managerial ineptitude, it is crucial that it strengthens the human resource function, which is often lowly regarded in organizations (Kamoche *et al.*, 2004b).

1.1.3 Local Perspective of Workplace Diversity

In Kenya, the issue of diversity has received a lot of attention since 2007 after the General elections which led to ethnic clashes, which further led to the enactment of the National Cohesion and Integration Act, (2008). Discrimination in the public service has reached a level of concern as one of the major challenges facing universities with existence of negative ethnicity and intolerance from university administrators (Kibaji, 2010; NCIC, 2012). The negative ethnicity has continued to escalate as the new report from the NCIC (2016) shows that despite the formal measures taken by the government diversity and discrimination issues has not improved at all in the public sector or the universities.

Previously, universities experienced myriad of problems including, nepotism, mismanagement and key appointments being done by the president of the Republic of Kenya (Sifuna, 2010). Poor governance within the public sector also contributed to deficiency in service delivery and lack of capacity building. All this resulted to lack of professionalism and employees being demoralized. Kibaji, (2010) while

confirming management as one of the major challenges facing universities noted existence of negative ethnicity and intolerance from university administrators.

This trend of nepotism and discrimination in the public service can be changed by having diversity management policies in place which in the process will encourage workplace. This has also been supported by Omolo, (2010), where it has been observed that the gap between Kenya's economy and those of the high performing Asian tigers has widened tremendously since the country's independence in 1963 with Kenya recording low GDP compared to the Asian tiger countries. This is because developed countries and the Asian tigers, have over the years emphasized on workplace diversity leading to increased productivity and to improved GDP as well as raised standards of living.

There have been studies done on diversity in Kenya in the private sector which have shown that the workplace diversity is successful, especially in the banking industry having different branches all over the country, implying that good human resource management practices are in place and implementation is to the book leaving no room for discrimination, thus promoting efficiency and effectiveness in their operations. In the case of the public sector this is the opposite as diversity is totally ignored thus workplaces are not having a diversified workforce and are not benefitting from the advantages of diversity, whereas the public sector should be spearheading is activity to unite the nation.

This shows that universities and public sector should provide and encourage adequate utilization of resources to empower employees and priority be given to diversity management efforts.

1.1.4 Human Resource Management Practices

Human resource management contributes to value creation by increasing intellectual capital within the firm (Ulrich *et al.*, 2012). Unlike in the past, contemporary Human Resource Management is more business focused than

administering workforce welfare. Its core functions such as employee selection, compensation and development are streamlined to support organizational strategy by providing a pool of knowledge workers. A flexible knowledge workforce represents competitive advantage for organizations focusing on strategic expansion. Human resource management is responsible and accountable for the most important and appreciable asset of every organization, namely its people and can provide a constant flow of qualified human resources required to fulfill business strategy. (Stone, 2005),

The Human Resource Management practices that are successful in one country may not render the required results in another (Erwee, 2003). While wide consensus among scholars about the need for alignment between business strategy and Human Resource strategy exists, experts disagree about the existence of one set of best Human Resource Management practices that work always and everywhere. Cox and Beale, (1997) advocate a contingency approach that takes company specific attributes into account whereas the findings from a multinational longitudinal study reveals that there are international Human Resource Management best practices (Ulrich *et al.*, 2012). It has been stated that the truth lies somewhere between the two extremes of the best practices approach and contingency approach (DeNisi & Griffin, 2006). Nevertheless, the ultimate goal of both approaches is to detect, develop and utilize the skills and potential of all people in the organization.

Ozbilgin and Tatli, (2008) highlight that in order to manage a multicultural workplace respecting traditions and culture, it is necessary to implement a new approach of human resource management which integrates and valorizes the diversity of the workforce. Human Resource Management should incorporate diversity management as a core function. This should in the context of expansion of organizations to culturally and socially differing destinations, as it can make substantial contributions to overall performance. To know how well Human Resource Management practices of Kenyan public universities influence the expansion strategy, it is necessary to understand the existing practices and their conceptual convergences and differences.

1.1.5 Public Universities in Kenya

Public universities in Kenya are charged with the responsibility of providing higher education to all in the country on a competitive yet balanced basis accounting for 80% of the total university students' enrolment in the country (MoE, 2009). The universities were previously established under individual Acts of Parliament until the enactment of Universities Act No. 42 (2012) which saw all individual Acts repealed and public universities re-accredited through charter award after institutional quality audits. All public universities in Kenya operate under the oversight of Commission for University Education to which they are accredited a move aimed at promoting, regulating, monitoring and dealing with all matters related to university education. Currently there are twenty-two (22) fully accredited public universities and nine (9) constituent colleges (CUE, 2013).

The public universities are in different geographical locations in the country and are autonomous in matters of management of their human resources. All public universities major funding is by the government their core activities being teaching, research and consultancy services and this therefore calls for recruitment of varied employees from skilled to unskilled, for example, lecturers, administrative staff as well as support staff. However, administrative and support staff forms the bulk of public universities staff. Being public establishments, public universities are also affected by legislations and government directives that are deemed to be of national interest and best human resource practices. Zusman, (2005) recognized that universities of the 21st century experience profound challenges to the nature, values, and control of universities. As demand for university education continues to grow, it places demand on the university facilities, lecturers and non-teaching staff. The issue of diversity has been necessitated by unprecedented changes in the environment on how to manage human resources.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The concept of workforce diversity has increasingly become a “hot-button” issue in political, legal, corporate and educational arenas. Ozbilgin and Tatli, (2008) argue

that a cultural diverse workforce is economically beneficial, and improves performance by 20% to 30%.

Kenya aims to achieve industrialization and sustained economic growth consistent with the Government's employment, wealth creation and poverty reduction objectives. The universities have to spear head this growth and this can only be achieved by having people from all parts of Kenya indiscriminatingly working together, thus having a diversified workplace All this is being done through many efforts among them the promotion of higher education, which are top priority under vision 2030. Kenya aims to increase its annual GDP growth rates to 10% and to maintain that average until the year 2030 (Vision 2030). However what has been achieved so far between the years of 2010 to 2015 has been 8.7% in 2010, 5.8 % in 2011, 4.5% in 2012, 6.8% in 2013, 5.2% in 2014, 5.8% 2015 and 5.8% 2016 (KNBS, 2017), clearly this falls short of the targeted 10% annual GDP growth rate. GDP per capita may therefore be viewed as a rough indicator of a nation's prosperity. Through the efficient use diverse human resources at the training level the experts can reap the benefits of the knowledge, skills and change in attitude about having a diverse workforce and consequently a higher growth rate can be achieved. Going by the above analysis, Kenya's growth target is seemingly ambitious and cannot be realized and sustained without serious human resource management reforms

Various authors have demonstrated that there is a link between specific HRM practices and a firm's productivity (Mukanzi, 2013; Kepha, 2014; Sang, 2015; Guyo, 2015). According to Lankeu and Maket (2012), there is a need to look at modern HRM practices in Kenya that ensure maximum utilization of human resources at the workplace.

The Human Resource Management function is the custodian of the people management processes while the workplace diversity is an employee centered function that can be streamlined through Human Resource Management (Armstrong, 2013; Shen, *et al.*, 2009). The Human Resource Management toolkits addresses inequality in hiring practices, performance appraisal, employee

compensation, training and development and role of organization culture which can improve inclusiveness and enhance creativity in a diverse workforce (Gupta, 2013; Hubbard, 2004; Ozbilgin & Tatli, 2008). Nevertheless, most of these studies focused on diversity setting in developing countries.

While the trend of emphasis in workplace diversity is picking up internationally the situation in Kenya, particularly in the public sector is far from the reality of the trends (Kibaji, 2010). This is seen from the few local studies done (Munjuri & Maina, 2013; Oluoch, 2006; Ikama, 2010; Mureithi, 2009; Shume, 2013) that focused on the workplace diversity in Kenya. However, all these local studies focus on the status of workplace diversity and do not attempt to address the gap from any perspective. The studies have all proven that there is not diversity in the certain sectors in the public service but have not addressed why they have gone wrong and need to rectify.

There is therefore a dearth of information on how the human resource function influences workplace diversity in Kenya. This study therefore examines the effect of Human Resource Management practices on workplace diversity in Public Universities in Kenya.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 General Objective

The overall objective of the study was to find out the effect of human resource management practices on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this research are:

- i. To find out the effect of hiring practices on workplace diversity in public university in Kenya.
- ii. To examine the effect of performance appraisal on workplace diversity in public university in Kenya.

- iii. To investigate the effect of employee compensation on workplace diversity in public university in Kenya.
- iv. To determine the effect of training and development on workplace diversity in public university in Kenya.
- v. To examine the effect of organizational culture on workplace diversity in public university in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

In the light of the above discussions, the following null hypotheses have been formulated:

H₀₁: Hiring practices have no significant effect on workplace diversity

H₀₂: Performance appraisal practices have no significant effect on workplace diversity.

H₀₃: Employee compensation has no significant effect on workplace diversity.

H₀₄: Training and development practices have no significant effect on workplace diversity.

H₀₅: Organizational Culture has no significant effect on workplace diversity.

1.5 Justification of the study

Generally, the findings of the study will contribute to the general body of knowledge, new theories and models. Specifically the following will benefit from this study.

1.5.1 Policy makers

The recommendations of the study will assist policy makers as a reference for future policies involving human resource management practices and workplace diversity. The findings from the research broaden knowledge in the area of human resource management practices and workplace diversity and will propel

universities to adopt the diversity initiatives. It is of great significance in offering guidelines to address challenges in the implementation of the policies on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya as well as other public establishments especially in the wake of the much needed organizational cohesion as well as availing equal employment opportunities. It provides a reference in the formulation and review of current policies on managing employee diversity in public establishments.

1.5.2 Universities in Kenya

By identifying factors that can help the universities in Kenya respond to the challenges of managing a diversified workforce this study aimed to provide guidelines to university administrators to develop infrastructure which would enable them to attract and retain top level faculty at their respective universities. From the insights of this study, employees understand various forms of diversity management initiatives and thus help their organizations in initiating human resource management practices to effectively manage workplace diversity.

1.5.3 Researchers and Scholars

The study may be invaluable to the researchers and scholars in providing more insight on the importance of human resource management practices on workplace diversity. The human resource management practices will assist the organizations get and retain the diverse employees thus improve their performance (Noe, 2010).

1.5.4 Human Resource Professionals

The study enables human resource professionals in Kenyan public universities and other public sector institutions to tackle the challenges of ensuring employee diversity not just in compliance with the legal requirements but to also reap the benefits from the many benefits of diversity. It erases the ambiguity in diversity management and provide a guide on putting in place programmes for managing workforce diversity as well as employing strategies for management of workforce diversity. There exists a research need to understand diversity and its

issues in Kenya as a prerequisite for developing strategies that are more effective than legislation in dealing with employee perception of equity in the work place.

1.5.5 The Community

The study offers assistance to public and private organizations to gain knowledge about the perceptions of human resource managers and non-managers on current workplace diversity, as they are responsible for the human resource management functions. To all employees not only in the public universities, the research is beneficial in that proper diversity management can increase an employee's self-esteem and feeling of belonging to the organization. This study therefore provides a reference material in bridging the knowledge gap between human resource management practices and workplace diversity.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study surveyed all the public universities in Kenya. The scope was limited to only an investigation of the effect of the human resource management practices on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya which currently are only twenty two (22) chartered.

The study focused on the conceptualized effect of human resource management practices of hiring, performance appraisal, pay, training and development and organizational culture on workplace diversity in the public universities in Kenya. This study focused on the human resource managers and administrators of the Public Universities. The responses represent the effect of human resource practices on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya as at the time the respondents were surveyed only. The population of the study was the 245 managers.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The researcher faced challenges on the time taken to return the questionnaires as most of the respondents were busy officers and did not fill them within the expected time of one to two days as expected. The researcher dealt with this

challenge by following the respondents physically through several visits and through the use of telephone calls. Some respondents also did not understand the role of academic research as the diversity issue is not a welcomed topic in Kenya today and had reservations about the questionnaire feeling that their privacy was being interfered with. This was sorted by taking time to explain to them and assuring them that the results would be used for academic purposes only. The research restricted itself to public university senior managers only leaving out the private universities which can be a subject of future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews both empirical and theoretical literature on the study as articulated by various scholars. The study focused on the theories and models and developed a framework. Lastly, a review of empirical evidence from past studies was done from which the research gaps was identified.

2.2 Theoretical Review

This section reviews theoretical proposition that have relevance to the understanding of the subject matter under study. Theoretical frameworks are important tools in research as they help researchers focus and ground their research questions (Murphy, 2009). Bacharach (2009) defined a theory as a statement of relations among concepts within a boundary assumptions and constraints. This section discusses the following theories and models which are the most relevant to the study; Goal-setting theory, Instructional system design theory, Human Capital Theory, Expectancy theory, the Schein's model of organizational culture, explain the independent variables, while the Four Layer of Diversity Model relates to the dependent variable.

2.2.1 Goal-setting Theory

This theory suggests that performance appraisal should be based on the proposed goals of the organization which needed to have been communicated and internalized by employees (Locke & Latham, 2013). The theory suggests that when employees set up their individual goals they are more motivated to achieve them hence managers should involve human resource when setting up goals and when appraising them (Salman, Khan & Javaid, 2016). The important features of goal setting theory are the willingness to work towards attainment of goal, specific and clear goals lead to greater output and better performance. While better and appropriate feedback of results directs the employee behavior and contributes to higher performance than

absence of feedback. Goals should be realistic and challenging to give individual a feeling of pride when he attains them and lastly, participation of setting goal makes goal more acceptable and leads to more involvement. This theory is appropriate to the study as it is important that the employees are willing to work and achieve their objectives and at evaluation are seen to have done so, implying that with a fair system of evaluation it promotes workplace diversity.

2.2.2 Instructional Design Theory

Instructional design theory originates from United States military training for soldiers and offers explicit guidance on how to better help people learn and develop (Rothwell & Kazanas, 1992). The theory explains how to improve human performance through learning in organized processes that can be measured. The kinds of learning and development may include cognitive, emotional, social, physical and spiritual. The commonest version of this theory is the ADDIE model. According to Rothwell and Benkowski (2002) ADDIE model is a useful tool for training and development. The analysed stages involved identifying current job problems and comparing them with desired performance (Armstrong, 2004). The aim at this stage is to study the current skills held by the employees and to compare them with the desired skills after which the need gap is identified for further training. The design process starts immediately after the analysis phase and includes determining performance objectives, methodologies and programmes by trainers (Rothwell & Benkowski, 2002). This training would also involve the priorities established in the first phase based on what is already known to more complex organizational learning process in order to improve the quality of the training experiences (Steenhussein, 2014). The development stage is where training materials are developed based on the training needs (Reigeluth, 2013). The training materials should be clear, concise and effective to suit the training needs. It is also at this stage where prototypes are developed (Reigeluth, 2013). A unique feature of this theory is that the methods they offer are situational rather than universal implying that one method may work best in one situation while another may work best in a different situation. This theory implies that training and development should be done to cater for the different organizational functions like

managing cultural differences, personal and career management and development thus being a major pillar for promoting workplace diversity.

2.2.3 Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory acknowledges the values that people can contribute to an organization and regards people as assets stressing that investment by organizations in people will generate worthwhile returns (Tan, 2014). Human capital theory is associated with resource-based view of the firm which proposes that sustainable competitive advantage is attained when a firm has a human resource pool that cannot be imitated or substituted by its rivals (Shaw, Park, & Kim, 2013). Becker (2004) argues that human capital theory helps determine the impact of people on the business and their contribution to shareholder value; demonstrates that Human Resource Management practices produce value for money in terms of return on investment; provides guidance on future human resource management practices and business strategies and data that will form strategies and practices designed to improve effectiveness of people management in organizations.

According to Armstrong (2013), individuals generate, retain and use knowledge and skills to create intellectual capital. Their knowledge is enhanced by the interactions between themselves and this generates the additional knowledge possessed by an organization (Armstrong, 2013). He argues that Human capital consists of knowledge, skills and abilities of the people employed in an organization. In the context of this study, it is indeed the knowledge, skills and abilities of individuals that create value, which is why the focus has to be on means of hiring, retaining, developing and maintaining the human capital they represent. This theory contributes to the study as the organizations need to ensure they have the right human resources as they do their recruitment and selection and should be able to develop and retain them. and this is need for an organization to have workplace diversity.

2.2.4 Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) focuses on the link between rewards and behaviors (instrumentality perceptions), although it emphasizes expected rather than experienced rewards for example incentives. Motivation is also a function of two other factors: expectancy, the perceived link between effort and performance, and valence, the expected value of outcomes like rewards. Compensation systems differ according to their impact on these motivational components.

Generally, pay systems differ most in their impact on instrumentality: the perceived link between behaviors and pay. Valence of pay outcomes should remain the same under different pay systems. Expectancy perceptions often have more to do with job design and training than pay systems. According to Salman, Khan, and Javaid, (2016) this theory asserts that employees adjust their behaviors in the workplace based on their anticipated satisfaction of the goals that they set. Employees further modify their behavior to enable them to attain these goals in the future. The theory adds value to this study as compensation is related to behavior of the human resources which also determines the way they related to each other in the organization. thus promoting workplace diversity.

2.2.5 Schein's Model of Organizational Culture

Schein's (1992) model of organizational culture is not only one of the most cited culture models but also one that serves a high degree of abstraction and complexity reduction. It mainly consists of three domains: basic underlying assumptions, espoused values, and artifacts. He distinguishes between observable and unobservable elements of culture. Visible behavior influences and is influenced by unobservable assumptions through rules, standards, and prohibitions. According to Schein (1992), culture is the most difficult organizational attribute to change, outlasting organizational products, services, founders and leadership and all other physical attributes of the organization.

At the first level of Schein's model is organizational attributes that can be seen, felt and heard by the uninitiated observer - collectively known as artifacts. Included are

the facilities, offices, furnishings, visible awards and recognition, the way that its members dress, how each person visibly interacts with each other and with organizational outsiders, and even company slogans, mission statements and other operational creeds. Artifacts comprise the physical components of the organization that relay cultural meaning.

Denison (1990) describes artifacts as the tangible aspects of culture shared by members of an organization. Verbal, behavioral and physical artifacts are the surface manifestations of organizational culture. Rituals, the collective interpersonal behavior and values as demonstrated by that behavior, constitute the fabric of an organization's culture. The contents of myths, stories, and sagas reveal the history of an organization and influence how people understand what their organization values and believe. Language, stories, and myths are examples of verbal artifacts and are represented in rituals and ceremonies. Technology and art exhibited by members or an organization are examples of physical artifacts.

The next level deals with the professed culture of an organization's members - the values. Shared values are individuals' preferences regarding certain aspects of the organization's culture. At this level, local and personal values are widely expressed within the organization. Basic beliefs and assumptions include individuals' impressions about the trustworthiness and supportiveness of an organization, and are often deeply ingrained within the organization's culture. Organizational behavior at this level usually can be studied by interviewing the organization's membership and using questionnaires to gather attitudes about organizational membership.

At the third and deepest level, the organization's tacit assumptions are found. These are the elements of culture that are unseen and not cognitively identified in everyday interactions between organizational members. Additionally, these are the elements of culture which are often taboo to discuss inside the organization. Many of these 'unspoken rules' exist without the conscious knowledge of the membership. Those with sufficient experience to understand this deepest level of organizational culture usually become acclimatized to its attributes over time, thus

reinforcing the invisibility of their existence. Surveys and casual interviews with organizational members cannot draw out these attributes—rather much more in-depth means is required to first identify then understand organizational culture at this level.

Notably, culture at this level is the underlying and driving element often missed by organizational behaviorists. Using Schein's model, understanding paradoxical organizational behaviors becomes more apparent. For instance, an organization can profess highly aesthetic and moral standards at the second level of Schein's model while simultaneously displaying curiously opposing behavior at the third and deepest level of culture. Superficially, organizational rewards can imply one organizational norm but at the deepest level imply something completely different. This insight offers an understanding of the difficulty that organizational newcomers have in assimilating organizational culture and why it takes time to become acclimatized. It also explains why organizational change agents usually fail to achieve their goals: underlying tacit cultural norms are generally not understood before would-be change agents begin their actions. This theory shows that the study needs to understand the organization culture at the deepest level, although it may be insufficient to institute cultural change because the dynamics of interpersonal relationships often under threatening conditions are added to the dynamics of organizational culture which affect workplace diversity.

2.2.6 Four Layers of Diversity Model

This model, developed by Gardenswartz and Rowe (2003), draws attention to the less visible aspects of diversity, as each layer of diversity is salient for how we approach the organization. This model helps managers to understand that diversity comprises many characteristics of people at work, not only a few. The manager will seek to understand these factors and dimensions of diversity to ensure he is bringing out all aspects of an individual's talents and abilities to support the organization's mission and goals.

The first layer, personality, includes an individual's likes and dislikes, values and beliefs. Personality is shaped early in life and is both influenced by, and influences,

the other three layers throughout one's lifetime and career choices. The second layer, internal dimensions, includes those aspects of diversity over which we have no control (Loden & Rosener, 1991). In this layer many divisions between and among people exist, and which forms the core of many diversity efforts. These dimensions include characteristics we first see in other people such as age, race, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, physical ability and on which we make assumptions and judgements.

The third layer represents external dimensions, aspect of our lives over which we have some control, that might change over time and that usually form the basis for decisions on careers and work styles(Loden & Rosener, 1991).This layer often determines, in part, with whom we develop friendships, and what we do for work. It tells us with whom we like to associate, and decisions we make in hiring and promotions at work. The dimension included characteristics like marital status, geographic location, income, personal habits, religion, educational background, appearance, parental status, work experience.

Finally, organizational dimensions represent the culture found in a work setting. Preferential treatment and opportunities for development or promotion are affected by the aspects of this final layer. The characteristics in this dimension include work content field, division/department/unit/group, seniority, work location, union affiliation, management status, functional level/classification. This model describes the study variable workplace diversity and why there is need to understand the dimensions that shape and affect both the individual and the organisation. The internal dimensions often receive primary attention in successful diversity initiatives; however, the elements of the external and organizational dimensions often determine the way people are treated, who fits or not in a department, who gets the opportunity for development or promotions, and who gets recognized thus facilitating workplace diversity.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework refers to a graphical representation of the theorized interrelationships of the variables of a study (Odhiambo & Waiganjo, 2014). The

conceptualization of variables in academic study is important because it forms the basis for testing hypothesis and coming up with generalizations in the findings of the study (Pickard, 2012).

In this study, the independent variables are the conceptualized human resource management practices in public universities. The independent variables of the study included hiring practices, performance appraisal, employee compensation, training and development and organizational culture. The conceptual framework has further explained the sub variables to be tested in each variable which are the measures that will be tested in the questionnaire in order to reject or fail to reject the hypothesis. The dependent variable is workplace diversity and the operationalization of the variables is shown in figure 2.1.

The hiring practices for this study involve the recruitment, selection and the outreach process that the universities are doing to enhance workplace diversity. This is because hiring employees is a human activity in which personality, fit and many intangible qualities play crucial roles and a new employee changes the organization for the better or the worse.

Performance appraisal practices are the most important human resource management practices as they provide valuable information for a reward, promotion, assessment of training needs and feedback on development therefore the method of appraisal is very important and the application of the appraisal results.

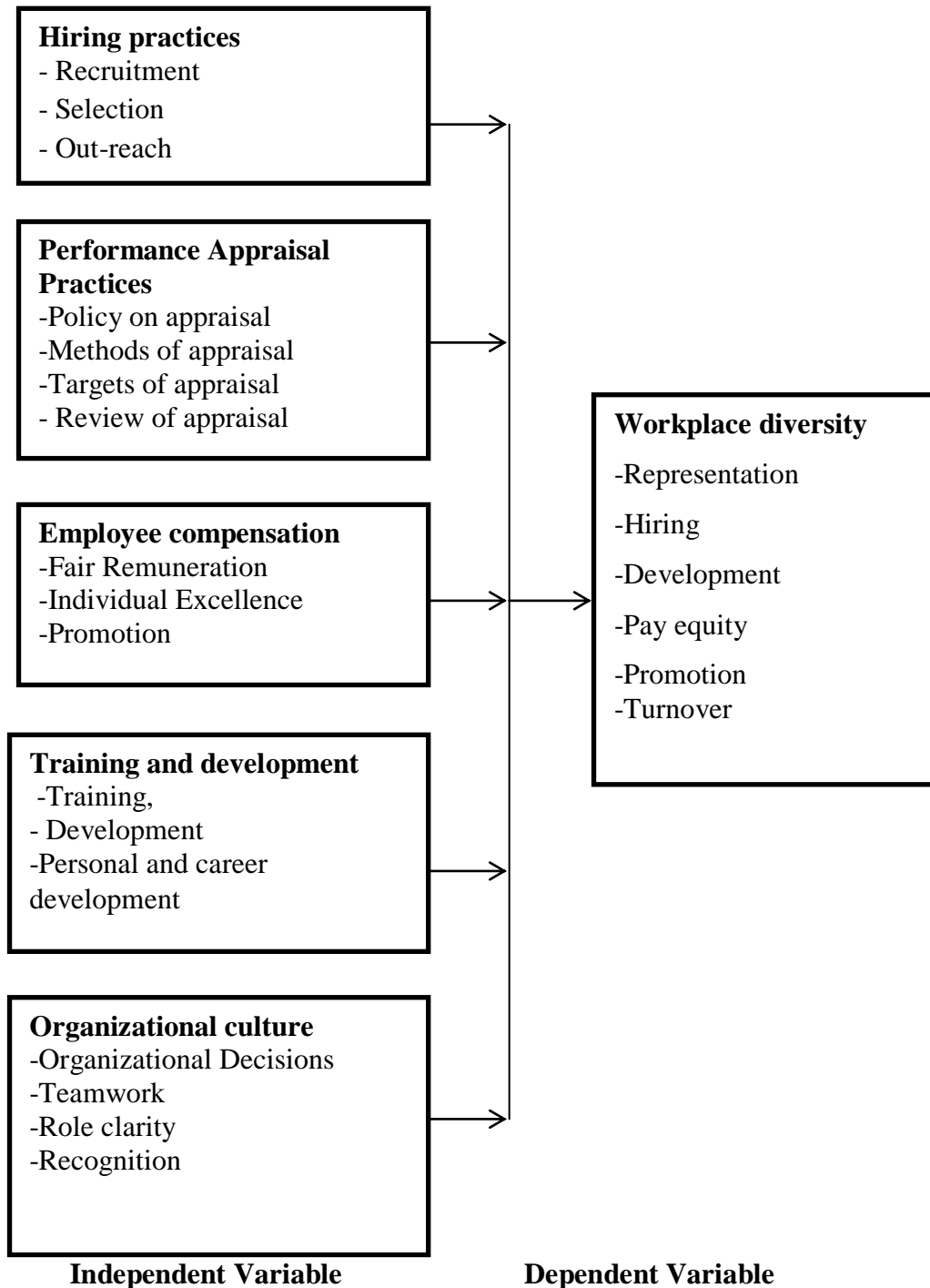


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

Employee compensation is another variable on the conceptual framework and here the rewarding will consider the financial and the non-financial as when employees are satisfied the retention rate will be high and will be able to get a diversified workplace, as can attract from far and wide.

Training and development act as inducements between the organization and the individual and when they are given on merit promote they improve performance of the organization. This study considers the training and development programs and the personal and career development of the universities and how it enhances workplace diversity. The study considers the variable organizational culture as it a tool to understand and analyze the human behavior in the workplace in dealing with organizational decisions, team-work, role clarity and recognition. It is the taken for granted values, beliefs, practices and norms that indicate to its members the appropriate behaviours in each specific circumstances.

Lastly, the study considers the dependent variable workplace diversity and will use the quantitative measurements which are representation, hiring, development, pay equity, promotion and turnover in an organization.

2.4 Empirical Review

The literature analyzed below indicates the different studies and their area of focus on human resource management practices and workplace diversity relationship. These studies arrived at findings that have brought out the research gaps which have informed the current study. The study focused on these gaps with a view to making a contribution to the human resource management and workplace diversity debate by researchers and academicians.

2.4.1 Hiring Practices and Workplace Diversity

Successful organizations can benefit from workforce diversity by creating an organized environment which attracts people from diverse labour markets. Managing diversity promotes competitive edge by recruiting the best people for the job, regardless of age, gender, ethnicity or other individual characteristics

(Ozbilgin & Tatli, 2008). Empirical evidence suggests that many employees and managers regard diversity management as being equal to having an equal opportunity for any person to enter the organization.

Many world class organizations have been effective in hiring women and minorities to mirror the increasingly diverse markets and win over new customers (Shen, 2009). Managerial attention to increased work force diversity has been mandated in IBM, Xerox and J. C. Penney (Ted 2005). Digital, Esso and Westpac all set Equal Employment Opportunity targets in their HR practices (Kramar 1998). Alcoa recruits and retains high caliber people through harnessing the creative capacity of its employees. Alcoa creates a work environment and culture where this creativity will flourish (DIMIA 2002). Allen, Dawson, Wheatley and White (2004) conducted a survey of 396 employees from a wide variety of companies in Australia to examine 13 separate diversity practices. Ninety-three per cent of the companies reported a zero-tolerance level of workplace discrimination in recruitment. South Africa addresses its past segregation and discrimination policies by way of Affirmative Action programs demanding the appointment sometimes of a black person above a better qualified white candidate (Van Jaarsveld 2000). Before the 1979 amendments to the Industrial Conciliation Act, recruitment, employment level and access to skilled positions were virtually controlled by established white trade unions in South Africa.

Despite several decades of equality legislation and declared commitment to equal opportunities, there still exists a systematic discrimination in the hiring practices (Kazi, 2013). Morrison (1992) conducted a survey of managers in 16 'model' US organizations and found that most organizations introduced just one approach to equality, instead of an array of measures intended to make the organizational climate more supportive. He proposed that managing diversity can complement affirmative action strategies and new employment policies and practices to address the failure of organizations to promote women and racial and ethnic minorities into higher levels of management.

Klarsfeld, Booysen, Ng, Roper and Tatli (2014) found that there is widespread discrimination in employment in Australia. Klinger, Nalbandian and Llorens (2015) argued that the increasingly competitive environment makes it difficult for public sector managers to maintain the levels of organizational commitment required for equal employment opportunity to be truly meaningful. Worldwide, only 54% of working-age women are in the workforce compared to 80% of men (Kossek *et al.*, 2005).

2.4.2 Performance Appraisal and Workplace Diversity

Performance appraisal is among the most important human resource management practice because of its ability to provide valuable performance information for a number of human resource activities such as allocation of rewards, promotion, assessment of training needs and feedback on development (Kuvaas, Dysvik, & Buch 2014). Consequently, it enables organizations to retain, motivate and develop productive and diverse employees. A good performance appraisal system can help to enhance employee performance by evaluating how employees are doing on the job and giving them the chance to correct their mistakes and acquire new skills (Armstrong, 2013).

Despite the importance of performance appraisals to organizations, the different methods of appraisal continue to pose challenges to managers and the employees who use them. Bernardin and Wiatrowski (2013) noted that organizations continue to express disappointment in performance appraisal methods despite advances in appraisal technology. Appraisal reliability and validity still remain major problems in most appraisal systems and new appraisal systems are often met with substantial resistance. Other problems that afflict performance appraisal process include subjectivity and intentional as well as inadvertent bias (Aggrawal & Thakur, 2013). Therefore, since application of appraisal often plays a role in decisions related to training and career development, promotions, rewards and redundancy programmes, perceptions of fairness must be a necessary consideration. Managers therefore must not be seen to deliberately omit potentially important performance

criteria during assessment or include irrelevant factors which might result in resentment leading to job dissatisfaction or high turnover.

Kamoche *et al.* (2004a) reports that performance appraisals in organizations in Kenya have been complicated by cultural and social issues. For instance, employees who know influential people in the organization who can protect them, tend to be spared when performance appraisals are used to select workers for redundancy, thus placing politics and good interpersonal relationships above organizational goal-oriented performance. Arthur, Woehr, Akande and Strong (1995) in a study of 38 organizations in Ghana and organizations from Nigeria, found that there were no set performance goals and that the performance criteria were often vaguely defined.

This vagueness in performance criteria encourages subjectivity in the performance appraisal process. In addition, African cultural norms have been found to have a negative impact on the appraisal process (Aryee, 2004). Tessema and Soeters (2006) in a study of Eritrean civil servants found that appraisal systems are often one-sided whereby the supervisor's view of the subordinates' performance prevails. However, workplace diversity scholars point to the glass ceiling that is a barrier to promotion into management (Gupta, 2013). Multicultural employees are often perceived as not having the right skills to move into management positions. Thus, the glass ceiling creates artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organizational bias that prevent qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organization (Nyambegeera, 2002).

2.4.3 Employee Compensation and Workplace Diversity

Employee compensation seeks to improve employee performance by rewarding those who have made a contribution to the organization's performance. Good Employee compensation ensures that there is a direct relationship between effort and reward. Thus, a performance-based compensation is viewed as being effective when the process of providing measurable rewards is appropriately linked to the individual or group performance (Armstrong, 2013). Effective employee compensation is the backbone of all policies concerning the acquisition and

utilization of human resources. In pure economic terms, monetary compensation has been perceived as fundamental to the exchange relationship between employers and employees since it can be measured more objectively (Singh *et al.*, 2013). Employees are therefore able to evaluate their perceptions of equity or justice in the organizational context.

According to Purce (2014), a pay system is also required to retain the most valuable employees by distributing the rewards in such a way that these employees are left with a feeling of satisfaction. An effective performance-based pay system should sustain high levels of performance from the organization's human resources, leading to employee satisfaction and improved performance. Thus, performance-based pay systems can help to reduce wage disparities for diverse employees, since there is a direct relationship between pay and performance.

Studies have shown that satisfactory employee compensation may serve as an indication of how much an organization values its people. Storey, (2014) point out that merely introducing higher wages will increase an individual's perception of low job alternatives but has no effect on improving the alignment of employee's goals with the organization. Comm and Mathaisel (2003), examined faculty workload and compensation of Australian academics, found that 51% of the faculty did not believe that they were compensated fairly, relative to those at other comparable institutions. As a result, 50% of the respondents felt the need to work outside their institutions to earn extra income. This need presents a challenge to the academics loyalty to their university since they are employed to work full-time in their institution but also have to work elsewhere.

Salaries in public universities in Kenya are based on a structured salary scale with a pre-determined 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. The problem of low wages and fringe benefits in the public sector is compounded by unfair practices in the remuneration of workers due to unclear and inconsistent

wage policies resulting in arbitrary pay differences for different cadres of staff (Kamoche, 2004). Examining this proposition calls for in-depth knowledge about the employee compensation at the public universities in Kenya.

2.4.4 Training and Development Practices and Workplace Diversity

Training and development represents an area within HRM practices that can have a significant impact on workplace diversity to the organization. Although training and development programmes may act as inducements, they may also be viewed as investments in the relationship between organizations and individuals which can contribute to employees' performance (Kipkebut, 2010). The goal of training and development programs of all organizations should be to maintain or improve the performance of individuals and, in so doing, that of the organization (Appiah, 2012). Effective management of workplace diversity involves not just recruiting diverse employees but also retaining them. One way of increasing retention rates is by providing adequate training and development opportunities to employees (Kerby & Burns, 2012).

Recent research suggests that HR practices, such as employee development affect organizational outcomes by shaping employee behaviours and attitudes (Huselid, 1995). Provision of training opportunities may be interpreted by employees as an indication of the organization's commitment to its human resources leading to a strong psychological bonding with the organization and a willingness to expend extra effort to increase the organization's effectiveness (Hubbard 2004). Through training, employees may develop a positive self-concept and a sense of competence resulting from the employment relationship, leading to greater identity with the organization (Noe, 2007).

In Kenyan universities, for instance, the highest turnover rates are in the faculties of medicine, engineering, science and information technology (Kipkebut, (2010). Day and Peluchette (2009) found that faculty members were not enthusiastic about the training and development offered by their schools. Faculty perceived that avenues for skill improvement in technological developments (i.e. training in enhanced classroom technology and other forms of instructional support) were

lacking. In addition, Day and Peluchette (2009) report that lack of formal training of business school administrators being deans and department chairs was likely to undermine the business schools ability to cope with the increasing pace of change in business and the need for schools to be responsive to not only the needs of their students but also to the community and their institution.

One of the problems arising from organizational training is identifying the quality and relevance of the training being provided. Marchington and Wilkinson (2005) found that most organizations were only concerned with the quantitative aspects of training, like the cost and time invested resulting in workers who were overqualified for their jobs leading to poor motivation and low morale. Another disadvantage in relation to training is that these activities are often regarded as a significant cost rather than an investment by organizations.

According to Kamoche *et al.* (2004b), training in organizations in Kenya is mainly treated as a cost and with the volatile economic situation in Kenya, managers are finding it difficult to view training as an investment because of its uncertain value. Where training exists, it is usually limited to equipping the employees with narrowly-defined, firm-specific skills that facilitate the attainment of short-term objectives. This is consistent with traditional HRM whereby training is viewed as a 'burden' while training policies are unclear and vague (Kamoche, 2000b). Tessema and Soeters (2006) also report that public sector employees in most developing countries who have received training paid for by their governments have been unable to utilize their expertise due to unattractive compensation and therefore opt to move to the private sector or overseas.

Therefore, in order for organizations to develop and raise the level of productivity, there is a need to transform the way they develop people by nurturing cultures that value contribution from their employees, undertake cost-effective training activities that are geared to enhancing labour productivity and product quality (Kamoche *et al.*, 2004a). In the case of multicultural employees, training may also assist in understanding special rules and regulations that apply to the workplace. Diverse employees often feel neglected and do not perceive any career paths.

Examining this proposition calls for in-depth knowledge about the training and development practices at the public universities in Kenya.

2.4.5 Organizational Culture and Workplace Diversity

Since, it became prominent in the management field in 1980s, organizational culture is regarded as a powerful and original tool to understand and analyze the human behavior in the workplace (Noe, 2007). Organizational culture can be defined as the set of taken-for-granted values, beliefs, practices, and norms that indicate to its members the appropriate behaviours in each specific circumstance (Schein, 1985). To be accepted in the work place, newcomers are encouraged to adopt the current organizational values and artefacts whereas existing members tend to distrust, fear, and dislike people with other ideas (Garibaldi de Hilal, 2009). Organizations tend to attract and retain individuals from similar social and demographic backgrounds and to discriminate dissimilar ones in recruitment, selection, career development, and informal integration (Lai & Lee, 2007).

Organizational culture works as a mechanism of social control that promotes behavioural uniformity and the assimilation of the dominant values. Such demand originates high levels of stress in people from minority cultural backgrounds that want to preserve their identity (Lai & Lee, 2007). Therefore, cultural barriers may prevent members from minority identity groups from developing their full potential (Gupta, 2013). These barriers can be tangible like the stairs that limit the mobility of people in wheelchairs, or more subtle like the refusal to pay attention to someone's suggestions and opinions because he or she is a member of a minority group (Barbosa, 2007)

Strong cultures in particular demand workers to develop unilateral efforts to fit into the existing norms and values (Gupta, 2013). In academic settings, members of strong academic cultures share ideologies, values, and quality judgments, and those who seem to contradict these common cultural elements risk to be penalized (Barbosa, 2007). For that purpose, Cox (1994) recommends a socialization process in which members of the dominant culture and members of the alternative cultures are invited to share some important values and norms while keeping their own

cultural identity, hoping to facilitate both the full structural integration of minorities that is the presence of minorities at all organization levels and their integration in the informal networks.

In the particular case of academic institutions, a culture that appreciates innovation, cooperation, teamwork, and mutual trust must be encouraged in order to promote and respect diversity (Gavino, Eber & Bell, 2010). In sum, an organizational culture that is sympathetic to diversity and promotes diversity is a key factor for the success of any diversity management strategy. Cultural diversity is no longer experienced as radical differences, as separation, as superiority over others. It is not a source of fragmentation and partitioning (Gavino, Eber & Bell, 2010). Understanding of organizational culture is fundamental to examine what goes on in organizations, how to run them and how to improve them (Schein, 1992). In other words, organizational culture is a product of the diversity factors prevalent in that particular organization in a specific society.

2.4.6 Workplace diversity

A number of studies have been done on workplace diversity in Kenya. Munjuri and Maina (2013) found out that cultural diversity management seems more sensitive in the Banking sector and served a pivotal role. It encourages better employee retention, increased productivity, and expanded market share alongside improving customer service and these findings complemented the findings of Oluoch (2006) study on diversity in the banking sector.

The Mukanzi (2013) study confirmed the finding of Munjuri (2012) on the banking sector on workforce diversity management that had revealed that the banking sector had strategies such as balanced recruitment, support for minority groups, diversity training and equal employment opportunity. Meanwhile a study by Mutuku (2012) on the banking sector confirmed that banks that have culture and team diversity had better performance as the study considered the top management team.

According to Shume (2013), diversity management practices adopted by international non-governmental organizations in Kenya revealed equal opportunity for training and development to all staff, flexible benefits based on employee needs and work, equal opportunities in promotion, rewards and compensation, recognition for performance, work environment that values and includes all employees, zero tolerance of harassment and discrimination and they are equal opportunity employers. Nguata (2013) established that some public universities in Kenya have in place workforce diversity policies with laid down strategies for effective implementation. Despite this and in the course of policies implementation, challenges are emanating from both external forces outside the public universities and from within individual universities. The study recommended that empowering minority groups through affirmative action is imperative while consolidating all public universities under one administrative body to facilitate staff reorganization would offer a lasting solution to the challenges. Ikama (2010) considered only the policies in place and revealed that work place diversity is not fully entrenched in CGIAR Kenya centers.

Mureithi (2009) established that most of the organizations had developed diversity policies but implementation was not properly done. From the findings, it established that 40% of the organizations had developed these policies. The study by Ndaire (2009) found that implementation of diversity strategies at Hilton Hotel Nairobi has led to: improved revenues; increased productivity; improved job satisfaction; reduced lawsuits; increased market opportunities and respect for individual differences. The results showed that at least 80% of the senior management embrace diversity as individuals can attest to the benefits of diversity and are actually involved in the policy implementation process. They view diversity as an essential business concern and diverse work teams brought high value to Hilton Hotel and respect to individual differences.

On the international scene there have been studies on managing diversity in academic organizations, about how the human resource practices of higher-education institutions are responding to the challenges of an increasingly diverse academic force (Barbosa 2007). The study considered the views of the participants

on the cultural values, artefacts and management practices of their department with regard to diversity issues (Hofstede, 1991). The study established that the university is failing to promote equal opportunities policies and to manage the increasingly diverse academic workforce. Behavioural pressures to conform and parochial and inward looking attitudes appear to prevail. The study established that influence made through networks plays an important part and seems to prevail over individual merit when it comes to promotions. The study provides an in-depth account of subtle discriminatory mechanisms faced by non-native academics in a university that does not value diversity.

According to Lumadi (2008) on managing diversity at Higher Education and Training Institutions (HETIs) in South Africa it was found that traditional academic cultures and relationships are being challenged, bringing new social dynamics to higher education systems and increasing diversity and differentiation within and between institutions. A major focus was to find out whether diversity was referenced in the university's vision and mission. The findings of the study recommended that there be an assessment of the institutional policy on annual basis; introduce a diversity scoreboard, effective communication on diversity and business strategy, needs of diverse groups should be met and exit interview should be done. The justification for promoting diversity in a multicultural work environment is based on the claim that policies create better decision making processes and enhance creativity and innovation.

Lastly, Jones, Pringle and Shepherd (2010) argue that the discourse of managing diversity from the US management literature cannot be simply mapped on to organizations in other cultural contexts. It uses the country to show that a diversity based on the demographics and dominant cultural assumptions of the USA fails to address the key diversity issues. It calls for a genuinely multi-voiced diversity discourse that would focus attention on the local demographics, cultural and political differences that make the difference for specific organizations and countries. The finding claim that managing diversity initiatives need to be congruent with differences in diversity, and 'off the shelf' diversity programs or

initiatives are likely to achieve only limited success, especially if they are crossing national cultural borders.

2.5 Critique of the Literature

The studies that have been done in Kenya on issues of diversity have mostly considered the diversity policies and most of the data has been gotten from the human resource managers of the organization surveyed. The human resource managers could have been biased in their response in most cases as this is their work docket. Majority of the studies done in Kenya have considered workplace diversity based on having diversified workforce or ensuring that EE and AA policies are effected but who is the custodian of these employees to ensure that the it continues and they are able to maintain individuality and making a commitment to valuing diversity. The studies were not specific on the human resource management practices but rather gave recommendations, like Mureithi (2009) recommended that recruitment and selection processes in the organizations should conform to job descriptions and specifications. Diversity management practices should not be motivated by a desire to comply with regulations and avoid costly law suits in the organizations. This recommendation justifies the need for a study on the human resource management practices on workplace diversity.

According to Barbosa (2007) study, due to the sensitivity of the information it required a questionnaire although the researcher used group focused discussion. The study should have considered the culture of the organization and how it accommodates the foreign nationals and should have considered the human resource management practices that have been implemented whether they conform to the legislative requirements. Lumadi (2008), the research was done on curriculum and students whether it accommodated diversity. The universities can have the policies in place and teach it but do they practice it for both the student and on the faculty. Only if this study is replicated can it the findings be confirmed.

Lastly, Jones, Pringle and Shepherd (2010) argues that the discourse of managing diversity from the US management literature cannot be simply mapped on to organizations in other cultural contexts. This argument has been brought up in

many research studies and basically shows that the culture in on area affects the performance and diversity issues there. Although the researcher argued their case, should have produced a model of managing the diversity based on their culture and not used disputed (Cox, 1991) model.

Literature has revealed that human resource management practices can be positively related to performance and it is a critical factor in workplace diversity. Arising from the prevalent public criticism across the country credibility of existing institutional structures and policies have been put to question due to their inability to comprehensively explain the recent phenomenon. The need to explain the recent upheaval in spite of existing structures has led to renewed interest in the subject today especially in the public sector. The traditional approach to looking at human resource management practices has tended to rely on the monitoring of hard and soft skills of human resource (Armstrong, 2013). The top management tends to make all the decision without involving employees, however there is changing tide where decisions cannot be made alone but as a team and all players must be aware of the practices and policies to participation in the operations of their organizations.

The conclusion that may be drawn from the relevant literature is that the existing framework for analyzing workplace diversity is inadequate, and has thus failed to explain the phenomenon of discrimination. Several researchers have identified strategy, structure, leadership, and policies as the main missing link in workplace diversity. Hence there is need to continue with research endeavors, particularly in developing countries in an attempt to obtain concrete evidence on the role of human resource management on workplace diversity.

2.6 Summary of Literature Review

Literature review has indicated an imbalance in the attention that has gone into studies on workplace diversity. Most studies still continue to view workplace diversity from a uni-dimensional rather than from a multidimensional perspective (Kazi, 2013). The uni-dimensional focused studies limit a lot on the practical applicability of the findings in contexts different from those of other researchers.

Furthermore, as the construct has continued to advance elsewhere it creates an impression of a simplistic construct. Some research on diversity policies has analyzed reasons for their failure whether they benefit certain racial or minority groups or whether components of diversity management benefit certain groups ((Ricucci, 2010), however, virtually no empirical research has been conducted on the effectiveness of Human resource management practices on workplace diversity in the public sector. As mentioned earlier, most of the Human Resource Management research studies are conducted within the cultural context (Barbosa, 2007; Paelmke,2007; Lumadi, 2008; Jabbour & Gordon 2011; Ulrich, 2012). Cultural attributes are predictive of the practices of organizations of that culture (Lewis, 2005). Hence management practices and leadership styles vary in differing cultures or culture clusters, so also HRM practices. In his study to understand societal culture models, all African countries have been viewed as having one culture.

Studies on workplace diversity have been extensively conducted in western countries (Bonds & Haynes,2014; Barak, 2013; Murphy, 2009; Barbosa,2007). Indeed fewer studies have been carried out with regard to the construct in Africa (Munjuri & Maina, 2013; Munjuri, 2012; Mutuku, 2013; Shume, 2013; Nguata, 2013; Ndaire, 2009; Mureithi, 2009; Ikama, 2010). In most of the studies they were trying to identify the existence of diversity management in the organizations. The studies have been mostly in the private sector like the hotel industry or the banking sector where for competitive advantage they need to diversify. In most of the studies the data was collected using only the human resource managers to establish the findings and have not considered the written policies and practices on diversity practices in the organization or the perspective of the other managers doing the same function to respond.

2.7 Research Gap

The lack of sufficient studies addressing the issue of human resource management practices on workplace diversity in Africa has raised many controversies in the local context with many unsubstantiated allegations of discrimination, but what

needs to be established is whether effective human resource practices are in place to implement the diversity management policies to create a multicultural organization thus promoting workplace diversity. In conclusion, the question is whether the same factors that influence workplace diversity in developed countries which have strong policies in place and their corresponding frameworks, models or theories are applicable in developing countries. Moreover, it has been argued that people's attitudes, beliefs and values vary across countries, cultures and continents. Therefore, studies are needed to address the questions on the applicability of some factors of Anglo-Saxon studies in the Kenya context. Hence, a pure study on human resource management practices and workplace diversity would provide useful results for comparison and policy guidelines.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodology and gives the details regarding the procedures to be used in conducting the study. This chapter describes the proposed research design and procedure of the study. First, it justifies the choice of the research design. Secondly, the proposed data collection methods and sampling procedures are described. Lastly, pilot testing, reliability and validity of the measurement scales, and data analysis techniques are discussed.

3.2 Research Design

Research design is the plan and structure of the study so as to obtain answers to the research questions. It is a framework for specifying the relationships among the study variables. This study used descriptive cross-sectional survey design to describe and establish relationships among key study variables. The design chosen for this study was guided by the purpose of the study, the type of investigation, the extent of researcher involvement, the stage of knowledge in the field, the period over which the data is to be collected and the type of analysis.

Cross-sectional studies have been found to be robust in relationships studies given their ability to capture the population characteristics in their free and natural occurrence (Creswell, 2013). Other researchers (Ibua, 2014; Monari, 2013; Oloko, 2008; Munyoki, 2007) have used cross-sectional survey and regarded it appropriate and reliable to investigate similar studies. This approach is versatile since workplace diversity is an abstract concept which can be best studied using a survey. The method involves collection of data in order to determine whether and to what degree a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. The design permits one to analyze inter-relationship among a large number of variables in a single study and analyze how several variables either singly or in combination might affect a particular phenomenon being studied. The design is

favoured as it works best with large sample sizes. Kerlinger (1986) argues that survey method is widely used to obtain data useful in evaluating present practices and providing basis for decision making. Cooper and Schindler (2003) posited that if the research is concerned with finding out what, when, and how much of phenomena, descriptive research design is found to be appropriate. These were the key concerns of the present study, hence the appropriateness of the choice of a descriptive survey design.

3.2.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy has been defined (Saunders, 2011), as a term relating to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. There are four pillars of research philosophy i.e. positivism which tries to uncover the truth about how things are – at least what we focus on; realism which is about objects existing independently from knowledge; Interpretivism which focuses on understanding the difference between humans and their role as social actors; pragmatism which argues that it is possible to work within both positivism and interpretivism (Saunders, 2011).

This study adopted a positivism philosophy that there can be a quantitative approach to investigating a phenomenon. Positivism is based upon values of reason, truth and validity and focuses purely on facts discovered through direct observation, experience or measured empirically using methods like surveys (Patton, 2005). Predictions can be made based on previously observed and explained realities and their inter-relationships. This position presumes that the social world exists objectively and externally, that knowledge is valid only if it is based on observations of this external reality.

3.3 Target Population

A population is the total collection of elements about which inferences are made and refers to all possible cases which are of interest for the study (Sekaran, 2006). The population of this study was the public universities in Kenya which are the twenty two (22) chartered public universities as shown in Appendix III. The

twenty two public universities are in line with Commission for University Education in Kenya (CUE, 2013). The chartered universities were preferred as they have defined structure, a legal mandate to operate and were likely to exhibit elaborate relationships among the study variables. The respondents were selected from the individual chartered universities. The institution formed the unit of analysis and the respondents were selected from management staff .The study had a population of 1,257 managers from all the public universities.

3.4 Sampling frame

Creswell (2013) proposed that a sampling frame operationally defines the target population from which the sample is drawn and to which data will be generalized. Acharya, Prakash, Sexana and Nigam (2013) defined it as the source of information from which a sample is selected. They argue that a good sampling frame should be able to provide details required to form selection; a comprehensive and inclusive basis from which the sample can be drawn and a sufficient number of potential participants to allow for high quality selection. The sampling frame for this study was the twenty two (22) chartered universities in Kenya as shown in Appendix III. The list was compiled from the Commission for University Education report, (2013). The unit of observation was the universities and the unit of analysis was the human resource managers and other managers in the universities.

3.5 Sample size and sampling technique

A sample is a portion or part of the population of interest. The purpose of sampling is to gain an understanding about some features or attributes of the whole population based on the characteristics of the sample (Sekaran, 2008). When dealing with people, it can be defined as a set of respondents (people) selected from a larger population for the purpose of a survey. It was considered important that an appropriate sampling method was chosen to ensure that the sample was representative of the whole population under investigation.

Purposive sampling method was used as appropriate. This method is a non-probability sampling that is most effective when one needs to study a certain culture domain with knowledgeable experts within (Sekaran, 2008). Cases of subjects are therefore hand-picked because they have the information required with respect to the objectives of the study. It has two principal aims. The first is to ensure that all the key constituencies of relevance to the subject matter are covered. The second is to ensure this at within each of the key criteria; some diversity is included so that the impact of the characteristic concerned is explored. In this study the subjects were the human resource managers and the associate managers who are involved in the hiring, performance appraisal, employee compensation, training and development practices and play a role in the organizational culture. The sample size was the 245 employees as shown in Appendix IV.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Data collection instruments is a tool a researcher needs to collect the necessary information (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).The instrument used was questionnaires with structured and semi-structured questions as this technique was the best due to the sensitivity of the information and was able to gather more information from individuals in a short duration of time without having any discussions between them ((Barbosa, 2007; Alserhan, Forstenlechner & Al-Nakeeb, 2010). The questionnaire method was selected because it was a relatively unobtrusive and inexpensive method for data collection (Creswell, 2013). The questionnaire was advantageous to use as it contains standard questions which were administered to a large number of respondents in Kenya within a short time and at minimum cost. Through questionnaires, one does not encounter the difficulties arising from interviewer/interviewee interaction (Kothari, 2012).

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure in this study first involved seeking for authorization from the particular university administration to collect data. Questionnaires were administered through personal means to each respondent. Cooper and Schindler (2003) posit that a self-administered survey method is especially appropriate when it is important for the respondent to have adequate time to carefully consider their responses. The survey questionnaire were administered to the respondents through the drop and pick method. A covering letter with each questionnaire explained the objectives of the study and assured respondents' confidentiality and urged them to participate in the study. Again, respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality; they were able to complete them when it was convenient and in their own time. Data collected using questionnaire was also amenable for analysis using statistical packages.

3.8 Pilot Study

Pilot testing was used to test the design of the instruments prior to carrying out research (Mitchell, 2006). It also helped to show the adequacy of the research instruments and research protocol were realistic and workable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). It helped to ascertain the validity (extent to which data produced truly measures what it purports to measure and reliability (consistency of data collected) according to Yin (2004). It also helped to establish if the sampling frame and technique were effective and to identify the logistical problems that might occur in the course of the study. According to Sekaran (2006), the size of the pilot sample varies according to time, cost and practicability.

Pilot testing was used to test the design of the instruments prior to carrying out research (Mitchell, 2006). It also helped to show the adequacy of the research instruments and research protocol were realistic and workable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). It helped to ascertain the validity (extent to which data produced truly measures what it purports to measure and reliability (consistency of data collected) according to Yin (2004). It also helped to establish if the sampling frame and technique were effective and to identify the logistical problems that

might occur in the course of the study. According to Sekaran (2006), the size of the pilot sample varies according to time, cost and practicability.

A pilot study was carried out on the questionnaires to ensure that all the items are clearly understood by the respondents, test the relevance of the questionnaire, ease of interpretation and ability to address the study objectives. The aim of the pilot study was to give an idea of approximately how long it took to complete the questionnaire for purposes of planning on the administration of the questionnaire. The Pilot was done on 10% equivalent of the study sample (25 respondents). A pretesting was carried on two of the university campuses and employees selected from each of the stratum. The results were used to locate possible ambiguities in instrumentation requiring further attention and clarity. Choosing 10% of target population is consistent with suggestion by Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) and Kerlinger (1986) who posited that for descriptive studies 10% of the accessible population is sufficient. The respondents were informed that the questionnaire was a pilot for a larger study. A short questionnaire was attached at the end of the main questionnaire in which respondents in the pilot test were asked to indicate the length of time it took to complete the questionnaire; highlighting questions that they find to be ambiguous or which they were uncomfortable with and to make any other comments that would improve the questionnaire.

Huddleston and Unwin, (2013) recommended questionnaire pre-tests to be done by personal interviews in order to observe the respondents reactions and attitudes. All aspects of the questionnaire were pre-tested including question content, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty and instructions. The feedback obtained was used to revise the questionnaire before administering it to the study respondents.

According to Saunders, (2011) there is always a chance that some questions could cause problems and questionnaire piloting is needed to identify and eliminate such problems. The researcher made a deliberate effort to ensure that those who participated in the pilot study were excluded from the actual study so as to avoid bias.

3.8.1 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability refers to the ability of a measurement instrument to produce the same answer in the same circumstances, time after time (Sekaran, 2006). There are three different techniques for assessing reliability in data. These are test-retest, split-half and internal consistency.

Internal consistency method will be used as the individual items should all be measuring the same constructs and thus correlates positively to one another. The most widely used measure for determining internal consistency is the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's alpha which is a general form of the Kuder-Richardson (K-R) 20 formula is the most commonly used measure of coefficient of internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges between 0 and 1 (Creswell, 2013). A higher alpha coefficient values means that scales are more reliable. As a rule of thumb, acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70 or above (Creswell, 2013). However, the value of Cronbach alpha may vary for different studies. Therefore, items with coefficients below 0.70 are considered to be unreliable and should be deleted resulting in improved alpha. The reliability of the instrument from previous studies elsewhere, made this study adopt it.

3.8.2 Validity of the Instrument

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Sekaran, 2000). A widely accepted classification of validity consists of three major forms: content, criterion-related and construct. Content validity will be used in this study. Content validity is a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents the content of the concept being measured (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). To ensure good content validity, the researcher has already carried out a thorough review of the literature in order to identify the items required to measure the concepts and the questionnaire adequately covers the topics that have been defined as the relevant dimensions.

3.8.3 Data Management

Data was collected and then it was screened and cleaned to find out whether there were errors that could be corrected. Data was inspected and transformed in order to highlight useful information to draw conclusions (Sekaran, 2010). The questionnaires were edited for completeness and consistency to ensure that respondents completed them as required. The accuracy of data files was checked through proofreading the keyed in data against the original questionnaire. Someone else other than the researcher proofread the work to ensure that it had been entered correctly (Sekaran, 2010). Missing data can result from the respondents refusing to answer one or more questions (Barladi & Enders, 2010). The researcher sought to determine the extent or percentage of the missing data. The data in this case was missing completely at Random (MCAR). This means that the probability that an observation is missing is unrelated to the value of another variable (Nakai & Weiming, 2011). The missing data was less than 1% hence the cases were omitted using Listwise deletion Method. This method is also called the complete case analysis. It analyzes cases by deleting the missing items and continuing with further analysis. Its advantage is that it is simple and it can be used with any kind of statistical analysis because it does not require special computational methods (Acock, 2005). Normality tests were done in order to check for statistical errors which are common in scientific literature. The assumption of normality is assumed in parametric tests because the validity of the tests depends on it.

3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

The study used both quantitative and qualitative data. The data obtained through questionnaires was edited and coded through a predetermined coding scheme and responses were analyzed according to each research question. First, the feel of the data was established by calculating response rate, and descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and frequency distributions for the observed variables. These measures help to tell us the point about which items have a tendency to cluster (Kothari, 2004). Second, data collected on each of variables under study was analyzed using both descriptive statistics (frequency distributions, means, and

standard deviations) and inferential statistics (correlation analysis, analysis of variance and regression) to analyze the data. The entire hypothesis was tested at 95% confidence level.

3.9.1 Quantitative analysis

The data analysis processes for quantitative items was done using various statistical tools including the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 24. Descriptive analysis was conducted to present main characteristics of the collected data (Kothari, 2012). Inferential statistics was used to test a number of hypothesized relations as to allow generalization of the findings to a larger population. To test the pattern of relationships between research variables as stated in the hypotheses, simple and multiple regression equations were used. Karl Pearson's Zero Order coefficient of correlation, ANOVA, and T-test were used to test the relationships between variables. Correlation analysis was done using Pearson's correlation to determine the strength and direction of relations between the variables. The co-efficient of correlation (r), determined the degree (strength) of each variable and its value between negative one (-1) and one (1). A value of zero (0) implied no degree (strength); one (1) implied a perfect positive degree (strength); Negative one (-1) meant a negative degree (strength) (Neuman, 2000).

Prior to testing the hypotheses using regression analysis the study ensured that the basic conditions for the application and interpretation of the results is complied with. The use of regression analysis assumes that the data is normally distributed and that there is independence of errors as such it was necessary to control multicollinearity. In this study tests of normality were done using histograms, while linearity was done using scatter plots. Tests for normality of data were done. Q-Q plot was used for visual test of normality of data. If Q-Q plots lie close to the straight line, the data set are interpreted to mean normal distribution. However, if the points significantly depart from the straight line, the distribution is assumed to be non-normal. As shown in Figure 4.1 the data lie approximately along the straight line indicating a normal distribution of the data.

Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between two or more predictor variables in a regression model and poses a problem in multiple regressions. Problems caused by multicollinearity are such as increase in the standard errors of the B coefficients meaning that the Betas have relatively higher variability across samples and less likely to represent the population. The other problem is limiting the size of R the measure of multiple correlation between the predictors and the outcome, and R squared the variance of the outcome for which the predictors account, making the second predictor to account for very little of the remaining variance. Further it reduces the contribution of predictors making it difficult to assess the individual significance of a predictor.

Multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity were tested using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and Tolerance Statistic. VIF indicates whether a predictor has a strong linear relationship with other predictors which can raise concern. Problems occur if VIF is 10 and above (Meyers, 1990). At each level the predictor variables, the variance of the residual terms is expected to be constant, that is - homoscedasticity. If variances are unequal it is heteroscedasticity (Field, 1990). Tolerance statistic was computed as the reciprocal of the VIF (1/VIF). Tolerance statistics values below 0.1 indicate a serious problem while those below 0.2 indicate a potential problem.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the statistical significance of the relationships between the independent and the dependent variables. A value of R^2 between 0.5 and less than 1 implied a strong relationship between the variables. The relationship is weak if the value of R^2 is less than 0.5. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) test will also be used to analyse respondents characteristics relating to age, gender, level of education, experience and current organization. The model that was used to test hypotheses was multiple linear regression models. This model was used previously in other empirical studies to establish relationships between variables (Ibua, 2014; Uzel, 2015; Sang, 2015; Guyo, 2015).

To test the pattern of relationships between research variables as stated in the hypotheses, simple and multiple regression equation was used.

The following regression model was used to describe the dependent variable in terms of the independent variables;

$$WD = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \beta_5X_5 + \varepsilon$$

Where:-

WD = Dependent variable (Workplace diversity)

β_1X_1 = Change in workplace diversity resulting from influence of HP

β_2X_2 = Change in workplace diversity resulting from influence of PA

β_3X_3 = Change in workplace diversity resulting from influence of EC

β_4X_4 = Change in workplace diversity resulting from influence of TD

β_5X_5 = Change in workplace diversity resulting from influence of OC

$\beta_1 - \beta_5$ = Regression coefficient for each independent variable

β_0 = constant or intercept (value of dependent variable when all independent variables are zero)

ε = Random or Stochastic Term

3.9.2 Qualitative Analysis

According to Mugenda and Mugenda, (2003), qualitative data analysis tends to be primarily an inductive process of organizing data into categories and identifying patterns. Cresswell (2013) stated that, the most general guide to analyzing qualitative data involved looking for similarities and dissimilarities. The focus must be on those patters of interactions and events that are generally common to what the researcher is studying (Saunders, 2011). This type of analysis formed the

core of analyzing the qualitative data collected during this study. Themes were identified, and the data was then classified into categories and themes (Saunders, 2011).

Qualitative data collected through the unstructured section of the questionnaire was coded, and repeated themes (responses) or concepts were recorded until saturation was achieved. The essence of the analysis procedure was to return to the terms of reference, the research problem and questions of the research, and begin to sort and evaluate the information gathered in relation to the question posed. In this way an explanation of the actual meaning of the data and logical reasoning could be achieved (Saunders, 2011).

3.9.3 Hypothesis Testing

A set of five hypotheses were developed to guide the study as indicated in the conceptual framework. Hypotheses was tested at 95% confidence level ($\alpha = 0.05$) as shown in the table below.

Table 3.1: Hypothesis testing

| Hypothesis statement | Hypothesis test | Decision rule and anticipated model |
|--|--|--|
| H ₀₁ : Hiring practices has no significant effect on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya | -Karl-Pearson's coefficient of correlation -F-test (ANOVA) H _a : $\beta_1 = 0$; $\beta_1 \neq 0$ | Accept H _a if P –value ≤ 0.05 otherwise reject H _a if P-value is > 0.05 HP = $\alpha + \beta_1HP + \epsilon$ |
| H ₀₂ :Performance appraisal has no significant effect on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. | -Karl-Pearson's coefficient of correlation -F-test (ANOVA) H _a : $\beta_2 = 0$; $\beta_2 \neq 0$ | Accept H _a if P –value ≤ 0.05 otherwise reject H _a if P-value is > 0.05 HP = $\alpha + \beta_2HP + \epsilon$ |
| H ₀₃ : Pay practices have no significant effect on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. | -Karl-Pearson's coefficient of correlation -F-test (ANOVA) H _a : $\beta_3 = 0$; $\beta_3 \neq 0$ | Accept H _a if P –value ≤ 0.05 otherwise reject H _a if P-value is > 0.05 HP = $\alpha + \beta_3HP + \epsilon$ |
| H ₀₄ : Training and development has no significant effect on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. | -Karl-Pearson's coefficient of correlation -F-test (ANOVA) H _a : $\beta_4 = 0$; $\beta_4 \neq 0$ | Accept H _a if P –value ≤ 0.05 otherwise reject H _a if P-value is > 0.05 HP = $\alpha + \beta_4HP + \epsilon$ |
| H ₀₅ : Organizational culture has no significant effect on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. | -Karl-Pearson's coefficient of correlation -F-test (ANOVA) H _a : $\beta_5 = 0$; $\beta_5 \neq 0$ | Accept H _a if P –value ≤ 0.05 otherwise reject H _a if P-value is > 0.05 HP = $\alpha + \beta_5HP + \epsilon$ |

3.10 Measurement of Study Variables

Operationalization refers to the process of developing indicators or items for measuring a research construct (Cresswell, 2013). This section describes the operationalization of research variables as depicted in the conceptual model. Operationalization facilitates definitions of constructs into observable behavior or characteristics that can be measured (Sekaran, 2006). The study was guided by previous studies (Paelmke, 2007; Shen, 2009) that measured human resource management practices and workplace diversity.

An independent variable is a variable that the researcher manipulates in order to determine the effect or influence on another variable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). In this study, the independent variable is the human resource management practices which comprised of hiring practices, performance appraisal practices, pay practices and training and development practices and organizational culture. If a variable depends upon or is a consequence of other variables, it is termed as a dependent variable (Kothari, 2004). In this study, the dependent variable is workplace diversity. In the existing framework, it's dependent on the five independent variable of hiring practices, performance appraisal practices, pay practices, training and development practices and organizational culture and will be measured. Table 3.2 illustrates how these variables will be measured.

Table 3.2: Measurements of Variables

| Variables | Sub-construct | Measurement |
|--|--|--|
| Hiring Practices(HP) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recruitment - Selection - Outreach | Using Yes, No and Do not know on a scale of 3 being yes, 2 for no and 1 for do not know. |
| Performance Appraisal practices(PA) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Policy on appraisal -Methods of appraisal -Targets of appraisal - Review of appraisal | Using Yes, No and Do not know on a scale of 3 being yes, 2 for no and 1 for do not know. |
| Employee Compensation (EC) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fair Remuneration - Individual Excellence -Promotion | Using Yes, No and Do not know on a scale of 3 being yes, 2 for no and 1 for do not know. |
| Training and Development practices(TD) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training - Development - Personal and career development | Using Yes, No and Do not know on a scale of 3 being yes, 2 for no and 1 for do not know. |
| Organizational culture(OC) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Organizational Decision - Teamwork - Role clarity -Recognition | 5 point Likert scale, where 5 is the scale of the highest extent of use of OC and 1 is the lowest. |
| Workplace diversity(WD) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Representation, - Hiring - Development, - Pay Equity - Promotion , - Turnover | 5 point Likert scale, where 5 is the scale of the highest extent of use of WD and 1 is the lowest. |

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the response rate to the questionnaires, the result of the pilot study, the demographic information, descriptive analysis, factor analysis, correlation and finally the multi-regression analysis to test the hypothesis. The results form the basis for discussion on how each of the factors influences workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya.

4.2 Response Rate

A total of 245 questionnaires were administered and 196 usable questionnaires were returned translating to 80% response rate. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test gave a value of 0.781 which was higher than the recommended minimum value of 0.6 showing the sample was adequate for drawing inferences from the study. According to Babbie (2007), a response rate of 60% is good, 70% very good and 50% adequate for analysis and reporting from manual surveys. Baruchi and Holtom (2008) argues that the larger the response rate, the smaller the non-response error. Based on the assertion, the response rate was considered excellent.

4.3 Results of Pilot Study

Reliability is a measure that indicates the extent to which there is no biasness, therefore it ensures consistent measurement across the various items in the instrument, while validity is a measure of the degree of accuracy and meaningfulness of inference based on research results. In this study reliability study was done on all the items, which were also validated by component factor analysis. The Cronbach's Alpha is a reliability measure which shows how well the items in the instrument are correlated to each other, while Factor analysis was conducted in order to reduce the data to a meaningful and manageable set of factors (Sekaran, 2006). According to Kothari (2005), it has become customary for

loadings of 0.33 to be as values to be interpreted. Therefore items with a loading of above 0.33 were considered valid.

A pilot study was conducted using a sample of 25 respondents or 10% of the total respondents so as to check for possible errors that could arise from unclear instructions; this was done by using Cronbach's Alpha method, which was used to check on the reliability of the instruments used by determining the internal consistency of the scale used. According to Sekaran (2003), Cronbach Alpha is a reliable coefficient that indicates how well items are positively related to one another. Cronbach alpha values of 0.6 and above is considered adequate, the average Chronbach Alpha value was 0.934 as shown in Table 4.1 below which is above the recommended threshold. According to Patton (2005) there is always a chance that some questions could cause problems and questionnaire piloting is needed to identify.

Validity is the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concept of interest (Sekaran, 2006). A widely accepted classification of validity consists of three major forms: content, criterion-related and construct. Content validity will be used in this study. Content validity is a measure of the degree to which data collected using a particular instrument represents the content of the concept being measured (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). To ensure good content validity, the researcher had already carried out a thorough review of the literature in order to identify the items required to measure the concepts and the questionnaire adequately covered the topics that had been defined as the relevant dimensions.

Table 4.1: Reliability Analysis

| Reliability Analysis | Cronbach's | No of |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| | Alpha | items |
| Hiring practices | .720 | 13 |
| Performance Appraisal practices | .707 | 12 |
| Employee Compensation | .681 | 12 |
| Training and Development | .724 | 14 |
| Organizational Culture | .930 | 18 |
| Workplace Diversity | .885 | 17 |

Overall Cronbach's alpha for 86 items .934

4.4 Demographic Information

This section highlights characteristics of the study population based on data collected and analyzed. The information required from the respondents was: gender, age bracket, experience in the university, experience in the current position and highest educational qualification.

4.4.1 Distribution of Respondents by Sex

The respondents were asked to indicate their sex. The purpose was to get facts from both sides of the device. Pertinent results are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Sex

| | | Sex of respondent | | | |
|-------|--------|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid | Cumulative |
| | | | | Percent | Percent |
| Valid | Male | 131 | 66.8 | 66.8 | 66.8 |
| | Female | 65 | 33.2 | 33.2 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 196 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The study findings reveals that 66.8 % of the respondents were male, while 33.2% were female. This data reveal that the male sex are more than the female and for the university to be seen to have diversity the ratios need to change for them to be considered to be an Equal Opportunity employer. According to the official government policy in Kenya it requires that at least each gender in an organization should have a minimum of 30% representation; therefore this is consistent with the new Constitution of Kenya (2010). From the results of the survey, it shows that the universities have more male employees than female but have achieved the minimum threshold of at least 30% of the opposite sex. This shows that the respondents were able to understand the issued raised in the study on human resource management and workplace diversity at the universities.

4.4.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age

The cadres surveyed comprised of staff in different age groups. Age was considered important for this would give indication of the age bracket of employees in the universities. Table 4.3 shows the distribution of the respondents by age.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Respondents by Age Group

| | | Age of respondent | | | |
|--------------|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid | 20 - 29 years | 17 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 8.7 |
| | 30 - 39 years | 38 | 19.4 | 19.4 | 28.1 |
| | 40 - 49 years | 86 | 43.9 | 43.9 | 71.9 |
| | 50 years and above | 55 | 28.1 | 28.1 | 100.0 |
| Total | | 196 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The study findings reveals that more than 28.1% of the respondents were over 50 years and more than 43.9% of the respondents are between the ages of 40-49 years category. The age group of 30-39 years represented 19.4%. 20-29 years comprised

8.7% of the respondents. This reflects that majority of employees in the surveyed institutions are older and being in administrative positions they should be aware about having diversity at the workplace. This is consisted with other scholars results (Monari, 2013; Kidombo, 2007).

The results show that the university has older people in management positions implying that they have achieved these senior positions through experience gained over the years. This shows that the respondents were able to understand issues raised on human resource management practices and diversity in the staff.

4.4.3 Years Worked at the University

The respondent's characteristics included the years worked at the university. The study set out to examine the respondent's length of service in the public universities. The longer the service the more knowledgeable the respondents are to the practices of the human resource management. The distribution of respondent's years worked in the university is presented below.

Table 4.4: Years Worked at the University

| Years | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Below 2 years | 12 | 6.1 |
| 3-5 years | 34 | 17.3 |
| 5-10 years | 59 | 30.1 |
| 10-15 years | 44 | 22.4 |
| 15 years and above | 47 | 24.0 |
| Total | 196 | 100.0 |

The survey results in Table 4.4 revealed that approximately 76.5% of the respondents have been with the institution for over five years. The respondent's length of service can be associated with experience and knowledge acquired over time which enhances the ability to articulate issues and challenges in the

organization. Employees who have worked for a period of time in an organization are deemed to have internalized and have understood the systems and processes in the institution.

Length of service in an organization has implication on human resource management practices and workplace diversity. Employees who have been in the organization for long periods tend to be comfortable with the practices of the organization (Ibua, 2015). The results indicate that the majority of the respondents have been working for a long time; therefore, they tend to have internalized the HRM practices and workplace diversity.

4.4.4 Length of Service in the Current Position

The study set out to examine the respondent's length of service in their current position in the public universities. The target respondents for this study were human resource managers and administrative staff of the public universities. The distribution of respondent's length of service in the current position is presented in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Length of Service in the Current Position

| | Years held on current position | | | |
|----------------|---------------------------------------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Below 1 year | 10 | 5.1 | 5.1 | 5.1 |
| 1- 4 years | 83 | 42.3 | 42.3 | 47.4 |
| 5 - 10 years | 85 | 43.4 | 43.4 | 90.8 |
| Above 10 years | 18 | 9.2 | 9.2 | 100.0 |
| Total | 196 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Most of the HR practitioners 85.7% have a working experience that ranges between 1-10 years in public universities, with 9.2% having over 10 years working experience and 5.1% having working experience of below one year. The

implication of these findings is that majority of the HR professionals in Public universities are experienced and have acquired skills that are adequate to make them efficient in managing the HR functions. According to Armstrong (2013), these roles can either be basic in service provision as generalists, or as specialists, and also as strategic and business partners.

According to Harris (2011), most HR professionals have been in the field for some time and therefore have a generally good idea of how to manage the HR function. In summary the results indicate that the experience of the respondents is wanting as majority were of less than ten years and this implies that some have not acquired the human resource management skills required to manage and administer the staff. This may affect the issue of having a diversified workplace.

4.4.5 Level of Education

The study also sought to establish the highest level of education attained by the respondents as an indicator of their knowledge capability. The highest level of education attained and prior experience have been recognized as critical success factors in carrying out work in the institutions of higher learning. According to Hirsch *et al.* (1997), a positive relationship exists between high education levels and human resource management practices. The relevant data are presented in table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Highest level of Education

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|------------|--------------|---------------|--------------------|
| Diploma | 15 | 7.7 | 7.7 | 7.7 |
| Degree | 36 | 18.4 | 18.4 | 26.0 |
| Masters | 82 | 41.8 | 41.8 | 67.9 |
| Doctorate | 63 | 32.1 | 32.1 | 100.0 |
| Total | 196 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The study findings reveals that the respondents had a relatively high level qualification with 18.4% holding Bachelor's degrees and 41.8% and Master's degree, while 32.1% have Doctorate degrees. This implies that the respondents have the relevant knowledge in their areas of operation within the institution. The level of education has been cited as a critical factor in helping institutions to survive and manage in difficult and turbulent conditions and to improve performance. It also reveals that the institutions are staffed by knowledgeable people.

According to Schutze and Slowey (2013) education levels positively contribute to job performance, highly educated employees, contribute more to the organizational effectiveness than those who are less educated. These findings are also supported by Wang, and Calvino (2015), who assert that most organizations use education as an indicator of a person's skill levels or productivity. The implication of this is that since most HR practitioners in public universities have Bachelor, Masters and Doctorate Level of education, they can be expected to effectively manage the HR function in their organizations. The level of education of the respondents indicates that the well-educated respondents mean that they were well informed and furnished this study with proper information which is significant for this study.

4.5 Descriptive Analysis

The purpose of descriptive analysis is to enable the study to meaningfully describe a distribution of scores of measurements using indices or statistics. The type of statistics used depends on the type of variables in the study and the scale of measurements. Measures of central tendency are used to give expected summary

statistics of variables being studied. The commonly used measures are percentages, mode, mean and median. This study used the percentages to present the study findings on factors used in examining the effect of HRM practices on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya

4.5.1 Construct Hiring Practices

According to Myloni (2004), hiring practices primarily aims at attracting maximum number of highly talented applicants and selecting the best in order to achieve diversity in the firm. The process entails concerted efforts by management to ensure implementation enduring success of organizational goals. Hiring practices is the process of attracting individuals on a timely basis in sufficient numbers and with appropriate qualifications (Walker, 2009). The study sought to determine various hiring practices elements in the public universities. These are elaborated in the following sections.

Gberevbie, (2008) mentioned sophisticated selection practices emphasize workplace diversity and are one of the import HRM practices to be followed by an organization. According to Wright (2010), when firms invest in hiring the most highly skilled people employees find a workplace filled with qualified co-workers which make for a positive work environment. In this section, the study addressed the specific objective which sought to find out the effect of hiring practices on work place diversity in public universities in Kenya. As indicated on table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Descriptive Results on Hiring Practices

| | N | Yes | No | Do not know | Total |
|---|-----|-------|-------|-------------|-------|
| Top management supports diversity in recruitment | 196 | 40.3% | 55.1% | 4.6% | 100 |
| The current job description and selection processes reflect minority' needs. | 196 | 44.9% | 49.5% | 5.6% | 100 |
| Minority employees are present on selection committees | 196 | 33.7% | 45.9% | 20.4% | 100 |
| They have special programs that aim to recruit minorities each year | 196 | 26.5% | 52% | 21.4% | 100 |
| Job advertisements appear in ethnic newspapers/television/radios | 196 | 34.2% | 48.5% | 17.3% | 100 |
| There are recruiting efforts to specifically targeted audiences through periodicals, job fairs, selected colleges and professional groups | 196 | 24.9% | 54.1% | 24% | 100 |
| The human resource manager makes an effort to head hunt the minority employees | 196 | 28.1% | 43.8% | 28.1% | 100 |
| The management makes an annual review of the staff diversity | 196 | 38.8% | 46.4% | 14.8% | 100 |

The results of the study showed that majority of the respondents, 55.1% stated no, implying that top management does not supports diversity in recruitment. The findings agree with a research conducted by Gberevbie (2010), which showed that hiring based on merit, appropriate educational qualifications, skills and experience even within the principal of equal regional and gender representation can act as a basis for enhanced workplace diversity. This findings are also supported by research done by Pfeffer (1998) which identified hiring practices as one of the HRM practices that were considered as best practice, in driving institutional performance.

While 49.5% of the respondents disagree that job description and selection processes reflect minority needs, and 46.4% disagreed that top management makes an annual review of the staff diversity. It was also noted that 48.5% disagreed that job advertisement appear in ethnic newspaper /television/radio, in addition, 45.9% disagreed that minority employees are present on selection committees. The results further indicate that 54.1% disagreed that there are recruiting efforts to specifically target audiences through periodicals, job fairs, selected colleges and professional groups was being done and 24% stated they did not know implying that this was not being done at all while 73.4% disagreed or did not know on the issue of special programs aiming to recruit minority each year. Lastly on the issue of the human resource manager makes an effort to head hunt the minority employees the respondents disagreed 43.8% while 28.1% did not know about this activity.

The findings, therefore, imply that institutions do not fully communicate to their employees on various human resource policies that are in place. This notwithstanding, organizations should have policies which provide clear guidelines on how the hiring process should be undertaken. These findings corroborate the studies conducted by Sarker and Afroze (2014) who found that successful organizations should have policies in place to guide on hiring activities. Mathew, Ogbonna, and Harris (2012), further indicate that for any hiring to be meaningful, it must be guided by an organizational policy

In an ideal situation, the selection panel should consist of a representative from the top management, the human resource manager and a technical person from a department/division which require additional staff. This is because a technical person understands the various technical aspects in terms of the activities in the department/division. In an environment to promote diversity the selection team has to constitute of persons of diverse origin for objectivity. These findings contradict the studies conducted by Lockyer and Scholarios (2007) who found that organizations with the best talents and skills are those whose selection panel is constituted objectively.

Gallagher and O' Leary (2007) are also of the view that the selection process is a shared responsibility between the management, the human resource management and the operating departments. The same sentiments are also shared by Parry and Tyson (2008). If an organization is to achieve diversity then it must ensure that it has the right skills throughout its hierarchies. Other scholars, Engel and Curran,(2016), Baron and Kreps (2006), and Shan (2013) indicate that policy makers in an organization should come into terms with reality and ensure that they adhere to various organizational policies regarding the hiring practices of staff.

4.5.2 Construct Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal is a critical component of the human resource management function. It enables organizations to have the relevant skills necessary to achieve the desired objective. Organizations with good appraisal programmes have a competitive edge over their rivals as they know what they need as far as skills and knowledge of their workers is concerned. The study sought to establish the effect of performance appraisal on the workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. The results are represented in table 4.8.

The study found out that majority of the respondent disagreed that appraisal is focused on the individual's performance, not personality with a rate of 65.8%. A respondent rate of 37.8% agreed that the organization have objective criteria and fair practices for everyone while 62.2% disagreed and did not know. A respondent rate of 63.3% agreed that the cultural background of the

Table 4.8: Descriptive Results on Performance appraisal

| | N | Yes | No | Do not know | Total |
|--|-----|-------|-------|-------------|-------|
| Appraisal are focused on the individual's performance, not personality | 196 | 28.1% | 65.8% | 6.1% | 100% |
| The organization have objective criteria and fair practices for everyone | 196 | 37.8% | 53.1% | 9.1% | 100% |
| The cultural background of the appraiser influences the performance ratings of the appraisee | 196 | 27.0% | 63.3% | 9.7% | 100% |
| There are several multicultural employees at top management of the organization | 196 | 35.7% | 53.6% | 10.7% | 100% |
| The organization includes hiring and climate measures in performance appraisal criteria for managers | 196 | 32.7% | 59.7% | 7.7% | 100% |
| Appraisal policy in place is implemented by all managers | 196 | 32.7% | 58.2% | 9.2% | 100% |
| The methods of appraisal are unbiased | 196 | 32.1% | 59.2% | 8.7% | 100% |

appraiser influences the performance ratings of the appraisee. The respondents 53.6% disagreed that there are several multicultural employees at top management of the organization whereas 69.4% from the respondent disagreed or did not know that the organization includes hiring and climate measures in performance

appraisal criteria for managers. The respondents 58.2% disagreed that the appraisal policy in place is implemented by all managers, while the methods of appraisal are unbiased had a respondent rate of 32.1% in agreement but had a majority rate of 67.9% in disagreement or did not know.

4.5.3 Construct Employee Compensation

The employee compensation is a critical component of the HRM practices in an organization. This will determine the extent to which an organization has the ability to motivate its employees besides playing a critical role in staff retention. The study, therefore, sought to establish between employee compensation and workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. Respondents were requested to provide information on the employee compensation issues on a scale of 0 to 2. They were requested to respond Yes, No or Do not know of the practices. The results are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Descriptive Analysis of variable Employee compensation

| | N | Yes | No | Do not know | Total |
|--|----------|------------|-----------|--------------------|--------------|
| Compensation is fair to all | 196 | 58.7% | 29.1% | 12.2% | 100% |
| The working condition are the same for all employees | 196 | 63.8% | 30.6% | 5.6% | 100% |
| The workload is equitably distributed to all employees | 196 | 35.7% | 55.6% | 8.7% | 100% |
| The important work given to the minority employees | 196 | 40.3% | 43.4% | 16.3% | 100% |
| Are the minority employees recognized for their work | 196 | 25.5% | 54.6% | 19.9% | 100% |
| There is job security for all minority employees | 196 | 60.7% | 23.5% | 15.8% | 100% |
| All benefits are given to all employees | 196 | 55.6% | 32.7% | 11.7% | 100% |
| There is advancement in opportunity for the minorities | 196 | 33.7% | 51.1% | 14.8% | 100% |
| The minority are delegated authority/ control/autonomy | 196 | 30.1% | 43.4% | 26.5% | 100% |

When asked if compensation is fair to all employees a respondent rate of 58.7% agreed that it was fair. The working condition are the same for all employees had a rate of 63.8% while the respondents disagreed that the workload is equitably distributed to all employees with a response rate of 55.6%.The important work

given to the minority employees had a low response rate of 59.7% in disagreement and did not know. A respondent rate of 43.4% disagreed that the minority employees are recognized for their work, whereas a response rate of 60.7% agreed that there is job security for all minority employees. All benefits are given to all employees had a respondent rate of 55.6% thus agreeing that there is fair compensation policy. On the issue of advancement in opportunity for the minorities a response rate of 51.1% disagreed while a respondent rate of 69.9% disagreed or did not know whether that the minority are delegated authority/control/autonomy.

Compensation based on collective rewards either monetary or non-monetary (fringe benefits and social benefits) is usually considered as highly involving (Gupta & Shaw, 2014). A high level of perceived equity signals to employees that the firm supports them and has their well-being at heart (Biggs & Richwine, 2014). People tend to compare their remuneration with other people in the same or a similar situation (Odunlade, 2012) Similar empirical studies done by Nawab and Bhatti (2011), showed that if rewards are used effectively, they can motivate individuals to perform and thus can have a positive effect on diversity which in turn has a positive effect on organizational performance.

A study by Sharma and Sharma (2016), suggests that employees are more likely to be motivated to perform when they perceive that there is a strong link between their performance and the reward they receive. However when rewards are not used effectively they may not impact on performance positively. In a study conducted by Aguinis, Joo and Gottfredson (2013) it has been suggested that managers should first provide both salaries and benefits in order to make sure that the basic needs of the employee are met, however this may not necessarily make the employee happy with his/her job, there is also need to look at the non-monetary rewards.

Recent trends in compensation system in organizations has frequently centered on the relationship between employee compensation and performance (Wekesa & Nyaroo 2013). This confirms (Anitha, 2014) who indicate that compensation/pay is the most critical issue when it comes to attracting and maintaining the best talents. A fair pay is the corner stone of the contractual and implied agreements between employees and employers, an underlying assumption being that money can influence behavior, thus influence the workplace diversity (Samnani & Singh, 2014).

Anith (2014) indicates that the level of pay is the most important indicator in employee performance and suggested that organizations should develop appropriate techniques of remunerating their employees and have singled out job evaluation as the most critical factor. Studies conducted by Jackson and Schuler (2007) to investigate the relationship between levels of pay and employee performance in a few selected companies in the US revealed that there is a strong relationship between the levels of pay and employee performance in an organization. Pay continues to be important in determining motivation to perform (Nawab & Bhatti, 2011).

Past motivational theories such as expectancy and equity theories have predicted variations in motivation as a result of varying valences of outcome such as pay (Das, 2002). Accenture (2003) observes that organizations can only retain the diverse best talents and skills if they offer reasonable benefits package. The study findings is contra to Singh *et al.* (2013) who indicated that traditional reward systems have been dominated by base payments determined by specific jobs, the need to maintain equity among employees and the need to pay salaries and wages that are competitive. Aggarwal (2014) is also of the view that reward systems based on traditional, bureaucratic models which only advocate the level of pay have been overtaken by events.

4.5.4 Construct Training and Development

Training and Development is a critical component of the human resource management function. Harrison and Kessels (2003) define HRD as an organizational process including “the skilful planning and facilitation of a variety of formal and informal learning. Swanson (1995) refers HRD as a process directed to performance improvement by developing and unleashing human expertise through personnel training and development including organization development. HRD also defined as “a set of systematic and planned activities designed by an organization to provide its members with the opportunities to learn necessary skills to meet current and future job demands” Werner and DeSimone (2011). Organizations with good training and development programmes have a competitive edge. The study sought to establish the effect of training and development on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. The results are presented in table 4.10.

Table 4. 10: Descriptive Analysis of variable Training and Development

| | N | Yes | No | Do Not know | Total |
|---|----------|------------|-----------|----------------------------|--------------|
| Employees' needs are assessed irrespective of their origin, to enable full participation | 196 | 64.8% | 29.6% | 5.6% | 100% |
| Individual training plans are developed | 196 | 53.1% | 38.3% | 8.7% | 100% |
| The organization develops managerial skills for working in a multicultural environment | 196 | 42.3% | 45.4% | 12.2% | 100% |
| The organization have education programs to reduce stereotyping | 196 | 41.3% | 45.4% | 13.3% | 100% |
| Cultural sensitivity courses are provided | 196 | 35.7% | 51.0% | 13.3% | 100% |
| Managers having the title of diversity managers | 196 | 29.9% | 57.7% | 13.3% | 100% |
| Hold minority career management programs | 196 | 25.5% | 62.2% | 12.2% | 100% |
| The organization has developmental assignments that expose employees to multiple cultures | 196 | 34.7% | 52.0% | 12.8% | 100% |
| The organization encourages network and support group areas and potential skill building/ advance opportunity | 196 | 44.1% | 45.2% | 10.7% | 100% |
| The organization provides conflict management training | 196 | 37.2% | 50.6% | 12.2% | 100% |
| Minority are given regular opportunities for personal and career development | 196 | 32.7% | 52.0% | 15.3% | 100% |

The study sought to establish the effect of training and development function at the public universities. The study found that a respondent rate of 64.8% agreed that the employees' needs are assessed irrespective of their origin to enable full participation, while a rate of 53.1% agreed that individual training plans are developed. In order to motivate staff and enhance productivity, it is desirable, therefore, for organizations to take seriously workplace diversity. Employees will be motivated when their career paths in an organization are clearly defined. Sultana (2009) has also indicated that employees will be motivated to acquire new skills if the career guidelines are clearly defined.

The organization develops managerial skills for working in a multicultural environment had a rate of 45.4% agreeing while majority 54.6% disagreed or did not know. A respondent rate of 51% disagreed that the organization have education programs to reduce stereotyping and 57.7% also disagreed that cultural sensitivity courses are provided.

The respondent rate of 57.7% disagreed on managers having the title of diversity managers, while 62.2% also disagreed on hold minority career management programs. The organization has developmental assignments that expose employees to multiple cultures had a respondent rate of 52% disagreeing, whereas 55.9% disagree and do not know whether that the organization encourages network and support group areas and potential skill building/ advance opportunity. This indicates that the universities do not conduct diversity culture training. This is contrary to findings by Jehanzeb, Rasheed and Rasheed (2013) who observed that training affects the psychological state of the employees, when training is provided the employees feels that the organization is concerned about them and their commitment level increases. Bhalla, and Sidhu (2014) indicated that training and development is significantly related to organizational commitment.

The organization does not provides conflict management training with a respondent rate of 50.6%, while a respondent rate of 52% disagree that minority are given regular opportunities for personal and career development. The results are a clear indication that universities do not accord all cadres of employees equal

training opportunities. This is a dangerous trend which might affect the performance of employees who may feel discriminated. These findings contradict studies conducted by Frazis and Loewenstein (2015) who found out that for organizations to achieve their objective they need to come up with relevant training programs irrespective of their professional background. The same sentiments are also shared by Accenture (2001) and Walker (2009) who indicated that all employees in an organization irrespective of their professional background contribute to the success of the organization and should be equipped with the necessary skills if possible.

Research also shows that training offers many benefits to employees and to the organization as a whole. Employees become more confident, open to change and supportive of each other (Armstrong, 2013). In addition, employees are more motivated to achieve improved performance as a result of training. The perceived benefits of training have been found to affect participation and commitment in training. Appiah (2012) identified three types of benefits that employees obtain from training which are personal, career, and job-related benefits.

Finally it can be said the changing business environment necessitates that organizations should spend on training and development of employees to enhance organizational ability to positively respond to the dynamic environment (Bezrukova *et al.*, 2012)

4.5.5 Construct Organizational Culture

Organizational culture is a critical component of the human resource management function. An organization with the right culture will be able to attract employees needed to perform various functions in the universities, thus enhance the performance. The respondents were provided with a likert scale questionnaire ranging between 1 to 5 and asked to provide objective opinions that best describe their responses. The results of these findings are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Descriptive Analysis of Variable Organizational Culture

| | N | Strongly Agree | Agree | Un decided | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|--|-----|----------------|-------|------------|----------|-------------------|
| My manager is willing to share decision making power with employees | 196 | 18.9% | 39.8% | 15.3% | 18.4% | 7.7% |
| My organization communicates effectively and in a timely manner to its employees | 196 | 20.9% | 40.3% | 12.8% | 15.3% | 10.7% |
| There is a two way communication between employer and employees | 196 | 17.3% | 40.3% | 14.3% | 20.4% | 7.4% |
| Everyone's contribution is noted and respected by the organization | 196 | 12.2% | 26.5% | 25.0% | 22.4% | 13.8% |
| There is good team work and cooperation in my organization | 196 | 17.3% | 36.7% | 17.3% | 20.9% | 7.7% |
| I am recognized and respected by my teammates | 196 | 22.4% | 49.5% | 14.3% | 9.2% | 4.6% |
| All the information is shared equally in my department | 194 | 17.9% | 40.3% | 14.8% | 21.9% | 8.1% |
| I have clear understanding of the goals and objectives of my organization | 196 | 29.6% | 47.4% | 13.3% | 7.1% | 2.6% |
| Employee recognition programs are regularly followed | 196 | 15.3% | 23.5% | 14.3% | 34.5% | 12.8% |
| My organization will promote from within before looking for employees externally | 196 | 14.3% | 37.8% | 17.9% | 18.9% | 11.2% |
| There is great opportunity to learn and for career growth | 196 | 18.9% | 11.7% | 10.7% | 52% | 6.6% |

The study finding showed that a responded rate of 57.8% agreed that my manager is willing to share decision making power with employees while a rate of 62.2% agree that they have freedom to make important decisions regarding their work. My organization communicates effectively and in a timely manner to its employees had a respondent rate of 61.2% agreeing. There is a two way communication between employer and employees had a response rate of 57.6% whereas a rate of 42.4% disagreed. Everyone's contribution is noted and respected by the organization had a respondent rate of 61.3% disagreeing whereas a rate of 54% agreed that there is good team work and cooperation in my organization. I am recognized and respected by my teammates had a respondent rate of 71.9% agreeing while all the information is shared equally in my department had a response rate of 58.2% agreeing. I have clear understanding of the goals and objectives of my organization had a response rate of 77%. Employee recognition programs are regularly followed had a response rate of 49.5% agreeing with the majority of 50.5% disagreeing. My organization will promote from within before looking for employees externally had a response rate of 52.1% in agreement. There is great opportunity to learn and for career growth had a respondent rate of 70.9% in agreement while a rate of 29.1% disagreed.

Organizational cultures, like people's personalities, are elusive, complex and paradoxical. Understanding culture means understanding the difference between the formal and the informal rules, the espoused way of doing things and the real way. To survive and thrive in an organization, one must evaluate and operate within the hidden cultural expectations and rule. Understanding of organizational culture is fundamental to examine what goes on in organizations, how to run them and how to improve them (Schein, 1992).The findings in this construct enable us to know the culture at the universities.

4.4.6 Construct Workplace Diversity

Workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya is very critical because it determines whether they achieve their objectives or not. Workplace diversity also tends to enhance their image in the public sector. The study, therefore, sought to

measures the extent of the indicators of workplace diversity in public universities. The results are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Descriptive Results on Workplace Diversity

| | N | Strongly Agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|--|-----|----------------|-------|-----------|----------|-------------------|
| The workforce profile is equally represented in the organization | 196 | 11.2% | 25.5% | 13.3% | 42.9% | 9.2% |
| All groups are equally represented in the workforce | 196 | 15.3% | 25.5% | 14.3% | 35.7% | 9.2% |
| The organization is broadening the pool of applicants by extended outreach efforts | 196 | 12.7% | 23.5% | 18.4% | 38.8% | 7.7% |
| Employees among affirmative action groups are paid the same as dominant counterparts or those in similar positions | 196 | 18.9% | 37.2% | 18.4% | 20.4% | 4.1% |
| Men and women are given equal pay for equal work in the same establishment | 196 | 30.6% | 41.3% | 11.2% | 10.7% | 6.1% |
| Promotion rates for men, women and other affected are the same | 196 | 21.4% | 19.4% | 15.8% | 37.2% | 6.1% |
| Voluntary and involuntary turnover by demographic category is reviewed annually | 196 | 6.6% | 18.4% | 32.7% | 28.6% | 13.8% |

The study sought to establish the extent of workplace diversity in the public universities. The data on table 4.12 shows responses on statements regarding the determinants of workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. The data shows 36.7% of the respondents agree on the workforce profile are equally represented in the organization while 63.3% are do not agree or do not know. Also 40.8% respondents agree that all groups are equally represented in the workforce while 59.2% do not agree or were undecided. The respondents 64.9% disagree that the organization is broadening the pool of applicants by extended outreach effort. Of the respondents 56.1% agree that employees among affirmative action groups are paid the same as dominant counterparts or those in similar positions. Men and women are given equal pay for equal work in the same establishment with a response rate of 71.9%, while a response rate of 40.8% agree on promotion rates for men, women and other affected are the same but 59.2% disagreed. Of the respondents 64.9% disagreed or did not know whether the Voluntary and involuntary turnover by demographic category is reviewed annually while 35.1% agreed.

The results concur with Mathews *et al.* (2012), that diversity has been characterized as a function of human resource management and the policies and programs that constitute the diversity management function vary substantially among organizations, including mentoring opportunities, training programs, minority policies, and advocacy groups.

4.6 Requisite Tests

4.6.1 Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010) was necessary in research to test for construct validity and highlight variability among observed variables and to also check for any correlated variables in order to reduce redundancy in data. Mwiti (2013) suggested that variables with factor loadings greater than 0.4 were the ones that had the highest significance and influence. Factor analysis was carried out in all the variables in order to understand each variables specific contribution to the workplace diversity in the public universities. Erika (2010) stated that the analysis

of principle components was a descriptive method which described interdependencies among both independent and dependent variables. It was aimed at identifying a few factors which explained most of the information contained in the original values.

Factor Analysis of Hiring Practices (HP)

Factor analysis was performed before analysis of the results to explain variability among the observed and check for any correlated variables with the objective of reducing data that was established redundant. The independent variable which is hiring practices in public universities in Kenya had a total of eleven (11) items in which eight (8) were confirmed valid and were, therefore, retained for subsequent analysis. Factor analysis performed on the independent variable –HP is as shown on table 4.16. Questions scoring more than 0.4 which is the minimum requirement for inclusion of variables into the model (Hair, Black & Babin, 2010) were included. Results of the factor analysis are shown in table 4.13 and 4.14.

Table 4.13: Total Variance Explained for HP measures

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 2.793 | 34.913 | 34.913 | 2.241 | 28.010 | 28.010 |
| 2 | 1.314 | 16.428 | 51.341 | 1.867 | 23.331 | 51.341 |
| 3 | .915 | 11.435 | 62.777 | | | |
| 4 | .788 | 9.844 | 72.620 | | | |
| 5 | .744 | 9.304 | 81.925 | | | |
| 6 | .661 | 8.259 | 90.184 | | | |
| 7 | .444 | 5.556 | 95.740 | | | |
| 8 | .341 | 4.260 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The analysis of the variance identified the Eigen value which is the variance of each factor or component in comparison with the total variance of all the items in

the construct. Other elements in the analysis of variance include the percentage of variance and also the cumulative percentages which were explained by the extracted factors before and after the rotation.

Principal component analysis with a Varimax rotation was used to factor analyze the items related to hiring practices. The correlation matrices among the items revealed a number of correlations in excess of 2 which meant that all responses were suitable for factorization. From the Variance matrix, there were two variables that had Eigen values of more than 1.0 which meant that these were the HP variables that had the highest influence on workplace diversity.

Component one had the highest variance of 2.793 which accounted for 34.913 % of the variance. Component 2 had the second highest variance of 1.314 contributing 16.428% of the variance. The cumulative results showed that there were two critical factors driving the use of HP and workplace diversity which accumulated to 51.341% of the total variance in this construct. The other six factors also explained the variance at less than 49% which meant that some variance had been explained by latent variables. The researcher however chose to delete all the variables in HP which did not relate to either factor 1 or 2 in order to continue working out for further relationships as shown in table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Rotated Component Matrix for HP measures

| | Component | |
|---|-----------|------|
| | 1 | 2 |
| Top management supports diversity in recruitment | .829 | |
| The current job description and selection processes reflect minority' needs. | .791 | |
| Minority employees are present on selection committees | .578 | |
| The have special programs that aim to recruit minorities each year | | .682 |
| Job advertisements appear in ethnic newspapers/television/radios | | .668 |
| There are recruiting efforts to specifically targeted audiences through periodicals, job fairs, selected colleges and professional groups | | .708 |
| The human resource manager makes an effort to head hunt the minority employees | .510 | |
| The management makes an annual review of the staff diversity | .530 | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

From the rotated matrix in table 4.16 a two factor solution was obtained explaining 51.341% of the total variance in HP. Factor one had five items with significant loading namely top management supports diversity in recruitment 0.829, the current job description and selection processes reflect minority' needs 0.791, minority employees are present on selection committees 0.578, The human resource manager makes an effort to head hunt the minority employees 0.510, the management makes an annual review of the staff diversity 0.530 and this factor was named Recruitment (HR). Factor two had three items with significant high loading namely the have special programs that aim to recruit minorities each year 0.682, job advertisements appear in ethnic newspapers/television/radios 0.668, there are recruiting efforts to specifically targeted audiences through periodicals, job fairs, selected colleges and professional groups 0.708 and this factor was named Selection (HS). The results meant that all the constructs in HP were correlated to the two factors.

Factor analysis on Performance Appraisal (PA)

Factor analysis performed on the independent variable –Performance Appraisal is as shown on table 4.15. Questions scoring more than 0.4 which is the minimum requirement for inclusion of variables into the model (Hair, Black & Babin, 2010) were included. Results of the factor analysis are shown in table 4.15 and 4.16.

Table 4.15: Total Variance Explained for PA measures

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 2.344 | 33.493 | 33.493 | 1.787 | 25.529 | 25.529 |
| 2 | 1.167 | 16.667 | 50.160 | 1.470 | 20.999 | 46.528 |
| 3 | 1.037 | 14.813 | 64.973 | 1.291 | 18.445 | 64.973 |
| 4 | .727 | 10.387 | 75.360 | | | |
| 5 | .657 | 9.379 | 84.739 | | | |
| 6 | .542 | 7.740 | 92.479 | | | |
| 7 | .526 | 7.521 | 100.000 | | | |

The eight measures of performance appraisal (PA) were subjected to factor analysis and the results showed that there were three critical factors driving the use of PA in diversity at the universities which accumulate to 64.973% of the total variance in this construct. Factor 1 had the highest variance of 33.493% represented by, there are several multicultural employees at top management of the organization 0.791, appraisal policy in place is implemented by all managers 0.672 and the methods of appraisal are unbiased 0.765. This factor was renamed Policy on appraisal (PAP). Factor 2 had 16.667% and was represented by the following questions Appraisal are focused on the individual's performance, not personality 0.827, The organization have objective criteria and fair practices for everyone 0.788. The second factor was renamed Performance Appraisal Methods (PAM).

While factor 3 had 14.813% and was represented by the following questions, the cultural background of the appraiser influences the performance ratings of the appraisee 0.879, the organization includes hiring and climate measures in performance appraisal criteria for managers 0.654. This factor was renamed Performance Appraisal Targets (PAT). These three factors had the greatest influence on performance appraisal and hence the workplace diversity of the public universities.

Table 4.16 depicts the rotated component factor loadings for performance appraisal practices for diversity in the public universities.

Table 4.16: Rotated Component Matrix for PA measures

| | Component | | |
|--|-----------|------|------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Appraisal are focused on the individual's performance, not personality | | .827 | |
| The organization have objective criteria and fair practices for everyone | | .788 | |
| The cultural background of the appraiser influences the performance ratings of the appraisee | | | .879 |
| There are several multicultural employees at top management of the organization | .791 | | |
| The organization includes hiring and climate measures in performance appraisal criteria for managers | | | .654 |
| Appraisal policy in place is implemented by all managers | .672 | | |
| The methods of appraisal are unbiased | .765 | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

From the rotated matrix in table 4.16 there were three major factors which were deemed to be influencing performance appraisal. These factors were grouped into three as PAP, PAM and PAT. Factor one had three items with significant loading namely there are several multicultural employees at top management of the organization 0.791, appraisal policy in place is implemented by all managers 0.672

and the methods of appraisal are unbiased 0.76, this factor was named as performance appraisal policy. Factor two had two items with the highest loading on appraisal are focused on the individual's performance, not personality 0.827 and the organization have objective criteria and fair practices for everyone 0.788, this factor was named performance appraisal method. Factor three had two items with also a significantly high loading on the cultural background of the appraiser influences the performance ratings of the appraise 0.879 and the organization includes hiring and climate measures in performance appraisal criteria for managers 0.654, this factor was named performance appraisal targets. The results meant that all the questions in this construct were correlated to the three factors.

Factor Analysis of Employee Compensation (EC)

The independent variable which is employee compensation in public universities in Kenya had a total of nine (9) items in which all were confirmed valid and were, therefore, retained for subsequent analysis. Table 4.17 shows the total variance of the employee compensation measures.

Table 4.17: Total Variance Explained for EC measures

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 3.805 | 42.280 | 42.280 | 3.805 | 42.280 | 42.280 |
| 2 | .992 | 11.017 | 53.297 | | | |
| 3 | .903 | 10.035 | 63.332 | | | |
| 4 | .785 | 8.726 | 72.058 | | | |
| 5 | .658 | 7.306 | 79.365 | | | |
| 6 | .549 | 6.097 | 85.462 | | | |
| 7 | .511 | 5.682 | 91.144 | | | |
| 8 | .454 | 5.047 | 96.191 | | | |
| 9 | .343 | 3.809 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Principal component analysis was used to factor analyze the nine items related to employee compensation. The correlation matrices among the items revealed a number of correlations, which meant that all responses were suitable for factorization. From the Variance matrix, there was one variable that had Eigen values of more than 1.0 which meant that this was the EC measures that had the highest influence. The results showed that there was only one factor driving EC use in the universities and had the highest variance of 3.805 which accounted for 42.280% of the total variance. The factor was named employee compensation. The researcher retained all the nine measures for employee compensation for further analysis.

Table 4.18: Component Matrix for EC measures

| | Component 1 |
|--|----------------|
| Compensation is fair to all | .615 |
| The working condition are the same for all employees | .618 |
| The workload is equitably distributed to all employees | .694 |
| The important work given to the minority employees | .673 |
| Are the minority employees recognized for their work | .730 |
| There is job security for all minority employees | .724 |
| All benefits are given to all employees | .572 |
| There is advancement in opportunity for the minorities | .572 |
| The minority are delegated authority/ control/autonomy | .632 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Factor Analysis on Training and Development (TD)

A principal component Analysis with varimax rotation was performed on eleven (11) TD measures in order to examine the dimensionality of TD on diversity at the universities and ten(10) were confirmed as significant to diversity at the universities. The objective was to group the common factors and to retain a small number of factors which had the highest influence (Noor, Chen & Romiza, 2011).

Table 4.19: Total Variance Explained for TD measures

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 3.358 | 30.526 | 30.526 | 2.161 | 19.645 | 19.645 |
| 2 | 1.485 | 13.499 | 44.025 | 2.036 | 18.512 | 38.157 |
| 3 | 1.043 | 9.481 | 53.505 | 1.688 | 15.349 | 53.505 |
| 4 | .943 | 8.573 | 62.078 | | | |
| 5 | .818 | 7.434 | 69.512 | | | |
| 6 | .736 | 6.691 | 76.203 | | | |
| 7 | .642 | 5.838 | 82.041 | | | |
| 8 | .616 | 5.598 | 87.639 | | | |
| 9 | .552 | 5.017 | 92.655 | | | |
| 10 | .457 | 4.155 | 96.810 | | | |
| 11 | .351 | 3.190 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The eleven measures of training and development (TD) were subjected to factor analysis and the results showed that there were three critical factors driving the use of TD in the diversity at the universities which accumulate to 53.505% of the total variance in this construct. Factor 1 had the highest variance of 30.526% and was renamed Culture Training (CT), while factor 2 had 13.499% was renamed Personal Training (PT) and factor 3 had 9.481% and was renamed Development (DT).

These three factors had the greatest influence on training and development and hence the workplace diversity of the public universities. Table 4.20 depicts the rotated component factor loadings for training and development practices for diversity in the public universities.

Table 4.20: Rotated Component Matrix for TD measures

| | Component | | |
|---|-----------|------|------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Employees' needs are assessed irrespective of their origin, to enable full participation | | | .745 |
| Individual training plans are developed | | | .532 |
| The organization have education programs to reduce stereotyping | | | .666 |
| Cultural sensitivity courses are provided | .732 | | |
| Managers having the title of diversity managers | .754 | | |
| Hold minority career management programs | .676 | | |
| The organization has developmental assignments that expose employees to multiple cultures | .523 | | |
| The organization encourages network and support group areas and potential skill building/ advance opportunity | | .702 | |
| The organization provides conflict management training | | .710 | |
| Minority are given regular opportunities for personal and career development | | .739 | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

From the rotated matrix in table 4.20 there were three major factors which were deemed to be influencing training and development. These factors were grouped into three as TD1, TD2 and TD3. Factor one had four items with significant loading namely the cultural sensitivity courses are provided 0.732, managers having the title of diversity managers 0.754, hold minority career management programs 0.676, the organization has developmental assignments that expose employees to multiple cultures 0.523, and this factor was named training. Factor two had three items with significant high loading on the organization encourages network and support group areas and potential skill building/ advance opportunity 0.702, the organization provides conflict management training 0.710, minority are given regular opportunities for personal and career development 0.739, this factor was named personal and career development. Factor three had three items with also a significantly high loading on employees' needs are assessed irrespective of their origin, to enable full participation 0.745, individual training plans are developed 0.532, the organizations have education programs to reduce stereotyping 0.666, this factor was named employee development . The results meant that all the questions in this construct were correlated to the three factors.

Factor Analysis on Organizational Culture (OC)

A principal component Analysis with varimax rotation was performed on seventeen (17) OC measures in order to examine the dimensionality of OC on diversity at the universities and twelve (12) were confirmed as significant to diversity at the universities. The objective was to group the common factors and to retain a small number of factors which had the highest influence (Noor, Chen& Romiza, 2011). The results of factor analysis were shown in tables 4.21 and 4.22.

Table 4.21: Total Variance Explained for OC measures

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 5.729 | 47.745 | 47.745 | 5.729 | 47.745 | 47.745 |
| 2 | .984 | 8.198 | 55.943 | | | |
| 3 | .940 | 7.833 | 63.775 | | | |
| 4 | .884 | 7.367 | 71.142 | | | |
| 5 | .624 | 5.202 | 76.344 | | | |
| 6 | .620 | 5.165 | 81.509 | | | |
| 7 | .545 | 4.544 | 86.053 | | | |
| 8 | .416 | 3.470 | 89.524 | | | |
| 9 | .397 | 3.312 | 92.836 | | | |
| 10 | .319 | 2.654 | 95.490 | | | |
| 11 | .286 | 2.382 | 97.873 | | | |
| 12 | .255 | 2.127 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The seventeen measures of organizational culture (OC) were subjected to factor analysis and the results showed that there were five measures with a very low factor loading of less than 0.4 and these were dropped from the study. The twelve measures that remained were the critical factors that determine the OC at the universities which accumulate to 47.745% of the total variance in this construct. These twelve measures had the greatest influence on organizational culture and hence the workplace diversity of the public universities.

Table 4.22 depicts the component factor loadings for organizational culture for diversity in the public universities.

Table 4.22: Component Matrix for OC measures

| | Component |
|--|-----------|
| | 1 |
| My manager is willing to share decision making power with employees | .657 |
| I have freedom to make important decisions regarding my work | .682 |
| My organization communicates effectively and in a timely manner to its employees | .765 |
| There is a two way communication between employer and employees | .742 |
| Everyone's contribution is noted and respected by the organization | .742 |
| There is good team work and cooperation in my organization | .772 |
| I am recognized and respected by my teammates | .673 |
| All the information is shared equally in my department | .740 |
| I have clear understanding of the goals and objectives of my organization | .520 |
| Employee recognition programs are regularly followed | .700 |
| My organization will promote from within before looking for employees externally | .564 |
| There is great opportunity to learn and for career growth | .687 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 component extracted.

Principal component analysis was used to factor analyze the twelve items related to organizational culture. The correlation matrices among the items revealed a number of correlations, which meant that all responses were suitable for

factorization. From the Variance matrix, there was one variable that had Eigen values of more than 1.0 which meant that this was the OC measures that had the highest influence. The results showed that there was only one factor driving OC use in the universities and had the highest variance of 5.729 which accounted for 47.745% of the total variance. The factor was named organizational culture. The researcher retained all the twelve measures for organizational culture for further analysis.

Factor Analysis of Workplace Diversity (WD)

A Principal Component Analysis with varimax rotation was performed on all fourteen (14) WD measures in order to examine the dimensionality of WD and also to find out if all the variables were significant. The other objective was to group the common factors and to retain a small number of factors which had the highest influence (Noor, Chen & Romiza, 2011).

The results of factor analysis were shown in tables 4.23 and 4.24. The dependent variable which is workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya had a total of fourteen (14) items in which seven (7) were confirmed valid and were, therefore, retained for subsequent analysis. However, seven (7) items that is the new hires in the organization are of the same demographic, equal representation in the recruitment and hiring process, employee have individual development plans, having development plan retain employees, written development plans helpful for affirmative action, jobs need not be identical but substantially equal and job content not job titles that determine whether jobs are equal were excluded from subsequent analysis since they had a factor loading of below 0.4. This information is presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Total Variance Explained for WD measures

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 3.356 | 47.940 | 47.940 | 3.356 | 47.940 | 47.940 |
| 2 | .959 | 13.696 | 61.635 | | | |
| 3 | .872 | 12.461 | 74.096 | | | |
| 4 | .584 | 8.339 | 82.436 | | | |
| 5 | .543 | 7.753 | 90.189 | | | |
| 6 | .423 | 6.046 | 96.235 | | | |
| 7 | .264 | 3.765 | 100.000 | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The analysis of variance identified the Eigen values which are the variance of each factor or component in comparison with the total variance of all the items in the construct. Other elements in the analysis of variance include the percentage of variance and also the cumulative percentages which were explained by the extracted factors before and after the rotation.

Principal component analysis was used to factor analyze the fourteen items related to workplace diversity. The correlation matrices among the items revealed a number of correlations, which meant that all responses were suitable for factorization. From the Variance matrix, there was one variable that had Eigen values of more than 1.0 which meant that this was the WD measures that had the highest influence. The component had a variance of 3.356 which accounted for 47.940 % of the variance. There were several repetitions of data running using various methodologies in SPSS to try and specify the number of factors that were influencing workplace diversity. In evaluating what variables to retain the factor loadings were taken into account and the minimum factor loadings were 0.513 which were considered to be moderately high.

Table 4.24: Component Matrix for WD measures

| | Component 1 |
|--|----------------|
| The workforce profile is equally represented in the organization | .761 |
| All groups are equally represented in the workforce | .772 |
| The organization is broadening the pool of applicants by extended outreach efforts | .658 |
| Employees among affirmative action groups are paid the same as dominant counterparts or those in similar positions | .725 |
| Promotion rates for men, women and other affected are the same | .726 |
| Voluntary and involuntary turnover by demographic category is reviewed annually | .513 |
| Men and women are given equal pay for equal work in the same establishment | .658 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

After the factor analysis was conducted, the reliability test was conducted using Cronbach's Alpha based on the items that were confirmed in order to ascertain the measure of the degree to which a research instrument would yield the same results of data after repeated trials. Workplace diversity had a total of fourteen items, but after factor analysis seven items were dropped.

4.6.2 Normality Test

Normality test for Workplace diversity in public universities as a dependent variable was carried out by use of a normal Q-Q plot and a histogram. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2011) condition of normality is essential for one to fit a linear regression model. From the figure 4.1 below the results show that the concentration is close to the line and skewedness has gone to the corners which reflect that the dependent variable is normally distributed. Similarly, such data is the best for carrying out every manner of inferential and parametric analysis because probability of outliers is not existent (Sekaron & Bougie, 2011). In addition, it is noted that the data is appropriate for every type of analysis which considers causal relationships between independent variables and dependent

variable. It was hence statistically necessary to fit the multiple linear regressions because WD (dependant variable) data was normal in distribution. Figure 4.1 shows a Q-Q plot on work place diversity assuming a normal distribution which is validated by a histogram shown in figure 4.2.

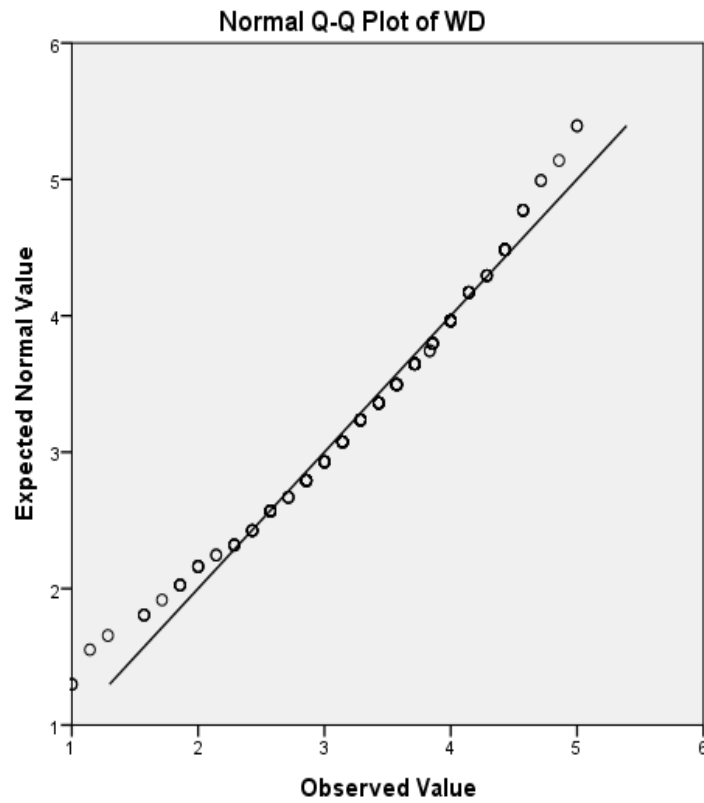


Figure 4.1: Q-Q Plot for Workplace Diversity

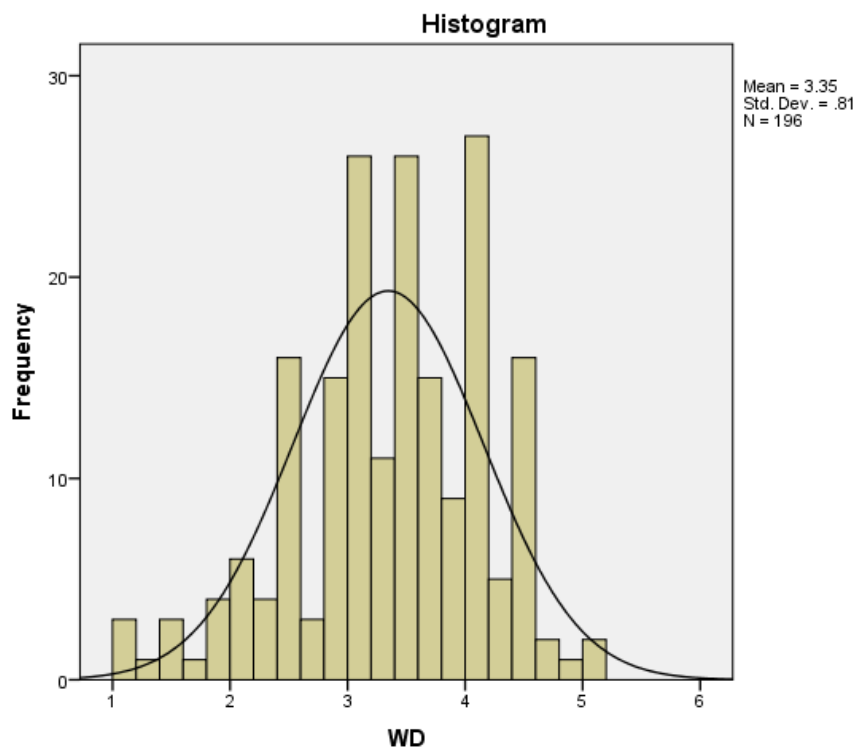


Figure 4.2: Histogram for Workplace Diversity

4.6.3 Multicollinearity Test

The study conducted a multicollinearity tests to determine if two or more predictor (independent) variables in the multiple regression model are highly correlated. Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon in which two or more independent variables in a multiple regression model are highly correlated, meaning that one can be linearly predicted from the others with a non-trivial degree of accuracy (Kothari, 2004). It is an undesirable situation where the correlations among the independent variables are strong, and this increases the standard errors of the coefficients. The study used tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values for the predictors as a check for multicollinearity.

Tolerance indicates the percent of variance in the independent variable that cannot be accounted for by the other independent variable while VIF is the inverse of tolerance. The general rule of thumb is that VIFs exceeding 4 warrant further

investigations, if there are two or more variables that will have a VIF around or greater than 5, one of these variables must be removed from the regression model. The VIF values found in the table below show that, there was no multicollinearity among the independent variables, since all the values are below 5. This implies that the results of the multiple regression equation will not be misleading, since the independent variables in the multiple regression equation are not highly correlated among themselves (Chatterjee & Hadi 2009).

Table 4.25 shows the tolerance values ranged between .485 and .779 while variance inflation factor ranged between 1.284 and 2.060 since tolerance values were above 0.1 and VIF below 10, justifies there being no multicollinearity in the model.

Table 4.25: Multicollinearity

| Variables | Multicollinearity Statistics | |
|------------------------|------------------------------|-------|
| | Tolerance | VIF |
| Hiring Practices | .755 | 1.324 |
| Performance Appraisal | .583 | 1.716 |
| Employee Compensation | .485 | 2.060 |
| Training Development | .512 | 1.952 |
| Organizational Culture | .779 | 1.284 |

4.7 Inferential Tests

4.7.1 Correlation Analysis

Correlation refers to any of a broad class of statistical relationships involving dependence. The Pearson correlation coefficient indicates the strength of a linear relationship between two variables, but its value generally does not completely characterize their relationship (Mahdavi, 2013). Pearson correlation coefficient is a measure of linear association between two variables. Values of the correlation coefficient are always between -1 and +1. A correlation coefficient of +1 indicates

that two variables are perfectly related in a positive linear sense whereas a correlation coefficient of -1 indicates that two variables are perfectly related in a negative linear sense. On the other hand, a correlation coefficient of 0 indicates that there is no linear relationship between the two variables (Kothari, 2004: Sekaran, 2008).

Correlation is used to analyze the degree of relationship between the variables of hiring practices, performance appraisal, employee compensation, organizational culture and workplace diversity. For this study the Pearson moment correlation (r) was used as well as the P- values of significance showing the degree and significance of the relationship. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) informs a researcher the magnitude and direction of the relationship between two variables, the bigger the coefficient, the stronger the association (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

Correlation Analysis for Recruitment and Selection Practices (HP)

Based on the results in table 4.26 the correlation coefficient (P) between the recruitment practices and workplace diversity was found to be $r(196) = .677$, while the correlation coefficient (P) between selection practices and workplace diversity was found to be $r(196) = .581$, $p < 0.01$, two tailed.

Table 4.26: Correlation Analysis for Recruitment and Selection (HP)

| | HR | HS | WD |
|---------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Pearson Correlation | 1 | .585** | .677** |
| HR Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 | .000 |
| N | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| Pearson Correlation | .585** | 1 | .581 |
| HS Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | .000 |
| N | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| Pearson Correlation | .677** | .581 | 1 |
| WD Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | |
| N | 196 | 196 | 196 |

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

These results indicate that according to the study, there was a significant linear correlation between the variables (recruitment and selection practices and workplace diversity). This implies that the relationship between the variables is very close. This supports the argument by Kirton and Greene (2015) and Acker (2012) who indicate that the way organizations conduct recruitment and selection will either improve the diversity of employees or not. They argue that if recruitment and selection practices are conducted in an objective and professional manner, then it is likely to improve workplace diversity. Boeree (2006) and Osborne (2005) indicate that personality type appears to have a major impact on diversity. They argue that the effectiveness of recruitment and selection practices will determine whether organizations will get the right persons who are ready to deliver, Baker *et al.* (2016) indicate that the caliber of employees obtained during the selection process will determine whether they will perform at the workplace or not.

Mullins (2010) states that if the HRM function is to remain effective, there must be consistently good levels of teamwork, plus on-going co-operation and consultation between line managers and the HR manager. This is most definitely the case in recruitment and selection practices as specialist HR managers can be an important repository of up-to-date knowledge and skills, for example on the important legal dimensions of this area. Recruitment and selection practice forms a core part of the central activities underlying human resource management. It frequently forms an important part of the work of human resource managers or designated specialists within work organizations. Acker (2012) asserts that recruitment and selection also has an important role to play in ensuring workplace diversity. Mullins (2010) further indicated that to be a high performing organization, human resource management must be able to assist the organization to place the right person in the right job.

Correlation Analysis for Construct Performance Appraisal Policy, Methods and Targets (PA)

Based on the results in table 4.27 the correlation coefficient (P) between the performance appraisal policy and workplace diversity was found to be $r(196) = .581$ $p < 0.01$, two tailed, whereas the correlation coefficient (P) between the performance appraisal methods and workplace diversity was found to be $r(196) = .688$ $p < 0.01$, two tailed and the correlation coefficient (P) between the performance appraisal targets and workplace diversity was found to be $r(196) = .443$ $p < 0.01$, two tailed. These results indicate that according to the study, there was a significant linear correlation between the four variables (performance appraisal policy, methods and targets and workplace diversity). This implies that the relationship between the variables is very close.

Table 4.27: Correlation Analysis for Construct Performance Appraisal Policy, Methods and Targets (PA)

| | | PA POLICY | PA METHODS | PA TARGETS | WD |
|------------|---------------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|--------|
| PA POLICY | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .529** | .532** | .581** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 | .000 | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| PA METHODS | Pearson Correlation | .529** | 1 | .864** | .688 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | .000 | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| PA TARGETS | Pearson Correlation | .532** | .864** | 1 | .443 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| WD | Pearson Correlation | .581** | .688 | .443 | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |

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

Guest (2001) argues that policies are necessary to ensure that employee performance is evaluated, which in turn ensures that the appropriate training and development take place. With the help of the performance appraisal reports and findings, the organization can be able to identify development needs. However, individuals themselves can help to indicate the areas requiring improvement as a result of the issues raised in the performance appraisal process and their career path needs. Employee performance is normally looked at in terms of outcomes set by the targets. However, it can also be looked at in terms of behaviour (Armstrong 2013). Holmes (2016) stated that employee's performance is measured against the performance standards set by the organization. There are a number of measures that can be taken into consideration when measuring performance for example using of productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, quality and profitability measures (Aggrawal and Thakur, 2013). As noted by Draft (1988), it is the responsibility of the company managers to ensure that the organizations strive to and thus achieve high performance levels. This therefore implies that managers have to set the desired levels of performance for any periods in question by setting policies in place. Therefore these findings indicate that there is a strong relationship between performance appraisal policy, methods, targets and workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya.

Correlation Analysis for Variable Employee Compensation (EC)

Based on the results in Table 4.28, the correlation coefficient (P) between employee and workplace diversity was found to be 0.504 at (P=0.000). This, therefore, implies that there is a relationship between the two variables (50.4%) since it is above the recommended 30% (Singh and Selvarajan, 2013). The findings of the study, therefore, indicate that there was a highly significant linear correlation between the two variables (employee compensation and workplace diversity). This implies that the relationship between the two variables is very close.

Table 4.28: Correlations Analysis for Construct Employee Compensation (EC)

| | | Employee Compensation | Workplace Diversity |
|-----------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Employee Compensation | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .504** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 |
| Workplace Diversity | Pearson Correlation | .504** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |
| | N | 196 | 196 |

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

In support of the findings, Gupta and Shaw, (2014) indicates that the reward system incorporates popular trends and practices that enhance employee performance since the two are closely related. Biggs and Richwine, (2014) argue that organizations which post good results are an indication that employees are motivated by appropriate reward system in place. From the table, the null hypothesis that, employee compensation does not significantly influence the development of workplace diversity is rejected since the p – value is 0.000, this is because the error we make by rejecting is less than 10%. Employee compensation and benefit practices differ across employment units like in organizations, business units, and facilities based on several dimensions Nawab and Bhatti (2011), and organizations. Odunlade, (2012) states that employee compensation and benefit can be considered of crucial importance to both the employers and employees in such a way that it plays a key role of being one of the essential hearts of workplace diversity. Anitha, (2014) highlighted that firms need adaptable people who can adjust to rapidly changing customer needs and operational structures, while Wekesa and Nyaroo (2013) argued that employees, and the way they work, comprise the crucial difference between successful and unsuccessful organizations. Therefore these findings indicate that there is a strong relationship between employee compensation and workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya.

Correlation Analysis for Construct Diversity Training, Personal Training and Development (TD)

Based on the results in Table 4.29, the correlation coefficient (P) between Diversity training and workplace diversity was found to be 0.693 at (P=0.000). This, therefore, implies that there is a relationship between the two variables (69.3%) since it is above the recommended 30% (Sekaran,2006).

The correlation coefficient (P) between personal training and workplace diversity was found to be 0.538 at (P=0.000), whereas the correlation coefficient (P) between development and workplace diversity was found to be 0.689 at (P=0.000).

Table 4.29: Correlation Analysis for Diversity Training, Personal Training and Development (TD)

| | | DV | DT | PT | WD |
|----|---------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| DV | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .698** | .664** | .693** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 | .000 | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| DT | Pearson Correlation | .698** | 1 | .508** | .689** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | .000 | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| PT | Pearson Correlation | .664** | .508** | 1 | .538** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| WD | Pearson Correlation | .693** | .689** | .538** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |

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

The findings of this study therefore, indicate that there was a highly significant linear correlation between the four variables (Diversity Training, Personal training, Development and Workplace diversity). This implies that the four variables are

very closely related. This supports the argument by Sung and Choi (2014) who indicates that there is a strong relationship between training and development and employee performance, as that employee who are skilled tend to be more productive than those who are not.

These results echo Armstrong (2013) who found out that training and development are often used to close the gap between current performances and expected future performance. Training and development falls under HRD function which has been argued to be an important function of HRM. Amongst the functions activities of this function is the identification of the needs for training and development and selecting methods and programmes suitable for these needs, plan how to implement them and finally evaluating their outcome results. Ford (2014) noted that all the human resource development activities are meant to either improve performance on the present job of the individual, train new skills for new job or new position in the future and general growth for both individuals and organization so as to be able to meet organization's current and future objectives. Armstrong (2013) argues that on-the-job training may consist of teaching or coaching by more experienced people or trainers at the desk or at the bench. It is also argued that mentoring offers a wide range of advantages for development of the responsibility and relationship building (Phillips, 2012). Training has been proved to generate performance improvement related benefits for the employee as well as for the organization by positively influencing employee performance through the development of employee knowledge, skills, ability, competencies and behaviour (Appiah 2010; Aggrawal, 2014). Moreover, other studies for example one by Phillips (2012). elaborate the concept by stating that training facilitates organization to recognize that its workers are not performing well and a thus their knowledge, skills and attitudes needs to be moulded according to the firm needs, thus retaining employees of all caliber. Bhalla and Sidhu (2014) indicate that organizations should invest in their employees through training and development in order to boost their performance since this is the only way for organizations to improve on their portfolio, thus diversity. Ford (2014) also indicates that once organizations have procured employees, they should continuously develop their skills in order to improve on performance.

Correlation analysis for Construct Organizational Culture (OC)

Based on the results in table 4.37 the correlation coefficient (P) between the organizational culture and workplace diversity was found to be $r(196) = .742$, $p < 0.01$, two tailed. These results indicate that according to the study, there was a significant linear correlation between the two variables (organizational culture and workplace diversity). This implies that the relationship between the two variables is very close.

Table 4.30: Correlations Analysis for Construct Organizational Culture (OC)

| | | Organizational Culture | Workplace Diversity |
|------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Organizational Culture | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .742** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| | N | 196 | 196 |
| Workplace Diversity | Pearson Correlation | .742** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | |
| | N | 196 | 196 |

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

Correlation of Human Resource Management Practices and Workplace Diversity

In order to establish the relationship among the human resource management practices and the workplace diversity in the public universities a correlation matrix was used which indicates that there is a positive and significant linear relationship between all the variables. Table 4.31 shows a varied degree of interrelationships among the HRM practices and workplace diversity with the training and development activities having a very strong correlation with workplace diversity having the highest values of .693, .538, .689 This indicates that as p increases employees get the relevant skills, knowledge and a change in attitude and are able to work in any cultural setup thus the organization improves its diversity and its

success. The recruitment and selection practices have very significant linear relationship with all the variables and workplace diversity and agree with a study by Aggrawal (2014), it showed that organization have to implement HRM practices for effective teamwork, as diversity is essential for organizations to survive and thrive in today's competitive environment, thus the need for HRM practices to incorporate diversity initiatives.

Training and development activities had very strong significant linear relationships with all the other variables. This indicates that as recruitment and selection(HP), performance appraisal (PA) employee compensation(EC) and organizational culture(OC) increases so does the workplace diversity increase. These results agree with a study done by Paelmke (2007) which showed that there is a clear relationship human resource management practices and workplace diversity. This is because training and development ensure that employee's skills and competence are developed to ensure greater productivity while recruitment and selection practices ensure that people at hired on a fair and equitable bases. The organizational culture had a strong linear relationship to workplace diversity at .742. This indicates with the right environment employees are able to work in harmony from diverse backgrounds. Organizational culture must be binding on all members of the organization as this will encourage uniformity among members and thus enhance commitment and group efficiency (Ojo, 2009).

Table 4.31: Correlations of all the Variables

| | | HR | HS | PAP | PAM | PAT | EC | DV | DT | PT | OC | WD |
|-----|---------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-----|
| HR | Pearson correlation | 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N | 196 | | | | | | | | | | |
| HS | Pearson Correlation | .585** | 1 | | | | | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | | | | | | | | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | | | | | | | | | |
| PAP | Pearson Correlation | .595** | .446* | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .042 | | | | | | | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | | | | | | | | |
| PAM | Pearson Correlation | .674** | .524** | .429** | 1 | | | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .002 | .000 | | | | | | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | | | | | | | |
| PAT | Pearson Correlation | .528** | .654* | .632** | .864** | 1 | | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | .031 | .000 | .000 | | | | | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | | | | | | |
| EC | Pearson Correlation | .470** | .554* | .630** | .643** | .414** | 1 | | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .031 | .000 | .001 | .003 | | | | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | | | | | |
| DV | Pearson Correlation | .635** | .780* | .588** | .469** | .524** | .621** | 1 | | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .011 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | | | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | | | | |
| DT | Pearson Correlation | .452** | .366** | .338** | .305** | .320** | .373** | .698** | 1 | | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | | | |
| PT | Pearson Correlation | .433** | .394 | .493** | .458* | .386** | .485** | .664** | .508** | 1 | | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | .008 | .000 | .007 | .009 | .000 | .000 | .000 | | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | | |
| OC | Pearson Correlation | .703** | .669 | .565** | .564 | .448 | .456** | .369** | .417 | .646** | 1 | |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .004 | .338 | .000 | .377 | .504 | .000 | .000 | .101 | .000 | | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | |
| WD | Pearson Correlation | .677** | .581 | .581** | .688 | .443 | .504** | .693** | .689** | .538** | .742** | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | .000 | |
| | N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |

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

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

4.7.2 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was used to evaluate the contribution of each independent variable in explaining the dependent variable, when the other variables are controlled; the R Square value was obtained for each variable. Therefore, this section focuses on workplace diversity and the factors that influence it. Literature tells us that human resource management practices influence workplace diversity (Armstrong, 2013). The study carried out by Bond and Haynes (2014) indicated that human resource management practices are predictors of workplace diversity and the overall performance of organization depends on how it is implemented. Results from the studies of Gavino *et.al* (2010) suggest that organizations should value diversity to enhance organizational effectiveness. The argument is that a well-managed diverse workforce holds potential competitive advantages for organizations. Consequently, Bassett-Jones (2005) and Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) argued that diversity is also a cause of misunderstanding, suspicion and conflict in the workplace that can result in absenteeism, poor quality, low morale, and loss of competitiveness.

This study conducted regression analysis to establish the relationship between the independent and dependent variables employed. In interpreting the results of multiple regression analysis, the R squared was used to check how well the model fitted the data. Therefore, it is interesting to know if the independent variables (recruitment and selection practices, performance appraisal policy, methods and targets, employee compensation, Diversity training, personal training, development and organizational culture), relate to the dependent (workplace diversity). The coefficient of determination R^2 was used to measure how well the regression line represents the data. If the regression line passes exactly through every point on the scatter plot, it would be able to explain all of the variation. The further the line is away from the points, the less it is able to explain. The p - values were used to measure the hypotheses of the study. The coefficient of determination is the ratio of the explained variation to the total variation. The coefficient of determination is such that $0 < r^2 < 1$, and denotes the strength of the linear association between x and y.

Regression Analysis for Recruitment and Selection Practices (HP)

The results showed that recruitment and selection practices had moderate explanatory power on workplace diversity as it accounted for 40.7% with the coefficient of determination $R^2 = .407$ and $R = .638$ at significant level of 0.05. The R square value is an important indicator of the predictive accuracy of the equation. The results shown indicate that an increase in recruitment and selection practices tends to increase the workplace diversity in the public universities by 40.7% and the remaining 59.3% can be explained by other factors. Therefore, this is an indication of positive attitude towards the use of proper recruitment and selection practices when enrolling employees to the public universities. The aggregate mean scores of recruitment and selection practices (independent variables) were regressed on the aggregate mean score of workplace diversity (dependent variable) and the research findings were outlined in table 4.32. To assess the effect of HP on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya the study had the following null hypothesis; H_{a1} : Hiring practices has no significant effect on workplace diversity. The test of beta coefficient shows a statistically significant positive linear relationship between HP and workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya ($\beta = 0.555$, P-value 0.000) as shown in table 4.32. Hence, H_{a1} is rejected as there is a significant linear relationship between hiring practices and workplace diversity since $\beta \neq 0$ and P-value < 0.05 .

Table 4.32: Regression Analysis with Recruitment and Selection Practices

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .638 ^a | .407 | .404 | .625 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Recruitment and Selection Practices

The study showed that there are inadequate policies and programs for the recruitment of minority employees in all the public universities. The findings of this study indicate that urgent attention should be paid to development and use of

proactive recruitment policies and practices to acquire diverse skilled people and manage diversity.

Accenture (2003) states that when firms invest in selecting the most highly skilled people, employees find a workplace filled with qualified co-workers which make a positive work environment by enabling them to focus on doing their jobs well. Also, if suitable employees are selected who are beneficial to the organization it is on the safe side but if the decision goes wrong it can be dangerous to the organization (Mankikar and Raturi, 2014). This supports the argument by Armstrong (2013) who indicates that recruitment and selection practices are critical components of the human resource management function. He argues that if the process of recruitment and selection is not done objectively, then organizations will not get the right people and thus affect the performance of employees. Anitha (2014) also indicated that organizations whose performance is above board are those who ensure that recruitment and selection process is not compromised. This supports Munjuri and Maina (2013), who indicate that organizations that are able to achieve their goals are those who take hiring practices seriously. Engel and Curran (2016) also indicate that employees who are procured objectively tend to be better employees.

The results concur with the human capital theory which acknowledges the values that people can contribute to an organization and regards people as assets stressing that investment by organizations in people will generate worthwhile returns (Biggs & Richwine, 2014). Human capital theory is associated with resource-based view of the firm which proposes that sustainable competitive advantage is attained when a firm has a human resource pool that cannot be imitated or substituted by its rivals (Gupta, 2013). Individuals generate, retain and use knowledge and skills to create intellectual capital by the interactions between themselves and this generates the additional knowledge possessed by an organization (Armstrong, 2013). In the context of this study, it is indeed the knowledge, skills and abilities of individuals that create value, which is why the focus has to be on means of hiring, retaining, and maintaining the human capital they represent.

Regression Analysis for Performance Appraisal Policy, Methods and Targets(PA)

To assess the effect of PA on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya the study had the following null hypothesis; H_{a2} : Performance appraisal policy, methods and targets have no significant effect on workplace diversity. The results showed that performance appraisal had moderate explanatory power on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya as it accounted for 34.5% with the coefficient of determination $R^2 = .345$ and $R = .587$ at significant level of 0.05. The results shown indicate that an increase in performance appraisal policy, methods and targets tends to increase the workplace diversity in the public universities by 34.5% and the remaining 65.5% can be explained by other factors. The results indicate that the explanatory power of performance appraisal on workplace diversity was slightly low as it accounted for 34.5% of the variability of change in workplace diversity ($R^2 = 0.345$). The individual regression results reveal statistically significant positive linear relationship between PA and workplace diversity ($\beta = 0.565$, P-value 0.000) as shown in table 4.33. Hence, H_{a2} is rejected as there is a significant relationship between performance appraisal and workplace diversity in public university in Kenya since $\beta \neq 0$ and P-value < 0.05 .

Table 4.33: Regression Analysis with Performance Appraisal policy, Methods and Targets (PA)

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .587 ^a | .345 | .341 | .657 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Performance Appraisal Policy, Methods, Targets.

The findings revealed that diversity practices in the area of performance appraisal are essential to reduce discrimination in recognition of merit. The top management needs to intervene to ensure that diversity goals are met and need to consider the

minority employees on promotion panels which will help to reduce notion of discrimination.

Dimba and K'Obonyo (2009) argued that appraisal systems are positively and significantly correlated with the performance of the employees in the organization which concurs with the study findings. Luring and Selmer (2012) study also concurs with the findings as effective performance can lead an organization to take strides towards success but an ineffective performance appraisal system can seal the fate of the organization by creating chaos and confusion from the top management to the bottom especially in a diversified workplace. Holmes (2016) study concurs with the finds as the goal of performance appraisal methods is to assess and summarize past performance and develop future work performance targets and expectations. Nyaoga, Kipchumba and Magutu (2010) found out that the system of performance appraisal is not effective in private universities in Kenya as the appraisal was not used for the stated purpose. Lastly, Katou, Budhwar and Patel (2014), argue that performance appraisals do not lead directly to business performance but influence employee motivation and it is these employee outcomes which ultimately influence performance.

The results are explained by the Goal setting theory (Locke, 1968) features of the willingness to work towards attainment of goal, specific and clear goals lead to greater output and better performance, while better and appropriate feedback of results directs the employee behavior and contributes to higher performance than absence of feedback. Goals should be realistic and challenging to give individual a feeling of pride when he attains them and lastly, participation of setting goal makes goal more acceptable and leads to more involvement. In the context of this study, it is indeed the knowledge, skills and abilities of individuals that create value, which is why the focus has to be on means of appraisal of the employees to maintaining the diversity they represent.

Regression Analysis for Employee Compensation (EC)

To assess the effect of EC on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya the study had the following null hypothesis: **H_{a3}**: Employee compensation has no

significant effect on workplace diversity. The results showed that employee compensation had moderate explanatory power on workplace diversity with the coefficient of determination $R^2 = .254$ and $R = .504$ at significant level of 0.05 and it accounted for 25.4%. The results indicate that an increase in employee compensation tends to increase the workplace diversity in the public universities by 25.4% and the remaining 74.6% can be explained by other factors. The test of beta coefficient reveal statistically significant positive linear relationship between EC and workplace diversity ($\beta = 0.874$, P-value 0.000) as shown in table 4.34. Hence, H_{a3} is rejected as there is a significant relationship between employee compensation and workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya since $\beta \neq 0$ and P-value < 0.05 .

Table 4.34: Regression Analysis with Employee Compensation (EC)

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|--------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1 | .504 ^a | .254 | .250 | .701 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Compensation

The results of this study, therefore, indicate that the compensation received by employees of the institutions appear to be adequate. The employee compensation system was found not to be discriminating and all were treated the same thus allowing equity and fairness in the pay and this is an important indicator for promoting workplace diversity. It shows that there is no discrimination in compensation as the universities have set pay structures and well defined entry points for different qualifications.

The finding supports Odunlade (2012) who indicated that compensation/pay is the most critical issue when it comes to attracting and maintaining the best talents. A fair pay is the corner stone of the contractual and implied agreements between employees and employers, an underlying assumption being that money can influence behaviour (Gupta & Shaw, 2014). Nawab and Bhatti (2011), indicate that the level of pay is the most important indicator in employee performance. They are

of the view that organizations should develop appropriate techniques of remunerating their employees. Studies conducted by Jackson and Schuler (2007) to investigate the relationship between levels of pay and employee performance in a few selected companies in the US revealed that there is a strong relationship between the levels of pay and employee performance in an organization. Pay continues to be important in determining motivation to perform. Phillips (2012) observes that organizations can only retain the best talents and skills if they offer reasonable benefits package. Samnani and Singh (2014) argued that organizations which post good results are an indication that employees are motivated by appropriate reward system in place. This contradicts Sarker and Afroze (2014) who indicated that traditional reward systems have been dominated by base payments determined by specific jobs, the need to maintain equity among employees and the need to pay salaries and wages that are competitive in market place. Under this system, individual employees are paid according to the skills they possess. He argues that organizations need to embrace seriously the kind of benefits package they offer in order to continue attracting and retaining highly skilled employees. The results are in line with past motivational theories such as Vroom expectancy theory which assumes an employee's performance is based on individual factors such as skills, knowledge, experience, personality and abilities. The results also concur with the equity theory on determining whether the distribution of resources is fair to each person (Adams 1963).

Regression Analysis with Training and Development (TD)

To assess the effect of TD on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya the study had the following null hypothesis: **H_{a4}**: Training and development practices have no significant effect on workplace diversity. The results showed that training and development practices had moderate explanatory power on workplace diversity as it accounted for 38.3%, with the coefficient of determination $R^2 = .383$ and $R = .619$ at significant level of 0.05. The results shown indicate that an increase in diversity training, personal training and development practices tends to increase the workplace diversity in the public universities by 38.3% and the remaining 61.7% can be explained by other factors. The test for beta coefficient

revealed statistically significant positive linear relationship between TD and workplace diversity ($\beta = 0.846$, P-value 0.000) as shown in table 4.35. Hence, H_{a4} is rejected as there is a significant relationship between training and development and workplace diversity since $\beta \neq 0$ and P-value < 0.05 .

Table 4.35: Regression Analysis with Diversity Training, Personal Training and Development (TD)

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .619 ^a | .383 | .380 | .638 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Diversity Training, Personal Training, Development.

The findings of this study showed that, although the increasing competitive environment and the rapid rate of change puts an organization under pressure to adopt to these changes. Effective diversity training programs and courses to empower its diverse workforce has not being adhered to. The universities seem to be unwilling to adopt appropriate diversity practices to manage their training and development function more effectively.

In supporting the findings of the study on the significance of training and development on workplace diversity, previous studies conducted by Bezrukova *et al.* (2012) revealed that achievement of organizational objectives will depend on the skills available in the organization. They argue that skills possessed by employees have a strong influence on employee performance. Jehanzeb *et al.* (2013) also conducted studies to establish the influence of training and development on employee performance. The study revealed that training and development had a positive impact on employee performance. It was established that organizations which were able to achieve their goals are those that had imparted relevant skills to its employees. Phillips (2012) also indicates that organizations should develop effective training and development programs in order to improve the performance of their employees.

The findings are supported by the Instructional design theory which offers explicit guidance on how to better help people learn and develop (Rothwell & Kanzas, 1992). The theory explains how to improve human performance through learning in organized processes that can be measured. The kinds of learning and development may include cognitive, emotional, social, physical and spiritual. A unique feature of this theory is that the methods they offer are situational rather than universal implying that one method may work best in one situation while another may work best in a different situation. In the context of this study, it is indeed the training and development of individuals that create value, which is why the focus has to be on means of training and development for workplace diversity that they represent.

Regression Analysis with Organization Culture (OC)

To assess the effect of OC on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya the study had the following null hypothesis: **H_{a5}**: Organizational culture has no significant effect on workplace diversity. The results showed that organizational culture had moderate explanatory power on workplace diversity as it accounted for 55%, with the coefficient of determination $R^2 = .550$ and $R = .742$ at significant level of 0.05. The results shown indicate that an increase in organizational culture tends to increase the workplace diversity in the public universities by 55% and the remaining 45% can be explained by other factors. The individual regression results reveal statistically significant positive linear relationship between OC and workplace diversity ($\beta = 0.720$, P-value 0.000) as shown in table 4.36. Hence, **H_{a5}** is rejected as there is a significant relationship between organization culture and workplace diversity since $\beta \neq 0$ and P-value < 0.05.

Table 4.36: Regression Analysis with Organization Culture

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .742 ^e | .550 | .548 | .544 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organization Culture

The findings of this study reveal that organizational culture influences workplace diversity as set of individual, group or organizational factors interact to influence a set of individual outcomes that in turn influence organizational outcomes. It also shows that if an individual feels valued by the organization they will contribute more to meeting the goals of the organization. Universities should be profoundly interested in preventing dysfunctional work behavior as such behavior can be very costly and damaging to the organization. Lastly, as the environment is changing, the culture also has to change but the institutions are concentrating on routine things they perform rather than adjust systems for the better.

The findings concur with O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman and Doerr (2014) study on organization culture as a competitive advantage which found that cultural norms appear to have a fairly consistent impact on quality. Garibaldi de Hilal (2009) study also revealed that organizational culture is a set of shared assumptions that guide what happens in organizations by defining appropriate behaviors for various situations. Alvesson (2012) identified that all types of organizational cultures have significant relationship with the implementation process but the extent of the culture influences varies from the most effective culture to the least effective. Acker (2012) concluded that there is sufficient evidence linking cultural traits and organizational effectiveness. The findings also agree with the study of Onyango (2014) that organizational culture affects the implementation of plans. The study of Mutuku (2012) contradicted the findings as the culture in the banking sector is different from the universities as they uphold culture of dynamism, entrepreneurship and creativity at work, keeping in mind the dynamic work environment. Lastly, Nica (2013) concurs with the findings as the central goal of understanding organizational culture is to minimize the occurrence and consequences of cultural conflicts and use it to build competitive advantages.

The results concur with Schein's (1985) model of organizational culture which consists of three domains: basic underlying assumptions, espoused values, and artifacts. He distinguishes between observable and unobservable elements of culture. Visible behavior influences and is influenced by unobservable assumptions through rules, standards, and prohibitions. According to Schein (1992), culture is

the most difficult organizational attribute to change, outlasting organizational products, services, founders and leadership and all other physical attributes of the organization. The diverse workplace needs to enhance the visible behavior to create harmony in the organization.

Table 4.37: Regression Coefficients (Individual significance)

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
|-------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|--------|------|
| | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| HP | .555 | .150 | .638 | 4.711 | .000 |
| PA | .565 | .132 | .587 | 4.270 | .000 |
| EC | .874 | .107 | .504 | 8.129 | .000 |
| TD | .846 | .142 | .619 | 5.958 | .000 |
| OC | .720 | .047 | .742 | 15.409 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: WD

b. Level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$

Overall Goodness of Fit

The overall goodness of fit was obtained through regression for all the independent variables and the results were depicted in table 4.38.

Table 4.38: Overall Goodness-of-Fit for combined Human Resource Management Practices

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .782 ^a | .611 | .601 | .511 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), OC, HP, PA, TD, EC

The results of the model indicated that 61.1% of change in workplace diversity was explained by the human resource management practices while the remaining percentage could have been explained by other un-conceptualized variables.

4.7.3 Analysis of Variances

ANOVA test was done to test the significance of the model and the existence of variables variations within the model. The ANOVA was done to test the significance of the independent variable which are: HP, PA, EC, TD and OC. The overall analysis of variance model in table 4.39 includes all the variables to confirm the fact that the variables when considered were still significant in affecting the workplace diversity. The analysis results revealed that the significance of F statistics is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. This implies that there is a significant relationship between human resource management practices and workplace diversity.

The ANOVA test results on HP revealed F statistic of 33.773 which was significant at 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). This means that 33.77% of the change in workplace diversity was influenced by HP measures. ANOVA test results on PA revealed F statistic of 38.229 which was significant at 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). This means that 38% of the change in workplace diversity was influenced by PA measures. ANOVA test results on EC revealed F statistic of 66.082 which was significant at 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). This means that 66% of the change in workplace diversity was influenced by EC measures. ANOVA test results on TD revealed F statistic of 45.499 which was significant at 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). This means that 45.5% of the change in workplace diversity was influenced by TD measures. ANOVA test results on OC revealed F statistic of 78.429 which was significant at 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). This means that 78.43% of the change in workplace diversity was influenced by OC measures.

Table 4.39: ANOVA

| ANOVA ^a | | | | | | |
|--------------------|------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| Model | | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| 1 | Regression | 8.473 | 1 | 8.473 | 33.773 | .000 ^b |
| | Residual | 119.351 | 194 | .615 | | |
| | Total | 127.824 | 195 | | | |
| 2 | Regression | 10.979 | 1 | 10.979 | 38.229 | .000 ^c |
| | Residual | 116.844 | 194 | .602 | | |
| | Total | 127.824 | 195 | | | |
| 3 | Regression | 32.478 | 1 | 32.478 | 66.082 | .000 ^d |
| | Residual | 95.346 | 194 | .491 | | |
| | Total | 127.824 | 195 | | | |
| 4 | Regression | 19.772 | 1 | 19.772 | 45.499 | .000 ^e |
| | Residual | 108.052 | 194 | .557 | | |
| | Total | 127.824 | 195 | | | |
| 5 | Regression | 70.345 | 1 | 70.345 | 78.429 | .000 ^f |
| | Residual | 57.478 | 194 | .296 | | |
| | Total | 127.824 | 195 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WD

b. Predictors: (Constant), HP

c. Predictors: (Constant), HP, PA

d. Predictors: (Constant), HP, PA, EC

e. Predictors: (Constant), HP, PA, EC, TD

f. Predictors: (Constant), HP, PA, EC, TD, OC

Table 4.40: Overall Analysis of Variance Model

| ANOVA ^a | | | | | |
|--------------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|-------------------|
| Model | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| 1 Regression | 78.145 | 5 | 15.629 | 59.774 | .000 ^b |
| Residual | 49.679 | 190 | .261 | | |
| Total | 127.824 | 195 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: WD

b. Predictors: (Constant), OC, PA, EC , TD, HP

Multiple Regression of Human Resource Management Practices and Workplace diversity

To test the five hypothesis all at once, the multiple linear regression model was done to determine the required coefficients and p-values for establishing significance at a level of $p < 0.05$ such that when p –value was more than the significance level, the model was considered insignificant. Table 4.41 presents the results of the analysis.

Table 4.41: Multiple Regression Coefficients

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | T | Sig. |
|------------|-----------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------|------|
| | β | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| (Constant) | .348 | .213 | | 2.638 | .000 |
| HP | .723 | .401 | .638 | 9.202 | .000 |
| PA | .383 | .161 | .587 | 6.385 | .000 |
| EC | .378 | .232 | .504 | 6.336 | .008 |
| TD | .389 | .182 | .619 | 6.495 | .000 |
| OC | .549 | .058 | .742 | 9.432 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: WD

b. Level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$

The multiple linear regression model highlighted in table 4.41 showed that HP, PA, EC, TD and OC had a significant effect with p-values of 0.000 for all except for EC with 0.008. The research therefore accepted the alternative hypothesis of the human resource management practices because ($p < 0.05$).

4.8 Optimal Model

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether independent variables; hiring practices (X_1), performance appraisal (X_2), employee compensation (X_3), training and development (X_4), organizational culture (X_5), simultaneously affect the dependent variable Y which is the workplace diversity. The sub-section examines whether the multiple regression equation can be used to explain the hypothesis of the effect of human resource management practices on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya.

The model used for regression analysis was expressed in the general form as given below;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \varepsilon$$

$$\mathbf{WD} = 0.348 + 0.723\mathbf{HP} + 0.383\mathbf{PA} + 0.378\mathbf{EC} + 0.389\mathbf{TD} + 0.549\mathbf{OC} + \varepsilon$$

Where:

0.723, 0.383, 0.378, 0.389 and 0.549 are the regression coefficient of variables which depict that an estimate of an expected increase in workplace diversity corresponding to an increase in use of human resource management practices.

$$\beta_0 = 0.348 \text{ (coefficient of intercept)}$$

WD is the workplace diversity (Y)

HP is variable recruitment and selection practices (X_1)

PA is variable performance appraisal activities (X_2)

EC is variable employee compensation (X3)

TD is variable training and development activities (X4)

OC is variable organizational culture(X5) and ε = error term

For this model, workplace diversity was used as the dependent variable (Y) and independent variables included $X_1 - X_5$. The relationships between dependent and independent variables and the results of testing significance of the model were also respectively interpreted. In interpreting the results of multiple regression analysis, the three major elements considered were: the coefficient of multiple determinations, the standard error of estimate and the regression coefficients. R^2 was used to check how well the model fitted the data. R^2 is the proportion variation in the dependent variable explained by the regression model.

Table 4.42: Regression Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------------------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .782 ^a | .611 | .601 | .511 |

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Culture, Employee Compensation , Performance Appraisal , Training and Development, recruitment and selection Practices.

Table 4.42 reports the summary model of workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya with the coefficient of determination $R^2 = .611$ and $R = 0.782$ at 0.05 significant level. The coefficient of determination indicates that 61.1% of the variation on workplace diversity in the public universities in Kenya can be explained by hiring practices (X_1), performance appraisal (X_2), employee compensation (X_3), training and development(X_4), organizational culture (X_5). The remaining 38.9% of the variation on effect of human resource management practices on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya is affected by other variable not included in the model.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the key findings presented by the study, conclusion and recommendations. This was done based on research findings of the analyzed results on the factors used in the study to examine the effect of HRM practices on the workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. The suggestion for further research is also given in this chapter.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The study sought to examine the effect of human resource management practices on workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. The research questions mainly dwelt on the hiring practices, performance appraisal, employee compensation, training and development and organizational culture. The specific summary breakdown is as follows.

5.2.1 The Effect of Recruitment and Selection Practices on Workplace Diversity

The study sought to find out the effect of hiring practices on workplace diversity and to test the hypothesis that the effect of hiring practices does not significantly influence workplace diversity. From the descriptive analysis majority of the respondents felt that top management did not supports diversity in recruitment (55.1%) while the current job description and selection processes did not reflect minority' needs, in addition to the minority employees not present on selection committees. The majority of respondent felt that universities do not have special programs that aim to recruit minorities each year (52%) as no job advertisements appear in ethnic newspapers/television/radios nor were they targeting audiences through periodicals, job fairs, selected colleges and professional groups. Majority of the respondent disagreed on the issue of the human resource manager making an effort to head hunt the minority employees (43.8%) and also the issue of an annual review of the staff diversity in the public universities in Kenya.

The inferential analysis and findings showed that there is a positive significant linear relationship between recruitment and selection practices and workplace diversity, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.638 with a p-value of 0.000 and an R Square value of 0.407. This means that recruitment and selection practices contributes to 40.7% to workplace diversity and is significantly positively correlated to workplace diversity. This implies that an improvement in recruitment and selection practices leads to an increase in workplace diversity.

These findings indicate that recruitment and selection practices will influence workplace diversity, while still observing the principle of equal regional and gender representation and where a large pool of talented people are encouraged to apply and correctly selected, thus ensures workplace diversity. This can be enhanced further by ensuring that the hiring committee used during selection and recruitment are well trained on selection and recruitment techniques to ensure diversity is attained. The study therefore concludes that recruitment and selection practices plays a significant role in influencing workplace diversity, and rejects the null hypothesis.

These results therefore revealed that it is possible to have diversity in the staff for public universities in Kenya if they practice on the issue of achieving and implementing proper recruitment and selection practices when acquiring new employees.

5.2.2 The Effect of Performance Appraisal Practices on Workplace Diversity

The study sought to find out the effect of performance appraisal on workplace diversity and to test the hypothesis that the effect of performance appraisal practices does not significantly influence workplace diversity. From the descriptive analysis majority of the respondents felt that the appraisal are focused on the individual's personality not performance (65.8%) while on the issue of the organization have objective criteria and fair practices for everyone the respondent disagreed (53.1%). On the cultural background of the appraiser influences the performance ratings of the appraise respondents also disagreed (64.3%). The respondents disagreed (53.6%) that there are several multicultural employees at top

management of the organization. The respondents disagreed that the organization includes hiring and climate measures in performance appraisal criteria for managers (59.7%) and also disagreed on whether the appraisal policy in place is implemented by all managers (58.2%). Majority of the respondents agreed on the methods of appraisal are biased (59.2%) in the public universities in Kenya.

The inferential analysis and findings showed that there is a positive significant linear relationship between performance appraisal and workplace diversity, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.587 and a p- value of 0.000 and an R Square value of 0.345. This means that performance appraisal contributes to 34.5% to workplace diversity and is significantly positively correlated to workplace diversity. This implies that an improvement in performance appraisal leads to an increase in workplace diversity.

These findings indicate that performance appraisal will influence workplace diversity. This implies that when employees' link appraisal based on their performance, this act like an incentive, which encourages better performance and finally enhances a performance driven culture. Organizations need to encourage managers to include hiring and climate measures in performance appraisal criteria for managers to increase workplace diversity. The study therefore concludes that performance appraisal plays a significant role in influencing workplace diversity, and rejects the null hypothesis.

These results therefore revealed that it is possible to have diversity in the staff for public universities in Kenya if they practice on achieving and implementing unbiased performance appraisal practices when evaluating their employees. There should be wider communication of performance appraisal policies within organizational as it makes employees clear about their specific role.

5.2.3 The Effect of Employee Compensation Practices on Workplace Diversity

The study sought to find out the effect of employee compensation on workplace diversity and to test the hypothesis that the effect of employee compensation does not significantly influence workplace diversity. From the descriptive analysis

majority of the respondents felt that the workload is not equitably distributed to all employees (55.6%) as the important is not work given to the minority employees. The respondents disagreed that there is advancement in opportunity for the minorities (51.1%) as well as the minority are not delegated authority/control/autonomy. The diversity measure considered whether the minority employees are recognized for their work of which the respondents (56.4%) disagreed in the public universities in Kenya.

The inferential analysis and findings showed that there is a positive significant linear relationship between employee compensation and workplace diversity, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.504 and a p-value of 0.000 and an R Square value of 0.254. This means that employee compensation contributes 25.4% to workplace diversity and is significantly positively correlated to workplace diversity. This implies that an improvement in employee compensation leads to an increase in workplace diversity.

These findings indicate that employee compensation influences workplace diversity, while still observing that when employees' associate compensation based on their performance, it acts like an incentive, which encourages better performance and finally enhances a diversified workforce. This is because it helps to make the employees feel that their contribution is valued irrespective of their demographic attributes. Therefore, the study concludes that employee compensation, plays a significant role in influencing workplace diversity, and rejects the null hypothesis since the p-value for the Pearson correlation coefficient was less than 0.05.

5.2.4 The Effect of Training and Development Practices on Workplace Diversity

The study sought to find out the effect of training and development on workplace diversity and to test the hypothesis that the effect of training and development does not significantly influence workplace diversity. From the descriptive analysis, majority of the respondents felt that the organization does not develop managerial skills for working in a multicultural environment (57.6%). The majority of respondent (58.7%) disagreed that the organization have education programs to

reduce stereotyping while the respondent rate was 63.3% for cultural sensitivity courses not provided in the public universities in Kenya. The majority of the respondent disagreed (71%) on managers having the title of diversity managers, while minority career management programs are not held (74.4%) and on the organization not having developmental assignments that expose employees to multiple cultures (64.8%). On the issue of the organization provides conflict management training the respondents disagreed (62.8%), while minority are not given regular opportunities for personal and career development (67.3%).

The inferential analysis and findings showed that there is a positive significant linear relationship between Training and Development and workplace diversity, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.619 and a p- value of 0.000 and an R Square value of 0.383. This means that Training and Development contributes to 38.3% to workplace diversity and is significantly positively correlated to workplace diversity. This implies that an improvement in Training and Development leads to an increase in workplace diversity.

These findings indicate that training and development influences workplace diversity, while still observing that employees associate training and development to their performance which encourages better performance and enhances a diverse workforce. It concludes that increasing employee's competencies by increasing their knowledge, skills, abilities and enhancing their behaviours leads to workplace diversity. This helps to bridge the gap between the desired and actual levels of behaviour and attitudes desired in a multicultural environment to ensure workplace diversity. It is important to make the employees feel that their contribution is valued irrespective of their demographic attributes. Therefore the study concludes that employee compensation plays a significant role in influencing workplace diversity, and rejects the null hypothesis since the p- value for the Pearson correlation coefficient was less than 0.05.

5.2.5 The Effect of Organizational Culture on Workplace Diversity

The study sought to find out the effect of organizational culture on workplace diversity and to test the hypothesis that the effect of organizational culture does not

significantly influence workplace diversity. From the descriptive analysis majority of the respondents felt that in the organization does not value my opinions (51%) while majority of the respondents disagreed that everyone's contribution is noted and respected by the organization (61.2%). On the issue of individual differences are not respected (58.1%) was the response, whereas majority disagreed (61.6 %) on the employee recognition programs regularly followed. Majority of the respondent also disagreed on whether there is great opportunity to learn and for career growth (69.3%) while the respondent (61.7%) disagreed on my job gives me professional growth and advancement in future in public universities in Kenya.

The inferential analysis and findings showed that there is a positive significant linear relationship between Organizational culture and workplace diversity, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.742 and a p- value of 0.000 and an R Square value of 0.550. This means that Organizational culture contributes 55% to workplace diversity and is significantly positively correlated to workplace diversity. This implies that an improvement in Organizational culture leads to an increase in workplace diversity.

These findings indicate that organizational culture influences workplace diversity and enhances a diverse workforce. A diverse workforce brings different people together, with different views, ideas, experiences and perspectives which can bring real benefits to an organization. It is important to make the employees feel that they are comfortable in the university culture despite their differences in age, sex, tribe/race and their contribution is valued irrespective of their demographic attributes. This culture when right, enhances diversity and thus knowledge can be shared among the intellects, the university gain employees from all walks of life ready to share their knowledge and skills promoting the universities to become centers of excellence

Therefore the study concludes that organizational culture plays a significant role in influencing workplace diversity, and rejects the null hypothesis since the p- value for the Pearson correlation coefficient was less than 0.05.

5.3 Conclusions

The conclusions were based on the objectives of the study that aimed at establishing the effect of HRM practices on the workplace diversity in public universities in Kenya. The results established that HRM practices were found to significantly and positively influence workplace diversity. The basic HRM practices include; hiring practices, performance appraisal practices, employee compensation, training and development and organizational culture. When all the stated hypotheses were tested in the regression model they were found to have a significant relationship between themselves and workplace diversity. Organizational Culture was the practice which had the highest effect on workplace diversity followed by Recruitment and Selection Practices, Training and Development, Performance Appraisal and Employee Compensation respectively. The findings of the study revealed that public universities in Kenya should undertake HRM practices which are aimed at helping them to achieve their goals. These practices (HRM) were found to be influential in predicting workplace diversity in public universities Kenya. Although the public universities in Kenya have undertaken the HRM practices, they are not consistent on their application. This implies that they are doing well in some areas, whereas they face major challenges in some aspects of the HRM practices. Nonetheless, they do appreciate the fact that they cannot be able to achieve their desired objectives if effective HRM practices are not put in place. This is supported by the fact that their strategic plans are aligned on the basis of the best HRM practices. In adopting the best HRM practices, they aim to attract and retain the most qualified employees, continuously develop them and motivate them to achieve a university with diversity and attain their visions to be centers of excellence. They should also be able to compete with other leading universities in Africa and the world.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the findings and conclusions of the study:

HR management practices play a key role in affecting workplace diversity, it is therefore crucial for public universities in Kenya to adopt human resource management practices that favour diversity. This is by ensuring that all human resource personnel and administrative managers at the public universities are trained on human resource management skills whereas the HR department plays a strategic role as in training and implementing diversity policies and practices,

These selected HRM practices should be bundled together, because they have a synergistic link so that the impact of each on workplace diversity is enhanced when the others are present than when used individually.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

There is need to undertake further studies in order to establish reasons for inconsistency in the application of HRM practices by public universities in Kenya. This is because the findings indicate that HRM practices are applied inconsistently. The study did not focus on how the HRM practices can be continuously improved and it is, therefore, recommended that further studies be undertaken to address this matter. It is further recommended that future studies on the same subject be undertaken and extend the scope by including other HRM practices not covered in the study. Since the study has concentrated on public universities which are government owned, there is also need to undertake similar or comparative studies with international universities operating in Kenya.

REFERENCES

- Accenture, R. T. (2003). The high performance workforce: Separating the digital economy's winners from losers. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(3), 741-756.
- Acock, A. (2005). Working with missing values. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 76(4), 1012-1028.
- Acker, J. (2012). Gendered organizations and intersectionality: problems and possibilities. Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: *An International Journal*, 31(3), 214-224.
- Allen, R.S., Dawson, G.A., Wheatley, K.K., & White, C.S. (2004), 'Diversity Practices: Learning Responses for Modern Organizations,' *Development and Learning in Organizations*, 18(6), 13–15.
- Appiah, B. (2012). *The impact of training on employee performance: a case study of HFC Bank (Ghana) Limited*. Ghana: HFC.
- Aggrawal, D. (2014). Human Resources-Change Agents For Motivating and Retaining Employees. *Global Journal of Finance and Management*, 6(4), 321-326.
- Aggrawal, A., & Thakur, G.S.M.(2013). Techniques of performance appraisal-a review. *International Journal of Engineering and Advanced Technology (IJEAT)* 2249-8958.
- Aguinis, H., Joo, H., & Gottfredson, R.K. (2013). What monetary rewards can and cannot do: How to show employees the money. *Business Horizons*, 56(2), 241-249.
- Alserhan, B. A., Forstenlechner, I. & Al-Nakeeb, A. (2010). Employees' attitudes towards diversity in a non-western context *Employee Relations Journal*, 32(1)

- Acharya, A. S., Prakash, A., Saxena, P., & Nigam, A. (2013). Sampling; Why and how of it. *Indian Journal of Medical Specialities*, 4(2), 330-333.
- Alvesson, M. (2012). *Understanding organizational culture*. Sage.
- Anitha, J. (2014). Determinants of employee engagement and their impact on employee performance. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*.
- Armstrong, A.M. (Ed.). (2004). *Instructional design in the real world: A view from the trenches*. London: IGI Global.
- Armstrong, M. (2009). *Handbook of Human Resources Management Practice – (11th ed.)*. London: Kogan Page.
- Arthur Jr, W., Woehr, D.J., Akande, A., & Strong, M.H. (1995). Human resource management in West Africa; Practices and perceptions. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6(2), 347-367.
- Aryee, S. (2004). HRM in Ghana. *Managing Human Resources in Africa*, 121-134.
- Ashikali, T., & Groeneveld, S. (2015). Diversity management for all? An empirical analysis of diversity management outcomes across groups. *Personal Review*, 44(5), 757-780.
- Babbie, E. (2007). *The Practice of Social Research – (11th ed.)*. Australia: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Bacharach, S. B. (2009). Organizational Theories: Some Criteria for Evaluation. *The Academy of Management Review*, 14(4).
- Baker, D.L., Schmalings, K., Fountain, K.C., Blume, A.W., & Boose, R. (2016). Defining diversity: A mixed-method analysis of terminology in faculty applications. *The Social Science Journal*, 53(1), 60-66.

- Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1963). *Social learning and personality development*. New York. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Barak, M.E.M. (2013). *Managing diversity: Towards a globally inclusive workplace*. London: Sage Publications.
- Barbosa, I., & Cabral-Cardosa. C. (2007). Managing diversity in academic organizations: a challenge to organization culture, *Women in Management Review Journal*, 22(4).
- Barladi, A.N. & Enders, C.K. (2011). An introduction to modern missing data Analysis. *Journal of School Psychology*, 48(1), 5-37.
- Baron, J. N., & Kreps, D. (2006). Consistent human resource practices. *California Management Review*, 41(3), 13-19.
- Baruchi, Y., & Holtom, B.C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research, *Human Relations*, 61(8), 1139-1160.
- Bear, S., Rahman, N., & Corinne, P. (2010). The Impact of Board Diversity and Gender Composition on Corporate Social Responsibility and Firm Reputation, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 97.
- Bernardin, H., & Wiatrowski, M. (2013). Performance appraisal. *Psychology and Policing*, 257.
- Bezrukova, K., Jehn, K.A., & Spell, C.S. (2012). Reviewing diversity training: Where we have been and where we should go. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 11(2), 207-227.
- Bhalla, N., & Sidhu, T. (2014). Impact of the HRM practices on organizational commitment of managerial employees in the textile industry. *Journal on Management*, 9(1).
- Biggs, A. G., & Richwine, J. (2014). Overpaid or underpaid? A state ranking of public employee compensation. *American Enterprise Institute Working Paper*, (415891)

- Boeree, C.G. (2006). Gordon Allport. Personality Theories.
- Bond, M. A., & Haynes, M.C. (2014). Workplace diversity; A social-ecological framework and policy implications. *Social Issues an Policy Review*, 8(1), 167-201.
- Butler, K.M. (2006).Work place diversity can increase employee loyalty. *EmployeeBenefit News*, 20(3).
- Cameroon, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (1999). *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*, , Reading, MA.: Addison-Wesley.
- Cameroon, K. S., & Quinn, R.E. (2006). *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework*, revised edition, New York, NY: Wiley
- Carr-Ruffino, N. (1996). *Managing Diversity: People Skills for a Multicultural Workplace*, London: International Thomson Executive Press.
- Cattell, R.B. (1965). *The scientific analysis of personality*. Baltimore: Penguin Books.
- Chatterjee, S., & Hadi, A. S. (2009). *Sensitivity analysis in linear regression (Vol.327)*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Choe, M. K. (1993). An empirical study of corporate strategy and culture in Korea *Quarterly Review of Economics and Business*, 21(2).
- Chuang, S. F. (2013). Essential skills for leadership effectiveness in diverse workplace development. *Online Journal for Workforce Education and Development*, 6(1), 5.

- Comm, C. L., & Mathaisel, D. F. (2003). A case study of the implications of faculty workload and compensation for improving academic quality. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 17(5), 200-210.
- Commission of University Education (CUE) (2012). *former Commission for Higher Education (CHE)*, (2012). Nairobi: CUE.
- Cohen, J. M. (1995). *Ethnicity, foreign aid, and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa: The case of Kenya*. Harvard: Harvard Institute for International Development.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison. K. (2005). *Research Methods in Education* (5th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business Research Methods*. New Delhi: McGraw Hill.
- Cornelius, N., Gooch, L. & Todd, S. (2000). Managers leading diversity for business excellence, *Journal of General Management*, 25(3).
- Cox, T. (1991). The multicultural organization, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2).
- Cox, T. H., and Blake, S. (1991). Managing cultural diversity: implications for organizational competitiveness, *Academy of Management Executive*, 5.
- Cox, T. J., & Beale, R. B. (1997). *Developing competencies to manage diversity: reading, cases and activities*, San Francisco, CA.: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: Sage publications.

- Cronbach, L. (1951). Coefficient Alpha and the Internal Structure of Tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 3.
- Das, H. (2002). The four faces of pay: an investigation into how Canadian managers view pay. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 12(1), 18-40.
- Day, N. E. & Peluchette, J. (2009) Do we practice what we preach? An exploratory study about how business schools manage their human resources. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 15(3), 275-286.
- Debrah, Y. A. (2007) Promoting the informal sector as a source of gainful employment in developing countries: insights from Ghana. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(6), 1063–1084.
- Denison, D. R. (1990). *Corporate Culture and Organizational Effectiveness*, culture and effectiveness. *Organization Science*. New York: John Wiley.
- Dimba, B. A., & K'Obonyo, P. (2009). The effect of strategic human resource management practices on performance of manufacturing multinational companies in Kenya. Moderating role of employee cultural orientations and mediating role of employee motivation.
- DIMIA, (2002). *Positive Outcome: BHP Billiton Case Study on Productive Diversity*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, Canberra, pp. 1–9.
- D'Netto, B. & Sohal, A. M. (2000). Human resource practices and workforce diversity: an empirical assessment, *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(8).

- Douglas, S. (2010). *The Different Faces of Diversity: The Professional Principles of Recruiting and Retaining a Diverse Work force.*
- Engel, M., & Curran, F. C. (2016). Toward understanding principals' hiring practices. *Journal of Educational Administration, 54*(2), 173-190.
- Erwee, R. (2003). Integrating diversity management initiatives with strategic human resource management. *In: Human resource management: challenges and future directions.*, pp.57-71. Milton, Australia: John Wiley and Sons Australia, Ltd.,
- Erika, K. (2010). Principle Component Analysis in Tourism Marketing. *Management and Marketing, 5*(2), 151-158.
- Ford, J. K. (2014). *Improving training effectiveness in work organizations.* London: Psychology Press.
- Frazis, H., & Loewenstein, M. A. (2015). *Training and Jobs Across the Career: An Empirical Investigation.* London: Psychology Press
- Gallagher, N., & O'Leart D. (2007). *Recruitment 2020: How recruitment is changing and why it matters.* Demos.
- Gardenswartz, L., & Rowe, A. (2003). *"Managing Diversity"*, New York: Business One Irwin/Pfeiffer and Company.
- Garibaldi de Hilal, U. W. (2009). Organizational Culture and Performance: A Brazilian Case, *Management Research News, 99-199.*
- Gavino, M. C., Eber, J. E., and Bell, D. (2010). Celebrating our diversity: creating an inclusive climate in a US university. Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: *An International Journal, 29*(4), 395-405.
- Gberevbie, D. E. (2008). *Staff recruitment, retention strategies and performance of selected public and private organizations in Nigeria.* Unpublished PhD Thesis. Ota Nigeria: Covenant University.

- Government of Kenya (2003). The Code Of Conduct Ethics for Public Universities, in Laws of Kenya. The Public Officers Ethics Act Chapter 183 Part III: 8(1) Nairobi: National Council of Law Reporting.
- Guest D. (2001). Human resource Management: When Research Confronts Theory. *International Journal of HRM*, 12(7), 1092-1106.
- Gupta, R. (2013). Workforce Diversity and Organizational Performance, *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 2(6).
- Gupta, N., & Shaw, J. D. (2014). Employee compensation: The neglected area of HRM research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 24(1), 1-4.
- Guyo, A. G. (2015). *Role of human resource management in development of organizational citizenship behaviour among the civil servants in Kenya*. Unpublished Phd thesis. Juja: JKUAT.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B. and Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis: A global perspective: (7th ed.)*. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.
- Harris, S. (2011). *Top best practices for High Impact Organizations*. Bersin and Associates Research Report, V.2.0
- Harvey. P. (2012). *Understanding and Managing Diversity*. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Harvey, C. P. and Allard, M. J. (2012). *Understanding and Managing Diversity (5th ed.)*. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Cultures' Consequences: International Differences in Work Relate Values*, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage,

- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G., Neuijen, B., Ohayv, D. & Sanders, G. (1990). Measuring organizational cultures: a qualitative and quantitative study across 20 cases. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35.
- Holmes, T.A. (2016). How to Connect Diversity to Performance. *Performance Improvement*, 55(6), 32-38.
- Hubbard. (2004). *The Diversity Scorecard: Evaluating the Impact of Diversity on Organizational Performance*, San Francisco: Elsevier.
- Huddleston, P., & Unwin, L. (2013). *Teaching and learning in further education: diversity and change*. London: Routledge.
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of Human Resource Management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(3), 635-672.
- Ibua, M.P. (2014). *The influence of institutional factors and job related attitudes on the relationship between employee empowerment and performance of public universities in Kenya*. Unpublished PhD thesis, Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Ikama, P. (2010). *The benefits and challenges of workplace diversity management in CGIAR Kenya centers*. Unpublished MBA project. Juja: JKUAT
- Jabbour, C. C, & Gordonno, F. S. (2011) Diversity Management, challenges, benefits and the role of human resource management in Brazil organizations. *An International Journal Equality Diversity and inclusion*, 30(1).

- Jehanzeb, K., Rasheed, A., & Rasheed, M. F. (2013). Organizational commitment and turnover intentions: Impact of employee's training in private sector of Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 8(8), 79.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2010). *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Approaches*. London, UK: Sage Publishers.
- Jones, D., Pringle, J. & Shepherd, D. (2000). Managing diversity meets Aotearoa/New Zealand, *Personnel Review Journal*, Emerald, 29(3).
- Kamoche, K. N. (2000). From Boom to Bust: The Challenge of Managing People in Thailand, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(2), 452- 468
- Kamoche, K. N. (2001). *Human resource management in Kenya* in P. S. Budhwar and Y. A. Debrah, (eds) *Human resource management in developing countries*. London: Routledge.
- Kamoche, K. N., Muuka, G. N., Horwitz, F. M. & Debrah, Y. A. (2004a). Preface in K. N. Kamoche, Y. A. Debrah, F. M. Horwitz and G. N. Muuka (eds) *Managing human resources in Africa*. London: Routledge.
- Kamoche, K. N., Nyambegera, S. M. & Mulinge, M. M. (2004b). *HRM in Kenya* in K. N. Kamoche, Y. A. Debrah, F. M. Horwitz and G. N. Muuka (eds) *Managing human resources in Africa*. London: Routledge
- Katou, A. A., Budhwar, P. S., & Patel, C. (2014). Content vs. process in the HRM-performance relationship: An empirical examination. *Human Resource Management*, 53(4), 527-544.
- Kazi, T. B. (2013). Organizational transformation and workplace diversity in South Africa. *Kuwait Chapter of the Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 3(4), 47.

- Kenya Institute for Public policy Research and Analysis (2009). Kenya Economic Report, *Building a globally competitive economy*. Nairobi: KIPPRA.
- Kepha. O. A. (2014). *Influence of Human Resource Management Practices on the Performance of Employees in Research Institutes in Kenya*. Unpublished Phd thesis. Juja: JKUAT.
- Kerby, S. & Burns, C. (2012). *The Top 10 Economic Facts of Diversity in the Workplace*. New York: Center for American Progress.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1986). *Foundations of Behavioral Research*. (3rd ed.) London: Harcourt Brace.
- Kibaji, E. (2010, 24th June. p.13). *Major challenges: We need to rethink strategies on university education*. Daily Nation: Kenya.
- Kidombo, H.J. (2007). *Human resource strategic orientation, organizational commitment and firm performance in large private manufacturing firms in Kenya*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Kipkebut, D. J. (2010). *Organizational commitment and Job satisfaction in higher educational institutions: the Kenyan case*. Unpublished Ph D thesis; London: Middlesex University.
- Kirton, G., & Greene, A. M. (2015). *The dynamics of managing diversity: A critical approach*. London: Routledge.
- Klarsfeld, A., Booyesen, L. A., Ng, E., Roper, I., & Tatli, A. (Eds.). (2014). *Country Perspective on Diversity and Equal Treatment*. UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Klingner, D., Nalbandian, J., & Llorens, J.J. (2015). *Public personnel management*. London: Routledge

- Kossek, E.E. & Lobel, S.A. (2005). *Introduction: transforming human resource systems to manage diversity – an introduction and orienting framework*, Human Resource Strategies for Transforming the Workplace, Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Kossek, E. E., Baltes, B. B., & Mathews, R. A. (2011). How work family research can finally have an impact on organizations. *Industrial Organizational Psychology*, 4(3), 352-369.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology, Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi, India: New Age International Limited.
- Kotter, J. P., & Heskett, J. L. (1992). *Corporate Culture and Performance*. New York: Free Press.
- Kramar, R. (1998), “Managing diversity: beyond affirmative action in Australia”, *Women in Management Review*, 13(4), 133-142.
- Kreitner, N. & Kinick, H. (2007). *Organizational Behavior.*, London, UK: McGraw Hill.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30(3).
- Kuvaas, B., Dysvik, A., & Buch, R. (2014). Antecedents and employee outcomes of line managers’ perceptions of enabling HR practices. *Journal of Management Studies*, 51(6), 845-868.
- Kwak, M. (2002). Maximizing Value Through Diversification: Diversifying can be the best way for companies to match their capabilities to the marketplace. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 6(3), 467- 512.
- Lai, M. F., & Lee, G.G. (2007). Relationships of organizational culture towards knowledge activities. *Business Process Management Journal*, 13(2), 306-322.

- Lankeu, M. R. & Maket, J. L. (2012). Towards a Results-Oriented Public Service in Kenya: The Modern Human Resource Management Perspective *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(21), 265-271
- Lauring, J., & Selmer, J. (2012). Positive dissimilarity attitudes in multicultural organization. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 17(2), 156-172.
- Lee, K. (2013). *Transforming Conflicts in Diverse Communities and Cultural Competence in a Multicultural World*, Kansas: The University of Kansas.
- Lewis, R. (2010). *When cultures collide: Leading across cultures*. UK: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.
- Likert, R. (1932). A Technique for the Measurement of Attitude. *Archives of Psychology*, 140, 1-55.
- Locke. (1968). Goal setting theory.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (Eds.). (2013). *New developments in goal setting and task performance*. London: Routledge.
- Lockyer, C., & Scholarios, D. (2007). The “rain dance” of selection in construction: rationality as ritual and the logic of informality. *Personnel review*, 36(4), 528-548.
- Llopis, G. (2011). *Diversity Management is the Key to Growth: Make it Authentic*. New Jersey: *Forbes*.
- Lumadi. M. W. (2008). Managing Diversity at Higher Education and Training Institutions: A Daunting Task. *Journal of Diversity Management*. 3(4).

- Magutu, P.O., Nyaoga, R. B., & Kipchumba, S. K. (2010). *The effectiveness of performance appraisal systems in private Universities in Kenya*. Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Mankikar, S., & Raturi, G. (2014). E-recruitment and selection approaches in Indian Pharmaceutical Industry: A Rationale. *International Journal of Management, IT and Engineering*, 4(10), 276.
- Marchington, M. & Wilkinson, A. (2005). *Human Resource Management at work*. New York: CIPD.
- Marquis, J.P., Lim, N., Harrell, M.C., & Kavanagh, J. E. (2008). *Managing diversity in corporate America: An exploratory analysis*. UK: Rand Corporation
- Manzoni, J., Strelbel, P. & Borsoux, J. (2009). Why Diversity can backfire on Company Boards. *Wall Street Journal*. 1.
- Mathew, J., Ogbonna, E., & Harris, L.C. (2012). Culture, employee work outcomes and performance: An empirical analysis of Indian software firms. *Journal of World Business*, 47(2), 194-203.
- Mkoji, D. & Sikalieh, D. (2012).The influence of personality dimensions on organizational performance. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*. 2(17).
- Monari, F. (2013). *Employee attributes, organizational factors, time management tendencies, and employee performance in Chartered Universities in Kenya* Unpublished PhD dissertation, Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Mugenda, A. G., & Mugenda, O. M (2003).*Research Methods- Qualitative and Quantitative*. Nairobi: Acts Press.
- Mullins, L. S. (2011). *Management and Organizational Behaviour*. (7th ed.). London: Pitman Publishing Imprint.

- Mukanzi, C. M. (2013). The influence of human resource management practices on firm performance in the Kenyan banking industry. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Entrepreneurship*, 1(5), 522-532.
- Munjuri, M. G (2013). *Workforce Diversity Management and Employee Performance in the Banking Sector in Kenya*. Unpublished MBA project, Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Munjuri, M .G. (2013). The Effect of Human Resource Management Practices in Enhancing Employee Performance in Catholic Institutions of Higher Learning in Kenya. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 2(4).
- Munyoki, J. M. (2007). *The effects of technology transfer on organizational performance; A study of Medium and Large Manufacturing Firms in Kenya*. Unpublished PhD thesis, Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Mutuku, C. (2012). *Influence of Involvement Culture and Diversity Management Strategies on the Relationship between Top Management Team Diversity, Quality of Decisions and Performance of Commercial Banks in Kenya*. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Mureithi P. (2009). *The diversity management practices in NGO's in Nairobi*. Unpublished MBA project, Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Mwangi, E. K. (2015). *Employees' perception of determinants of the effectiveness of performance contracting on service delivery in local authorities in Kenya*. Unpublished Phd thesis. Juja: JKUAT.
- Mwiti, E. (2013). *Determinants of initial export market participation among micro and small enterprises in the commercial craft sector in Kenya*, Unpublished PhD. Thesis. Nairobi: Kenyatta University.

- Myloni, B., Harzing, A.W. K., & Mirza, H. (2004). Host country specific factors and the transfer of human resource management practices in multinational companies. *International Journal of Manpower*, 25(6), 518- 534.
- Nawab, S., & Bhatti, K. K. (2011). Influence of employee compensation on organizational commitment and job satisfaction: A case study of educational sector of Pakistan, *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(8).
- Ndaire, C. (2009). *The perceived benefits by the Hilton Hotel expects from implementing Diversity Policies*. Unpublished MBA project, Juja: JKUAT.
- Neuman, W. L. (2006). *Social Research Methods*. London: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.
- Nguata, N. (2013). *The challenges of implementing workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya*. Unpublished MBA project, Juja: JKUAT.
- Nica, E. (2013). Organizational culture in the public sector. *Economics, Management and Financial Markets*, 8(2), 179.
- Nakai, M. & Weiming, K. (2011). Review of methods for handling missing data in longitudinal data analysis. *International Journal of Mathematical Analysis*, 5(1), 1-13.
- Noe, R. A. (2006). *Employee Training and Development*, London: Pearson and Bacon.
- Noor, R., Chen, Y., & Romiza, A. (2011). Dimensions of E-CRM: An Empirical Study on Hotels' Web Sites, *Journal of Southeast Asian Research*, 1(1), 1- 15.

- Nyambegeera, S. M. (2002). Ethnicity and human resource management practice in sub-Saharan Africa: the relevance of the managing diversity discourse. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(7), 1077-1090.
- Odhiambo, M., & Waiganjo, E. (2014). Role of Human Capital Management Strategies on Employee Mobility in Kenya's Public Universities. A case Study of Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT). *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(6), 185-189.
- Odunlade, R. O. (2012). Managing employee compensation and benefits for job satisfaction in libraries and information centres in Nigeria. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(7), 123-133.
- Ojo, O. (2009). Impact Assessment of Corporate Culture on Employee Job Performance, *Business Intelligence Journal*
- Oloko, M. A. (2008). *The influence of power distance culture on the relationship between empowerment and performance: A study of Multinational Corporations in Kenya*. Unpublished Ph.D Thesis. Nairobi: University of Nairobi.
- Oluoch, E.. (2006). *Diversity in the banking sector, case of Kenya Commercial banks*. Unpublished MBA project, Juja; JKUAT.
- Omolo, J.O. (2010). *The dynamics and trends of employment in Kenya*. Nairobi: Institute of Economic Affairs- IEA.
- Onyango, W. P. (2014). Effects of Organizational Culture on Change Management: A Case of the Vocational Training Centre for the Blind and Deaf Sikri. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6(34), 204-214.

- O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J. A., Caldwell, D.F. & Doerr, B. (2014). The Promise and Problems of Organizational Culture CEO Personality, Culture, and Firm Performance. *Group and Organization Management*, 39(6), 595-625.
- Osborne, G. M. (2005). How important is your personality? Labour market returns to personality for women in the US and UK. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 26(2), 827-841.
- Ostrom, E. (2005). *Understanding Institutional Diversity*, Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Ozbilgin, M. & Tatli, A. (2008). *A reflection on the value of a multi-tiered perspective of diversity, discourse and equality in the global workplace Global Diversity Management: An Evidence Based Approach*, Palgrave Macmillan.UK.
- Parry, E., & Tyson, S. (2008). An analysis of the use and success of online recruitment methods in the UK. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 18(3), 257-274.
- Patton, M. Q. (2005). *Qualitative research*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Ltd.
- Paelmke, H. (2007). *Human resource management practices and diversity management in German and Indian companies - A comparative analysis. Unpublished PhD dissertation*, Queensland: University of Southern Queensland.
- Phillips, J. J. (2012). *Return on investment in training and performance improvement programs*. London: Routledge.
- Pleffer, J. (1998). *The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

- Pleffer, J. (1998). Seven practices of successful organizations. *California Review*, 3(6), 141-155.
- Pickard, A. (2012). *Research methods in information*. New jersey: Facet publishing.
- Purce, J. (2014). The impact of corporate strategy on human resource management. *New Perspective on Human Resource Management (Routledge Revivals)* 67.
- Rahim, N., Ahmed, M., & Uddin, M. (2003). The Market Impact of Changes in Corporate Diversification (Focus): Some New Evidence' *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics*,1(1).
- Reigeluth, C. M. (Ed.). (2013). *Instructional design theories and models: An overview of their current status*. London: Routledge.
- Republic of Kenya. (2006). *Public Universities Inspection Board*. Nairobi: Government Press.
- Republic of Kenya, (2009). *Kenya's Vision 2030*.Nairobi: Government Press.
- Riccucci, N. M. (2002). *Managing Diversity in Public Sector Workforces*. Colorado, USA: West view press.
- Rothwell, W. J., & Benkowski, J. A. (2002). *Building effective technical training: How to develop hard skills within organizations*. CA: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.
- Rothwell, W. J., & Kazanas, H. C. (1992).Assessing relevant characteristics of learners. *Mastering the instructional design process: A systematic approach*. College Park: Josey-Bass, Inc.
- Sadri, G., & Lees, B. (2001). Developing corporate culture as a competitive advantage. *Journal of Management Development*, 20(10).

- Salman, M., Khan, M. N., & Javaid, M. (2016). Leadership Style and Employee Performance Through Mediating Role of Work Engagement. *American Journal of Business and Society*, 1(3), 129-135.
- Samnani, A. K., & Singh, P. (2014). Performance- enhancing compensation practices an employee productivity: The role of workplace bullying. *Human Resource Management Review*, 24(1), 5-16.
- Sang, H. W. (2015). *The relationship between Human Resource Management practices and labour productivity in State corporations in Kenya*. Unpublished Phd thesis. Juja: JKUAT.
- Sarker, M. A. R., & Afroze, R. (2014). Can HRM practices improve job satisfaction of Ready Made Garment (RMG) workers in Bangladesh? An alternative solution to recent unrest. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 9(10), 185.
- Saunders, M. N. (2011). *Research methods for business students.*, (5th ed.). New Delhi: Pearson Education India.
- Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass
- Schein, E. (1999). *The Corporate Culture Survival Guide*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schutze, H. G., & Slowey, M. (2013). *Global perspectives on higher education and lifelong learners*. London: Routledge.
- Sekaran, U. (2006). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach-* (4th ed.).New Delhi: John Wiley and Sons.
- Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research Methods for Business: A skill Building Approach*. (5th ed.). New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons.

- Shan, H. (2013). Skill as a relational construct: hiring practices from the standpoint of Chinese immigrant engineers in Canada. *Work, Employment and Society*.
- Sharma, R., & Sharma, P. (2016). Impact of employee compensation, workplace environment and performance appraisal on employee satisfaction: evidence from hospitality sector in India. *International Journal of Research in IT and Management*, 6(1), 69-79.
- Shaw, J. D., Park, T. Y., & Kim, E. (2013). A resource-based perspective on human capital losses, HRM investments, and organizational performance. *Strategic management journal*, 34(5), 572-589.
- Shume, L. (2013). *Diversity management practices adopted by international non-governmental Organizations in Kenya*. Unpublished MBA Project. Juja: JKUAT.
- Sifuna, D.N. (2010). Some reflections on the expansion and quality of higher education in public universities in Kenya. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 15(4), 415-425.
- Siringi, S. (2009 of 2nd march). Public varsities sink into the muck of tribalism, The Daily Nation, Kenya, Retrieved from: www.nation.co.ke.
- Singh, B., Winkel, D. E., & Selvarajan, T. T. (2013). Managing diversity at work: Does psychological safety hold the key to racial difference in employee performance? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 86(2), 242-263.
- Singh, B., & Selvarajan, T. T. (2013). Is it spillover or compensation? Effects of community and organizational diversity climates on race differentiated employee intent to stay. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 115(2), 259-269.
- Skinner, B. F. (1971). *Beyond Freedom and Dignity*. New York: Knopf.

- Steenhussein, B. (2014). Policy design: who, what, how. *Annual Review of Policy Design*, 2(1), 1-10.
- Storey, J. (2014). *New Perspectives on Human Resource Management (Routledge Revivals)*. London: Routledge.
- Sultana, R. G. (2009). Competence and competence frameworks in career guidance: complex and contested concepts. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 9(1), 15-30.
- Sung, S. Y., & Choi, J. N. (2014). Do organizations spend wisely on employees? Effects of training and development investments on learning and innovation in organisations. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 35(3), 393-412.
- Swanson, R. A. (1995). Human resource development: Performance is the key. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 6(2), 207-213.
- Tan, E. (2014). Human Capital Theory A Holistic Criticism. *Review of Educational Research*, 84(3), 411-445.
- Taylor, S. P., Nicole, C.A., & Maguire, M. (2011). *Culture and context: an empathic study of the needs of ethnic consumers in the UK*. London: Sage.
- Ted, J.T. (2005). 'Diversity at IBM, global workforce Diversity,' *Human Resource Management*, 44(1), 73-77.
- Tessema, M. T. & Soeters, J. L. (2006). Challenges and prospects of HRM in developing countries: testing the HRM – performance link in the Eritrean civil service. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(1), 86-105.
- Tetty, W. J. (2006). *Staff retention in African universities: Elements of sustainable strategy*. Washington DC: World Bank.

- Ulrich, D., Brockbank, W., Younger, J. & Ulrich, M. (2012). *Global Human Resource Competencies: Mastering Competitive Value from the Outside In*, New Delhi: Tata McGraw Hill Education Private Limited.
- Van Jaarsveld, E., Van Wyk, B.E., & Smith, G. (2000). Succulents of South Africa: a guide to the regional diversity. "Cape Town: Tafelberg 144p.-col.illus.
- Visage, J., Lande, H. & Havenga, W. (2011). Leadership competencies for managing diversity *Managing Global Transitions*, 9(3).
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Expectancy theory*. New Delhi: New age International
- Walker, J. W. (2009). *Perspectives of Human Resource Planning*. Boston: Harvard University Press.
- Wang, L. C., & Calvino, L. (2015). Is business ethics education effective? An analysis of gender, personal ethical perspectives, and moral judgement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 126(4), 591-602.
- Watson, J. B. (1913). Psychology as the behaviorist views it. *Psychological Review*, 20.
- Wekesa, J. N & Nyaroo, S. (2013). Effect of Compensation on Performance of Public Secondary School Teachers in Eldoret Municipality, Kenya. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 3(6), 2250-3153.
- Werner, J. M., & DeSimone, R. L. (2011). *Human resource development*. London: Cengage Learning.
- Woods, S., Bormann, T. & Schmidle, D. (2010). Workplace Diversity.

Wright, T. A. (2010). *More than meets the eye: The role of employee well-being in organizational research* in Linley, P. A., Harrington, S. and Garcea, N. (Eds.). *Oxford handbook of Positive Psychology and work*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Zusman, A., (2005). *Challenges Facing Higher Education in the Twenty-first Century*. In P G. Altbach, R. O .Berdah. *American Education in the Twenty-first Century*. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Letter of Introduction

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

I am lecturer at the Technical University of Mombasa and I am currently pursuing Ph. D studies at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. The title of my study is “**Effect of Human Resource Management practices on Workplace Diversity in Public Universities in Kenya**”. A questionnaire has been developed addressing several factors related to the human resource management practices on workplace diversity in your institution. Based on your work experience and knowledge, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with a given statement on the space provided. The questions have been simplified and therefore should not take more than 30 minutes to complete.

Your university has been selected to participate in this study and consequently, you have been selected as a respondent through a random sample of employees from your university. Even if you feel that some of the items may not directly apply to your work experiences, please do not ignore them. Your answers are essential in building an accurate picture of the effect of the human resource management practices on workplace diversity in these public universities.

I also wish to assure you that the information you provide will only be used for academic purposes and will be treated with strict **CONFIDENTIALITY**. You can be assured that no one else will ever know how you responded to the questions. Please do not write your name anywhere in this questionnaire. I hope you find completing this questionnaire enjoyable and let me thank you taking the time to complete it. If you have any queries or would like further information about this study, please do not hesitate to contact me on the address below.

Thank you for your assistance,

Wahida Mahmud Bana

Technical University of Mombasa

wahidabana62@yahoo.com

+254721527548

Appendix II: Questionnaire

PART A: DEMOGRAPHICS

Please complete the following section which asks about you and your work.

1. Name of university: -----

2. Designation: -----

3. Gender (*Please tick*):

- A. Male
- B. Female

4. State your age bracket amongst the following

| Below 20 years | 20-29 years | 30-39 years | 40-49 years | Over 50 years |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. Marital status:

- A. Single
- B. Married
- C. Widowed
- D. Separated
- E. Other (*Please specify*):-----

6. How long have you worked in this University? (Tick as appropriate)

| | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Be lo w 2 ye ar s | 3- 5 ye ar s | 5- 10 ye ar s | 10 - 15 ye ar s | Over 15 year s |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

7. How many years have you held your current position?

- A. Below 1 year
- B. 1 – 4
- C. 5 – 10
- D. 11 and above

8. Please select the highest educational qualification you hold from the list shown below:

| | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Diploma | Degree | Master Degree | Doctorat e |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

PART B – HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

HIRING PRACTICES

(Tick one of the appropriate answers that describe the hiring practices).

1. Do you think the top management support minority in recruitment?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

2. Do the current job descriptions and selection processes reflect minorities' needs?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

3. Are minority employees present on selection committees?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

4. If yes to the above how many in number.....

5. Is there presence of minority employees in HRM department?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

6. If yes, to the above how many are they in number.....

7. Does the organization have special programs that aim to recruit minorities' each year?

Yes

No

Do not know

8. Do Job advertisements appear in ethnic newspapers?

Yes

No

Do not know

9. Are there recruiting efforts that highlight the organization's commitment to, and efforts to support, diversity in the workplace and external community?

Yes

No

Do not know

10. Are there recruiting efforts to specifically targeted audiences through periodicals, job fairs, selected colleges and professional affiliation groups?

Yes

No

Do not know

11. Does the organization offer recruitment incentives; tap into the network groups of current employees?

Yes

No

Do not know

12. Does the human resource manager make an effort to head hunt the minority employees?

Yes

No

Do not know

13. Does the management make an annual review of the staff diversity?

Yes

No

Do not know

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PRACTICES

(Tick one of the appropriate answers that describe the performance appraisal practices).

1. Are appraisals ratings focused on the individual's performance, not personality?

Yes

No

Do not know

2. If no, state what it is focused on.....

3. Do the minority have to be higher performers to get promoted?

Yes

No

Do not know

4. Does the organization have objective criteria and fair practices for everyone?

Yes

No

Do not know

5. Does the cultural background of the appraiser influence the performance ratings of the appraisee?

Yes

No

Do not know

6. Are there several multicultural employees at the top of the organization?

Yes

No

Do not know

7. Are culturally diverse employees included on appraisal panels?

Yes

No

Do not know

8. If yes, how many

9. Does the top management directly intervene to ensure cultural diversity goals are met?

Yes

No

Do not know

10. Does the organization include hiring and climate measures in performance appraisal criteria for managers?

Yes

No

Do not know

11. Are the appraisal policy in place implemented by all managers?

Yes

No

Do not know

12. Are the methods of appraisal unbiased?

Yes

No

Do not know

EMPLOYEE COMPENSATION

(Tick one of the appropriate answers that describe the pay practices).

1. Is compensation fair to all?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

2. If no, explain why

3. Are the working conditions the same for all employees?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

4. If no, explain why.....

5. Is the work load equitably distributed to all the employees?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

6. Is the important work given to the minority employees?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

7. Are the minority employees recognized for their work?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

8. Is there job security for the minorities?

- Yes

No

Do not know

9. Is there advancement opportunity for the minority?

Yes

No

Do not know

10. Are all benefits given to all employees?

Yes

No

Do not know

11. Are all employees given a variety of jobs to do?

Yes

No

Do not know

12. Are the minority delegated authority/control/autonomy?

Yes

No

Do not know

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

(Tick one of the appropriate answers that describe the training and development practices).

1. Are employees' needs are assessed irrespective of their origin, to enable full participation?

Yes

No

Do not know

2. Are individual training plans developed?

Yes

No

Do not know

3. Are the present skills of staff are identified through an audit process?

Yes

No

Do not know

4. Does the organization develop managerial skills for working in a multicultural environment?

Yes

No

Do not know

5. Does the organization have education programs to reduce stereotyping?

Yes

No

Do not know

6. Are cultural sensitivity courses provided?

Yes

No

Do not know

7. Do you have managers having the title of diversity managers?

Yes

No

Do not know

8. Do you hold minority career management programs?

Yes

No

Do not know

9. Does the organization have developmental assignments that expose employees to multiple cultures?

Yes

No

Do not know

10. Does the organization encourage network and support group areas and potential skill-building/advancement opportunities?

Yes

No

Do not know

11. Does the organization implement formal and informal mentoring programs

Yes

No

Do not know

12. Does the organization provide cross-cultural skill-building opportunities and resources

Yes

No

Do not know

13. Does the organization provide conflict-management training

Yes

No

Do not know

14. Are the minority given regular opportunities for personal and career development?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

| ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE (tick the most appropriate answer) | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| (Key: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Undecided,4=Agree and 5=Strongly Agree) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. My manager is willing to share decision making power with employees | | | | | |
| 2. I have freedom to make important decisions regarding my work | | | | | |
| 3. My organization communicates effectively and in a timely manner to its employees | | | | | |
| 4. There is a two way communication between employer and employees | | | | | |
| 5. I feel that my organization values my opinions | | | | | |
| 6. Everyone's contribution is noted and respected by the organization | | | | | |
| 7. There is good teamwork and cooperation in my organization | | | | | |
| 8. I am recognized and respected by my teammates | | | | | |
| 9. All the information is shared equally in my department | | | | | |
| 10. Individual differences are respected(Age, Gender, education, tribe) | | | | | |
| 11. I have clear understanding of the goals and objectives of my organization | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. I am encouraged to develop new and more efficient ways to do my work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. My job/ responsibility is clearly described | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Employee recognition programs are regularly followed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. My organization will promote from within before looking for employees externally | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. There is great opportunity to learn and for career growth | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. My job gives me professional growth and advancement in future | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Suggest other ways in which training and development practices can be improved to help support workplace diversity..... | | | | | |

| WORKPLACE DIVERSITY | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| (Key: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3=Undecided,4=Agree and 5=Strongly Agree) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. The workforce profile is equally represented in the organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. All groups are equally represented in the workforce | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. All new hires in the organization are of the same demographic as the applicants and candidates who received interview | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. There is equal representation in the recruiting and hiring process | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. The organization is broadening the pool of applicants by extended outreach efforts | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6. Employees have individual development plans | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Employees remain in the organization even when dissatisfied with development drives | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Having a development plan helps employees to see beyond their immediate position to longer term opportunities, which ties them to the organization | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Written development plans are helpful for affirmative action affected groups as well as the general workforce population | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Employees among affirmative action groups are paid the same as dominant counterparts or those in similar positions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Men and women are given equal pay for equal work in the same establishment | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. The jobs must be substantially equal ,but they need not be identical. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. It is job content, not job titles that determines whether jobs are substantially equal | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Promotion rates for men, women and other affected are the same | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Voluntary and involuntary turnover by demographic category is reviewed annually | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Appendix III: Population of the Study

| University | Hr managers | Schools / Faculties/ Directorate/ Institutes/ Centres (Senior Managers) | Middle managers | Total |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|--|------------------------|--------------|
| University of Nairobi | 1 | 36 | 183 | 220 |
| Moi University | 1 | 20 | 219 | 240 |
| Kenyatta University | 1 | 16 | 158 | 175 |
| Egerton University | 1 | 21 | 42 | 64 |
| Jomo Kenyatta university | 1 | 15 | 54 | 70 |
| Maseno University | 1 | 13 | 56 | 70 |
| Masinde Muliro University | 1 | 14 | 47 | 62 |
| Dedan Kimathi university | 1 | 5 | 10 | 16 |
| Chuka University | 1 | 4 | 25 | 30 |
| Technical University of Kenya | 1 | 3 | 36 | 40 |
| Technical University of Mombasa | 1 | 4 | 11 | 16 |
| Pwani University | 1 | 5 | 13 | 19 |
| Kisii University | 1 | 8 | 14 | 23 |
| University of Eldoret | 1 | 8 | 15 | 24 |

| | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----------|------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Maasai Mara University | 1 | 5 | 10 | 16 |
| | Laikipia University | 1 | 4 | 6 | 11 |
| | South Eastern Kenya University | 1 | 10 | 49 | 60 |
| | Meru University | 1 | 4 | 9 | 14 |
| | Multimedia University | 1 | 4 | 12 | 17 |
| | University of Kabianga | 1 | 5 | 23 | 29 |
| | Karatina University | 1 | 7 | 10 | 18 |
| | Jaramogi Odinga Oginga University | 1 | 12 | 10 | 23 |
| | | 22 | 223 | 1012 | 1257 |

Appendix IV: Sampling Frame

| | University | Schools / Faculties/ Directorate/ Institutes/ Centres (Senior Managers) | Human resource managers | Sample Size |
|--|--|--|--|------------------------|
| | University of Nairobi | 36 | 1 | 37 |
| | Moi University | 20 | 1 | 21 |
| | Kenyatta University | 16 | 1 | 16 |
| | Egerton University | 21 | 1 | 22 |
| | Jomo Kenyatta Univ of Agri and Technology | 15 | 1 | 16 |
| | Maseno University | 13 | 1 | 14 |
| | Masinde Muliro University of Science and tech | 14 | 1 | 15 |
| | Dedan Kimathi University of Technology | 5 | 1 | 6 |
| | Chuka University | 4 | 1 | 5 |
| | Technical University of Kenya | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| | Technical University of Mombasa | 4 | 1 | 5 |
| | Pwani University | 5 | 1 | 6 |
| | Kisii University | 8 | 1 | 9 |
| | University of Eldoret | 8 | 1 | 9 |
| | Maasai Mara University | 5 | 1 | 6 |
| | Laikipia University | 4 | 1 | 5 |

| | | | | |
|--|---|------------|-----------|------------|
| | South Eastern Kenya University | 10 | 1 | 11 |
| | Meru University of Science and Technology | 4 | 1 | 5 |
| | Multimedia University | 4 | 1 | 5 |
| | University of Kabianga | 5 | 1 | 6 |
| | Karatina University | 7 | 1 | 8 |
| | Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University | 12 | 1 | 11 |
| | | 223 | 22 | 245 |

Appendix V: Tests of Hypothesis and Statistical Tools

| HYPOTHESIS | TYPE OF ANALYSIS |
|--|--|
| H ₀ : Hiring practices has a significant effect on workplace diversity | Analysis 1: correlation analysis. Analysis 2: regression analysis Analysis 3: test of hypothesis |
| H ₀ : Performance appraisal has a significant effect on workplace diversity. | Analysis 1: correlation analysis. Analysis 2: regression analysis Analysis 3: test of hypothesis |
| H ₀ : Pay practices have a significant effect on workplace diversity. | Analysis 1: correlation analysis. Analysis 2: regression analysis Analysis 3: test of hypothesis |
| H ₀ : Training and development has a significant effect on workplace diversity. | Analysis 1: correlation analysis. Analysis 2: regression analysis Analysis 3: test of hypothesis |
| H ₀ : Organizational culture has a significant effect on workplace diversity. | Analysis 1: correlation analysis. Analysis 2: regression analysis Analysis 3: test of hypothesis |