

**INFLUENCE OF HUMAN RESOURCING STRATEGIES
ON RETENTION OF EMPLOYEES IN UNIVERSITIES
IN KENYA**

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**Influence of Human Resourcing Strategies on Retention of
Employees in Universities in Kenya**

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DECLARATION

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

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DEDICATION

To my beloved wife Karen Everline Mboya and our children (Purity Awino Mtakai, Fredrick Otieno Mboya, Brian Walter Maguke and Grace-Ivy Mboya). You are the reason I wake up and take myself to limits I never imagined. May God Bless and sustain you.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CBM	Common Bias Method
CDS	Career Development Strategy
CLC	Corporate Leadership Council
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development
CUE	Commission for University Education
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CHE	Commission on Higher Education
CMA	Common Method Analysis
CMV	Common Method Variance
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EBS	Employer Branding Strategy
ERS	Employee Relations Strategy
EVP	Employee Value Proposition
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
HR	Human Resource
HRM	Human Resource Management
HRP	Human Resource Planning
HRPS	Human Resource Planning Strategy
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
KCA	Kenya College of Accountancy University
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
SHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management

SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
NRB	Non Response Bias
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PROPHE	Program for Research on Private Higher Education
RS	Recruitment Strategy
SAPS	Structural Adjustment Programs
UGC	University Grants Commission
UK	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
U.S	United States
USIU	United States International University
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Career:** A career is a partner of career experiences comprising of entire lifespan of a person and which is about some phases or stages reflecting the transition from one stage to the next (Adeniji & Osibanjo, 2012).
- Career Development:** Is a life-time process that encompasses the growth and change process of childhood, the formal career education at school and the maturational processes that continue throughout a person's working, adulthood and into retirement (Baer, Flexer, Luft & Simmons, 2008).
- Human/People Resourcing:** Describes what managers need to do to ensure that they do get the people they want regarding numbers, skills and capabilities. This entails forecasting requirements, job analysis, recruitments and selection (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).
- Employer Branding:** The strategic process of promoting a company, or an organization, 'as the employer of choice' to the desired target group, one which a company needs and wants to recruit and retain. The process facilitates the company's ability in attracting, recruiting and retaining ideal employees – referred to as Top Talent in recruitment – and helps secure the achievement of the company's business plan (Stotz & Wedel, 2009)
- Employee Relations:** "Creating the right climate within the organization to enable it to meet its objectives through employees." It should be considered as everything involved in the relationship between an employee and their employer. It is everything that encompasses the employment framework

including how an employer talks to, involves, motivates and engages its employees (Werhane & Royal, 2009).

Human Resource Planning:

Focuses on quantitative and qualitative analysis to ensure the right number and the right sort of people, thus ensuring availability of people with the right kind of attitudes and motivation who are committed to the organization, engaged in other work and behave accordingly (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

Human Resourcing Strategies:

A System of Human Resource practices for a particular job or a collection of jobs aimed at the best employee performance to meet the firms' ultimate goals. It is the broad array of Human Resource practices that matter regarding employee performance. Resourcing strategies are dynamic processes which are concerned with any possible means available to meet the needs of the organization for particular skills and behaviors. It is also a strategy to enlarge the skill base that may start with recruitment and selection but would also extend into learning and development programs to enhance skills and methods of rewarding Employee for the acquisition of extra skills (Puia, 2007. (SHRM Foundation, 2008).

Recruitment:

Recruitment is defined as encompassing all organizational practices and decisions that affect either the number, or types, of individuals that are willing to apply for, or to accept, a given vacancy (Vlachos, 2009; Subramaniam et al., 2011).

Recruitment Strategy:

Recruitment strategy is concerned with the process of searching and attracting out the potential applicants and inspiring them to apply for the actual or anticipated vacancy (Surbhi, 2015).

Retention of Employees:

Keeping those members of staff, that one wants to keep and not losing them from the organization for whatever reason especially to the competitors. He further explains that the key employees are those who hold positions that are critical to the success of the organization (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009).

Selection:

Selection is the process of matching people and jobs; the decision making process in hiring it typically involves multiple interviews and interviewer ratings, and it may make use of performance tests and assessment centers (Dessler & Kundu 2007).

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ABSTRACT

Human resourcing and retention are among the major concerns facing many firms both in developing and developed countries due to the high rate of employee turnover which continues to make it on the top five lists of challenges whether or not a firm is driven by the desire to improve human resourcing and retention of employees towards achieving better organizational performance. Given this, the primary purpose of this study was to assess the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were: To explore, analyze, understand and underline the influence of Human Resource Planning, recruitment, employer branding, career development and employee relations strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The study is likely to aid university management boards and councils, employee unions, Human Resource professionals, researchers and scholars and government in policy formulation for human resourcing strategies as a reliable means to improve retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The study adopted descriptive design. The fundamental models shaping this study were the linear regression models. The target population of the study comprised all employees in 70 accredited universities in Kenya with a total population of 50,670 employees. The sample size of the study was 384 respondents chosen by stratified random sampling technique. Questionnaires were the primary data collection tool. Linear regression models were used to analyze data using SPSS (Version 23) software. The findings of the study were presented using tables and charts. The main findings from the study indicated that human resourcing strategies influenced retention of employees in universities in Kenya. Also, this study found that 88.8% of retention of employees in universities in Kenya was explained by the five variables of the study; finally the study also contributed to theory and knowledge for humanity. However, the most significant factor influencing employee retention in universities in Kenya was focusing on employee relations strategy with P-value standing at .672, then followed by human resource planning strategy with P-value standing at .587, recruitment strategy with P-value standing at .585, career development strategy with P-value standing at .584 and employer branding strategy with P-value standing at .522. However, the study had various limitations among them being lack of objectivity of the respondents and also limited scope regarding sample size. The study concluded that human resourcing strategies influenced retention of employees in universities in Kenya and recommended that other human resourcing strategies including providing attractive incentives such as robust medical care, salaries, leave and pension allowances should be considered and implemented by top university management boards and councils in order to improve employee retention. This is likely to boost the employees' morale and motivate them to perform their job tasks with zeal thus increasing their productivity and hence enabling the universities in Kenya to achieve their mandate and more enormous competitive advantage.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background of the study. It describes the human resourcing strategies, the global, regional and local perspectives of retention of employees , discusses the problem statement of the study, looks at the history of universities in Kenya, the general and specific objective(s) of the study, the hypotheses that guided this study, the significance of the study, scope and the limitations of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Today's sophisticated and dynamic global economic environment has changed drastically and continued to do so. Social developments such as globalization, technological innovation and growing competition for scarce resources place pressure on organizations, universities included, and this emphasizes their need to maintain their competitive advantage, at least in part through maintaining the skills of their employees. Furthermore, owing to these new developments, organizations have been pressured into stiff competition with each other in the business environment and also to have to manage their assets as efficiently as possible especially their human assets (Korir, 2014). Having in place resourcing strategies such as human resource planning strategies, recruitment strategies, employer branding strategies, career development strategies, employee relations strategies and retention strategies to acquire skilled, talented and committed employees plays a vital role in this process, because employees' skills and knowledge have turned out to be the most vital for organizations to be economically competitive (Kwon, 2009; HillTrop, 2009).

Due to acute shortage of labor force facing organizations, there is a cut-throat competition among them worldwide to keep the most highly skilled, experienced, committed and talented employees for themselves as these serve as a source of their competitive advantage (Kwon, 2009).

The emergence of psychological contract did not make the situation better because under the new contract, a large number of modern employees do not prefer a permanent career with one organization (Deloitte, 2015). Moreover, as a result, they are less devoted and more opportunistic than employees in the past.

According to Global Human Capital Trends (Deloitte, 2015), many of today's employees work on global teams that operate on a 24/7 hours economy and an increasing number of skilled and experienced employees in the world today continually change jobs throughout their careers, endeavoring to secure the best for themselves. Beyond these economic pressures, organizations also face difficult demographic changes resulting in drastic changes in the composition of the current workforce.

Johns (2017) categorizes generational cohorts into three groups; generation X, Y and Z according to human resourcing and retention strategies of employees in the workplace. Generation X belongs to the age group (1960-1980) while generation Y also called millennials falls in between (1981-1990). Generation X grew up before the internet inclusion but has learned over time to deal with online environments. Generation Y and Z (Palmer, 2009) grew up with technology based on the generational cohort theory. Nevertheless, generational cohorts do not act in the same manner (Meriac *et al.*, 2010), since consumers' behavior and attitudes vary with age (PwC, 2016; San-Martín *et al.*, 2015). Generation Y are generally young, well informed, educated and have their unique needs and wants. Organizations will face grave challenges in attracting, recruiting and retaining generation Y (Hay group recruiting experts, 2016) since they view the world as a global village where they can bump from one job to another easily hence attracting, recruiting and retaining them is difficult. Furthermore, upon the retirement of generation X, there is a significant loss of skills and the capabilities which cannot be easily replaced by merely hiring new employees, all of which are essential in the current economic environment in which organizations have to compete (Kwon, 2009).

According to Myskova (2011) and Ongori (2013), the Human Resource is strategically the most important asset in an organization through which organizations achieve competitive advantage. Human Resources are the life-blood of organizations, be they casual, temporary or permanent (Ongori, 2013). They are the ones capable of executing innovative activities with precision on a daily basis. These resources have to be acquired, developed and deployed in ways that will benefit the organization. Thus, this makes human resourcing function critical to the success and survival of organizations.

Studies have shown that limited research work has been done on human resourcing/staffing practices by organizations despite its importance leading to staffing-human resourcing research gaps thus validating this study (Ployhart, 2006). At the same time, human resourcing strategies have also been moving rapidly, changing, becoming complex, dynamic, unpredictable and highly competitive in global markets, since firms worldwide are facing significant decisions and challenges in attracting, recruiting and selecting and retaining their employees and also improving them in learning and capacity development programmes to enhance their skills and the methods of rewarding employees for the acquisition of extra skills (Schuler, 2011).

Researchers such as Bushe (2012) have confirmed that human resourcing and retention of key employees poses a significant challenge to organizations including universities. It is a global problem both for the developing and developed countries (Bushe, 2012). Ng'ethe (2012) further confirms: employee retention is one of the key challenges facing modern organizations whether small, medium or large, be they public or private, occasioned by globalization that has intensified competition and increased the mobility of highly skilled employees. In order to achieve their mandate, organizations including universities ought to secure trained, skilled, experienced and committed employees.

Studies have shown a tendency of academic staff in other parts of the world to quit their positions and to look for other lucrative job positions elsewhere.

In the United Kingdom, a report written by Bunoti (2011) to Higher Education Statistics Agency, shows that there are numerous reports about the constant flow of scholastics willing to move abroad, enticed by reports of higher pay rates and better profession prospects. According to Hong, Hao, Kumar, Ramendran and Kadiresan, (2012) in Malaysia due to intense competition in higher education institutions which has rare high education talent, makes employee retention a significant move in keeping a competitive edge. Institutions tend to satisfy employees' satisfaction in their jobs by providing support to their motivational aspects, such as self-esteem, self-fulfillment and basic needs. The problem remains on whether or how high is the effect of each aspect having toward overall employee's retention.

Furthermore, in a paper titled "Challenges facing higher education in America: Lessons and opportunities" by Steven J. Rosenstone (revised 2017), it was noted that public universities in the U.S have witnessed dramatic cuts in state financing forcing both public and private universities to embark on capital fundraising drives to mitigate the consequences of cuts in state funding. The key consequences of this adverse action include; cutting faculty positions, closing programs and trimming support for research, student grants and employees' compensation. In addition, competition will further intensify as "baby-boomers" begin to retire over the next decade, increasing the number of outstanding scholars and teachers in the hiring pool. Unless the gap in resource allocation in universities is significantly narrowed, only very few of the nation's public universities would be competitively positioned to attract, recruit and retain distinguished faculty and talented graduates, professionals and undergraduate students. A study in Australian higher education institutions also indicated that 68% of the academic personnel wished to leave higher education (Anderson, Richard & Saha, 2002).

According to Tettey (2006), retention of academic staff remains a challenge across the globe; the situation in many African countries appears to be notably worse. Pioneers of African Universities and colleges have as of late recognized the overwhelming effect of staff deficiencies on the objectives of establishments of advanced education and caution that if something is not done soon, the African Universities and colleges would not just lose their capacity to deliver satisfactory workforce to help the nations' human resource needs but also to uphold and protect the quality of intellectual life in the Africa region. In South Africa concerns of teachers' turnover has been noted because of its adverse effects on the provision of education. In a study in 2004 in South Africa by the Human Sciences Research Council for Education Labor relations council, it was found that 55% of the teachers would be leaving teaching if they could. In Uganda according to Chacha (2007) and Businge (2009), lecturers and tutors tend to dodge tertiary/university education due to poor remunerations hence most tertiary institutions and universities operate at a deficit staff numbers. In Nigeria, two-thirds of its 36,134 academic staff positions remain unfilled (Jaiyeoba & Jibril, 2008). This is due to poor remunerations offered by public universities in Nigeria.

Kenya also faces a similar problem in the form of "brain-drain" (Waswa & Katana, 2008; Monis & Sreedhara, 2011; Waithaka, 2012; Oduma & Abbas, 2014; Hayes, 2015) where qualified academic and other professional personnel look for jobs abroad and spend most of their productive years working in foreign countries. A study by Mwiria (2007) also confirms that public universities, in particular, have precarious Human Resource Management practices such as poor remunerations. Empirical studies by Guma (2011) have also shown that public universities, in particular, have weak or poor retention policies for their employees. Selesho and Naile, (2014) have rightly observed that organizations must utilize an extensive range of Human Resource Management factors to influence retention of employees.

Kipkebut (2010) and Ng'ethe (2011) also examined factors that make academic staff, particularly in public universities to be committed and to stay. Their findings established that Human Resource Management practices such as good compensation packages, good corporate governance (Tettey, 2009) and education support for their families were among the factors that made the academic staff to be retained and to be committed.

According to Global Human Capital Trends; (Deloitte, 2015) organizations are recognizing the needs to focus on culture and dramatically improve on employee engagement as they face a looming crisis in engagement and retention. The latest studies by Ngui, Elegwa and Gachunga, (2014) confirmed that resourcing strategies could help in employee retention. Therefore, this study would be relevant and timely and in particular, proposed the use of human resourcing strategies such as human resource planning, recruitment, employer branding, career development and employee relations as a reliable means of influencing retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.1.1 Human Resourcing Strategies

The concept that the strategic capability of a firm depends on its resource capability in the shape of employee (the resource-based view theory) provides the foundation for resourcing strategy (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). According to Strategic Human Resource Management Foundation (2008), a Human Resource strategy means a system of Human Resource practices for a specific job or a collection of jobs aimed at the best employee performance to meet the firms' ultimate goals. It is the broad array of HR practices that matter regarding employee performance (SHRM foundation, 2008).

Resourcing strategies are dynamic processes which are concerned with any possible means available to meet the needs of the organization for particular skills and behaviors. It is also a strategy to enlarge the skill base that may start with recruitment and selection but would also extend into learning and development programs to enhance skills and methods of rewarding Employee for the acquisition of extra skills (Puia, 2007). Human resourcing strategies should help organizations to get employees who have skills, competencies and abilities, who are committed, who feel engaged and motivated to come to work, who are productive and able to serve customers and stay with the organization (Price, 2004).

The objectives of human resourcing strategies are to obtain the necessary right material in the form of workforce endowed with appropriate qualities, skills, knowledge and potential for a future training (Armstrong and Taylor, 2014). It is a vital part of the strategic Human Resource Management process, which is necessarily about linking Human Resources to the strategic and operational needs of an organization and ensuring full utilization of those resources. The selection and recruitment of workers best suited to meeting the needs of the organization ought to form a core activity upon which other Human Resource Management policies focused towards development and motivation could be built (Price, 2004). The aim of this strategy is, therefore, to ensure that a firm achieves competitive advantage by employing and retaining more capable employee than its competitors in the market. These people will have a broader and deeper range of skills and will perform in ways that will maximize their involvement (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). The organization attracts such people by being ‘the employer of choice’ (Guma, 2011).

It retains them by providing better rewards and opportunities in work environment than others and by developing a favorable psychological contract that increases commitment and creates mutual trust. Furthermore, the organization deploys its people in ways that maximize the added value they supply (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

Resourcing is also concerned in not only obtaining and keeping the number and quality of staff required but also with selecting and promoting competent people who 'fit' the traditions and the strategic obligation of the firm (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Resourcing strategies go beyond recruitment and selection and even include rewarding people for the acquisition of extra skills/talents (Price, 2004) hence the need to review recruitment and workforce structures to a greater emphasis on talent and succession. It is crucial that people resourcing strategies must take into account the general or overall strategies of organizations and understand the primary direction in which the organizations are going.

In this study, the researcher focused on five human resourcing strategies which the study believed influenced retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The strategies are Human Resource Planning Strategy which ensures the organizations' employees have the requisite skills and competencies and enterprise needs for it to succeed (Ghazala & Hanib, 2012). Gupta (2008) adds that HRP prepares employees appropriately for impending rationalization. It further enables a firm to make enough preparations for recruitment and tactical hiring. Secondly recruitment strategy is concerned with the process of searching and attracting out the potential applicants and inspiring them to apply for the actual or anticipated vacancy (Surbhi, 2015).

The need to create, communicate and maintain a brand to differentiate competitors and to attract, develop talented and motivated employees are both crucial factors for success. Further employer branding strategy aims at promoting a company, or an organization, 'as the employer of choice' to the desired target group, one which a company needs and wants to recruit and retain. The process facilitates the company's ability in attracting, recruiting and retaining ideal employees – referred to as Top Talent in recruitment and helps secure the achievement of the company's business plan (Stotz & Wedel, 2009).

According to Baer, Flexer, Luft and Simmons (2008), an individual's career development is a lifetime process that encompasses the growth and change process of childhood, the formal career education at school and the maturational processes that continue throughout a person's working, adulthood and into retirement. Finally, employee relations are about, "creating the right climate within the organization to enable it to meet its objectives through employees (Werhane & Royal, 2009)

1.1.2 Retention of Employees

Retention of employees can be termed as encouraging workers to stay in the organization for a long period of time. It is a process of encouraging employees to stay with the employer (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009). Once an organization has captured skilled employees, the return on investment required closing the door to prevent them from leaving. The primary purpose of retention is to prevent competent employees from leaving the organization as this would have a disastrous effect on job performance, productivity and service delivery (Chiboiwa, 2010). Poor human resourcing and retention among employees may lead to many costs associated with employee turnovers such as absenteeism, tardiness which include additional burden on remaining the staff, recruitment and training costs, lost productivity, loss of clients and loss of intellectual capital (Guma, 2011).

According to Rawat (2013), Organizations confront numerous issues when there is high turnover rate because of employees leaving the organization for reasons, for example, job dissatisfaction, poor working conditions, not having decent salaries and no advances in a vocation. Research scholars such as Gberevbie (2010) have agreed that an organization's inability to formulate and implement strategies capable of retaining competent employees and retaining them to achieve organizational goals is one of the challenges facing organizations in the area of performance.

Retention of academic and top administrative staff remain pertinent issues in both public and private universities in Kenya yet these institutions are operating in a highly competitive environment and require these staff for success and sustainability.

In particular, retention of academic staff will help the universities accomplish their vision and mission and to become centers of academic excellence (Ng'ethe, 2012). The promulgation of a new constitution in Kenya in 2010, resulting in the creation of devolved units also led to mass transfers of employees from the national government to all the 47 county levels government in the Republic. These employees were required to manage devolved units in health, education and agricultural sectors.

The objective of retention strategies should be to identify and retain committed employees for as long as it is mutually profitable to the organization and the employee (Chiboiwa, 2010). Organizations ought to determine the retention focus relevant to each of their employee groups so as to achieve quality retention programs. Employees in organizations are said to have either high retention or low retention (Price, 2004). High retention occurs when all or most of the permanent positions in that organization are filled, when they have low or no intention to turnover, have had consistency in job status, have had a career development and when employees keep their jobs for a considerably extended period (Chew, 2004).

Retention is a global problem affecting both developing and developed countries (Bushe, 2012). In the United States, for example, about 7.7% of all full-time academic staff left their institutions for other places within one academic year –from fall 1997 to fall 1998. Of these, only 29% were retirees; the remaining 71% left for a variety of reasons (National Centre for Educational Statistics, 2001). A 2000 survey of full-time faculty members in the US showed that more than 40% of them had contemplated changing careers (Sanderson, Phua & Herda, 2000). In Canada, it has been argued that one of the challenges that universities face is academic recruitment and retention. Similarly, it has been suggested that “early in the 21st century there will be a crisis in Australian higher education with an estimated academic labour shortage of 20,000 if this trend is not addressed” (Mathews, 2003, p. 313).

This problematic situation is also experienced in South African higher education institutions, since data indicates that a substantial number (between 5% and 18%) of academics leave higher education institutions (Tettey, 2006). In 1995, the average monthly resignation rates were 3.4%, 2.9% and 2.7% in Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan, respectively (Barnard and Rodgers, 1998).

In India in the past year (2012) lot of new developments took place in the education sector. The second half of the year also saw major change at the policy level with Cabinet reshuffle. Cabinet and State Ministers in the Union Ministry of Human Resource Development were changed. Keeping in mind all of this and coupled with the ever increasing attrition rate of skilled and experienced faculty members Indian educational Institutes are facing a major problem (Surbhi, 2013). In the Middle East, one of the key challenges facing higher education is the inability of universities to attract, recruit and retain top academic talent which is arguably a problem worldwide; however, given the political and economic conditions in the Middle East, it is a major issue (Hajjar and Gotto 2013).

For instance, a study by Albaqami (2016) shows that in Saudi Arabian Universities the determinants of turnover intention by faculty members are divided into three sections: the demographic variables (That is, age, gender, tenure and position), the organizational variables (That is, interpersonal relationships, working environment and payment justice) and individual variables (That is, organizational commitment and job satisfaction) for faculty members. In the developing countries, such as Kenya, retention has been scanty in the literature. This is because the issue seems to be sub-sumed in the general category of “brain- drain.” According to Tettey, (2006) in the African context, much of the expertise base of universities has been eroded to the extent that not enough teaching capacity is available to provide quality training for the new generation of citizens. In Malawi, shortage of teachers in the nursing college was one reason for these Colleges’ low student uptake in the early 2000s (Physicians for Human Rights, 2004).

In Ghana universities and polytechnics have staff vacancy rates of 40% and 60% respectively (Effah, 2011). Tettey (2009) stated that by the year 2000 the University of Ghana's medical school had lost about half of its teaching staff. Not only is the country's health care system suffering from a lack of skilled physicians, but the diminished faculty is also unable to train sufficient numbers of future medical officers. In Pakistan higher education system is highly competitive with more than 135 institutions in public and private sector competing for the students and funding. In this scenario, having a capable, qualified and skilled academic staff on their payroll not only enhance their prestige and ranking in the country but also helps them enroll more students and be competitive. However, these educational institutions are competing among themselves as well as with the industry to attract and retain qualified employees. According to an estimate there is approximately 9 % turnover of teaching staff in higher education institutions especially public sector universities. Thus, retention presents a huge problem for many higher education institutions in Pakistan and is true for many developing countries as well (Albaqami, 2016).

In Nigeria, all but one national university, have just half of their teaching staff complement at the post, with some registering understaffing rates of 70 percent (Obasi, 2001). The size of university faculty in Cote d'Ivoire dwindled from 828 in 1995 to 412 in 2000 (Houenou & Agbo, 2003). Evidence from South Africa suggests that many departures from higher educational institutions are caused by emigration, which accounts for 22% of such losses (Human Resources Research Council, 2003). In fact, the country's Human Sciences Research Council of (2004) estimates that 17,000 professionals in the fields of science and technology emigrated between 1994 and 2001.

In Ethiopia, Alemaya University is dependent on expatriate staff because it is difficult to attract experienced and qualified nationals. In fact, "since the early 1990s, the University has been employing expatriate instructors through funds obtained from the World Bank and the UNDP.

This situation has forced students to work with expatriate research advisors who have experience in researching conditions different from those in Ethiopia and often concerned with non-Ethiopian agricultural problems (Belay, 2004). Further, the cost of educating a growing cohort of university students is quickly exceeding available government funds (Reisberg & Rumbley, 2015). Too many of the best and brightest academic and administrative staff in Ethiopia is on the move. Graduate study and professional development opportunities are currently available overseas through national and donor agency programs.

Furthermore, educational opportunities abroad often lead to “brain-drain”, while even the short-term absence of professors and administrators presents significant challenges at the home institutions. Staff turnover takes place at all levels, driven by the desire to improve earnings and to move from rural toward urban areas. Constant staff turnover wreaks havoc on an institution’s capacity to operate efficiently and to manage long-term planning and development (Reisberg & Rumbley, 2015).

In Zimbabwe, there is acute shortage of skilled, experienced and committed teaching staff. The “brain drain” has accelerated in the last five years with most professionals going to countries such as Britain, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Botswana. Staff retention in universities in Zimbabwe continues to be a big challenge. Academics are being lured to join universities in the neighbouring countries including South Africa because of poor remuneration (Greener Journal of Education and Training Studies, 2014).

Since independence, Tanzania has established 50 public and private universities by 2013. Among the two key challenges facing higher in Tanzania is inability of universities to attract, recruit and retain skilled staff leading to acute shortage of skilled and trained staff to teach. As a result, some universities fall under the threat of letting assistant tutor with bachelor degree to teach undergraduate programs.

As observed by Ruhanga (2006), universities also lack trained and adequate number of non teaching staff. In Uganda, the salaries paid to the staff in higher institutions of education are still very low and most lectures have other jobs in big institutions and companies to supplement the meager salaries which cannot cater for their needs (Chacha, 2007).

According to Businge (2009), most tertiary institutions and universities in Uganda operate at a deficit staff numbers. This resulted into poor academic performance on the side of academic staff and poor service delivery to all the stakeholders of these institutions including the students. For instance, Makerere University is currently operating at 45% of its staff establishment. In addition, the recent reports show that the overall staff to student ratio for all universities was 1:24 but those of Makerere and Kyambogo both public universities (1:33) and Nkumba (1:32) were unacceptably high.

According to the Commission for University Education ‘state of postgraduate research and training in Kenya’ (2016), postgraduate enrolment remains small at 63,999, or 11.9% of the total universities students’ population in Kenya. The PhD enrolment is only 1.3% of the total students’ population in Kenya. There were 55,461 students enrolled in masters’ programmes and 7,146 in PhD programmes in 2015, as compared to 475,750 undergraduates. Of those enrollments in PhD, there were only 2,231 Or 31.2% women enrolled for various programs. Furthermore, according to global human capital trends top findings for Kenya, Kenya ranked employee engagement and retentions as top numbers one and two challenges for business (Deloitte, 2014). Mwiria (2007); Waswa and Katana (2008); Tettey, (2009); Waithaka (2012); Hayes (2015) agree that university performance in Kenya is too rigid resulting to bad consequences whereby there is mass exodus of lecturers seeking green pastures to other outside country universities in Europe, Middle East, America, South Africa, Botswana and Namibia and internally to the private sector for lucrative job opportunities.

Human resources unarguably is one of the most valuable asset of any institution and more so for the higher educational institutions because they operate on the human intellectual capital. It is therefore penultimate to retain these educated, committed and experienced staff in order to be able to maintain the knowledge inventory and decrease the cost of re-recruitment, selection, training and development on new staff (Armstrong, 2009). Being able to retain the new staff will also ensure knowledge continuity, committed decision making and smooth and co-ordinated workflow. Indeed there is a paradigm shift from human resources to human capital which consists of knowledge, skills and abilities (Amstrong, 2009).

1.1.3 Universities in Kenya

Higher Education is undergoing considerable change (UNESCO, 2012). These variations are in response to a multiplicity of factors: the development of information and communication technologies, globalization, internationalization and regionalization, an advancing network society and knowledge society, socio-cultural trends, demographical trends and the marketization in higher education, including the changing roles of governments. The demand for university education worldwide has continued to increase with competition for access rising each year as a new set of candidates complete their secondary or equivalent level of education. Privatization of institutions thrived after the collapse of communism in Europe. In trends, some 30 percent of global higher education enrolments are in private institutions (Program for Research on Private Higher Education -PROPHE, 2008).

The African higher education sector has witnessed some remarkable growth during the last three decades; according to UNESCO report (2012) most countries host private institutions in Anglophone Africa significantly outpacing Francophone Africa. Kenya, Nigeria, Uganda and others are among the countries' important private sectors yet most countries private sector remains comparatively small. Since independence, Kenya has, through legal notices, embarked on establishing colleges and universities throughout the country.

The growth of privately owned institutions of higher learning is linked to the ideology of free enterprise launched through the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank instituted structural adjustment programs(SAPs) and the privatization process aimed at managing public spending (World Bank, 2004).

At the time Kenya attained political independence from Britain in 1963, the country had just one public university (The University College of Nairobi) then affiliated to the University Of East Africa (Makerere). Later on, the incoming governments recognized the need to establish other public universities such as Kenyatta, Egerton, Jomo Kenyatta, Moi, Maseno, Masinde Muliro, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga and others. On the other hand, private universities have also been established by private individual investors and some prominent mainstream churches such as Methodist churches and Catholics churches. Two factors have significantly contributed to the rapid expansion and development of university education in Kenya; first, the enormous demand for university education by the public and secondly, the introduction of free primary education by the government which triggered higher student enrolment yet with limited spaces in public universities.

Before 2012, the Kenya National Commission on Higher Education (CHE), which is the buffer body between universities and the government, had the overall responsibility of licensing private higher education institutions. CHE categorized these institutions into three main categories, namely: registered private universities; accredited private universities; and private universities operating by a letter of interim authority. After 2012, the Commission for University Education (CUE) was established by an Act of Parliament, Universities Act, No. 42 of 2012 as the successor to CHE which has been established under Universities Act Cap 210B of 1985. This was to address the need to regulate, coordinate and assure quality in university education as a result of growth and expansion of the university sub-sector in Kenya. The commission was established as a body corporate to make better provisions for the advancement of quality university education in the country.

According to the records currently under the Commission for University Education (October 2016), there are a total of 70 accredited universities authorized to operate in Kenya (see appendix III).

Universities are supposed to be the training centers for students undertaking various comprehensive courses to translate theory into practice (Adeniji, 2011). The role of universities in the delivery and development of the workforce required for the social, academic and technological innovation cannot be overemphasized (Ng'ethe, Iravo & Namusonge, 2012). By their unique nature, universities are expected to be a repository of the most specialized and skilled intellectuals. They serve as storehouses of knowledge for nurturing the workforce needs of the nation and hence for satisfying the aspirations of the people for an ethical and humane society.

Central to the realization of university goals and objectives are the academic staff whose roles are crucial and their numbers, quality and effectiveness make the difference in education production function and to the wider society (Mwadiani, 2002). Since universities in Kenya have been established through Acts of Parliament which provide instruments, statutes and rules to govern each of them, this means each whether public or private exercises its autonomy and ought to run their respective programs without much interference from the state.

In some years back there used to be a clear demarcation between public and private to universities. However, this state of affairs has since changed as there exists now a sense of partnership or some collaborative arrangements with no different sets of rules and regulations for each category. This is contrary to the previous private universities' interests and preoccupation with profit making. The two entities are now partners with both playing active roles in the provision of education in the country. CUE Report of (2016) confirms the rapid enrolment of students in universities in Kenya. The total enrolment of students in 2015 was 539,749 compared to 440,840 in 2014. This enrolment was highest in public universities at 85% compared to private universities at 15% across all levels of programs.

Due to the high students' enrollment, the biggest challenge facing public universities in particular, is rapid expansion amid declining physical facilities, overcrowding, the generally heavy workload on staff, poor working conditions, lack of adequate working equipment and poor corporate governance involvement (Tettey, 2009). This is coupled with internal strategic poaching of staff among universities and precarious Human Resource Management practices (Mwiria, 2007). Guma (2011) stated that public universities, in particular, have weak retention policies leading to generally poor staff retention. As a result, most academic, technical and professional staff in universities has left looking for lucrative positions outside the country or luxurious jobs in private sector (Waswa & Katana, 2008; Waithaka, 2012). Others have been competing for government appointed jobs such as cabinet secretaries, principle secretaries, and if not appointment as ambassadors and high commissioners which tend to pay more than the merger salaries at the universities.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Employees are the most important asset in any organisation, whether they are on permanent, contract or temporary terms of service. In order to achieve their goals and objectives all organisations, including universities, need to secure trained, skilled, committed and engaged employees. Due to both internal and external factors in the business environment, employees in higher education institutions world wide have shown a tendency to quit their positions and look for lucrative jobs elsewhere resulting in high staff turnover. According to Deloitte (2014), 68% of organizations in Kenya experience high rate of employees' turnover which hinders their competitive advantage. Ng'ethe (2014), provides supporting statistics between 2006-2011 for public universities as follows; JKUAT a total of 2100, had left, the University of Nairobi lost 98, Kenyatta University 121 had left, Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology had lost 88, Maseno University 124 had left while Egerton had lost 102 and at Moi University, 100 had left. Indeed private universities in Kenya have faced similar challenges.

Similarly, records obtained from Central and personnel registries of private universities such as, at KCA University show that 106 employees had left (2010-2016), Zetech University, 25 had left (2014-2017), Mount Kenya University, 70 had left (2010-2017), Pan African Christian University, 20 had left (2010-2016), Catholic University, 40 had left (2010-2016) and USIU University, 15 had left (2010-2016) amongst others. The high rate of employee turnover leads to decreased performance of the organizations, hampered continuity and succession, reduced innovativeness as well as standards (Kipkebut, 2010). This has been made worse by poor corporate governance (Tettey, 2009), internal strategic poaching amongst universities, poor human resourcing strategies, precarious Human Resources practices (Mwiria, 2007) and poor or weak retention policies practiced in particular by public universities (Guma, 2011).

Retention of key employees is critical to success or failure of any organization. The National Commission of Science, Technology and Innovation report of (2014) also underscored the critical role universities play in national development considering the development challenges the country is facing. Empirical studies show that extensive use of Human Resourcing practices may lead to improved retention of employees. Although studies are already available on retention of employees (Ngui, Mukulu & Gachunga, 2014) in their study identified the need for further research on retention of employees particularly in other organizations, universities included. So far, insignificant and inconclusive studies have been done on the influence of resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This study, therefore seeks to fill that knowledge gap. It strives to examine the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The study was guided by a general and specific objectives.

1.3.1. General Objective

The general objective of the study was to assess the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

1. To explore the influence of Human Resource Planning strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
2. To analyze the influence of recruitment strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
3. To understand the influence of employer branding strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
4. To underline the influence of career development strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
5. To explore the influence of employee relations strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided the study:

- Ho₁: Human Resource Planning strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
- Ho₂: Recruitment strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
- Ho₃: Employer branding strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
- Ho₄: Career Development strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.
- Ho₅: Employee Relations strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Retention of crucial productive employees is a significant challenge for all organizations locally and internationally due to the resulting churn created by replacing employees that voluntarily leave the organizations and which costs the organizations both directly and indirectly. This study would help university management boards and councils to understand the existence of direct costs arising from losses of talented staff, leading to interruption in work, compromised quality and reduced education standards generating much knowledge associated with these employees. It would also help in reducing turnover expenditures and avert the loss of human capital necessary for the achievement of the university mandate which includes teaching, research and innovation development.

Secondly, employee unions would use the information from the study to recommend best Human Resource practices and policies that can assist in improving retention to the universities' management boards and councils and facilitate retention of employees in the universities. Thirdly, the study would also make Human Resource professionals gain knowledge and information to assist them in advising their employers to formulate Human Resource policies to tackle retention challenges in the universities. Finally, the study would also help policy makers in government to come up with new or revised policy documents to manage retention of employees' challenges in universities and other government institutions. Finally, the study would point out other gaps for possible further research by researchers and scholars and help contribute to the existing literature on employee retention.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study aimed at assessing the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The study focused on five independent variables namely: Human Resource Planning strategy, recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, career development strategy and employee relations strategy.

The dependent variable of the study was retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This study had a geographical scope because the universities under study are located in different geographical positions in Kenya. For instance, the University of Nairobi is located in the central business district of Nairobi County while Maseno University is located about 370km to the west of Nairobi in Kisumu County while Moi University is located about 280km to the North of Great Rift Valley in Uasin Gishu County.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The study had limitations, the first one being the objectivity of the respondents. The researcher realized that some of the respondents were not experienced and lacked knowledge about the system and processes currently in place by the universities. Some also lacked skills on how to fill in the questionnaires. However, the researcher concentrated on those employees at the top level in human resource management and heads of departments who had vast experiences and skills in University management. Secondly, the study was also limited by its scope regarding sample size. The study used a sample size of 384 respondents out of a possible total of about 50,600 employees working in private and public universities in Kenya. In addition, there was also a problem of some respondents giving inaccurate information to the researcher as they feared the consequences of revealing the secrets of their respective universities. However, the researcher mitigated this challenge by focusing on respondents who were reliable in terms of giving information.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the review of literature related to the subject under the study. It consists of the theoretical review, conceptual framework and furthermore, it also presents the key findings of past similar studies, a critique of existing literature, research gaps and finally the summary.

2.2 Theoretical Review

A theoretical review refers to the theory that a researcher chooses to guide him/her in his/her research (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In this study, the theoretical review consisted of theories, which exhibited the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya namely: human capital theory, resource-based view theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, vocational personalities and work environment theory and social reciprocity theory.

2.2.1 Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory has been proposed by Schultz, (1961) and developed comprehensively by Becker, (1964). This theory suggests that education or training raises the productivity of employees by imparting useful skills and knowledge, hence raising workers' future income by increasing their lifetime earnings (Becker, 1994). The theory further postulates that investments by organizations in people will generate worthwhile returns (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). There is also substantial evidence that organizations that possess and cultivate their human capital surpass other organizations which lack human capital (Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr, & Ketchen, 2011). Knowledge management has nowadays become a crucial element in the competitive business environment rather than the land and capital in the last decade (Chen, 2008).

Jackson (2007), (as cited by Ongel, 2014) noted that the most valuable asset that organizations have on hand are the employees. Increasing interest in knowledge asset management or intellectual capital management is a critical factor in talent retention and employee productivity. It is the employees and only employees who carry the organization ahead because any business is as good as the people who comprise that organization (Mullins, 2010).

This theory is relevant to the current study as it regards people as assets and stresses those investments by organizations in people will generate worthwhile returns. Management needs to be aware that, to achieve sustainability and deliver success within this new business environment, knowledge workers needs to be managed and directed while rewarding and valuing their profession (Paton, 2012). Organizations should aim at providing an environment in which employees are encouraged to learning and developing. The theory also has practical significance in deciding employee rewards systems. Employees and employers each derive benefits from investments in creating human capital. The level of pay should supply both parties with a reasonable return on their investment (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). This theory guided objective one of this study.

2.2.2 The Resource-Based Theory

To a considerable extent, the thinking and approaches to strategic Human Resource Management are underpinned by the resource-based view theory. According to this theory by Barney (2000), a wider range of resources in a firm, including its Human Resources produces its unique character and creates the competitive edge. Organization's resources can be classified into two: that is tangible which are financial, technological, physical and human while intangible are: brand-name, reputation and know-how resources. According to Barney (2000), resources lead to the sustainable competitive edge when they are accessible, rare, imitable and non-substitutable.

Resources such as technology, natural resources, finances and economies of scale can create value. However, the resource-based view theory argues that these sources of value are available to all and easy to copy, compared to the complex social system of Human Resources. The resource-based view theory of the firm is a form of firm performance that looks at the resources and capabilities controlled by a firm as sources of competitive gain (Pearce & Robinson, 2007). The genesis of the resource-based view theory can be traced back to (SelZick, 1957) who suggested that work organizations each possess 'distinctive competence' that enables them to outperform their competitors.

According to Penrose (1959), a firm is "a collection of productive resources" which focuses on the quality of the Human Resources available in the organization and their ability to learn and adapt more quickly than their competitors. These resources include the Human Resources such as training, experience, judgments, intelligence, relationships and insights of individual managers and workers in an organization. The sum of individual's expertise, knowledge and social relationships can provide non-substitutable capabilities that serve as a source of competitive advantage (Cappelli & Singh, 1992). Pearce and Robinson (2007) argue that the resource-based view theory of a firm helps improve upon the SWOT analysis by examining a variety of different yet specific types of resources and capabilities any firm possess and then evaluating the degree to which they become the basis for sustained competitive advantage based on industry and competitor consideration. Thus, the theoretical work on the resource-based view theory of the firm (Barney, 2000); Pearce and Robinson (2007), supports the notion that HRM may be an important source of competitive advantage. This theory guided objectives one and six of the study.

2.2.3 Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg (1959) argued that employees are motivated by internal values rather than external values to their day to day operations. In other words, motivation is internally generated and is propelled by variables that are intrinsic to the link in which Herzberg termed the motivators.

These intrinsic variables included: advancement, growth, recognition, work itself, achievement and responsibility. On the other hand, Herzberg noted that certain factors induce dissatisfying experiences to employees and these factors mainly result from non-job related variables which he termed as extrinsic variables.

Herzberg termed these variables as hygiene factors which although do not motivate employees but must be present in the workplace to make employees happy. These dissatisfy are: salary, co-worker relationships, company administration policies, supervising or management styles and work environment (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). According to Herzberg, motivation would only occur as a result of the availability of intrinsic factors and lack of motivation means the employees would likely not stay (Samuel *et al.*, 2009).

Alternatively, where extrinsic factors do not give motivation for improved performance of the workforce, it does not mean that employees have to work and live in bad working conditions environment because this may result in reduced vigor to give their best and to achieve productivity. It should be noted that an unpleasant working condition is a recipe for the workers to start deserting their workplace for another employer. Therefore, the theory is relevant to the study in that it takes into account that workforce has two categories of needs that operate at the workplace and which need to be fulfilled otherwise they will seek ways to satisfy themselves including deserting/leaving. This theory guided objectives four and six of this study.

2.2.4 Holland's' Theory of Vocational Personalities and Work Environment.

The introduction of the theory in 1959 emphasized an examination of the different aspects of the person-environment fit. It also highlights on the acquisition and processing of environmental information that is persons with more information about occupational environment make adequate decisions than persons with less information.

The environment has influenced individual's career choice and development through external factors such as parents, teachers and individuals as indicated in theory. The focus of this theory is the idea that individuals can be categorized meaningfully as one of the six personality types: Realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and vocational. Individual vocational interests typically differ according to one of the personality types.

It is important to note also that this theory emphasizes that personality types usually develop from activities to dispositions. Early in life, an individual's heredity and experience lead preferences to some activities and opposition to others. Later, those preferences become well-defined interests from which the individual personal satisfaction as well as rewards from others. The pursuit of interests leads to more specialized competencies. These events, a combination of preferences, activities, interests and competencies create a personality type. Personality types are measured by assessment devices using interest items as the expression of personality.

Holland's theory also specifies a hexagonal structure of the degree of psychological similarity among the six personality types, wherein each of the six types appears on one point of the hexagon (Holland, Whitney, Cole & Richards, 1969). Holland's RIASEC novel (1997) defines characteristics believed to correspond with each of the six personality types. Some of the characteristics may be summarized as follows: Realistic; conforming, dogmatic, genuine, hard headed, inflexible, materialistic, persistent, practical, realistic, reserved: Investigative; analytical, cautious, complex, critical, independent, intellectual, precise, rational, reserved, unassuming: Artistic; complicated, disorder, emotional, expressive, imaginative, impulsive, intuitive, non-conforming, open, sensitive: Social; agreeable, cooperative, friendly, helpful, idealistic, kind, patient, responsible, sociable understanding: Enterprising; adventurous, ambitious, domineering, assertive, energetic excitement-Seeking forceful, resourceful, self-confident, optimistic: Conventional; Careful, confirming, conscientious, dogmatic, efficient, methodical, obedient, persistent and thorough thrifty.

The interactions of certain personality types with specific environments predict and explain the behaviors and interactions which occur in the environments (satisfaction, stability, performance). Holland's model implies some change and adjustment in both people and in the environment in which they work and live (Holland, 1994). An individual's career development over the lifespan can be seen as a series of person-environment interacting. The following statements made by Holland, Fritzsche and Powell (1994), provide an overview of the model: people search environment that will allow them to exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values and take on agreeable problems and roles. In summary, people look for good working environments where they can excel. This theory guided objectives four and six of this study.

2.2.5 Social Reciprocity Theory

The social reciprocity theory is the action of rewarding an affirmative action for another positive action (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This involves relationship that brings about obligations to give back. It is a social exchange (Blau, 1964), where employers bestow benefits to employees that creates a feeling of mutual obligations between the employer and employee. It is rewarding kind actions and punishing unkind actions. It is cognizant that people evaluate the kind actions by consequences and the underlying intentions.

The Social reciprocity theory is an inducement model (Marth & Simon, 1958) where the employer offers inducements in return for employee contribution; the employee is satisfied when there is a more significant difference between the inducements offered by the organization and the contribution given in return by the employee. This will elicit long-term cooperation's (Gouldner, 1960), so long as the benefits are valued by the employees (Eisenberger *et al.*, 2001) and promote work-life balance as seen by (Smola & Sutton, 2002). A large body of evidence shows that reciprocity is a commanding determinant of human behavior. It is a powerful method for gaining one's compliance with a request.

Experiments and questionnaire studies performed by economists and psychologists as well as remarkable literature in sociology, anthropology and ethnology emphasize the omnipresence of reciprocal behavior. The sociologist Gouldner (1960) who is the architect of the theory observed that the rule of reciprocity is “no less universal and important an element of culture than the incest taboo.” The essence of reciprocity is very nicely captured in a quote from the Edda, the medieval collection of Icelandic epic poems: “A man ought to be a friend to his friend and repay gift with a gift. People meet smiles with smiles and lies with treachery.”

The quote includes positive reciprocity which is the reward of kind treatment and negative reciprocity which means punishment of an unkind treatment. Importantly, reciprocity means behavior that cannot be justified regarding selfish and purely outcome-oriented references. To avoid terminological confusion the study, therefore, clarify that reciprocity sharply distinguishes from “reciprocal altruism.” Reciprocal altruism is only willing to reciprocate if future rewards are arising from reciprocal actions. The rule of reciprocity has the power to trigger the feeling of the indebtedness even when faced with an uninvited favor and irrespective of liking the person who executed the favour (Gouldner, 1960).

This theory predicts the stylized facts of a wide variety of experimental games. In the ultimatum games, proposers offer between zero and half of the total pie. Rejections are decreasing gain the level of the offer and increasing the strength of the responder’s concern for reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). In the dictator’s game, the theory predicts offers which are lower in the ultimatum game. In the gift-exchange game, the theory predicts a positive relationship between wages and effort levels. Moreover, firms offer above-minimum wages as reported in the experimental literature. In the sequential prisoner’s dilemma theory predict conditional cooperation. Similarly, in public goods games the more subject contributes, the more they expect others to contribute.

Moreover, contribution increases in the marginal capital return on the investment of the public good. Finally, the theory explains why in bilateral relations results tend to be 'fair' whereas in competitive markets extremely unfair distributions may arise. Evidence indicates that many people tend to co-operate if treated fairly and to punish non-co-operators voluntarily. This is called behavioural propensity 'strong reciprocity' and it can lead to almost universal co-operation in the situation which purely self-interest behavior which would lead to a complete breakdown of co-operation (Gouldner, 1960).

Good employee-employer relations results in the improvement of the morale of the employee and can as well lead to improved productivity and profitability. The theory brings out the idea that workers who do not co-operate with their colleagues and also managers are not only rewarded but are also punished and that there is the reward for co-operating and teamwork will lead to the success of the organization. One of the factors listed for influencing retention is co-operation by fellow workers. The employees feel happy and satisfied to stay when they receive co-operation from their co-workers hence decision to stay. This theory guided objectives two, three, five and six of this study.

2.2.6 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework can be defined as a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of inquiry and used to structure the following presentation (Myers, 2013). A conceptual framework shows the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. The independent variables of the study were Human Resource Planning strategy, recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, career development strategy and employee relations strategy. The dependent variable of the study was retention of employees. The study envisaged that the independent variables would influence the dependent variable. A conceptualization of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable are illustrated in figure 2.1.

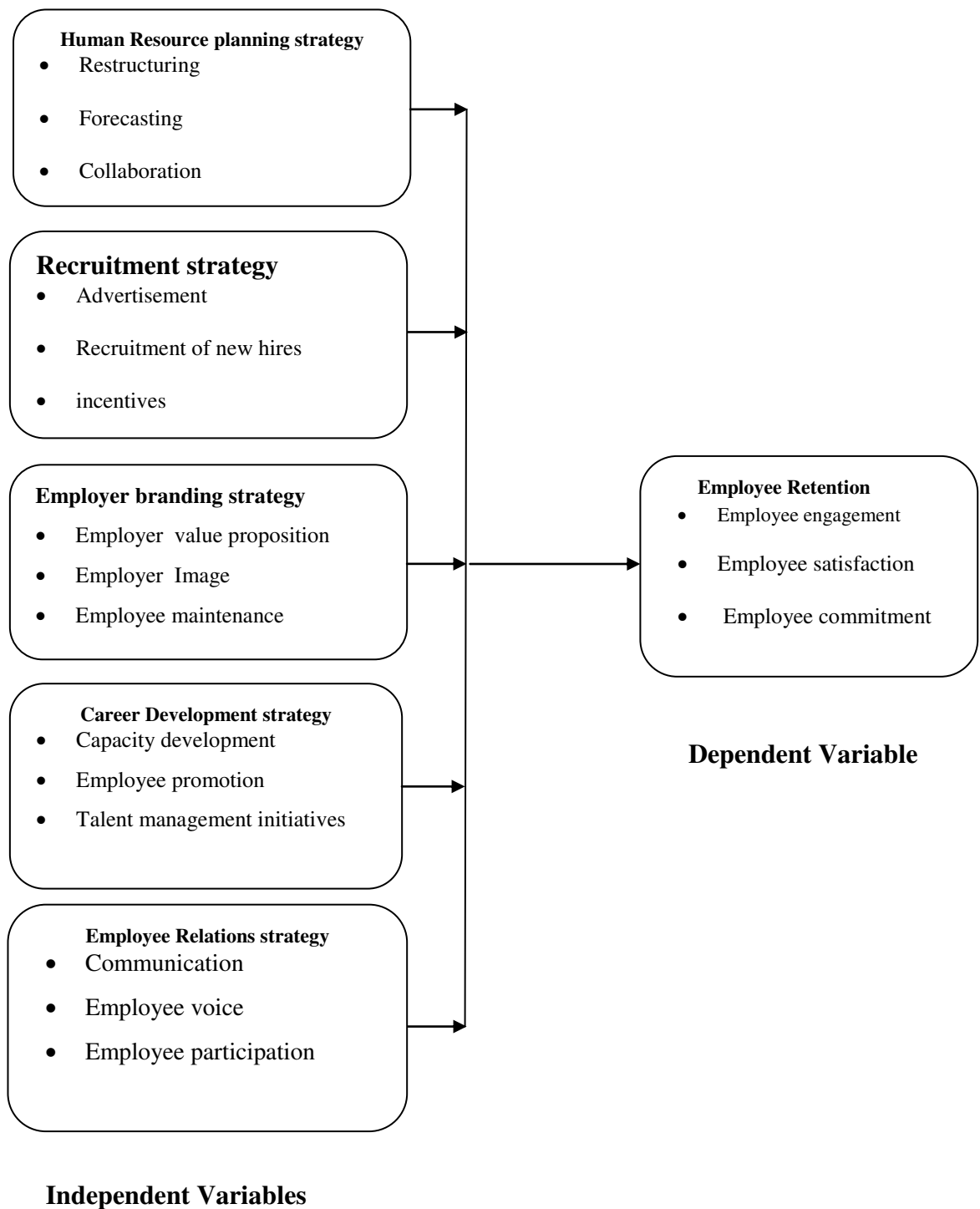


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

2.3 Review of Study Variables

This section describes the conceptual review of study variables.

2.3.1 Human Resource Planning Strategy

According to Armstrong and Taylor, Human Resource Planning strategy refers to anticipating future and environment demands on significant input into strategic plans. Human Resource Planning is a systematic practice of identifying the workforce competencies required to meet the organization's strategic goals and for developing the strategies to meet these requirements. It is a systematic procedure that provides managers with a structure for making Human Resource decisions based on the organization's mission, strategic plan, budgetary resources and a set of desired workforce competencies (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). It is the procedure by which a firm ensures that it has the right number and kinds of the workforce, at the right place, at the right time, that can effectively and efficiently complete those tasks that will help the organization achieve its overall objectives (Decenzo & Robbins, 2009).

Research by the Institute for Employment Studies (Reilly, 2001) stated that there are some reasons why organizations choose to engage in some form of Human Resource Planning. This falls into three broad categories that are: Planning for substantive reasons which are; to have a practical effect by optimizing the utilization of resources and making them more flexible, acquiring and nurturing skills that take time to build up and identifying possible problems and minimizing the chances of making a wrong decision. Secondly, planning because of the process benefits, which involves understanding the present in order to confront the future, challenging assumptions and liberating ideas, making explicit decisions that can later be changed, standing back and providing an overview and ensuring that long-term thinking is not driven out by short term focus and finally planning for organizational reasons, which involves communicating plans such as to obtain support/adherence to them, linking HR plans to business plans so as to inform them, (re) gaining corporate control over operating units and coordinating and integrating organizational decisions making and actions.

According to a study by Farnham (2015), Human Resourcing Planning is essential because it encourages employers to develop clear and explicit links between their business and Human Resource plans and to integrate the two more efficiently. It allows for better control over staffing costs and numbers employed and it enables employers to make informed judgments about the skills and attitude mix in the organization. Human Resource Planning also provides a profile of current staff regarding age, sex, disability, amongst others, to move towards being an equal opportunity organization. Farnham (2015) commented that organizations give a little time to it because of lack of resources and skills, the time and effort required and the absence of relevant data to do so.

Effective and efficient managing of workers requires a broad process known as Human Resource Planning. It constitutes one of the leading strategies to enhance and improve work performances, this it does by detecting deficiencies and preventing deficiencies from occurring. Human Resource Planning helps the organization to tap efficiently talents which will help to incorporate both the individual and organizational objective. This will, as a result, minimize some of the crisis associated with low yields like absenteeism and low labor turnover. An excellent Human Resource Planning must react appropriately to the rapid change in the society and must go beyond forecasting in all aspects of personnel management. The actual planning process will vary a great deal from organization to organization (Seneca, 2007).

In general, the approaches to forecasting Human Resource needs for the organization can be either subjective or objective. The goal of this approach based on the focus of past trends and demands to take into account shifts brought about by changes in organizational goals and technology. Simply projections from the past to show the amount or type of labor required in the future can be related to results from work-study exercises or ratios of customers to staff. Oroni (2006) suggested an integrated system for Human Resource Planning.

He claims that all the planning activities, which he calls perspectives, can interact with one another in intricate ways. However, few insights have been, according to him, reported on such interactions and the impact of these interactions on the resultant Human Resource plans. Oroni (2006) maintains that the critical Human Resource activities include: establishment requirement planning, staff movement planning, personnel assignments, posting projections, succession planning and recruitment, retention, staff promotions, postings and training as the necessary operational Human Resource activities that support Human Resource plans.

The techniques of HR planning are some of the most involved and complicated activities carried out by people resourcing professionals. By contrast, the fundamental principles on which they are found are straightforward, with the potential significance that is readily understood. Approaches to estimating Human Resource requirements have also been found to be few and plagued with methodological and conceptual limitations. One of the key challenges has been the lack of readily accessed workforce database to conduct complete modeling activities such as the use of data on client needs, organizational objectives and management information systems that reflect on output and costs. The field of HR planning also required the variety of human and material resources to inform critical policy decisions related to Human Resource Planning such as visionary leaders who have Human Resource Planning and modeling knowledge and who are familiar with the organization context (O'Brien-Pallas, 2001).

Summarizing the problem, Taylor (2008), noted that be as it may, it is difficult to reject out of hand the belief that some attempts should be made to determine future Human Resource requirements as a basis for strategic planning and action. It would also seem that employers, quite simply, prefer to wait until their view of the future environment clear sufficiently for them to see the whole picture before committing resources in preparation for its arrival.

The perception is that the more complex and turbulent the environment, the more important it is to wait and see before acting. Human Resource Planning is likely to be more appropriate in a stable marketplace, with mostly passive (and static) customers and with scope for long-term forecasting because of the predictability of demographic change.

2.3.2 Recruitment Strategy

According to Peretomode and Peretomode (2001), the efficiency and effectiveness of any workplace whether private or public largely depends on the caliber of the workforce. The availability of competent and effective labor does not just happen by chance but through an articulated recruitment and selection process. Recruitment and selection are essential tools in assisting the human resource managers and the entire company to hire the right people and retain them (O'Brien, 2012). When assessing the ethical considerations in Human Resource Management in Kenya, Githui (2011), observed that most organizations in Kenya are currently facing conspicuous challenges of attracting and retaining qualified personnel.

The starting point of discussion on resourcing typically centers on identifying and filling gaps in the organization. This is the process of recruitment and selection. Several definitions of recruitment and selection have been proposed over the last two decades. For example (Subramaniam et al; 2011) defined recruitment as encompassing all organizational practices and decisions that affect either the number, or types, of individuals that are willing to apply for, or to accept, a given vacancy. A similar definition has been offered by (Vlachos, 2009). According to Surbhi (2015), recruitment is the process of finding out the prospective applicants and stimulating them to apply for the vacancies. It is a long process which involves a series of activities that starts with analyzing the job requirements and ends on the appointment of the employee. On the other hand, Dessler (2007) defines selection as the process of matching people and jobs; the decision-making process in hiring it typically involves multiple interviews and interviewer ratings, and it may make use of performance tests and assessment centers.

According to Subramaniam *et al.* (2011) employee recruitment and selection is the "process of collecting and evaluating information about an individual in order to extend an offer of employment." Selection is an activity in which the organization selects a fixed number of candidates from a large number of applicants. It involves the actual appointment of the employee for fulfilling up the vacancies of the enterprise. The term selection means the placement of the right person at the right job. The process of selection comes after recruitment (Surbhi, 2015). Employee recruitment and selection are hence part of the overall staffing process of the organization, which also includes human resource (HR) planning, recruitment, and retention activities. By doing human resource planning, the organization projects its likely demand for personnel with particular knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs), and compares that to the anticipated availability of such personnel in the internal or external labor markets (Vlachos, 2009).

Recruitment and selection may not necessarily be the first choice available for getting people into an organization. However, it is an option-within an overall strategy, reconfiguring existing resources may be preferable, perhaps as a route to reinforcing the current organizational objectives or signaling changes to the employment relationship in line with changing objectives. Consider internal promotion may offer routes to accommodate emergent skill or knowledge gaps while reinforcing between the employer and valued employee.

Alternatively, work redesign may be facilitated: introducing team working or cross-functional group enabling location-free working and outsourcing or off-shore activities may all provide strategic advantage. A strategic approach requires that consideration is given to where and the choice we can make to enable us to strive towards those goals. When reconfiguration options have either been acted upon or rejected, recruitment and selection options come into play. The recruitment process represents the opening exchanges in the development of the relationship between employee and employer (Surbhi, 2015).

Given the nature of the work environment and the measure issues, it raises, it is inappropriate to consider recruitment as simply a psychometric activity through which the employer pick from a pool of awful prospective employees who best fit the job description. In an area with people with highly developed skills, technology and highly developed economy both the employer and the employee make choices in the course of a two-way dialogue. Recruitment needs to be located within the broad organizational context which informs the strategic choices to be made. As with all strategic decisions, the particular priorities and objectives which dominate any recruitment strategy are a matter of choice rather than predetermination, but the starting point is knowing what is required for the recruitment process. Consider the attributes of potential recruits, requirements of the processes used to identify those candidates such as cost and duration of the process. Recruiters might also wish to consider arrange of what Breough, (2008) describes as post-hire outcomes. Would the recruiters be willing to recruit someone who is 'trainable' into a particular role or do we want someone who will 'bit' the ground running.

Recruiters constrain themselves to think about the numbers and the quality of applicants they receive or the number of the acceptances-proximal outcome of the recruitment process (Higgins & Judge, 2004). While these criteria are important, they are restrictive. If there is no clear view of what is required, it is difficult to develop a sound strategy to achieve the undefined goals (Rynes & Cable, 2003) and whatever strategy may emerge may be at best 'hit and miss' and at worst positively destructive. They also identified three (3) phases of recruitment: generating applicants, maintaining applicant status and influencing job choice. Employers continually report difficulties in recruitment. Over four out of five organizations responding to a recent CIPD survey reported recruitment difficulties, most frequently a lack of necessary specialist skills. Generally, a sufficient and appropriate pool of applicants requires that we consider who our likely applicants are, how to attract their attention and how to communicate with them in a credible and understandable way.

Contemporary working patterns suggest a shift in employment away from long-term loyalty (by either party) and towards individual investment in personal career: profession and development. The range of inducement that can be offered to recruits needs to be considered. While giving ‘Golden hello’ to new recruitment may cause resentment in the organization, across the board provision of benefits and flexible work arrangement could also improve both attraction and retention rates. Personal approaches to recruitment are increasingly popular, e.g. rewards to staff who recruit a friend (Walker, 2007) are seen to have credibility by the potential recruit (Davis & Scully, 2008).

Another significant development in recent recruitment practice has been in the rise of the use of the internet. This has added a further dimension to search, potentially creating a global pool of applicants. The strength of corporate web-based advertising includes its flexibility in being able to provide a consistent and accurate corporate image, ensuring the prospective candidate know what to expect and like what they see. According to the CIPD’s (2006) recruitment, retention and turnover survey, four out of five of the 804 UK organizations surveyed use their corporate websites to attract applicants up from 67% in 2005) and almost, two out of three of recent reports observe the development of 2nd generation web content (web 2.0) in recruitment markets. Blogs and social networking sites have been used by organizations such as Royal Navy and West Yorkshire Police (CIPD, 2007) to contact technologically literate applicants. Traditional recruitment consultants only used to flourish if they maintain a suitable presence in cyber café. The issue of communication to applicants is important.

Another recruitment strategy is the way the organization expresses its offers, as it influences their recruit’s perception of the employer (employers) (Davis & Scully, 2008). For instance the employer should be portrayed in the best possible light. This represents an opportunity for the employer to develop a lasting relationship with the employee.

While organizations may now be less able or willing to provide the long-term commitment to employees as evidenced by the increasing levels of outsourcing and fixed-term contracting, employees themselves may also be moving away from long-term commitments. Valuable employees who no longer see security and long-term attachments are either attractive to available or may instead seek to obtain new satisfaction and fulfillment through short-term organizations and challenges, which, once fulfilled drive them to new challenge and opportunities to exercise their creativity.

Treatment of applicants during the recruitment process, for example, a well-organized and professional site visit will affect whether recruits desire to stay in the process or not. Breugh (2008) supports this view, identifying how situational characteristics and procedural rules including Human Resource policy and selection technologies affect the perceived justice of recruitment and selection process. Candidates form an overall evaluation of the fairness of the process that is based on the extent of which techniques are felt to be job-related; the priorities given to certain issues and consistency in the process. If candidates find a job attractive and believe they are likely to receive a job offer they are more likely to remain in the process.

Particular recruitment action timeline in a job offer is also another critical recruitment strategy that may influence whether the candidates chooses to accept the job or not. A candidate's acceptance of an offer is influenced by his or her preference for selection methods, although issues of job availability and attractiveness and organization image play a significant part. Organizations talent management, recruitment and retention policy can significantly reduce attrition rates (Franckeiss, 2010). It is crucial and challenging to retain talented employees under high unemployment levels. It is essential to retain them because of high training and recruitment costs so organize rounds to retain employees (North, 2011).

2.3.3 Employer Branding Strategy

The fight between major organizations is getting harder, especially now that it is clear that there will be a labor shortage in the near future. However, instead of fighting over talents, organizations need to become an ‘employer of choice’ to get the talents they need, by placing more emphasis on their brand and specifically on their employment brand (Guma, 2011). Changing from fighting the ‘war’ to branding different employment conditions gives the organization the advantage over its competitors of already being a favorable employer. Therefore, if a firm is highly rated on the market, it is seen as an attractive place to work and becomes an ‘employer of choice’ Guma (2011).

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

According to Guma, an ‘employer of choice’ is an employer who is highly regarded by a targeted population of employees because they offer great opportunities in line with niche market with attractive rewards. The term was first used in the early 1990s and has since become adopted by the global management community. Minchington (2010) describes your employer brand as ‘the image of your firm as a great place to work in the mind of current employees and key stakeholders in the external market. The art and science of employer branding is therefore concerned with attraction, engagement and retention initiatives targeted at enhancing employer brand.

Today, firms appear to be expending considerable resources on employer branding campaigns indicating that they have found that effective employer branding leads to competitive advantage, helps employees internalize company values and assist retention of employees. The employer brand put forth an image as a good place to work in.

Human Resources practitioners' literature describes employer-branding as "a step-process." First, a firm develops the "employee value proposition" that is to be embodied in the brand. Using the information on organization's culture, management style, qualities of current employment, current employment image and impressions of product or service quality managers develop a concept of what particular value their company offers employees (Sullivan, 2004). Following the development of what the firm offers to its employees, the value proposition, the firm markets the value proposition to its targeted employees, recruiting agencies and placement counselors.

The value proposition provides the central message that is conveyed by the brand (Barrow & Mosley, 2011). Employer brand management expands the scope of this brand intervention beyond communication to incorporate every aspect of the employment experience and the people management processes and practices that shape up the perceptions of existing and prospective employees (Barrow & Mosley, 2011). In other words, employer brand management addresses the reality of the employment experience and not merely its presentation. By so doing it supports both internal recruitments of the right kind of talent sought by an organization to achieve its goals and the subsequent desire for effective employee engagement and retention.

Internal marketing of the employer brand is the third aspect of employer branding. This is important because it carries the brand promise made to recruits into the firm and incorporates it as part of the organizational culture (Papasolomou, & Vrontis, 2006).

Internal marketing also focuses on communicating the customer brand promise and the attitudes and behaviour expected from employees to deliver on that promise (Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006). While it is clear to the organization for employees to understand their role in delivering the customer brand promise (Mitchell, 2002), the effectiveness of internal marketing activities can often be short-lived if the brand values on which the service experience is founded are not experienced by the employees in their interactions with the organization.

According to Mosley (2007) this is the gap that employer brand thinking and practice seeks to address with a more mutually beneficial employment deal/psychological contract. External marketing of the employer brand establishes the firm as an employer of choice and thereby enable it to attract the best possible workers. Employer brand equity propels applicants to apply and also encourages existing employees to support the organization (Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2006). In other words, potential or existing employees will react differently to similar recruitment, selection and retention efforts from different firms because of the underlying employer brand equity associated with particular firms.

According to Rousseau (2001), adequate organizational information helps reduce/improve the accuracy of the perception by the recruits about the firm or about employment in general. Employer branding has a potential to attract the human capital that best fits to the strategic aims and bottom line of organizations (Martin, 2011). Research indicates that potential employees have expressed a preference for working in a particular industry either based on the products or services offered (e.g. the airline industry) or by the preferred tasks (e.g. Marketing, finance (Wilden, 2010). Employer branding is not undertaken in isolation from other brand activities or independently of employees. Taylor (2010), states that it has become harder to attract talents and companies have to make long-term employer branding strategies.

The use of a well-designed website has been used by Thai universities to efficiently communicate employer's brand as it related to attracting and retaining talented academic staff in Thai universities (Kidrakarin, 2014).

Most of the research on employer branding follow the idea that employer branding to be successful it needs to be fully integrated process in the organization. Punjasairi and Wilson (2008) further strengthen this point by emphasizing that employer branding denote elements from both the marketing and HR department and are: excellent communication and corporation between departments and top management. Capon (2009) state that communication is one of those challenges for the organization to achieve a healthy brand. Wilden, Gudergan and Lings, (2010) states that it is crucial to align hiring practices with employer branding.

Kryger, Esmann and Thomsen (2011) states employer branding benefits: Firms with a strong employer brand exhibit a number of feature: high recognition, positive image in the labor, adherences market to the promises of the psychological contract, unique economic and symbolic features that are available to potential employees, accurate differentiation as an employer, stable policies and activities for positioning the company in the labour market (Kucherov & Zavyalova, 2012). Much of the empirical work on employer branding has been conducted in Western countries specifically Europe and the U.S (Ong, 2011). In one of a relatively non-western study, Arachchige & Robertson (2011) explained a sample of final-year business course students in Sri Lanka and identified eight (8) attributes that constitute the employer brand. These attributes are: the corporate environment, job structure, social environment, relationship, personal growth, organizational dynamism and engagement.

Kucherov and Zavyalova (2012) concluded that culture and experiment benefits were thus two main attractors for current and potential employees in their study. Wilden, (2010) identifies that potential recruits seek information about recruiting organization beyond that provided by the organization. Wilden, (2010) also reported that applications with more work experience were more cynical about employer branding.

These findings highlight the need for employers to communicate the appropriate brand message to the recruitment market and that specific rather than general information might be more compelling (Huang, 2011; Wilden 2010). Employer branding is an essential component, particularly in generation Y attraction. It is good enough to emphasize how important it is to consider the impression potential candidates might get out of your company, even when you are not talking directly to them.

Generation Y has access to more information than any generation. They will research the organization and form opinion. However, attraction can be expensive, particularly when it does not yield desired results. There is, therefore, the need to attract generation Y. Research has shown a definitive link between an organization's employment brand and its financial performance. A recent study of publicly branded companies on "FORTUNE'S" Best companies to work in America's list by Professors at Michigan State University and the University of Wisconsin-Madison showed a connection between the strategy of developing an attractive workplace and performing financially well. An effective employment brand will likely increase engagement, reduce costs associated with turnover and improve retention in internal and external labor market (Kucherov & Zavyalova, 2012).

2.3.4 Career Development Strategy

Career development is an organized planning method used to match employee goals with the business needs of an organization. It consists of activities undertaken by the individual employees and the organization to meet career aspirations and job requirements. Career development may occur within a single usually large organization; through a person moving between organizations; or by a mixture of the two. The most important requirement of career development is that every employee must accept his or her responsibility for development (Armstrong, 2014).

According to Baer, Flexer, Luft and Simmons (2008), an individual's career development is a life-time process that encompasses the growth and change process of childhood, the formal career education at school and the maturational processes that continue throughout a person's working, adulthood and into retirement.

Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2009) explain that a career consists of different stages and the individual is confronted with different issues during each of these stages. As cited in Adeniji and Osibanjo (2012), the term "career" denotes different people. A career can be defined as a pattern of career experiences comprising of entire lifespan of a person and which is seen in some phases or stages reflecting the transition from one stage to the next. A career is also a related series of jobs in an ascending order of status and responsibility. In today's competitive market, successful organization regardless of size need employees who have the necessary knowledge and skills to make an effective contribution as drivers towards achieving a competitive edge in the organization. Therefore, vision of a competent, confident, loyal and valued workforce delivering high quality, person-centered services is rightly ambitious.

Armstrong (2014) agrees and points out that today's dynamic environment require continuous professional and managerial development. Stakeholders should put in place, if not already available, a range of structures and processes to support the development of the workforce they need now and for the future. Rao, Rao, & Yadav (2007) concur and argue that career development of employees should be seen as an investment, not a cost; and that bad performance, ignorance and low commitment to duty are very costly barriers in an organization. It is pointed out that the key to high levels of performance lies in having employees who are willing to work, are well managed, well led, well-motivated and are always re-skilling. Career development is often used to close the gap between current performances and expected future performance. Career development has increasingly become attractive to organizations that aim at improving performance and productivity.

According to Demirel (2009), the necessity to cope with rapid changes in science and technology in the 21st century, consumer demands that are changing rapidly and the necessity to adjust to the pre-requisites of the knowledge economy has brought about the need for lifelong learning. Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2006) explain that the 21st-century changes require workers to develop skill and competencies that differ substantially from the knowledge and `abilities required in the 20th century. Light, Calkins and Cox (2009) explains that this will require a personal commitment to lifelong learning, coupled with a willingness to reinvent oneself as often as possible and necessary to keep up with the world of work. Rahman and Nas (2013) assert that the purpose of employee development programs is to improve employee capabilities which lead to increased productivity for them and their team thus sustaining a competitive position for their organizations.

Business leaders, managers and employers worldwide understand that they cannot obtain a good performance from their employees in a platform where both personal career management and organizational career management practices are absent. They have realized that developing new methods are necessary and they have to make a fundamental change in this matter. Otherwise, it is likely that their competitors will discover the secret power of workers and take action already. One of the roles of the human resource department is to help employees consider potential career routes (Armstrong, 2014). A debate has raged among scholars on the determination of the party chargeable for career development. There is a unit those that see it as being the responsibility of the staff. Another unit sees it as being the responsibility of the organization (Kulvisaechana, 2006). Bakker and Demerouti (2008), whereas, supporting the individual effort in career development also demands corporate structure involvement within the career development of its staff and leader support for career development which will increase workers' trust, job satisfaction, lower turnover intentions and usually improve leader performance. Research shows that employees favor personal development over career progression.

Career development is employee-owned, manager facilitated and organization supported. Organizations need to realize that positive career development for their workforce is a way of helping to attract and retain the best people. Career development creates opportunities for promotion within an organization and provides an opportunity for training and skill development that allows employees to improve their employability hiring on the external and internal labor market (Stahl, Björkman, Farndale, Morris, Paauwe, Stiles & Wright, 2012). Modern organizations need their employees to adapt to constant changes with a minimal amount of disruption and they turn to constant employee development. In addition, this creates opportunity for employees to grow in their profession and to achieve a distinguished career (Bolagun, 2005). Ongori and Agolla (2009) contend that lack of personal growth in organization results in career plateau which in turn leads to increased employee intention to quit. Strategies should be put in place by leaders for effective career development in organizations. There is a need for organizations to play a severe role in supporting employees' career development programs to confirm reciprocal smart performance.

Employees career advancement is a phenomenon which is formalized, organized and it is planned effort to accomplish the balance between the requirement of organization workforce and individual career needs. Armstrong (2009) concurs when he asserts that lack of clear career path or development is a significant cause of poor employee retention. To maintain a stable workforce, employers should learn to plan to provide career opportunities by providing employees with more full expectations, encouraging promotion from within and developing equitable promotion procedures (Armstrong, 2009). Sinha and Sinha (2012) say that the purpose of career planning as part of an employee development program is not only to help employees feel like their employer is investing in them, but also to help people manage the many aspects of their lives and deal with the fact that there is not a clear promotion track. Employers can no longer promise job security, but they can help people maintain the skills they need to remain viable in the job market.

Career opportunities may include the internal and external career options that an employee may have. Internal career opportunities may be in the employee's current organization, for example, a promotion or movement to a different position within the same organization. External career opportunities would mean obtaining a position at another organization (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs 2012).

Rahman and Nas (2013) assert that the purpose of employee development programmes is to improve employee capabilities which lead to increased productivity for them and their team thus sustaining a competitive position for their organizations. To gain and maintain competitive advantage organization required talented & productive employees and these employees need career development to enhance and cultivate their competencies (Prince, 2005). CIPD (2014) Employee management award survey of 2,500 workers shows that employers are fallen short on the management of staff expectation and suggest employee defection. Employers can avoid this by integrating key features of career development support in the workplace which include: structured career mapping to put the solid plan in place; leadership development to cultivate individual to take the change of project, succession planning or preparing current employees to fill a higher position and online learning to skill development.

Reitman and Benatti (2014) have demonstrated how career development programs support retention of employees. Accordingly, organizational leaders can use the following strategies to guide the development of career development programs: Open door conversation about career enduring, annual or regular programs evaluation talks with management and promote the idea of career lattice. Career lattice encourages sideways moves in addition to upward movements. Career development strategy will help universities identify staff career paths, capacity development programs and to provide opportunities for their employees to grow and prevent stagnation in their careers). Empirical investigations have also shown that organizational career development for employees reinforces optimism in employees to perform their jobs more effectively.

Previous studies on career development in public universities in Kenya indicate that 80% of employees leave their jobs for lack of career progression. Lack of career progression after training is a problem in most universities. If a solution to this problem is not found then motivation of employees will be seriously affected, labour turnover will be on the rise and productivity of employees will also be affected (Caroline, 2014). However, in recent times, low staff retention, high level of staff turnover and brain drain has been identified as the main problems confronting most African Universities, Kenya inclusive (Tettey, 2006). It is estimated that some 23,000 qualified academic staff are emigrating from Africa each year in search of better working conditions in developed countries (Hayes, 2015).

2.3.5 Employee Relations Strategy

Employees are among an organization's most important resources and coined as most valuable assets (Ongori, 2013). So maintaining healthy employee relations in an organization is a pre-requisite for any organization in order to achieve growth and success. There are three key elements to the Human Resource Management approach to employee relations. The first one is a drive for commitment which is concerned with winning the 'hearts and minds' of employees to get them to identify with the organization, to exert themselves more on its behalf and to remain with the organization, thus ensuring a return on their training and development. Secondly, an emphasis on mutuality which is about getting the message across that 'we are all in this together' and that the interests of management and employees coincide (that is a unitarist approach). Finally, the organization of complementary forms of communication such as team briefings, alongside traditional collective bargaining, that is, approaching employees directly as individuals or in groups rather than through their representatives (Guest, 1987).

However, there are four critical elements for achieving effective employee relations in an organization. First and foremost, organizations should understand the current state of their employee relations by addressing the following four areas: (a) developing employee relations strategy areas such as altering the forms of recognition, including single-union recognition or de-recognition, making changes in the form and content of procedural agreements, new bargaining structures, including decentralization or single-table bargaining, the achievement of increased levels of commitment through involvement or participation, deliberately by-passing trade union representatives to communicate directly with employees, flexibility, trust and generally improving employee relations climate (b) deliberately ensuring that line managers have the capacity such as training in labour relations, dispute resolutions and conflict management, resources and autonomy (c) providing employee voice and (d) providing employee communication systems.

According to the Werhane and Royal (2009), many employers missed a defined and communicated employee relations strategy. They instead take comfort from an HR strategy without thinking about the type of employer they want to be and how that will be delivered. An effective employee relations strategy will enable the organization to meet its objectives, give clarity to managers and determine the best way to capture an employee voice. According to Werhane and Royal (2009), employee relations strategy flows from the objectives and the goals of the organization, it sets out style of employee relations to fit the organization now and in the future, bearing in mind the changes and challenges it is facing. Only once the strategy has been agreed, can the work on management capability, the employee voice and communication start.

All these items are potentially included in a strategy and of particular importance is the need for the strategy to be regularly assessed and reviewed. CIPD (2011), states that managing the employment relationships rests, heavily on the shoulders of line managers, but their competence in this area is seriously neglected. Line managers sit at the heart of the relationship between the employer and the employee.

Managers must have the capability and tools to be able to manage employee effectively. They are integral to creating the culture where employees are encouraged to file their views because their managers are receptive to feedback. While setting up a formal mechanism is important especially if organizations wish to get a collective view of plans and proposals. True employee voice is embedded in the organizational culture and listens, captures and responds to the views of individuals and teams of employees complimenting the formal structures, managers actively and informally want to hear their employees' views; therefore it is increasingly important that employees feel genuinely listened to by line managers and senior managers. Some employers use a union or unions, as the main mechanism for the employee voice. In workplaces where a union is present, employers are not precluded from creating another mechanism for listening and responding to employee concerns that represent non-union members. In some organizations, there are effective 'hybrid' structures where union representatives and employee representative take part together and others that operate separately.

The more extensive the range of voice systems used in organizations the more likely it is that manager report benefits, from increased output to declining absenteeism (Sission, 2000), quoted in "voice and participation" in workplaces. Other elements of employee voice are participation. As Williams and Adam-Smith (2006), explain, the term "participation" refers to arrangement that give workers some influence over organizational and workplace decisions, involvement, which is the process through which management allows employees to discuss with them issues that affect them. Further, the two suggest that this term is most widely applied to management initiatives that are designed to further the flow of communication at work as a means of enhancing the organizational commitment of employees. The two take the form of joint consultation, representation and upward communication and attitude surveys. Employers can also build trust and understanding through internal communication. Yet many shy away from communicating. On the whole, employee wants to feel connected and proud of their employer.

Employees will be unhappy with disjointed and inconsistent messages. Management capability is the cornerstone of effective internal communication. There are many forms of communication including social media and e-mail.

2.3.6 Retention of Employees

Long term health and success of any organization depends upon retention of its key employees. According to Kochachathu (2010), employee satisfaction and retention are the key factors for the success of the organization. Therefore, retention of its core staff members must be a strategic priority of every organization's top management. Retention of employees is perhaps the most elusive challenge facing modern day managers because of the shortage of skilled workers, economic growth and high employee turnover (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013).

The cost of employee turnover can be considerable to an organisation. The CIPD (2008a) established on a small sample that the average cost per employee was \$5800, rising to \$20,000 for senior managers. The cost of turnover include: direct cost of recruiting replacements (advertising, interviewing, testing etc.), Induction cost, direct cost of training replacements in necessary skills, leaving cost-payroll and HR administration, opportunity cost of time spent by HR and line managers in recruitment, induction and training, loss of output from those leaving, loss of output because of the delays in obtaining replacements, loss of output when new starters are on their learning curves acquiring the necessary knowledge and skills. Other consequences of turnover include sharing of organizations methods, technology and clients competitors. It is costly, disruptive drain resources and causes early inefficiency (Harting, 2008; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). The turnover of key employees can have a disproportionate impact on the business. The potential employees the organization wishes to retain are often the ones most likely to leave. Thus, there is a significant economic impact when an organization loses any of its critical employees as this could have the adverse effect on profitability and productivity service.

Many researchers have tried to answer the question as to what determines employee's intention to quit out of their positions by investigating possible antecedents of employees' intention to quit. Until to date, there has been little consistency in finding which is partly due to the diversity of the employed included by the researchers and their lack of consistency in findings According to Dries and Permans (2008), organizations with policies that are future oriented and strategic might be aware of this problem and can take action to address it. Retention takes into account issues affecting the organization including finding and accepting ways of the reality or as mentioned by Aldrich (2008), that the market, not the company will ultimately determine the movement of employees. The market sets the stage for job options and governs the employment relationships (Jo, 2008).

The main purpose of retention is to prevent competent, skilled and competent committed employees from leaving the organization as this could have adverse effect on profitability, productivity, service delivery and job performance (Schneider & Bowen, 2010). The skilled and committed will also secure quality and quantity of the goods and services they provide thus helping maintain competitive advantage. Concerted efforts should be made to retain talented employees. It is also necessary to encourage the greatest contribution from existing talent and to value them accordingly.

Retention strategy should be based on an understanding of factors that affect whether or not employees leave or stay. For early-career employees (30 years and below) career advancement is significant. For mid-career employees (age 31-50) the ability to manage their careers and satisfaction from their work is important. Later career employees (age 50 and above) would be interested in job security. Younger workers also tend to change their jobs more often than the older workforce and workforces with lots of part-timers are less stable than those predominantly full-time staff.

Employees are likely to remain with an organization only if they believe that the organization shows more interest and concern for them, if they know what is expected of them, if they are given a role that fits their capabilities and if they receive a regular positive feedback and recognition (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013). Managing retention of promising employees is considered a fundamental means of gaining competitive advantage (Myskova, 2011). Research finds that losing such an employee means a loss of investment in that a new employee has to be recruited and trained. Worse still, when skilled employees leave they take a lot of knowledge and hence an organization will be at risk of losing confidential information to their competitors (Frank, 2004).

Agrela, (2008) states the need to focus on the factors that affects retention leading to growth and success of organizations. Studies suggests that retention strategies, which effectively satisfy the needs of all employees consequently enhances the ability for companies to adapt more effectively to ongoing organizational change (Gale Group, 2006). Research shows that trends redefining modern retention strategies go beyond the traditional salary and benefits package (Gale Group, 2006) and compensation embracing employee motivation, as one of the key factors to cater to the diversity and long stay of the workforce in the organization.

Retention factors incorporating the needs and desires of employees at any age enhance levels of individual job satisfaction, loyalty and commitment (Boomer Authority, 2009). Cunningham (2002) states that employees rank employee recognition, flexibility and training as top priorities for prolonging individual employment, while Walker (2001) and others call for establishing a supportive learning and working climate for employee retention. Further, career development (Boomer Authority 2009), organizational commitment (Owens, 2006), communication (Gopinath & Becker, 2000) and superior-subordinate relationship (Zenger, Ulrich & Smallwood, 2000) are also the factors known for prolonged stay of the employees in the organization.

Sinha and Sinha (2012), identified the following as retention factors: Training and development, supervisor support, career opportunities, skill variety work life policies, job autonomy, job challenge and salary while Hausknecht, Rodda and Howard (2009), categories retention tools into two: Human Resource factors which include: person-organization fit, remuneration, training and development and career opportunities: Organizational factors which include: Leadership behavior teamwork team-work relationship, company culture, work environment and communication. Kehr (2004) divided the retention factors into three variables: Power, achievement and affiliation. Dominance and social (control) represent power. When personal performance exceeds set standards, it represents achievements and affiliation refers to the social relationship which is established and intensified. While retention strategies across different occupational groups and industries have many common features, such as competitive pay, good working environment and progressive Human Resource policies that offer opportunities for advancement, they need to be context-specific and evidence based (Tithe, 2006).

Hytter (2008) found that factors such as personal promises of loyalty, trust, commitment, identification and attachment with the organization have a direct influence on retention of employees. Further, she explained that workplace factors such as rewards, leadership style, career opportunities, the training and development of skills, physical working conditions and the balance between professional and personal life have an indirect influence. Pritchard (2007) was of the opinion that training and development is one of the important retention programs incorporated in an effort to retain employees.

Guma (2011) confirms that poor Job retention among employees lead to many costs associated with employee turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, which include additional burden on remaining staff, recruitment and training costs, lost productivity, loss of clients and loss of intellectual capital. Higher turnover can cost a company 30-50% of the annual salary of entry-level employees.

Kenya is losing its professional and technical staff to Europe, South Africa, Namibia and Botswana; (Waswa and Katana, 2008, Waithaka, 2012 and Hayes, 2015) who stated that a large number of academic staffs in public universities have resigned and left for better offers elsewhere. Guma (2011) stated that in particular Kenyan public universities do not retain and have weak retention policies.

Hence every organization must strive to manage retention. They must strive to make staff retention a strategic responsibility and priority (Piennner, 2008). Therefore, an appropriate understanding of employees' expectations of their working environment is a critical issue in Higher Education Institution's ability to retain their key employees; hence the problem of staff retention is a global one which affects both developing and industrialized countries (Bushe, 2012). By understanding the nature of the retention problems, HEI can decide whether or not to adopt targeted retention initiatives to manage overall levels so that there is sufficient labor (Musah & Nkuah, 2013).

Hausknecht, Rodda and Howard (2009), note that despite vast literature on employee turnover which is aimed at identifying factors that cause employees to quit, much less is still known about factors that compel employees to stay. For universities retention of employees' strategy should aim at keeping current workforce which is particularly important in a competitive global labor market. In conclusion, worldwide, retention of a skilled employee has been of serious concern to managers in the face of ever increasing a high rate of employees' turnover. Today's business environment has become very competitive thus making skilled employees the major differentiating factor for most organizations. Organizations, both public and private rely on the major expertise of their employees in order to compete favorably and indeed gain a competitive advantage in the international market.

2.4 Empirical Literature Review

This describes the previous research studies that have been carried out and relate to this study.

2.4.1 Human Resource Planning Strategy and Retention of Employees.

Without clear-cut planning, estimation of organization's Human Resource needs is reduced to simple presumption. Human resource planning strategy will help universities to identify the right numbers and qualities of the workforce that they require for teaching, research and innovation development. A study by Armstrong and Taylor (2014) established that Human Resource planning strategies are vital in organizations and retention of employee's initiatives taken by management to keep employees from leaving the organization, such as rewarding employees for performing their jobs effectively; ensuring harmonious working relations between employees and managers; and maintaining a safe and healthy work environment are vital.

In a study by Ngui, Mukulu and Gachunga, (2014), which adopted the mixed method approach utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods, it was concluded that there is a positive significant relationship between strategic human resourcing and employee performance among employees of Commercial Banks in Kenya. The study also recommended that Commercial Banks should develop and document Human Resource Planning strategies that are linked with the overall banks strategy. Finally, a study by Muoki (2012), on challenges of Human Resource planning at the Ministry of Public Health and Sanitation in the Republic of Kenya, observed that there were challenges in implementing Human Resource planning strategies such as poor remuneration, allowances, health schemes and non-uniform house allowance across all the regions and the study recommended that the Ministry should adopt Human Resource planning strategy on staff development in order to attract and retain talent.

2.4.2 Recruitment Strategy and Retention of Employees

Time and communication are important in recruitment process. A study by Greenberg, Greenberg and Antonucci (2007), observed that delayed communication throughout the recruitment process increases uncertainty and suggests that, it may be taken as a sign that the organization does not have much interest in the candidates best practices for example retention would be by recruiting the right person in the right place (Oracle White Paper, 2012) and keeping them engaged so that they will not leave the organization (Bhatnagar, 2008). Another study by Ongori (2013) concluded that employees are the long-term investments in an organization and as such management should encourage job redesign, task autonomy, task significance and task identity, open book management, empowerment of employees, recruitment and selection must be done scientifically with the objective of retaining and decreasing turnover. A study by Frankeisis, (2010) found that the organization talent management, recruitment and retention policy can significantly reduce attraction rates.

Finally, a study by Hay recruiting experts worldwide (2016) says; candidate's attraction, recruitment and retention is becoming increasingly important as the skills shortage worsens and generation X begin to retire. The goal of any attraction and retention strategy is to satisfy the needs and desires of the required workforce. Branding and promoting what your organization can offer and demonstrating honesty and respect are all part of the recruiting and retaining equation as well as promoting the ongoing learning and learning what your company provides.

2.4.3 Employer Branding Strategy and Retention of Employees

There are a number of qualitative and quantitative studies on employer branding and its relationship to attracting and retaining staff. Studies by Kucherov and Zavyalova (2012), examined Russian companies, mines in Russia, farm industries including IT telecommunications, professional services, oil and gas and banking. 18 of 123 organizations were ranked as "best employers" and consequently were deemed to have strong employer branding.

The remaining 95 organizations were not ranked as ‘best employers’ and were deemed to have weak employer branding. Organizations with strong employer branding invested more in training and development activities and had staff turnover ratio of 6% lower, engaged more in collaborative-decision-making with smart and in supportive management processes, thus promoting a positive image to the internal and external labor market (Kuchеров & Zavyalova, 2012).

A global study conducted by CLC find effective employer branding enables organizations to reach into a deeper part of talent (Corporate Leadership Council, 2004). Another study of more than 58,000 new hires and tenured employees from 90 organizations found that organizations with managed employment and employer brands are able to source from more than 60% of the labor force, while those with unmanaged brands can source only 40%. Finally, in a study by Collins and Han (2004) successful employer branding has been shown to increase the quantity and quality of job applicants and contributes to the bottom-line of a firm in a number of ways (Fumer, 2003). Specifically, employer branding reduces the costs of recruitment through better communication with potential employees; it contributes to retention of employees and thus reduces the cost of turnover and enhances employee engagement and corporate culture (Fumer, 2003).

2.4.4 Career Development Strategy and Retention of Employees

Career development opportunities and training have a direct effect on employee retention. A study by Tabassi, Ramli and Bakar, (2012) observed that the challenge of the HR professionals is to identify and develop the career development practices which would improve the commitment of employees as they would feel valued; helping the organizations to retain the employees as they would be motivated to work hard and enthusiastically.

Secondly, since organizations have realized that the development of employee has to take a center stage as a crucial business strategy, a study by Meyer (2003), conducted to examine the mechanism involved in observed relations between Human Resource Management practice and employee commitment showed that internal career development of employees is often the best predictor of effective employee commitment which will likely enhance retention.

A study by Prince (2005) found that talented employees are required for maintaining a competitive advantage and employees want career growth opportunities to develop and rise in their career ladder. Such plans include advancement plans, internal promotion and accurate career previews at the time of hiring. In another study by Eyster (2008), explored to identify the main factors of retention management strategies in two organizations based in India and in which data was collected from 100 employees holding middle level managerial positions, found that job flexibility along with lucrative career and life options are a critical incentive for all employees. In this study, the alpha coefficient was found to stand at 0.8342 by the researcher indicating the internal reliability was high. A study by Yamamoto (2006) has also shown that employees who have attained career plateau have a higher degree of intention to quit due to reduced opportunities in the present organization. Finally, previous studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between the career development practices and employees' retention at public universities in Kenya (Abbas, 2014; Oduma, 2014; Monis & Sreedhara, 2011).

2.4.5 Employee Relations Strategy and Retention of Employees

Employee relations strategy can help an organization to retain their employees. A research study by CIPD (2011) has shown that the informal workplace climate appears to have a stronger influence than collective consultation machinery on employee satisfaction and commitment. Studies by Purcell and Georgiades (2007) also concluded that voice systems which combine direct forms of involvement with indirect voice via representative bodies are strongly associated with higher levels of organizational commitment.

A study by Watson Wyatt Worldwide (2009-2010) demonstrated that companies that focus on effective employee communication achieve up to 47% higher returns. It therefore helps organizations to set out their goals so that employees understand where they fit in. In yet another study by Noah (2008), it was also established that employee involvement in decision making helps in creating a sense of belonging among employees which leads to creating a good congenial working environment and contributes towards building a good employer-employee relationship. Finally, in a study conducted by Sturgers & Guest (2001) their research explored the factors influencing employed graduates and their decisions to stay or leave their first employer. This study used a conceptual framework to assess organizational commitment. The results provided a deeper understanding of employee relations and how leadership can maximize organizational retention.

2.5 Critique of the Existing Literature Review Relevant to the Study

In his study Armstrong & Taylor (2014) as well as Decenzo & Robbins (2009), agree with the findings emphasizing that organizations ought to guarantee that they have the correct number and in addition, sorts of individuals, at the ideal place, at the perfect time, that can successfully and proficiently complete those undertakings that will help the organizations accomplish its general targets. These findings also concur with the ones of Rao, Rao, and Yadav (2007). Reilly (2001) expressed that there are various reasons why organizations participate in some type of human asset arranging and they fall into three general classes, that is: planning for substantive reasons, planning because of the process benefits and planning for organizations. Human Resource Planning is imperative since it urges managers to grow clear and express connections between their business and HR arranges and to incorporate the two all the more viably (Farnham, 2007). In a study by Muoki (2012), , she watched that there were difficulties in actualizing human asset arranging procedures.

In this study, Githui (2011) established that most organizations in Kenya are as of now confronting prominent difficulties of drawing in and holding qualified employees. In his study about recruitment strategy (Surbhi, 2015) established that recruitment and selection may not really be the main decision accessible, but rather might be the choice inside a general system, reconfiguring existing assets might be best, maybe as a course to fortifying the current hierarchical destinations or flagging changes to the work relationship in accordance with changing targets. In his study Ongori (2007), also found that the main causes of high turnover in an organization are poor personnel policies and poor recruitment policies in particular.

In their study, Rynes and Cables (2001), established that specific recruitment activity timeliness in employment offer may impact whether the applicants acknowledges the occupation but hopefuls acknowledgment of an offer is affected by his or her inclination for choice strategies, in spite of the fact that issues of employment accessibility and allure and organizations picture plainly have a noteworthy influence. Postponed correspondence all through the procedure builds vulnerability and they recommended that it might be taken as a sign that the organizations does not have much enthusiasm for the applicants best practices for instance maintenance would be by selecting the ideal individual in the correct place; which is in agreement with the findings of a study carried out by Oracle White Paper (2012) and keeping them drew in with the goal that they won't leave the organization.

According to the findings of a study by Franckeiss (2010), he established that organizations' ability administration, enlistment and maintenance arrangement can essentially diminish whittling down rates. In agreement, in his study, North (2011), also found out that it is critical and hard to hold skilled workers under high unemployment levels; as well as vital to hold them as a result of high preparing and enlistment costs so sort out rounds to hold workers.

Regarding the employer branding strategy, Sullivan (2004), in his study established that utilizing the information on organizational culture, administration style, characteristics of current work, current business picture and impressions of item or administration quality supervisors; build up an idea of what specific esteem their organization offers representatives is essential for firms. In agreement Wilden (2010), in their study found that the potential representatives have communicated an inclination for working in a specific industry either in light of the items or administrations offered (e.g. the carrier business) or by the favored errands and recommended that employer branding should be undertaken and from other brand activities or independently of employees.

In their study, Kucherov and Zavyalova (2012) also concluded that culture and experiment benefits were thus two main attractors for current and potential employees. As per the findings of a study carried out by Demirel (2009), there is need to adapt to fast changes in science and innovation in the 21st century and the need to acclimate to the pre-essentials of the information economy has realized the requirement for long lasting learning in regard to the career development strategy. The findings of CIPD (2014) are in agreement that employee management award survey of 2500 workers illustrated that employers are fallen short on the management of staff expectation and suggest employee defection which interferes with the career development strategy.

Additionally, Reitman and Benatti, (2014), in their study illustrated how career development programs bolster worker's maintenance as they express those authoritative pioneers can utilize the accompanying procedures to direct the advancement of profession improvement programs in opening entryway discussion about vocation persevering. As per the findings of Bolagun (2005), modern organizations need their employees to adapt to constant changes with a minimal amount of disruption and they turn to constant employee development. In addition, this creates opportunity for employees to grow in their profession and to achieve a distinguished career. These findings are in agreement with those of Demirel (2009).

Furthermore, the findings of previous studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between the career development practices and employees' retention at public universities in Kenya (Abbas, 2014; Oduma, 2014; Monis & Sreedhara, 2011). Hayes (2015) also found that qualified academic staffs are emigrating from Africa each year in search of better working conditions in developed countries. These studies confirm the study by Caroline (2014). The findings of a study by Werhane and Royal (2009), recommended that employee relations ought to be viewed as comprehensive, every part is key for businesses in the event that they wish to get the best out of their kin, enhance efficiency, increment optional exertion and decrease the time it takes to oversee individuals issues and hierarchical change. In their study, Purcell and Georgiades (2007) indicated that the more broad the range or voice frameworks utilized as a part of organizations the more probable it is that supervisor report benefits, from expanded yield to declining non-appearance which is convergent with the findings of (CIPD, 2011), indicating that setting up a formal mechanism is important especially if organizations wish to get a collective view of plans and proposals. Research has shown that the informal workplace climate appears to have a stronger influence than collective consultation machinery on employee satisfaction and commitment.

With regard to employee relations strategy the unitary and the pluralistic views explain the basis of the relationship between the management and trade union. The unitary view is that management has all the authority while the pluralistic view sees the enterprise as a place where the two groups should work together in harmony. Currently, the new Human Resource Management approach mode to employee relations has also been introduced and tried. This model emphasizes mutuality and commitment "winning the heart and minds of employees". The message in this approach is that "we are all in this together" and the interest of management and employees coincide.

2.6 Summary of Literature Reviewed

The chapter presents a theoretical review focusing on the human capital theory which suggested that education or training raises the productivity of employees by imparting useful skills and knowledge, hence raising workers' future income by increasing their lifetime earnings; resource based view theory which provided that a wider range of resources in a firm, including its Human Resources produced its unique character and created the competitive edge; Herzberg's two factor theory which argued that employees are motivated by internal values rather than values that are external to their day to day operations; Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environment which emphasized on the examination of the different aspects of the person-environment fit; and the social reciprocity theory which proved that reciprocity is a commanding determinant of human behavior; all of which supported the study variables including the Human Resource Planning strategy, recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, career development strategy, employee relations strategy and retention of employees.

A conceptual framework was also presented which showed the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable of the study. The chapter also presented an empirical review of the variables of the study. Additionally, the chapter presented a critique of the literature review relevant to the study and identified the research gaps that precipitated the study.

2.7 Research Gaps

Despite the vast studies on retention, Hausknecht (2009), noted that literature on employee turnover which is aimed at identifying factors that caused employees to quit, much less is still not known about factors that compelled employees to stay. Ng'ethe (2011), investigated determinants of academic staff retention in five public universities in Kenya and another study by Kipkebut (2010), also explored factors that caused academic staff in public universities in Kenya to be committed.

Their findings established that top universities' management boards and councils should pay great attention to a number of Human Resource Management practices if their staff are to be retained and to be committed. The latest study on the effect of human resourcing strategies focused on performance of Commercial banks in Kenya (Ngui, Mukulu & Gachunga, 2014).

The main research gap in this study was to show how organizations including universities can achieve retention of their valued employees from the time of recruitment through to selection and to exit using human resourcing strategies. It is unclear whether or not universities in Kenya have put in place effective; human resource planning, recruitment, employer branding, career development and employee relations and retention strategies. A study by Mwiria (2007), found that public universities in Kenya in particular have precarious Human Resource Management practices. Furthermore, in his study, Guma (2011) also confirmed that public universities in Kenya had poor/weak retention policies and practices. However, these studies are inadequate; in exhaustive, inconsistent and inconclusive. Therefore, this study focuses on the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya to fill the knowledge gap left by scholars and researchers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methods to be used in this study. It describes the research design, study population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection methods and techniques of data analysis. The statistical models that were used in the analysis and the tests for the research hypothesis were also provided.

3.2 Research Design and Research Philosophy

This section provides the research design and the philosophy that guides the study

3.2.1 Research Design

According to Orodho (2008), research design is a comprehensive plan for data collection and analysis. The researchers' beliefs and understanding of the world influence the research design. The study used descriptive survey design which adopted mixed mode research approaches, that is, both qualitative and quantitative. Kumar (2012) defines quantitative research as a formal, objective, systematic process to describe and test relationships and examine cause and effect interaction among variables. Surveys may be used for descriptive, explanatory and exploratory research. A descriptive survey is necessary because it provides an accurate portrayal or account of the characteristics. Qualitative research on the other hand, involves the interpretation of phenomenon without depending on the numerical measurements or statistical methods. It is mainly concerned with observing, listening and interpreting phenomenon (Zikmund *et al.*, 2010).

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), the advantages of this design are: it is an efficient way to collect information about a large group of people, it is flexible medium that is standardized, so less susceptible to error, easy to administer and finally it can be tailored exactly to the phenomena the researcher wish to study. This design had been successfully used by the following scholars: Gathenya (2012), Machuki (2011), Murgor (2014) and Ongeti (2014) in their PhD degree dissertations.

3.2.2 Research Philosophy

A research philosophy is a belief about the way in which data about a phenomenon should be gathered, analyzed and used. This study adopted both positivist and interpretivist research philosophies. On one hand, positivists claim there is a single, objective reality that can be observed, measured and generalized without bias using standardized instruments (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). This philosophy required the use of questionnaires for data collection and statistical analysis such as hypotheses testing and random sampling (Rubin & Rubin, 2011). This philosophy was successfully used by Muriithi (2016) in his PhD dissertation.

On the other hand, interpretivists contend that only through the subjective interpretation of an intervention, in reality, can that reality be fully understood (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). They suggested the study of phenomena in their natural environment, together with the acknowledgment that social scientists cannot avoid affecting those phenomena they studied. This philosophy was successfully used by Kyambi (2015) and Habarurema (2016), in their PhD dissertations. Both philosophies had also been used successfully by Kandiri (2014), in his PhD dissertation.

3.3 Target Population

Any group of employees or observations which includes all the possible members of that category is called population. According to Kumar (2012), a population is an entire group of individuals, events or objects with some observable characteristics. A study population comprises of individuals, households or organizations with similar characteristics about which a study wants to make inferences (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). In this study, the target population comprised employees in all the 70 accredited universities authorized to operate in Kenya by the Commission for University Education. According to records available at CUE (2016) there are 50,670 employees in the all the 70 accredited universities in Kenya. Table 3.1 shows the categorization of the 70 accredited universities in Kenya with their corresponding number of employees.

Table 3.1 Summary of accredited universities in Kenya and the target population

Serial No.	Accredited Universities	Number of Accredited Universities	Population
1	Public Chartered Universities	30	32,300
2	Public University Constituent Colleges	3	7,800
3	Private Chartered Universities	18	9,230
4	Private Universities constituent Colleges	5	3,000
5	Institutions with Letter of Interim Authority (LIA)	14	1,340
Total		70	50,670

(Source: Commission for University Education in Kenya, 2016)

3.4 Sampling Frame

Sampling and selection are the means by which a researcher identifies, selects and gains access to the appropriate subjects (Sekaran, 2010). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a sampling frame is a list of all sampling units for a study. The sample frame for this study consisted of a list of all 70 accredited universities in Kenya which was obtained from the Commission for University Education (October, 2016). In this study each university acted as stratum from which samples were selected, that is, the study had 70 stratas because the study considered the population of each university to be homogenous and therefore each university constituted a stratum that is, each stratum consists of each university with their own employees constituting a population (See Appendix III).

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

According to Kothari (2012), sampling refers to the process of obtaining information about an entire population by examining only a part of it. Sampling technique is the method of choosing a sample from a population. There are two main sampling techniques: probability and non-probability (Kothari & Garg, 2014). Sampling techniques are methods that are used to select a sample size from the population by reducing it to a more manageable level (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). According to Harkness and Janett (2008), sampling techniques were used when inferences were being made about the target population.

In this study, the sample size was drawn from the target population of 50,670 employees in all the 70 accredited universities in Kenya by use of stratified sampling technique. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), stratified sampling is a technique used when the population is not homogeneous, that is, re-arranging population into sub-groups (strata) which are homogeneous in nature. The respondents should be as closely representative of the total population as possible (Kothari, 2009).

Kim and Park (2010), defines a sample as a part of a large population, which is thought to be representative of the large population, as it is not possible to study all members of the population due to the tremendous amount of resources and time (Mugenda & Mugenda 2003). In this study, the expression below was used by the researcher to obtain the sample size as suggested by Kothari and Garg (2014). The formula used is:

$$n = \frac{[z^2 pq]}{d^2}$$

where n is the sample size z is the standardized normal distribution set at 1.96 which correspond to 95% confidence interval p is the expected population proportion with desired characteristic being measured (0.5) $p = 1 - 0.05$ level of statistical significance, set as 0.05.

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2} \quad n = \frac{1.9604}{0.0025} = 384$$

This formula is applicable only when the population size of a study is more than 10,000. In this study, the sample size was 384 because the target population was more than 10,000 as indicated in (appendix III), that is, the total workforce figure for all the 70 accredited universities in Kenya was 50,670 employees. From each stratum the sample size was arrived at through proportional sampling; a technique where the selection of elements from every stratum is kept proportional to the size of the stratum.

This method involves dividing the population into homogenous sub-groups called strata and then taking a random sample from each stratum (Kombo & Tromp 2011). Kothari and Garg (2014) contended that one major advantage of this method was that the researcher classified the units into strata on the basis of characteristics which if not properly represented in the sample, may bias the inference of the study. In this study, the strata are the universities in Kenya and from this the study obtained the following sample size per each university (See appendix III).

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Data collection can be derived from a number of methods, which include oral interviews, focus groups, surveys, telephone interviews, field notes, taped social interaction or questionnaires (Heaton, 2004). The choice of instruments was dictated by the nature of the problem and both the availability of time and financial resources. There were two major sources of data that were used by researchers. These are the primary and secondary sources. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), primary data are those items that are original to the problem underway. Primary data was gathered using structured and semi-structured questionnaires (Creswell, 2009).

In this study, the main data collection instrument was questionnaires. A questionnaire is a technique of data collection in which each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a pre-determined order (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Questionnaires were regarded as effective data collection instruments that allowed respondents to give much of their opinions pertaining to the research problem. The questionnaires were designed to address specific objectives, research question(s) or to test hypothesis. Questionnaires are economical to administer in terms of time and cost to a large number of respondents (Denscombe, 2014). They also ensured anonymity as questions have no room for researcher's biases (Kasomo, 2010). The choice of the semi-structured questionnaire allowed the researcher to collect quantitative data on closed-ended questionnaires as well as allowing the researcher a room for a few questions to collect data that may generate unexpected insights not available from structured quantitative data.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher obtained an introduction letter from the associate chairman of department of entrepreneurship and procurement and a research permit from National Commission of Science, Technology and Innovation. Research assistants were also recruited to collect both primary and secondary data for this study. The primary data was collected from respondents (source) using drop and pick later method, while the secondary data was collected from published materials and journals. The questionnaires were self-administered with the help of research assistants.

3.8 Pilot Testing

Pilot testing was done before data collection. To ascertain the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire, pilot testing was conducted. Pilot testing is a trial-run done in preparation of the major study (Kombo & Tromp, 2011). According to Kothari and Garg (2014) at least 10% of the sample size would consist of the pilot testing. In this study, the questionnaire was pre-tested using a representative sample identical to, but not those to be included in the actual study, before administering it to respondents in a field setting (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Such pre-testing was important as it may uncover ambiguity, lack of clarity or biases in questions wording, which could be eliminated before administering the questionnaires.

The pilot testing helps in detecting potential problems in research design and instrumentation (Cooper & Schindler, 2014) as well as helping to check whether or not the questions asked are intelligible to the targeted population and ensure that the measurement instruments used in the study was reliable and valid. In this study the suitability of the questionnaires was first pre-tested by administering it to thirty eight (38) respondents selected randomly.

3.8.1 Validity of the Research Instruments

According to Kothari and Garg (2014), validity is the extent to which differences found with a measuring instrument reflect true differences among those being tested. According to Zikmund and Babin (2010), validity is the accuracy of a measure or the extent to which a scale truthfully represents a concept. Validity is concerned with the test being capable of testing what it was designed for, which is not as simple as it seems (Hair, 2009). Other scholars suggest it as the ability of the research instrument to measure what it purports to measure (Creswell, 2009; Bryman & Cramer, 2006; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Bryman, 2008). Validity is not a unitary concept. In fact, test developers use several widely accepted procedures to document the level of validity of their test, including content, criterion and construct related.

In this study, the validity of the questionnaire was determined using construct validity method. Construct validity is a measure of the degree to which data obtained from an instrument meaningfully and accurately reflected or represented a theoretical concept. Construct validity refers to how well the researcher translates or forms a concept, idea or behavior into a functioning and operating the reality, the operationalization (Trochim, 2006). To ascertain the validity of the research instrument for this study, factor analysis was conducted. In factor analysis, the study employed Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Factor analysis also showed any biases which might exist between the factors through Common Bias Method (CBM).

3.8.2 Reliability of Research Instruments

According to Saunders (2012), reliability is concerned with the robustness of the questionnaires and in particular, whether or not it will produce consistent findings. According to Zikmund and Babin (2010a); Sushil and Verma, (2010), reliability is an indicator of a measure of internal consistency. The most common method for testing the internal consistency of a scale for reliability is the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0 to 1 with a maximum of 0.6 while other studies suggest that anything above 0.7 to 0.9 will suggest a high level of internal reliability (Sushil & Verma, 2010). Internal consistency examines the inter-item correlations within an instrument and indicates how well the item fits together conceptually. Also, a total score of all the items is computed to estimate the consistency of the whole questionnaire. He further stated that reliability is a test of the amount of consistency between the different measurements of an individual's response, with the purpose of making sure that these responses are consistent and similar over a period of time and across situations (Hair, 2009). Furthermore, if the same test is conducted under the same circumstances, then the researcher should find similar results which will be called test-retest method (Zikmund & Babin 2010a).

According to Kothari and Garg (2014) there are two aspects of reliability: stability and equivalence. The stability aspect is concerned with securing consistent results with repeated measurements of the same person and with repeated measurements. The equivalence aspect considers how much error may get introduced by different investigators or different samples of the items being studied. To ensure reliability in this study, the following measures were taken: Standardizing the conditions under which the questionnaire administration took place. That is, ensure the external sources of variation such as boredom, fatigue and so on are minimized to the extent as possible. This improved stability respect. Carefully designing a questionnaire with no variation from group to group and using trained and motivated persons to conduct the research. This improved equivalence aspect. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was tested using the below formulae.

The standardized Cronbach's alpha can be defined as

$$\alpha(\text{alpha}) = \frac{K\hat{r}}{(1 + (K-1)\hat{r})}$$

where K is as above and \hat{r} the mean of the $K(K-1)/2$ non-redundant correlation coefficients (that is, the mean of an upper triangular, or lower triangular, correlation matrix). Cronbach's α is related conceptually to the Spearman-Brown prediction formula. Both arise from the basic classical test theory result that the reliability of test scores can be expressed as the ratio of the true-score and total-score (error plus true score) variances. Also, by using SPSS (Version 23) software Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) illustrated above was obtained.

3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

This is the extraction of significant variables, detecting any abnormalities and testing assumptions (Kombo & Tromp, 2011). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), data analysis refers to examining the coded data critically and making inferences. The presentation of data refers to ways of arranging data to make it clearly understood. Data analysis was guided by the objective of the study. Raw data collected from the questionnaires was first cleaned, sorted, coded and subjected to the SPSS software. Data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics (Mugenda & Mugenda). The SPSS (version 23) software was used. The descriptive statistical tool helped the researcher to describe the data and features of data that were of interest. In this study, the mode was used as the response measurement that appears most in a particular variable among a sample of subjects (Cooper & Schlindler, 2014). Both qualitative and quantitative data were analyzed. Qualitative data was analyzed by noticing, collecting and thinking about things.

The researcher looked for patterns and relationships both within a collection and also across a collection. Finally, the researcher made a general discovery about the phenomena(s) he/she was/were researching (Seidel, John & Claus, 1995).

Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) was computed for all the five objectives of the study. Quantitative data was computed for inferential statistics with a 0.05 (5%) test significance level and the resulting P values and coefficients was used to compare the variables, where two sets of the variables were compared to see the extent to which they are related and if they can be used to predict each other. In this study, the findings were presented using tables, graphs, histograms and bar charts. Data presentation made use of percentages, tabulations, means and other measures of central tendencies. Tables were used to summarize respondents for further analysis and facilitated comparison.

3.9.1 Regression Model

The purpose of assumptions tests was to verify whether or not the study could proceed and fit a regression model to the study. Various assumptions of regression model were tested and confirmed whether they existed or not. The assumptions and their tests were as follows:

3.9.2 Normality Test

In regression model, the data was assumed to be normally distributed. The study employed several tests that were used to test for normality of the dependant variable. They are: Skewness and kurtosis test, Q-Q plot, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shappiro-Wilk among others. Skewness is a measure of symmetry, or more precisely lack of symmetry. A distribution, or data set, is symmetric if it looks the same to the left and right of the center point. Kurtosis is described as the peakness of normal distribution. Distribution of data set which is highly peaked (leptokurtic) or somehow flat (platykurtic) is said to be not normally distributed. For moderately peaked distribution (mesokurtic) the data is said to be normally distributed (Goodhue, Lewis & Thompson, 2012).

3.9.3 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity is a case of multiple regression in which the predictor variables are themselves highly correlated (Paul, 2006). If the goal is to understand how the various X variables impact Y, then multicollinearity is a big problem. Multicollinearity is a matter of degree, not a matter of presence or absence. In presence of multicollinearity the ordinary least squares (OLS) estimators are imprecisely estimated (Paul, above). Multicollinearity was tested using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) which is reciprocal to tolerance as a rule of thumb. VIF values greater than 10 ($VIF > 10$) shows the existence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity may also be detected using correlation analysis between independent variables. In this case, high correlation values above 0.8 are an indication of the presence of multicollinearity in the data.

3.9.4 Homoscedasticity Test

Homoscedasticity means that variation in error terms remains the same across all observations (constant). The condition occurs if error term(s) do not have constant variance (Williams, 2015). The condition can be tested using any of the following tests: Goldfeld and Quandt test (1965) test or visual inspection of residual plotted in the significant line or use of park test. Breusch-Pagan test was used to test the null hypothesis that is if heteroscedasticity exist. The null hypothesis was rejected if p-values are less than 0.05 as suggested by (Sazali, Hashida & Raduan, 2010).

3.9.5 Linearity Test

To find out if there was a linear relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables; correlation analysis between the dependent variable and independent variables was conducted. In this study, if the correlation coefficient (coefficient of determination) is above 0.5 then the conclusion is that there is a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Besides that, a scatter diagram originating from a plot of dependent variable and independent variables will also show whether linearity exists or not (Greene, 2003).

3.9.6 Auto-correlation Test

Autocorrelation refers to the independence of error terms in regression model. The main aim is to establish if error terms are independent of each other (uncorrelated) Kothari (2014). A value of 2 means that the residuals are uncorrelated, a value greater than 2 indicates a negative correlation between adjacent residuals whereas a value greater than 2 indicates a positive correlation (Field, 2009). To test correlation, the study used Durbin Watson test which ranges from 2 to 4.

3.9.7 Outlier-test

An outlier is a data point that is significantly different from the remaining data. Peter, (2012), defined an outlier as follows: “An outlier is an observation which deviates so much from the other observations as to arouse suspicions that it was generated by a different mechanism.” Outliers are also referred to as abnormalities, discordants, deviants, or anomalies in the data mining and statistics literature (Peter, 2012). An outlier-test is a test that can be used to detect whether the data have extreme values at the end or not. The presence of outlier in the data may make data not to be normally distributed that is, heavily tailed towards the ends of the distribution.

This test was conducted to confirm if the data was heavily tailed on the right or the left. In this study, an outlier test was conducted using Box – plot test. Box-plot test uses the concept in which extreme values at the end of the data are ignored (not included in the data) which implies that observations falling within the center of the data are considered. To achieve this, the first quarter and the last quarter of the data are removed using the concept of lower and upper quartile and then obtaining interquartile deviation which is used to construct Box-plot.

3.9.8 Factor Analysis

There are several tests of validity namely: expert opinion (qualitative), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), Common Method Variance (CMV/CMB) and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) which is quantitative in nature. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) could be described as orderly simplification of interrelated measures (Child D., 2006). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a statistical technique used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

In this study, confirmatory factor analysis was used because it allowed the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between the observed variables and their underlying latent construct(s) exist. It also worth noting that factor analysis is regarded as an effective statistical procedure in validating hypothetical constructs (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Data collected was therefore initially subjected to confirmatory factor analysis. Here indicators that seemed to correlate highly with each other were clustered. Kothari and Garg (2014) prefer a loading of 0.33 to be the minimum absolute value that would allow interpretation of data. This study therefore considered loadings of .33 and above for interpretation.

3.9.9 Correlation Analysis

The degree to which the points cluster about the line of “best fit” (Howell, 2006). Correlation Analysis is the relationship between two or more variables. It shows the direction of the relationship that is whether or not the relationship among variables is positively or negatively correlated. The value of correlation normally ranges between +1 and -1 where +1 indicates positively perfect correlation while -1 indicates negatively perfect correlation. A zero value of correlation indicates no correlation. In this study, correlation analysis was conducted to confirm whether or not there is a linear relationship between variables. If independent variables have strong correlation values above 0.8 amongst themselves as already suggested before then multicollinearity problem exist.

3.9.10 Non-response Bias

For purposes of this research, non-response bias (NRB) is defined as a bias that exists in survey results when respondents to a survey are different from those who did not respond in terms of demographic or attitudinal variables, or other variables relevant to the survey topic (DDS Research, Inc., 2004). According to Ellis, Endo and Armer (1970), it is “a function of: (a) the proportion of non-respondents in the total sample and (b) the extent to which there is a systematic discrepancy between respondents and non-respondents on variables relevant to the inquiry”. The presence of non-response bias is a threat to the external validity or generalizability of research findings to the target population of a study (Linder, Murphy & Briers, 2001). A well-designed survey and a research-based administration method, following generally acceptable protocols and procedures as well as reporting them in the research analysis, are the first-steps in the attempt to increase response rates and also control for non-response bias (Dillman, 2000; Linder, Murphy and Briers, 2001; Porter, 2004b).

3.9.11 KMO and Sphericity Test

The sample size adequacy defines if the sample used in the study was adequate or inadequate. It was measured using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO). As a rule of thumb KMO value of 0.50 indicated that the sample size of a study is adequate while a value below 0.5 indicated that the sample size was not adequate. Besides that, Bartlett’s test of sphericity was also carried out in the study to determine if the correlation coefficient matrix table of indicators of each variable is an identity matrix. In case the matrix is not an identity matrix then multicollinearity between the indicators exists and necessary action should be taken.

3.10 Statistical Models

In this study, linear multiple regression models were used to measure retention of employees in universities in Kenya. There were five (5) independent variables in this study. Thus the linear multiple regressions used was as shown below:

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

Where Y was the dependent variable (retention of employees) and β_0 was the regression co-efficient while β_1 , β_2 , β_3 , β_4 and β_5 were the slopes of the regression equation.

X_1 is the independent variable (Human Resource Planning strategy)

X_2 is the independent variable (recruitment strategy)

X_3 is the independent variable (employer branding strategy)

X_4 is the independent variable (career development strategy)

X_5 is the independent variable (employee relation strategy)

ϵ is an error term normally distributed about a mean of 0 and for purposes of computation, is assumed to be 0. Error term is the part of the statistical equation that indicates what remains unexplained by the independent variable.

3.11 Variable Definition and Measurements

In order to measure the research variables, the study determined the indicators of each independent variable and then employed ordinal scale of 1-5 where (1=strongly disagree, 2 agree, 3 neutral, 4 Agree and 5 strongly agree. Likert scales have the advantage that they do not expect a simple yes / no answer from the respondents, but rather allow for degrees of opinion and even no opinion at all (McLeod, 2008). The scale items adopted at least five categories as appropriate to each data set. Different constructs were used to measure independent variables. The constructs to measure Human Resource Planning strategy were: restructuring, forecasting and collaboration (with other organizations). The constructs for recruitment strategy were: recruitment of new hires, advertisements, orientation and on-boarding while the constructs for employer branding strategy were: employee value proposition, employer image and employee maintenance.

The constructs for career development strategy were: capacity development, employee promotion opportunities and talent management initiatives and for employee relations strategy the constructs were: communication, employee voice and employee participation. Finally, for the dependent variable the constructs were: employee engagement, satisfaction and commitment.

3.12 Hypotheses Testing

In this study, the researcher used two tests to fit the regression model. These are: F-Test and t-Test respectively. The F-Test which is a statistic was used to test the overall regression model, while the t-Test was used to test whether or not each of the independent variables of the study had a statistical significant influence or not on the dependent variable of the study.

The t-Test for the independent variables of the study was as shown below:

H₀₁: Human Resource Planning has no significant influence on retention of employees.

H₀₂: Recruitment strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees.

H₀₃: Employer branding strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees.

H₀₄: Career development strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees.

H₀₅: Employee relations strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees.

Note: If the P values are greater than 0.05 for all the independent variables, we reject all the H_{0s} (Null) and accept the alternative. The researcher tested the variables at 5% or 95% level of significance. Table 3.2 shows Summary test-statistics for the hypothesis.

Table 3.2 Summary test-statistics for the hypothesis

S/ N	Hypothesis to be tested	Objectives	Analytical tools to be used	Test statistic and decision
1	$H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ $H_a: \beta_1 \neq 0$	To explore the influence of Human Resource Planning on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.	Descriptive statistics, Bivariate regression, correlation analysis	T-test and F-test And R2-Values. Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05
2	$H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ $H_a: \beta_2 \neq 0$	To analyze the Influence of recruitment strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.	Descriptive statistics, Bivariate regression, correlation analysis	T-test and F-test And R2-Values. Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05
3	$H_0: \beta_3 = 0$ $H_a: \beta_3 \neq 0$	To understand the influence of employer branding strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.	Descriptive statistics, Bivariate regression, correlation analysis	T-test and F-test And R2-Values. Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05
4	$H_0: \beta_4 = 0$ $H_a: \beta_4 \neq 0$	To underline the influence of career development strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.	Descriptive statistics, Bivariate regression, correlation analysis	T-test and F-test And R2-Values. Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05
5	$H_0: \beta_5 = 0$ $H_a: \beta_5 \neq 0$	To explore the influence of employee relations strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.	Descriptive statistics, Bivariate regression, correlation analysis	T-test and F-test And R2-Values. Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The methodology in the previous chapter provided for data collection, analysis and presentation. This section describes all appropriate information produced by the research procedures and statistical analyses of the findings, that is, the chapter presents the empirical findings and results of the application of the variables using techniques mentioned in chapter three. Specifically, the data analysis was based on specific objectives where patterns were investigated, interpreted and implications drawn on them. The chapter starts with a preliminary analysis of the data before analyzing the study variables. The purpose of this chapter is to analyze, present and interpret data in form of tables, graphs and figures combined with a brief narrative and interpret the findings. The structure of this chapter starts with introduction, followed by background information and the rest of the subsections are guided by the hypotheses to be tested.

4.2 Respondents' Rate

The study sought to establish the respondents' rate on the questionnaires in this study. A total of 384 questionnaires were issued out to respondents in 70 universities in Kenya as shown in table 4.1. Completed questionnaires that were received were 303. The results indicated that the majority (78.91%) of the questionnaires were returned while (21.09%) were unreturned. The response rate was considered adequate given the recommendation by Fincham (2008), a response rate of 60% is considered appropriate in research. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) suggest a response rate of 30-40% as sufficient for research. Sekaran (2003) document that 30% is equally considerate while Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), advices on response rates exceeding 50% and Hager, Wilson, Pollack and Rooney (2003) recommended 50%. Based on these assertions, this implied that the response rate for this study was adequate and sufficient to draw conclusions.

Table 4.1: Response Rate

Response Rate	Frequency	Percent
Returned	303	78.91%
Unreturned	81	21.09%
Total	384	100.00%

4.2.1 Response by Gender

The results of the study shows that out of the 303 respondents, 190 (62.7%) of the respondents were male while 113(37.3%) were female. The results show that many of the university employees (teaching and non-teaching staff) majority of them were male indicating lack of gender balance among the employees. Gender refers to either male or female sex. It is difficult for an organization to retain their employees if they are not sensitive to gender parity. Empowering of employees require that both gender are to be considered through proactive affirmative policies. Figure 4.1 shows the details of the findings.

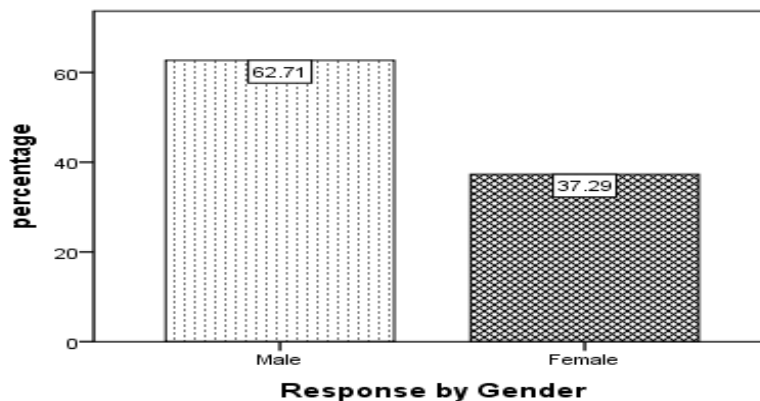


Figure 4.1 Responses by Gender

4.3 Demographic Information

4.3.1 Response by Age

From the responses, most of the employees who were interviewed within the universities were falling within the age bracket of 40- 49 years at 38.6%, 25.1% were falling within the age bracket 30-39 years. These age brackets mainly comprised the teaching and non-teaching staff within the universities. The least were falling within the age bracket 20-30 years at 13.5%, 50 years and above recorded 22.8%.

These are employees who are at the top management level within the universities, (See Table 4.2). The older generation are retiring hence age becomes an important factor in this study. It is expected that the younger people will be taking over from the older generation.

Table 4.2 Age of respondents

	Frequency	Valid Percent
20-30 Years	41	13.5
30-39 Years	76	25.1
40-49 Years	117	38.6
50 Years and above	69	22.8
Total	303	100.0

4.3.2 Duration of Employment

The study sought to establish the duration of employment of the respondents. The findings were presented in figure 4.2: From the study findings, majority (39.93%) of the respondents have worked for 5-10 years, 31.35% of the respondents have worked for more than 10 years while 28.71% of the respondents have worked for less than 5 years. This implies that the respondents have worked in their respective universities for a long period of time and therefore they were more likely to be aware of the issues that the study was investigating.

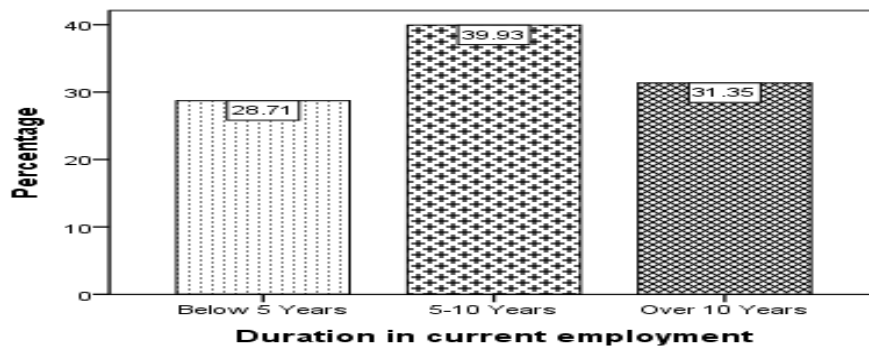


Figure 4.2 Duration of employment

4.3.3 Level of Education

The respondents were asked to state their level of education and the responses were as follows: - majority at 46.5% were holders of master's degree followed by 30.4% who holds PhD degrees, 16.2% of the respondents have Bachelor's Degree, 5.9% holds Ordinary Diploma, 0.7% had certificates while 0.3% had other qualifications. From the finding we can conclude that many employees within universities had master degree and PhD degrees. Due to globalization employee retention becomes a major challenge to all organizations including universities. Level of education is key if universities are to achieve their mandate. Table 4.3 shows the results of the findings.

Table 4.3 Level of Education

	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Certificate	2	.7
Ordinary Diploma	18	5.9
Bachelor Degree	49	16.2
Masters Degree	141	46.5
PhD Degree	92	30.4
Others	1	.3
Total	303	100.0

Based on employment category, the results show that most of the employees at the universities in Kenyan mainly comprised of non-teaching employees at 60.1% while teaching staff forms 39.9%. It can therefore be concluded that majority of university employees in Kenya are non-teaching staff. Table 4.4 shows the result.

Table 4.4 Teaching or Non-teaching

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Teaching	121	39.9	39.9
Non-Teaching	182	60.1	100.0
Total	303	100.0	

4.4. Pilot Study Results

A pilot study was conducted to establish whether or not the research instrument was valid or reliable for data collection. The testing was done using a sample of 38 questionnaires which were obtained randomly and where reliability, validity and factor analysis was performed and findings were discussed.

4.4.1 Reliability and Validity of Research Instruments

Reliability of a measure indicates the extent to which it is without bias (error free) thus ensuring consistent measurement across time and the various items in the instrument. Reliability of the instrument was carried out using Cronbach's alpha constant (co-efficient) which is a measure of internal consistency and average correlation. It ranges between 0 and 1 (Kipkebut, 2010). As a rule of thumb acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70 (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Higher alpha coefficient values mean there is consistency among items in measuring the concept of interest. Cronbach constant test was carried out for every variable.

In this study, for human resource planning strategy there were eight items and from the findings no item was deleted and alpha coefficient recorded was 0.893 which was above 0.7. For recruitment strategy, the alpha coefficient was again above the threshold. In this case, eight items were tested and no item was expunged. The overall alpha coefficient was 0.887. Reliability test using Cronbach alpha for employer branding strategy was conducted and out of nine items, none of the items was deleted and the overall alpha coefficient was 0.810 which also above 0.7. Similarly, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for career development strategy was conducted and out of eight items, none of the items was deleted. The overall alpha coefficient was 0.903 which also above 0.7. Lastly, the alpha coefficient for employee relations strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya was found to be 0.870 and 0.777 respectively with one item expunged from retention of employees.

In conclusion, the alpha co-efficient test for the all the items were found to be reliable for measurement because the reliability coefficient was found to be above the recommended threshold of 0.7. This finding was consistent with the studies done by Mugenda and Mugenda who recommended that as a rule of thumb acceptable alpha should be at least 0.7 for all the independent variables in this study. The findings are shown in the Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Reliability of instruments

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha before removing some items	Cronbach's Alpha after removing Some items	No of Items before removing some factors	No of Items after removing some factors
Human Resource Planning strategy	0.893	0.893	8	8
Recruitment strategy	0.887	0.887	8	8
Employer branding strategy	0.810	0.810	9	9
Career Development Strategy	0.903	0.903	8	8
Employee Relations Strategy	0.870	0.870	8	8
Retention of Employees	0.660	0.777	9	8
AVERAGE	0.837	0.857		

4.4.2 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis focuses on the internal-correlations among data to come up with internally consistent surrogates of the variable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Cooper and Schindler (2014) suggested that factor loadings of 0.7 and above are acceptable. Other researchers indicate that 0.4 is the minimum level for item loading. Hair *et al.*, (2009) illustrates that factor analysis is 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.

In this study, factor analysis was used to reduce the number of indicators which do not explain the influence of various explanatory variables on retention of employees. Hair *et al.*, (2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) described the factor loadings as follows: 0.32 (poor), 0.45 (fair), 0.55 (good), 0.63 (very good) or 0.71 (excellent). Human resource planning strategy had eight items and none of the items recorded factor loadings less than 0.40. The factor loadings of eight items for human resource planning strategy were ranging between 0.433 and 0.714. As a conclusion in this study, the factor loading for human resource planning would be rated as good as per the studies of Hair *et al.*, (2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) Table 4.6 illustrates the results and therefore was considered to be valid for the constructs represented.

Table 4.6 Factor loadings for Human Resource planning strategy

Human Resource planning strategy statements	Factor Loadings
1. The university has put in place HRP strategies.	.529
2. HRP strategies are used in forecasting the demand and supply of employees in this university.	.575
3. Forecasting has helped my university to have the right number and quality of staff.	.714
4. HRP strategies are reviewed from time to time in line with university retention strategy.	.642
5. In this university HRP strategies are integrated with the university's vision and mission.	.687
6. My university collaborates with other universities and organizations in both formulation and implementation of HRP strategies.	.433
7. In this university all restructuring activities are synchronized with HRP strategies.	.620
8. Top management gives financial and moral support to planning and implementation of HRP strategies.	.542
Total factor Loading	.593

The study intended to measure the influence of recruitment strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya using eight items. All the eight items had factor loadings above 0.40 that is between 0.419 and 0.721. Therefore, all the items were found to be valid for the constructs they represented and could therefore be used in the study. In addition to that, an average factor loading of 0.593 of the all items under recruitment strategy was recorded. As a conclusion in this study, the factor loading for recruitment strategy would be rated as good as per the studies of Hair *et al* .,(2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) Table 4.7 shows the factor loading for every item.

Table 4.7 Factor loadings for recruitment strategy

Recruitment strategy statements	Factor Loadings
1. In this university many recruitment strategies have been put in place to attract and make new recruits stay in the process.	.549
2. In this university recruitment of new hires begins only after all other employee recruitment strategies have been considered.	.684
3. In this university vacancies are advertised and filled competitively.	.721
4. In this university clear criteria are employed to identify the right attributes of the recruits.	.622
5. In this university, recruitment strategies assist in the recruitment of new hires.	.445
6. Orientation and on-boarding strategies in this university give employees a sense of belongingness.	.433
7. Timeliness and effective communication are important strategies in the recruitment process.	.419
8. Top university management gives financial support to planning and implementation of recruitment strategies.	.633
Total factor Loading	.593

The validity of employer branding strategy was also tested using an instrument comprising nine items and the result recorded. Subsequently, no item was also removed. Factor loadings recorded was between 0.566 and 0.778 with overall factor loading of 0.662 as shown in Table 4.8.

Since no item recorded factor loading below 0.40, the items were considered to be valid measures of influence of employer branding strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. As a conclusion in this study, the factor loading for employer branding strategy would be rated as very good as per the studies of Hair *et al.* (2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007)

Table 4.8: Factor loadings for employer branding strategy

Employer branding strategy statements	Factor Loadings
1. The university has an effective employer branding strategy in place.	.591
2. In this university we have a clear employee value proposition.	.640
3. In this university the employer brand has been effectively communicated to all employees.	.723
4. The employer brand is aligned to hiring practices.	.778
5. In this university brand behavior is rewarded.	.615
6. My university is viewed as an employer of choice.	.566
7. In this university employees are catered for well.	.671
8. In this university top management support activities for successful employer branding.	.693
9. My university has positive image in the labour market.	.683
Total factor loading	.662

Career development strategy had eight items and from the original list of eight items put forward to measure the influence of career development strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) method discarded no item. Factor loadings recorded was between 0.611 and 0.866 with average factor loading of 0.731 as shown in Table 4.9. This result was also more than 0.40 which is the threshold. The result shows that all the items under consideration were valid. As a conclusion in this study, the factor loading for career development strategy would be rated as excellent as per the studies of Hair *et al.*, (2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007).

Table 4.9 Factor loadings for career development strategy

Career development strategy statements	Factor Loadings
1. The university has career development strategy in place.	.742
2. In this university employees are trained and developed in various capacity development programs.	.616
3. Career development programs are aligned with employee personal goals and university vision and mission.	.733
4. Top management supports both individual and organization's career development programs.	.782
5. In this university employees are given promotional opportunities.	.661
6. Staff promotion opportunities in this university are done competitively.	.611
7. In this university there are clear talent management processes.	.836
8. In this university staff with unique talents and skills are indentified, recognized and rewarded.	.866
Total factor loading	.731

To measure the influence of employee relations strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya, eight items were presented. For employee relations strategy, the entire eight items were found to have an acceptable loading factor between 0.490 and 0.844 with an average loading of .662 and were subsequently considered valid for inclusion in the data collection instrument for further analysis. As a conclusion in this study, the factor loading for employee relations strategy would be rated as very good as per the studies of Hair *et al* .,(2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) Table 4.10 shows the factor loading for all items.

Table 4.10 Factor loadings for employee relations strategy

Employee relations strategy statements	Factor Loadings
1. In this university there are effective strategies for employee relations management.	.834
2. In this university the employee relations strategy supports retention strategy.	.844
3. This university has clear and effective communication channels.	.571
4. Employees will likely be retained when they are conversant with the policies, rules, regulations and their roles.	.703
5. In this university cordial relationship exists between management and staff.	.636
6. This university has an effective 'hybrid' structures in advocating for employee voice.	.509
7. In this university employees participate in decision making.	.490
8. In this university the leadership style(s) helps to promote good employer- employee relations.	.711
Total Factor loading	.662

In order to test the validity of retention of employees in universities in Kenya, an instrument comprising nine items were considered as originally compiled from the literature. Subsequently no item, with low factor loading was discarded. The factor loadings were ranging between 0.491 and 0.771 with an average factor loading of 0.638 as shown in Table 4.11. These were considered valid measures of retention of employees in universities in Kenya. As a conclusion in this study, the factor loading for retention of employees would be rated as very good as per the studies of Hair *et al.* (2009) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007)

Table 4.11 Factor loadings for retention of employees

Retention of employees statements	Factor Loadings
1. The university has a robust retention strategy in place and implements it.	.524
2. In this university employees are fully engaged	.532
3. In this university employees are happy and satisfied.	.718
4. In this university employees are committed to their work roles.	.633
5. I do not want to leave my current job.	.771
6. I am in my current job assignment because I do not expose myself to alternative employer.	.779
7. I am not actively searching for an alternative job assignment elsewhere.	.673
8. In this university employees continue to work in their current jobs in their entire working life.	.625
9. This university is my employer of choice.	.491
Total Factor loading	.638

The overall summary of the factor analysis for all the variables, the five factors measuring the independent variables and dependent variable are indicated on the table 4.12; human Resource planning strategy show that all the factor loadings for the eight items was 59.3%. All the items were retained based on the general rule of thumb for acceptable factor loading of 40% and above. The results of the factor analysis for recruitment strategy with eight items yielded a factor loading of 56.3%. The factor analysis for employer branding strategy, with nine items shows factor loadings was 66.2%. For career development strategy, there were eight items and no item was dropped and factor loading recorded was 73.1%. For employee relations strategy out of eight items, no item was dropped. Lastly, the result of the factor loading measuring the dependent variable shows that retention of employees had nine items and the factor loading was above 63.8 % with no item expunged from the list. All the factor loadings were above 56.3% which implies that all items fall within the acceptable threshold as indicated by the general rule of thumb.

Table 4.12: Summary of factor analysis

Independent /Dependent Variables	Number of Items	Overall factor loading	Reliability Cronbach's alpha
Human Resource planning strategy	8	59.3%	0.893
Recruitment strategy	8	59.3%	0.887
Employer branding strategy	9	66.2%	0.810
Career development strategy	8	73.1%	0.903
Employee relations strategy	8	66.2%	0.870
Retention of employees	9	63.8%	0.777

4.4.3 Non-response Bias Test

For purposes of this research, non-response bias (NRB) is defined as a bias that exists in survey results when respondents to a survey are different from those who did not respond in terms of demographic or attitudinal variables, or other variables relevant to the survey topic (DDS Research, Inc., 2004). According to Peress, (2010) it is “a function of: (a) the proportion of non-respondents in the total sample and (b) the extent to which there is a systematic discrepancy between respondents and non-respondents on variables relevant to the inquiry. In this study non-response bias was tested by comparing the mean of respondents and those who did not respond and the result are indicated on Table 4.13. From the mean there was no significant difference between the respondents and the non-respondents hence the bias was insignificant.

Table 4.13 Non response bias

RES	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Response	303	3.8600	.36308	.02363
Non Response	81	3.8252	.35740	.04366

4.5. Descriptive Statistics

In this section we describe for independents and dependent variables.

4.5.1 Human Resource Planning Strategy and Retention of Employees

The first objective of the study sought to determine the influence of human resource planning strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The respondents were asked to express the extent to which they agree or disagree with the following aspects of human resource planning strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya: Concerning whether or not the universities had put in place human resource planning strategies: 70.6% agreed, 12.2% were neutral, 8.9% strongly agreed, 4.3% disagreed and 4.0% strongly disagreed. In regard to know whether or not the human resource planning strategies are used in forecasting the demand and supply of employees in these universities; 12.9% of the respondents strongly agreed, 37.3% agreed, 5.3% were neutral, 10.0% disagreed while 4.0% strongly disagreed.

On whether or not forecasting has helped universities to have the right number and quality of employees; 9.9% of the respondents strongly agreed, 32.0% agreed, 38.3% were neutral, 15.0% disagreed while 4.3% strongly disagreed. This was consistent to the findings of the study by Decenzo & Robbins (2009) and Armstrong & Taylor (2014) which stated that every firm should ensure that it has the right number and kind of employees, at the right place, at the right time, that can effectively and efficiently be committed to complete those tasks in order to help the organization achieve its overall objectives. On whether or not university human resource planning strategies are reviewed from time to time in line with university retention strategy, 7.3% of the respondents strongly agreed, 28.4% agreed, 39.9% were neutral, 19.1% disagreed while 5.3% strongly disagreed.

Concerning whether or not the university human resource planning strategies are integrated with the university's vision and mission, 11.2% of the respondents strongly agreed, 39.3% agreed, 32.7% were neutral, 12.0 % disagreed while 4.0% strongly disagreed. This finding was consistent with the study by Armstrong and Taylor (2014) which stated that human resource planning strategy is a systematic procedure that provides the managers with a structure for making human resource decisions based on the organization's vision and mission, strategic plan, budgetary resources and a set of desired workforce competencies. On whether or not the university collaborates with other universities and organizations in both formulation and implementation of human resource planning strategies, 7.9% of the respondents strongly agreed, 26.4% agreed, 34.7% were neutral, 26% disagreed while 4.3% strongly disagreed. The rest of the findings are shown in table 4.14.

Table 4.14: Human resource planning strategy descriptive analysis

Statement	S.D	D	N	A	S.A	Mean	Std. Dev
HRPS 1	4.0%	4.3%	12.2%	70.6%	8.9%	3.76	.8277
HRPS 2	4.0%	10.%	35.3%	37.3%	12.9%	3.46	.9780
HRPS 3	4.3%	15.%	38.3%	32.0%	9.9%	3.28	.9845
HRPS 4	5.3%	19.%	39.9%	28.4%	7.3%	3.13	.9816
HRPS 5	4.0%	12.%	32.7%	39.3%	11.2%	3.41	.9820
HRPS 6	4.3%	26.%	34.7%	26.4%	7.9%	3.07	1.009
HRPS 7	5.3%	28.%	29.4%	31.7%	5.0%	3.02	1.008
HRPS 8	8.3%	9.2%	32.7%	37.6%	12.2%	3.36	1.077
Total						3.311	0.981

Further analysis indicates that the average score for all the indicators was 3.311 and standard deviation of 0.981 respectively out of possible scale of 5. On the other hand standard deviation was indicating that the dispersion was very little. Table 4.14 above shows the details of the finding.

4.5.2 Recruitment Strategy and Retention of Employees

The second objective of the study sought to determine the influence of recruitment strategy factors on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The respondents were asked to rate their opinion regarding the following statements as far as recruitment strategies are concerned. Concerning whether or not the universities had put in place recruitment strategies to attract and make new recruits stay in the process, 42.2% agreed, 28.4% were neutral, 10.2% strongly agreed, 16.5% disagreed and 2.6% strongly disagreed. In regard to whether or not the universities recruitment of new hires begins only after all other employee recruitment strategies have been considered, 15.5% of the respondents strongly agreed, 27.7% agreed, 28.1% were neutral, 26.1% disagreed while 2.6% strongly disagreed. This finding was consistent with the study by Breugh (2008) which found that before recruitment and selection of recruits, the management should first consider the attributes of potential recruits and the requirements of the processes used to identify those potential and qualify candidates for jobs and that a recruit should be someone trainable.

Whether or not vacancies within the universities are advertised and filled competitively; 37.3% of the respondents strongly agreed, 23.1% agreed, 20.5% were neutral, 15.8% disagreed while 3.3% strongly disagreed. On whether or not the universities employ a clear criteria to identify the right attributes of the recruits, 28.4% of the respondents strongly agreed, 37.6% agreed, 19.5% were neutral, 11.2% disagreed while 3.3% strongly disagreed. This finding was consistent with the study by Rynes and Cable (2003) which stated that the recruitment and selection criteria should be clear, smart and be carried out based on merit for the management to recruit the right person for the right job and at the right time.

To find out whether or not the universities recruitment strategies assist in the recruitment of new hires; 14.9% of the respondents strongly agreed, 53.3% agreed, 19.9% were neutral, 8.6% disagreed while 3.3% strongly disagreed.

On whether or not orientation and on-boarding strategies in the universities give employees a sense of belongingness; 9.2% of the respondents strongly agreed, 27.1% agreed, 34.7% were neutral, 24.1% disagreed while 5.0% strongly disagreed. Whether timeliness and effective communication are important strategies in the recruitment process in universities or not, 29.0% of the respondents strongly agreed, 38.0% agreed, 21.8% were neutral, 7.9% disagreed while 3.3% strongly disagreed. This is consistent with the findings of the study by Greenberg and Antonucci (2014) who stated that there should be timely and effective communication throughout the recruitment and selection process since delayed communication increases uncertainty and there is lack of transparency in the process. On whether top university management gives financial support to planning and implementation of recruitment strategies in universities or not, 16.5% of the respondents strongly agreed, 36.6% agreed, 37.3% were neutral, 6.9% disagreed while 2.6% strongly disagreed. The rest of the findings are shown in table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Recruitment strategy descriptive Statistics

Statement	S.D	D	N	A	SA	Mean	Std. Deviation
RS1	2.6%	16.5 %	28.4%	42.2%	10.2 %	3.2781	1.0916
RS2	2.6%	26.1 %	28.1%	27.7%	15.5 %	3.7517	1.2068
RS3	3.3%	15.8 %	20.5%	23.1%	37.3 %	3.7715	1.0802
RS4	3.3%	11.2 %	19.5%	37.6%	28.4 %	3.6788	0.9433
RS5	3.3%	8.6%	19.9%	53.3%	14.9 %	3.1192	1.0338
RS6	5.0%	24.1 %	34.7%	27.1%	9.2%	3.8146	1.0465
RS7	3.3%	7.9%	21.8%	38.0%	29.0 %	3.5728	0.9363
RS8	2.6%	6.9%	37.3%	36.6%	16.5 %	3.4139	0.9666
Total						3.5501	1.0382

Similarly, the items under recruitment strategy were analyzed further and the average score for all the indicators was 3.5501 and standard deviation of 1.0382 respectively out of a possible scale of 5. On the other hand, standard deviation was indicating that the dispersion was little. Table 4.14 shows the details of the finding. In general majority of the respondents agree that recruitment strategy statement listed above have a significant influence on employee retention.

4.5.3 Employer Branding Strategy and Retention of Employees

The third objective of the study was to assess the influence of employer branding strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The respondents were asked to state their level of agreement with the following items based on employer branding strategy and how they are associated with retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The findings were as follows: On whether or not the universities have an effective employer branding strategy in place, 33.1% of the respondents agreed, 16.2% strongly agreed, 18.9% were neutral, 29.1% disagreed and only 2.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed. On the other hand, on a scale of 1 to 5, an average score rate of 3.87 was recorded with a standard deviation of 0.888. This indicated that majority of the universities have effective employer branding strategy in place.

To investigate if universities have a clear employee value proposition, 30.6% of the respondents agreed, 7.3% strongly agreed, 36.9% were undecided 23.3% disagreed and 2.0% strongly disagreed. This finding was consistent with the study by Barrow and Mosley (2011) who found out that value proposition provides the central message conveyed by the brand and that employer brand management expands the scope of this brand intervention beyond communication to incorporate every aspect of the employment experience. An average score rate of 3.56 was recorded with a standard deviation of 1.026. This suggested that the universities in Kenya have a clear employee value proposition.

Again the respondents were asked whether or not the employer brand has been effectively communicated to all employees, 44.9% of respondents agreed, 5.0% strongly agreed, 21.5% were undecided, but 25.7% disagreed and 3.0% strongly disagreed. Average scale of 3.85 out possible scale of 5 and standard deviation of 0.887 was recorded. This meant that majority of the respondents in the universities were in agreement that the employer brand had been effectively communicated to all employees. This finding was consistent with the studies by Pappasolomou and Vrontis (2006) who stated that employer brand should be effectively and timely communicated to all employees and internal marketing should also focus on communicating the customer brand promises. Further, this finding was also consistent with the study done by Rousseau (2001), who stated that the adequate organizational information helps reduce/ improve the accuracy of the perception by the recruits about the firm or about the employment in general.

To find out whether or not employer brand is aligned to hiring practices in universities in Kenya, majority (37.7%) of respondents agreed, 5.0% strongly agreed, 28.8% were undecided but 26.2% disagreed and 2.3% strongly disagreed. Average score rate was 3.16 out of 5 and standard deviation of 0.9424 was recorded. This also indicates that majority of the respondents in universities in Kenya were somehow agreed that employer brand is aligned to hiring practices. This finding was consistent with the study by Wilden Gudergan and Lings (2010) who stated that it is important to align hiring practices with employer branding. Based on whether universities in Kenya, brand behavior is rewarded or not, the finding suggests that, 6.8% of respondents strongly agreed, 26.4% agreed, 28.0% of respondents were undecided, 31.4% disagreed while 6.4% strongly disagreed. Average score rate was 2.92 out of 5 with standard deviation of 1.046.

In general the respondents were not in agreement that brand behavior is rewarded hence this was inconsistent with the findings of Krieger, Esmann and Thomsen (2011) who stated that firms with a strong employer brand exhibited a number of features such as: high recognition, positive image in the labor market, adherences to the promises of the psychological contract, unique economic and symbolic features that are available to potential employees, accurate differentiation as an employer, stable policies and activities for positioning the company in the labour market.

As far as employer branding strategy is concerned with overall rating of 3.26 out of possible scale of 5 and standard deviation of 1.210 it can be concluded that employer branding strategy has some influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This finding was consistent with studies done by Martin (2011) who found out that employer branding has a potential to attract the human capital that best fits the strategic aims and bottom line of organizations. The details of the finding are shown in table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Employer branding strategy descriptive Statistics

Statement	S.D	D	N	A	S. A	Mean	Std. Dev
EBS1	2.6%	29.1%	18.9%	33.1%	16.2%	3.32	1.143
EBS2	2.0%	23.3%	36.9%	30.6%	7.3%	3.20	.933
EBS3	3.0%	25.7%	21.5%	44.9%	5.0%	3.25	.984
EBS4	2.3%	26.2%	28.8%	37.7%	5.0%	3.16	.9424
EBS5	6.4%	31.4%	28.0%	27.4%	6.8%	2.92	1.046
EBS6	3.3%	12.0%	33.8%	35.5%	15.4%	3.62	2.679
EBS7	3.3%	18.5%	27.1%	42.9%	8.3%	3.33	.9912
EBS8	2.0%	22.5%	28.8%	39.1%	7.6%	3.27	.961
EBS9	1.0%	9.1%	16.9%	51.0%	22.0%	3.83	.9166
Total						3.26	1.210

4.5.4 Career Development Strategy and Retention of Employees

The fourth objective of the study sought to determine the influence of career development strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the following statements as concerns career development strategy in their universities: - The Universities has career development strategy in place; 2.3% strongly disagreed, 7.3% disagreed, 17.5% were neutral, 52.1% agreed and 20.8% strongly agreed. This finding was consistent with Bolagun (2005), Light, Calkins & Cox (2009) and Demirel (2009) who explained that the 21st century changes required workers who have skills and competencies that differ substantially from the knowledge and `abilities required in the 20th century. This finding is consistent with the study which showed that there is a positive relationship between the career development practices and employees' retention at public universities in Kenya (Abbas, 2014; Oduma, 2014; Monis & Sreedhara, 2011).

In regard to know whether or not the university employees are trained and developed in various capacity development programs, 2.6% strongly disagreed, 9.9% disagreed, 26.2% were neutral, 45.4% agreed and 15.9% strongly agreed. Average score rate was 3.6192 out of a scale of 5 and standard deviation of 0.95620 was recorded. This also indicated that majority of the respondents in universities in Kenya were in agreement that university employees are trained and developed in various capacity development programs. This finding concurred with Armstrong (2009) when he asserted that lack of clear career path or development is a major cause of poor employee retention. To know whether or not career development programs are aligned with employee personal goals and university vision and mission, 8.9% strongly disagreed, 10.9% disagreed, 29.1% were neutral, 34.4% agreed and 16.6% strongly agreed. Average score rate was 3.3874 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.15231 was recorded.

This also indicated that majority of the respondents in universities in Kenya were somehow in agreement that university career development programs are aligned with employee personal goals and universities' vision and mission. To know whether or not top management supports both individual and organization's career development programs, 2.3% strongly disagreed, 12.2% disagreed, 28.1% were neutral, 34.7% agreed and 22.8%1 strongly agreed. Average score rate was 3.6325 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.03783 was recorded.

The finding indicated that majority of the respondents in universities in Kenya were in agreement that top management supports both individual and organization's career development programs. This finding was consistent with the studies of Bakker and Demerouti (2008) who supported the individual effort in career development also demanded the corporate structure involvement within the career development of its staff and leaders to support it which will increase workers' trust, job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions and usually improve leader performance.

Further analysis was aimed to determine the extent to which the university employees are given promotional opportunities; 1.0% strongly disagreed, 11.6% disagreed, 15.9% were neutral, 49.3% agreed and 22.2% strongly agreed. Average score rate was 3.8013 out of 5 and standard deviation of 0.94725 was recorded. The finding suggest that majority of the respondents in universities in Kenya were in agreement that university employees are given promotional opportunities. This was supported by findings of Stahl, Björkman, Farndale, Morris, Paauwe, Stiles and Wright (2012), in their article on "principles of effective global talent management" which insisted that employees be given promotional opportunities to be retained. On the other hand, to determine whether or not staff promotion opportunities in universities are done competitively, 2.6% strongly disagreed, 12.9% disagreed, 23.1% were neutral, 46.9% agreed and 14.5% strongly agreed. Average score rate was 3.5762 out of 5 and standard deviation of .97774 was recorded.

The finding suggests that majority of the respondents in universities in Kenya were in agreement that staff promotion opportunities in universities are done competitively. This was also supported by this article on “principles of effective global talent management” by Stahl, *et. al.* (2012) which insisted that staff promotion opportunities in companies should be done competitively.

To find out if within the universities there are clear talent management processes: 6.6% strongly disagreed, 24.4% disagreed, 36.6% were neutral, 25.4% agreed and 6.9% strongly agreed. Average score rate was 3.0199 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.02117 was recorded. The respondents in universities in Kenya again did not agree that there are clear talent management processes. However, Armstrong and Taylor (2014) stated that Talent management processes is vital to any organization and should not be limited to the favored few as pointed out also by DeLong and Vijayaraghavan (2003) when they suggested that the unsung heroes of corporate performance are the capable steady performers.

Lastly, the respondents were asked to state whether or not staff within universities with unique talents and skills are identified, recognized and rewarded, 13.2% strongly disagreed, 40.7% disagreed 19.9% were neutral, 20.5% agreed and 5.6%strongly agreed. Average score rate of 2.6457 and standard deviation of 1.11631 was recorded suggesting that the universities do not identify, recognize and reward unique talents and skills. This finding was consistent with the study by Prince (2005) who stated that organizations should identify talented employees to achieve a competitive advantage in the economic environment. The overall finding shows that career development strategy somehow influences retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

This finding was consistent with the study by Prince (2005) who explicitly stated that for an organization to gain and maintain competitive advantage, talented, skilled and productive employees are required and at the same time these employees need career development to enhance and cultivate their competencies. This was supported with an overall rating 3.4375 and standard deviation of 1.0166. The rest of the results are shown in table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Human Resource planning strategy descriptive analysis

Statement	S.A	D	N	A	S.A	Mean	Std. Dev
CDS1	2.3%	7.3%	17.5%	52.1 %	20.8%	3.818	.92399
CDS2	2.6%	9.9%	26.2%	45.4 %	15.9%	3.619	.95620
CDS3	8.9%	10.9 %	29.1%	34.4 %	16.6%	3.387	1.1523
CDS4	2.3%	12.2 %	28.1%	34.7 %	22.8%	3.633	1.0378
CDS5	1.0%	11.6 %	15.9%	49.3 %	22.2%	3.801	.9473
CDS6	2.6%	12.9 %	23.1%	46.9 %	14.5%	3.576	.9777
CDS7	6.6%	24.4 %	36.6%	25.4 %	6.9%	3.020	1.0212
CDS8	13.2%	40.7 %	19.9%	20.5 %	5.6%	2.646	1.1163
Total						3.4375	1.0166

4.5.5 Employee Relations Strategy and Retention of Employees

The fifth objective of the study was to assess the influence of employee relations strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The respondents were asked to state their level of agreement with the following items based on employee relations strategy and how they are associated with retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The results were as follows: On whether or not the universities had effective strategies for employee relations management, 33.1% of the respondents agreed and 16.2% strongly agreed, 18.9% were neutral, 29.1% disagreed and only 2.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed.

An average score rate of 3.250 was recorded with a standard deviation of 0.90011. This indicated that majority of universities in Kenya somehow have effective strategies for employee relations management. On whether or not in the universities, the employee relations strategy supports retention strategy, 30.6% of the respondents agreed, 7.3% strongly agreed, 36.9% were undecided 23.3% disagreed and 2.0% strongly disagreed. An average score rate of 3.1800 was recorded with a standard deviation of 0.89271. This suggested that in universities, the employee relations strategy moderately supports retention strategy with the majority being undecided.

The respondents were asked whether or not the universities have clear and effective communication channels. 44.9% of respondents agreed, 5.0% strongly agreed, 21.5% were undecided but 25.7% disagreed and 3.0% strongly disagreed. Average scale of 3.7267 out possible 5 and standard deviation of 1.81291 was recorded. This means that the universities have clear and effective communication channels which are consistent with the findings of the studies by Papasolomou and Vrontis, 2006; Werhane and Royal, 2009 and Greenberg and Antonucci, 2014, who all emphasized that organizations should be more concerned about employee communications.

To find out whether or not employees will likely be retained when they are conversant with the policies, rules, regulations and their work roles in universities in Kenya, Majority at 9.2% of respondents agreed, 24.0% strongly agreed, 34.7% were undecided, but 24.1% disagreed and 5.0% strongly disagreed. Average score rate was 3.667 out of 5 and standard deviation of 0.89731 was recorded. This also indicated that most employees in universities will likely be retained when they are conversant with the policies, rules, regulations and their roles. This finding was consistent with the study by Dries and Permans (2008) who stated that organizations with policies that are clear and future-oriented are likely to retain their employees for a longer time.

Based on whether cordial relationship exists between management and staff in universities in Kenya or not, the finding suggests that; 38.0% of the respondents agreed 29.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that organizations behave wisely and honestly 21.8% of the respondents were undecided, 7.9% disagreed while 3.3% strongly disagreed. Average score rate was 3.91 out of 5 with a standard deviation of .87499. From the result, it can be concluded that there is a cordial relationship between management and staff in universities in Kenya. This finding was rightly captured in the definition of employee relations by Werhane and Royal (2009), as cited in CIPD (2011) when he defined employee relations as ‘everything involved in the relationship between an employee and their employer.’ He added that it is about creating the right climate within the organization to enable it to meet its objectives through employee. To achieve these objectives, there must be a cordial relationship between the universities’ management and the employees.

To find out if universities have an effective ‘hybrid’ structures in advocating for employee voice; 45.9% of the respondents agreed 9.2% of respondents strongly agreed that organizations behave wisely and honestly 23.1% of respondents were undecided, 19.1% disagreed while 2.6% strongly disagreed. Average score rate was 3.91 out of 5 with a standard deviation of 0.936. From the result, it can be concluded that the universities have an effective ‘hybrid’ structures in advocating for employee voice. From the other finding, we can conclude that the respondents agreed as far as the items listed under employee relations strategy are concerned with an overall rating of 3.832 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.035. This was consistent with the findings of the studies by Sission (2000) and Purcell and Georgiades (2007) who stated that management should come up with ‘hybrid ‘ structures in advocating for employees voice through involvement and participation in the organization’s decision making processes. Table 4.18 shows the details of the finding.

Table 4.18: Employee relations strategy descriptive statistics

Statement	S.D	D	N	A	S. A	Mean	Std. Dev
ERS1	2.6%	29.1%	18.9%	33.1%	16.2%	3.250	.9001
ERS2	2.0%	23.3%	36.9%	30.6%	7.3%	3.180	.8927
ERS3	3.0%	25.7%	21.5%	44.9%	5.0%	3.727	.8129
ERS4	3.3%	8.6%	19.9%	53.3%	14.9%	3.707	.9220
ERS5	5.0%	24.1%	34.7%	27.1%	9.2%	3.663	.8713
ERS6	3.3%	7.9%	21.8%	38.0%	29.0%	3.417	.8749
ERS7	2.6%	19.1%	23.1%	45.9%	9.2%	3.393	.9841
ERS8	3.3%	19.2%	32.1%	33.4%	11.9%	3.310	1.021
TOTAL						3.830	1.035

4.5.6 Retention of Employees

In this section, the study is concerned with the descriptive analysis of the dependent variable (retention of employees). The respondents were asked to state their level of agreement on the following items regarding retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The findings were as follows: On whether or not the university has a robust retention strategy in place and implements it, 33.1% of the respondents agreed and 16.2% strongly agreed, 18.9% were undecided, 29.1% disagreed and only 2.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed. An average score rate of 2.8963 was recorded with a standard deviation of 0.99290. This suggested that majority of the universities have a robust retention strategy in place and implements it. This finding contradicts that of Guma (2011) who found that public universities in particular have poor retention policies and strategies. Concerning whether or not the respondents would recommend this university to family or friends as a great place to work, 7.3% strongly agreed, 30.6% agreed, 36.9% were neutral, 23.3% disagreed and 2.0% strongly disagreed. This also indicated that majority the university employees would recommend this university to family or friends as a great place to work.

This finding was consistent with the study done by Guma (2011) who stated that an ‘employer of choice’ is one who is highly regarded by a targeted population of employees because they offer great opportunities in line with niche market with attractive rewards. The overall mean rate of 3.2508 and standard deviation of 0.96271 was recorded.

The respondents were also asked to state whether or not they are encouraged to come up with new ways of doing things in their role; 44.9% of respondents agreed, 5.0% strongly agreed, 21.5% were undecided, but 25.7% disagreed and 3.0% strongly disagreed. An average score of 2.9967 out possible 5 and standard deviation of 0.97105 was recorded. This suggested that employees within universities are encouraged to come up with new ways of doing things in their role. This finding was closely consistent with the study done by Sofijanova and Zabijakin-Chatleska (2013) who found out that employee involvement and participation are empowerment programs that have a direct and significant correlation to the managerial perception of organizational performance as this enhances the employees’ innovativeness. In addition to that, the respondents were asked whether the universities employees have a clear understanding of their job responsibilities and what was expected of them or not. 53.3% of the respondents agreed, 14.9% strongly agreed and 19.9% were undecided 8.6% disagreed and 3.3% strongly disagreed.

An average score rate of 3.6355 was recorded with a standard deviation of 3.08670. This also indicated that majority the university employees have a clear understanding of their job responsibilities and what was expected of them. This finding was consistent with the study by (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013) who stated that employees are likely to remain with an organization only if they believe that the organization shows more interest and concern for them, if they know what is expected of them, if they are given a role that fits their capabilities and if they receive regular positive feedback and recognition.

To find out if the employees within the universities do not want to leave their current jobs, the majority of the respondents at 34.7% were undecided 27.1% agreed, 9.2% strongly agreed, but 24.1% disagreed and 5.0% strongly disagreed. A mean score of 3.0836 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.20807 was recorded. This implied that majority of university workers are somehow not satisfied with their work and as such are undecided whether to quit their current jobs or not. This finding was consistent with the study by Boomer Authority (2009) who found out that retention factors incorporating the needs and desires of employees at any age enhance levels of individual job satisfaction, loyalty and commitment and thus they will be retained for a longer time within the organization.

To find out whether universities employees are in their current job assignment because they do not want to expose themselves to alternative employers or not, the majority of the respondents at 38.0% agreed, 21.8% were undecided, 29.0% strongly agreed, but 7.9% disagreed and 3.3% strongly disagreed. Mean score of 3.0836 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.23434 was recorded. In conclusion, many employees within universities in Kenya do not want to expose themselves to alternative employers. This is probably because of fear of losing their jobs, but further research should be conducted to investigate this. Similarly, the respondents were asked to state whether they are actively searching for an alternative job assignment elsewhere or not; 45.9% agreed, 23.1% were undecided, 9.2% strongly agreed, but 19.1% disagreed and 2.6 % strongly disagreed. A mean score of 2.9666 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.22292 was recorded. Again the respondents were in agreement that they are actively involved in searching for other alternative job assignments. The respondents were asked to state if they do interesting and challenging work; 33.4% agreed, 32.1% were undecided, 11.9% strongly agreed, but 19.2% disagreed and 3.3 % strongly disagreed.

A mean score of 3.6622 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.165 was recorded. Lastly, the respondents were asked to state if they feel the level of responsibility given to them was acceptable. The responses were as follows: 33.1% agreed, 18.9 % were undecided, 16.2 % strongly agreed, but 29.1% disagreed and 2.6 % strongly disagreed. A mean score of 3.6622 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.165 was recorded.

In general the respondents were in agreement as far as the items listed under retention of employees are concerned i.e. the respondents were in agreement that they are actively involved in searching for other alternative job assignments. This was consistent with the findings of the studies by Mwiria (2007), Waswa and Katana (2008), Schneider and Bowen (2009) and Waithaka (2012) whose studies had shown that universities' staffs in public universities had been quitting and searching for lucrative jobs in many countries like Namibia, South Africa, Canada, USA and Asia among others due to poor human resource management practices and poor governance Tetey (2009) by the universities. The details of the findings are shown in table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Retention of employee's descriptive statistics

Statement	S.D	D	N	A	S. A	Mean	Std. Dev
RE1	2.6%	29.1%	18.9%	33.1%	16.2%	2.896	.99290
RE2	2.0%	23.3%	36.9%	30.6%	7.3%	3.251	.96271
RE3	3.0%	25.7%	21.5%	44.9%	5.0%	2.997	.97105
RE4	3.3%	8.6%	19.9%	53.3%	14.9%	3.636	3.0867
RE5	5.0%	24.1%	34.7%	27.1%	9.2%	3.084	1.2080
RE6	3.3%	7.9%	21.8%	38.0%	29.0%	2.595	1.2343
RE7	2.6%	19.1%	23.1%	45.9%	9.2%	2.967	1.2229
RE8	3.3%	19.2%	32.1%	33.4%	11.9%	2.468	1.1707
RE9	2.6%	29.1%	18.9%	33.1%	16.2%	3.662	1.1656
Total						2.987	1.3562

4.6 Diagnostic Tests

This describes the adequacy and completeness of the data collected and analyzed in the study.

4.6.1 Identity Correlation Matrix Test

Factor analysis was conducted to ascertain the suitability of all the factors observed within the five variables. A first correlation matrix was obtained for all the factors and scrutinized for chances of Multicollinearity. Correlation matrix gives the correlation coefficients between a single factor and every other factor in the investigation. The correlation coefficient between a factor and itself is always 1; hence the principal diagonal of the correlation matrix contains ones. This, therefore, means it is an identity matrix (Kothari, 2009). According to Tables of correlation Matrices in appendix IV Table (1, 2 3, 4, 5 and 6), there was no Multicollinearity amongst the observed factors for the variable under investigation and the matrices were also identity matrices. Further analysis using the determinants of the correlation matrices shown at the foot of each table indicates that the matrices obtained were all identity matrices since the determinants were all greater than 0.00001, so there was no problem of Multicollinearity for all the variables.

In addition to that, Bartlett's test indicates the strength of the relationship among variables. It tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrices in appendix IV were identity matrices. An identity matrix is one in which all of the diagonal elements are ones and all off-diagonal elements are zero (Kothari 2009). The correlation matrix for human resource planning strategy, recruitment strategy, and employer branding strategy, career development strategy, employee relations strategy and retention of employees' indicators suggest that they were an identity matrix hence there was no multicollinearity amongst the indicators for all variables of the study. The diagonal elements are 1 and off-diagonal have the significance of 0.05.

4.6.2 Sample Adequacy Test (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO))

The sample adequacy test was done to define if the sample used in the study was adequate or inadequate. It was measured using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test. The sampling adequacy should be greater than 0.5 for a satisfactory factor analysis to proceed.

A common rule is that a researcher should have 10 – 15 participants per variable. Factor analysis is inappropriate when the sample size is below 50 (Fiedel, 2005). Orodho (2008) recommends 0.5 as a minimum (barely accepted), values between 0.7- 0.8 acceptable and values above 0.9 are superb. From Table 4.20, the sample was acceptable since the KMO values were mainly between 0.707 and 0.810. The least value was 0.644 which was also good enough since it was above the minimum of 0.5.

Table 4.20: KMO and Bartlett's test

Variables	Measure		
Human Resource Planning Strategy	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.901	
	Approx. Chi-Square	1237.546	
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	28
	Sig.	.000	
Recruitment Strategy	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.856	
	Approx. Chi-Square	1237.747	
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	28
	Sig.	.000	
Employer Branding Strategy	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.894	
	Approx. Chi-Square	1310.960	
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	36
	Sig.	.000	
Career Development Strategy	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.857	
	Approx. Chi-Square	1566.246	
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	28
	Sig.	.000	
Employee Relations Strategy	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.834	
	Approx. Chi-Square	1136.598	
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	28
	Sig.	.000	
Retention of Employees	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.717	
	Approx. Chi-Square	835.739	
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	36
	Sig.	.000	

4.6.3 Normality Test

4.6.3.1 Skewness and Kurtosis Test for Normality

The study sought to find out how well the distribution could be approximated, that is, whether the data is normally distributed or not. Consequently, Skewness and Kurtosis was employed as shown in Table 4.21. Skewness measures the deviation of distribution from symmetry and Kurtosis measures 'peakness' of the distribution (Ming'ala, 2002; Orodho 2008). The values of Skewness and Kurtosis should be zero in normal distribution (Field, 2009).

Table 4.21 Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables	Descriptive	Statistic	Std. Error	Z score
	Std. Deviation	.58462		
Human Resource planning strategy	Skewness	-.087	.140	
	Kurtosis	-.432	.279	-0.396
Recruitment strategy	Std. Deviation	.74812		
	Skewness	-.207	.140	0.800
Employer branding strategy	Kurtosis	-.368	.279	0.875
	Std. Deviation	.72830		
Career development strategy	Skewness	-.207	.140	-1.241
	Kurtosis	-.368	.279	1.627
Employee relations strategy	Std. Deviation	.76432		
	Skewness	-.875	.231	-1.978
Retention of employees	Kurtosis	1.163	.459	1.644
	Std. Deviation	.36153		
Retention of employees	Skewness	-.875	.231	-1.978
	Kurtosis	1.163	.459	1.644
Retention of employees	Std. Deviation	.36153		
	Skewness	.085	.140	-0.873
Retention of employees	Kurtosis	-.573	.279	1.105

Although it is assumed in multiple linear regressions that the residuals are distributed normally it is a good idea before drawing final conclusions, to review the distributions of major variables of interest (Ming'ala, 2002). Histograms are a good way of getting an instant picture of the distribution of data (Field, 2009). Therefore a histogram was also employed in the study to test the normality of the dependent variable as shown in Figure 4.3 since t- test, regression and ANOVA are based on the assumption that the data were sampled from a Gaussian distribution (Indiana, 2011).

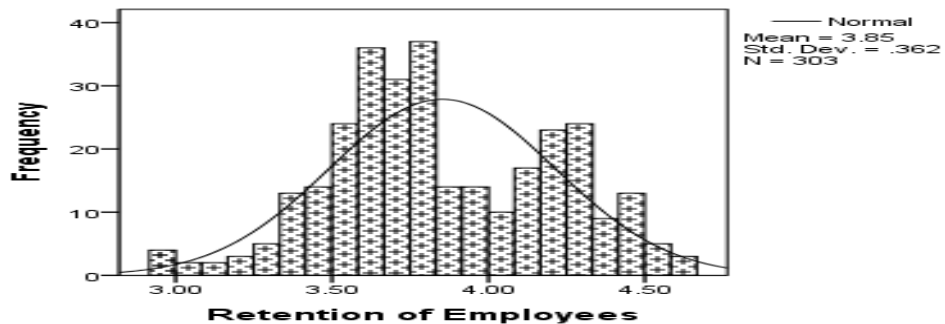


Figure 4.3 Histogram for normality test

4.6.3.2 Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Test for Normality

Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk test was also used to test the normality of all the study variables. The study compared all the scores in all the samples and checked whether they had the same mean or standard deviation or not. The findings for Kolmogorov- Smirnov test for normality showed that the p- values were greater than 0.05 indicating that the distributions were normal. The same case applied with Shapiro-Wilk. The details of the findings are shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22 Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statisti	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Human Resource planning strategy	.082	303	.061	.987	303	.127
Recruitment strategy	.097	303	.034	.976	303	.214
Employer branding strategy	.095	303	.200	.980	303	.123
Career development strategy	.092	303	.105	.974	303	.131
Employee relations strategy	.111	303	.056	.979	303	.216
Retention of employees	.109	303	.123	.974	303	.189

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

4.6.3.3 Normality Test using Q-Q plot

The normal Q-Q plot for the dependent variable, retention of employees in universities in Kenya, shown in Figure 4.4, indicated that the observed value was falling along a straight line. This therefore meant that the variable was normally distributed which was consistent with the earlier findings based on skewness and Kurtosis test, Kolmogorov- Simonov and Shapiro wilk tests.

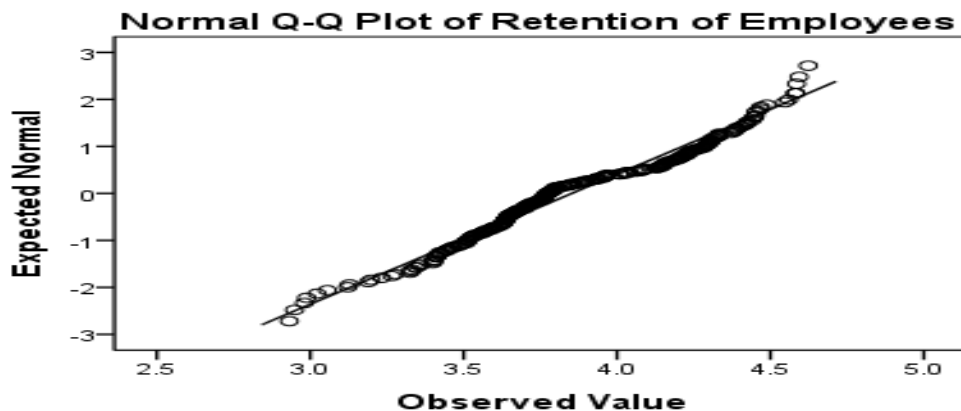


Figure 4.4 Q-Q plots

4.6.3.4 Outliers Test

An outlier may be described as any observation far from the rest of other observation. The presence of outlier in any given data made the data not to assume Gaussian condition that is normality condition. It is therefore important to test the presence of outliers in any given data and even remove them for normality condition to be satisfied. In this study the outliers present are shown in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23 Outliers detected

Variables	Position of observed outliers	Total number of outliers
Human Resource Planning Strategy	84,86,79,81,236,39,131,138,79,166,158, 172,164,39,12, 98,234,238 and 242	19
Recruitment Strategy	136,160 and 279	3
Employer Branding Strategy	93, 98 and 279	3
Career Development Strategy	156 and 279	2
Employee Relations Strategy	140,191,236 and 279	4
Retention Of Employees	110, 140 and 158	3

4.6.3.5 Collinearity Diagnostic Test

When an eigenvalue is larger than the others, then the uncentered cross products matrix can be highly affected by small changes in the independent variables or outcome. If the eigenvalues are fairly similar, then the model obtained is likely to be unchanged by small changes in measured variables (Myers, 2013). In this study this test was done to determine if multicollinearity existed or not among the independent variables. According to the study findings the model had eigenvalues fairly larger than the rest indicating that the model obtained was likely to be changed by small changes in the measured variable. The condition index is another way of expressing eigenvalues and they represent square root ratio of the largest eigenvalue to the eigenvalue of interest.

According to Creswell and Creswell (2017), the condition index will always be 1 for the dimension with the most significant eigenvalue, however, the condition index value can be larger than 1. Large values may indicate that collinearity existed, but it is also worth noting that there is no specific value or rule about how large the condition index value should be to indicate collinearity problems. According to the findings in Table 4.24 model 1 had final condition index values 22.438.

Alternatively, collinearity may be detected by looking for predictors that have high variance proportions on the same small eigenvalues (Bryman, & Bell, 2015). High variance proportions indicated that the variances of their regression coefficients are dependent. In this study, 70% of the variance in regression coefficient of human resource planning strategy was associated with eigen value in dimension number 6, 43% of the variance in the regression coefficient of recruitment strategy was associated with eigen value in dimension 2, 45% of the variance in the regression coefficient of employer branding strategy was associated with eigen value in dimension 3, 56% of the variance in the regression coefficient of career development strategy was associated with eigen value in dimension 4 and 67% of the variance in the regression coefficient of employee relations was associated with eigen value in dimension 5. This indicated that there was no dependency between the 5 predictor variables in the model.

Table 4.24 Collinearity diagnostics test

Model	Dimensio n	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions					
				(Constant)	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5
1		5.915	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
2		.029	14.193	.35	.07	.03	.15	.11	.00
3		.017	18.886	.24	.21	.26	.45	.01	.00
4		.015	20.031	.01	.00	.43	.15	.56	.10
5		.013	21.491	.32	.02	.03	.03	.31	.67
6		.012	22.438	.08	.70	.25	.23	.00	.22

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees

4.6.3.6 Correlation Analysis of Independent Variables

Correlation analysis gives the relationship between variables. In this study, Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (r 's) was used to establish the relationship between the independent variables. The correlation coefficients are summarized in Table 4.25. The findings also revealed that there was a significant relationship between the independent variables since all the p -values were less than 0.01, that is p - values $0.000 < 0.01$. Even though there was a significant relationship between the independent variables, there was no problem of multicollinearity among the variables since all the r values were less than 0.8 as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidel (2007).

Table 4.25 Correlation analysis of independent variables

		HRPS	RS	EBS	CDS	ERS
HRPS	Pearson Correlation	1	.583**	.472**	.542**	.565**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	303	303	303	303	303
RS	Pearson Correlation	.583**	1	.651**	.664**	.597**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	303	303	303	303	303
EBS	Pearson Correlation	.472**	.651**	1	.683**	.596**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	303	303	303	303	303
CDS	Pearson Correlation	.542**	.664**	.683**	1	.625**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	303	303	303	303	303
ERS	Pearson Correlation	.565**	.597**	.596**	.625**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	303	303	303	303	303

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

4.6.3.7 Multicollinearity Test for Independent Variables

In this study, multicollinearity test was tested using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). A VIF of more than 10 ($VIF \geq 10$) indicates a problem of multicollinearity. According to Montgomery (2001), the cut-off threshold of 10 and above indicates the existence of multicollinearity while tolerance statistic values below 0.1 indicate a serious problem while that below 0.2 indicates a potential problem.

The results in table 4.26 indicated that the VIF value for human resource planning strategy was established to be 1.742 while its tolerance statistic was reported to be 0.574, recruitment strategy was established to be 2.342 while its tolerance statistic was reported to be 0.427, the VIF value for employer branding strategy was established to be 2.254 while its tolerance statistic was reported to be .444, the VIF value for career development strategy was established to be 2.449 while its tolerance statistic was reported to be .408 and lastly, VIF value for employee relations strategy was established to be 2.039 while its tolerance statistic was reported to be .490. Based on these the assumption of no multicollinearity between predictor variables was thus not rejected as the reported VIF and tolerance statistics were within the accepted range.

Table 4.26: Human Resource planning strategy (multicollinearity)

Model 1	Strategies	Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)		
	Human Resource planning strategy	.574	1.742
	Recruitment strategy	.427	2.342
	Employer branding strategy	.444	2.254
	Career development strategy	.408	2.449
	Employee relations strategy	.490	2.039

4.6.3.8 Test for Autocorrelation (independent of errors)

The assumption is that for any observations the residual terms should be uncorrelated (independent). This assumption was tested using the Durbin- Watson test which tests for serial correlations between errors. It tests whether the adjacent residuals are correlated or not. A value of 2 means the residuals are uncorrelated, a value greater than 2 indicates a negative correlation between adjacent residuals, whereas a value below two indicates a positive correlation (Field, 2009). However, Durbin-Watson statistical values less than one or greater than three are cause for concern.

In this study, the Durbin-Watson statistical values were 1.801 as shown in overall summary in table 4.27. The findings suggested that the residual terms were independent.

Table 4.27: Overall Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.942 ^a	.888	.886	.12227	1.801

a. Predictors: (Constant), X₄X₃, X₁, X₂ model 1

b. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)

4.6.3.9 Heteroscedasticity and Homoscedasticity

In a study, heteroscedasticity normally occurs when the variance of the errors varies across observation (Long & Ervin, 2000). Breusch-Pagan was used to test the null hypothesis that the error variances are all equal versus the alternative that the error variances are a multiplicative function of one or more variables. Breusch-Pagan tests the null hypothesis that heteroscedasticity is not present which imply that homoscedasticity is present. If P-value is less than 0.05, reject the null hypothesis. A large chi-square value greater than 9.22 would indicate the presence of heteroscedasticity (Sazali, Hashida, Jegak & Raduan, 2010). In this study, the chi-square values resulting from each regression where every independent variable is considered individually were as follows: 7.135246, 4.685952, 5.831145, 4.985877 6.215672 with corresponding p-values as 0.032422, 0.020721, 0.024418, 0.021374 and 0.031221 indicating that heteroscedasticity was not a problem. The null hypothesis tested was that variance is constant versus the alternative that variation was not constant. The independent variables were: human resource planning strategy, recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, career development strategy and employee relations strategy. Table 4.28 shows the result of the findings.

Table 4.28 Breusch-Pagan Test for Heteroscedasticity

Ho	Variables	Chi2(1)	Prob > Chi2
Constant Variance	Human Resource planning strategy	7.135246	0.032422
Constant Variance	Recruitment strategy	4.685952	0.020721
Constant Variance	Employer branding strategy	5.831145	0.024418
Constant Variance	Career development strategy	4.985877	0.021374
Constant Variance	Employee relations strategy	6.215672	0.031221

The overall chi-square value resulting from overall regression indicates that heteroscedasticity was absent hence variance was said to be constant (Homoscedasticity) as shown in table 4.29.

Table 4.29 Breusch-Pagan test for Homoscedasticity

Ho	Variables	Chi2(1)	Prob > Chi2
Constant Variance	Human Resource Planning strategy, Recruitment strategy, Employer branding strategy, Career Development Strategy, Employee Relations Strategy	6.821447	0.026326

4.7 Regression Analysis

4.7.1 Linearity Test for Human Resource Planning Strategy

To find out whether or not there was a linear relationship between human resource planning strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya, Pearson moment's correlation coefficients was used as suggested by Cohen, West and Aiken, (2003). The result of the finding is presented in table 4.30. The result indicated that the variables retention of employees and human resource planning strategy had a positive relationship as indicated by a correlation coefficient value .766^{**}. This suggested that there was a positive linear relationship between human resource planning strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya which meant that an increase in human resource planning strategy would lead to a linear increase in retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

Table 4.30: Human Resource planning strategy correlations coefficients

Variable		Retention of Employees	Human Resource Planning strategy
Retention of Employees	Pearson Correlation	1	.766**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	303	303
Human Resource Planning strategy	Pearson Correlation	.766**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	303	303

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

Other than product-moment correlation coefficient, linearity was also tested using scatter plot between human resource planning strategy and retention of employees and the result in figure 4.5 indicated that there was a a linear relationship between retention of employees and human resource planning strategy.

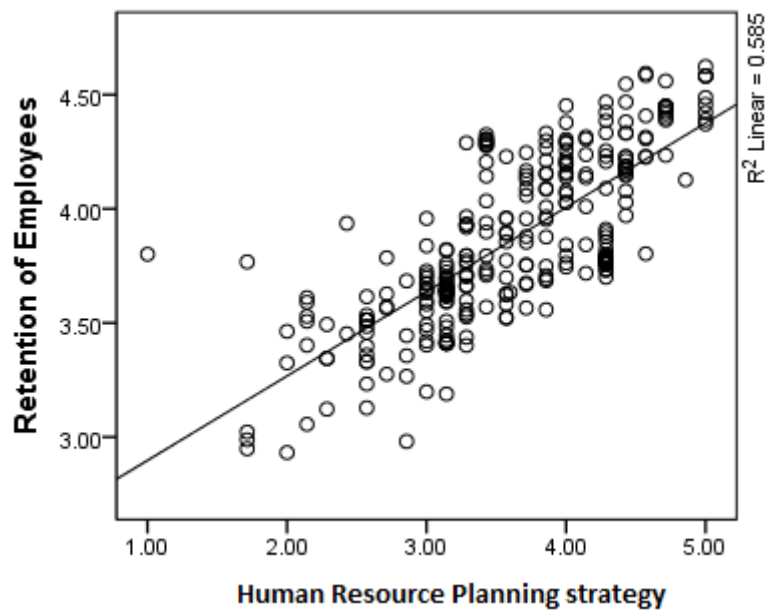


Figure 4.5 scatter plot between retention of employees and human resource planning strategy

4.7.2 Regression Analysis for Influence of Human Resource Planning

The first objective of the study was to establish the relationship between human resource planning strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The objective was tested using the null hypotheses that; human resource planning strategy has no significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya against the alternative that human resource planning strategy has a significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The test was conducted using the linear regression model. From the model summary table shows that the strength of the relationship between the predictor variable and the response variable is shown using correlation (R) or coefficient of determination R- square. The R- square is an indicator of how well the model fits the data. An R- square value which is close to 1.0 indicates that the dependent variable entirely depends on the independent variables while a value close to 0 indicates no correlation between the explanatory variables and the dependent variable (Ming'ala, 2002). Table 4.31 shows the regression analysis findings between human resource planning strategy and retention of employees. From the Table 4.30, the value of R- square value was 0.586. This implied that 58.6% of retention of employees was explained by human resource planning strategy.

4.7.3 ANOVA for Human Resource Planning Strategy (X₁)

This finding was further illustrated in the analysis of variance Table 4.32 where an F-Statistics value of 428.281 was recorded with a p-value of 0.000 which was less than 0.05. This, therefore, implied that there was a significant relationship between human resource planning strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This means that Human Resource Planning strategy influences retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This finding was consistent with the studies done by Ngui, Mukulu and Gachunga (2014) which found that there is a positive significant relationship between strategic human resourcing and employee performance.

4.7.4 Coefficients for Human Resource Planning Strategy (X₁)

From the coefficient Table 4.33, t-test was also used to test the relationship between the predictor variable human resource planning strategy and retention of employees and there was significant relationship between the two variables with p-value = 0.000 < 0.05 for the model and t-Statistics value being 20.695. The regression equations between human resource planning strategy and retention of employees for the model can be expressed as; $Y = 2.256 + 0.474X_1$. The model indicates that for every unit of human resource planning strategy, retention of employees value changes by 0.474. The descriptive analysis also supported these results.

From the results, the null hypothesis was rejected and we accept the alternative hypothesis and conclude that human resource planning strategy has a significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

Table 4.31: Regression analysis for influence of Human Resource planning strategy and retention of employees

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.766 ^a	.587	.586	.23265	1.517

a. Predictors: (Constant), Human Resource planning strategy X₁

b. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)

Table 4.32 ANOVA for Human Resource planning strategy (X₁)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	23.181	1	23.181	428.281	.000 ^b
	Residual	16.292	301	.054		
	Total	39.473	302			

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)

b. Model 1 Predictors: (Constant), X₁

Table 4.32: Coefficients for Human Resource planning strategy (X₁)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.
Model 1	(Constant)	2.256	.078		28.8	.000
	Human Resource Planning strategy	.474	.023	.766	20.7	.000

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees

4.7.5 Linearity Test for Recruitment Strategy

To establish whether or not there is a linear relationship, the study adopted the Pearson moment's correlation coefficients and the result presented in table 4.34. The results indicate that the variables recruitment strategy and retention of employees had a positive relationship as indicated by a correlation coefficient of .765**

Table 4.33: Human Resource planning strategy correlations coefficients

Variable		Retention Employees	of Recruitment strategy
Retention Employees	of Pearson Correlation	1	.765**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	303	303
Recruitment strategy	Pearson Correlation	.765**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	303	303

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

Scatter plot between recruitment strategy and retention of employees as shown in figure 4.6 shows that there is a linear relationship between recruitment strategy and retention of employees.

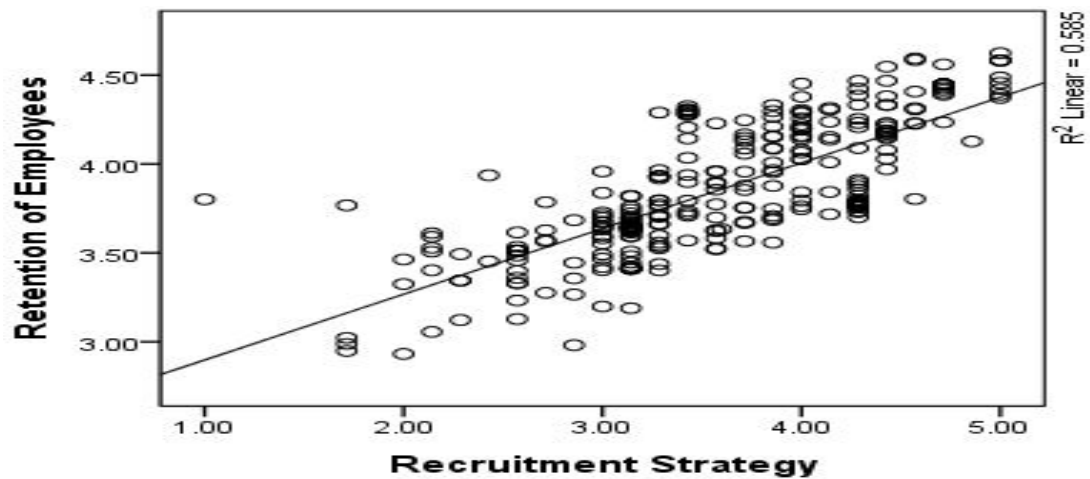


Figure 4.6 scatter plot between recruitment strategy and retention of employees

4.7.6 Regression Analysis for Influence of Recruitment Strategy

The second objective was to establish the influences of Recruitment strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The objective was tested using the null hypotheses that; there is no significant association between recruitment strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya against the alternative that there was significant influence between recruitment strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The Pearson's product moment correlation statistic was used to test the relationship between the recruitment strategy and retention of employees. The R square value indicated on the summary model table 4.33 shows that 0 .585 (58.5%) of retention of employees was explained by recruitment strategy as shown in Table 4.35. This was quite significant at 0.05. These results indicated that there was a positive significant influence between recruitment strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

4.7.7 ANOVA for Recruitment Strategy

Further analysis indicates that the results of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) shown in Table 4.36, it was clear that the F- statistics value of 423.935 and the p-value was (0.000) was less than 0.05 which statistically means that there was a significant influence of recruitment strategy on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This finding was consistent with the studies done by Frankeisis (2010) which found that the organization talent management, recruitment and retention policy can significantly reduce attraction rates.

4.7.8 Coefficient: Recruitment Strategy (X_2)

Further the regression coefficient showed that the t-value was 20.590 with p- value of 0.000 which is less than 0.05, significance level. These values indicate that recruitment strategy significantly influence retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This was in agreement of the finding based on the ANOVA table.

The model generated from the coefficient table was as follows. $Y=2.528+ 0.370X_2$, implying that for every unit increase of recruitment strategy, retention of employees increases with 0.370. See table 4.37 for more details.

Table 4.34: Regression analysis for influence of recruitment strategy (X_2) and retention of employees

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
2	.765 ^a	.585	.583	.23335	1.753

- a. Model 1 Predictor: (constant) recruitment strategy X_2
 c. Dependent Variable: retention of employees

Table: 4.35 ANOVA recruitment strategies (X_2)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Constant	23.083	1	23.083	423.935	.000 ^b
	Regression					
	Residual	16.390	301	.054		
	Total	39.473	302			

- a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees
 b. Model 1 Predictors: (Constant), recruitment strategy (X_2)

Table 4.36 Coefficients for recruitment strategy (X_2)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
1	Constant	2.528	.066		38.5	.00	
	Recruitment strategy	.370	.018	.765	20.9	.00 1.000	1.00

- a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)

From the findings there was significant relationship between recruitment strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya, hence the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative adopted that is there was a significant association between recruitment strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

4.7.9 Linearity Test for Employer Branding Strategy

In a similar manner to Human Resource Planning strategy and recruitment strategy, Linearity of variables was tested using correlation coefficients as suggested by Cohen, West and Aiken, (2003). To establish whether or not there is a linear relationship, the study adopted the Pearson moment's correlation coefficients and the result presented in table 4.38 below. The results indicated that the variable employer branding strategy and retention of employees had a strong positive relationship as indicated by a correlation coefficient of .724**.

Table 4.38: Employer branding strategy correlations coefficients

		Retention of Employees	Employer branding strategy
Retention of Employees	Pearson Correlation	1	.724**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	303	303
Employer branding strategy	Pearson Correlation	.724**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	303	303

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

Scatter plot between employer branding strategy and retention of employees is shown in figure 4.7. Shows clearly that there was linear relationship between employer branding strategy and retention of employees

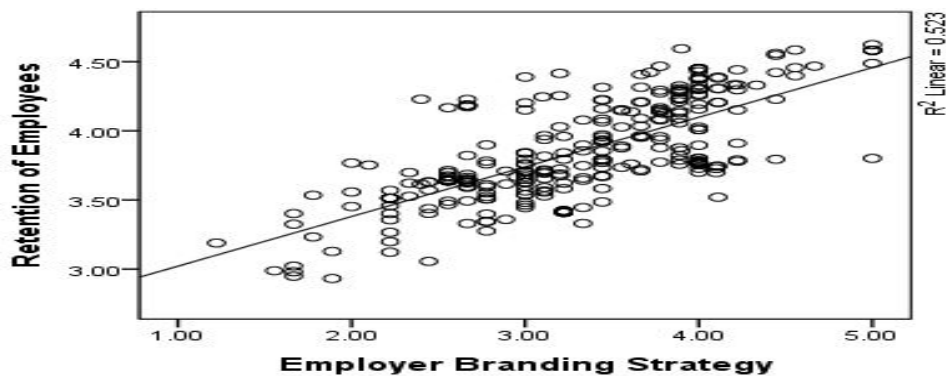


Figure 4.7: Scatter plot of employer branding strategy and retention of employees.

4.7.10 Regression Analysis for Influence of Employer Branding Strategy

To establish the third objective, a simple regression analysis was conducted to find a relationship between the employer branding strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The hypothesis tested was; **H₀**: There is no significant relationship between employer branding strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya against **H₁**: Employer branding strategy has a significant positive influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. To test the hypotheses, linear regression model was used as shown in Table 4.39. The coefficient determinant, R- square value was 0.522. This, therefore, implied Employer branding strategy explained at least 52.2 % of the variability of retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

4.7.11 ANOVA: Employer Branding Strategy

Analysis of variance results for regression coefficients revealed that the F-statistic value 330.640 was recorded showing that the model was significant with p-values being 0.000 which was less than 0.05 hence the null hypothesis was rejected. Table 4.40 presented, indicated the results. The implication was that there was a significant positive relationship between employer branding strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This finding was consistent with the studies done by Corporate Leadership Council (2004) which found that organizations with managed employment and employer brands are able to source from more than 60% of the labour force, while those with unmanaged brands can source only 40%.

4.7.12 Coefficient: Employer Branding Strategy (X₃)

The regression coefficient showed that the t-value was 39.72 with p-value of 0.000 which is less than 0.05, significance level. These values indicated that employer branding strategy significantly influenced retention of employees in universities in Kenya. This was in agreement of the finding based on the ANOVA table.

The model generated from the coefficient table was as follows; $Y=2.662+ 0.359X_3$, implying that for every unit increase of employer branding strategy, retention of employees in Kenya increases with 0.359. See table 4.41 for more details.

Table 4.38: Regression analysis for employer branding strategy (X_3) and retention of employees

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.724 ^a	.523	.522	.24999	1.601

a. Model 1 Predictors: (Constant), employer branding strategy (X_3)
 Dependent variable: Retention of Employees (Y)

Table 4.39 ANOVA for employer branding strategy (X_3)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.663	1	20.663	330.640	.000 ^b
	Residual	18.810	301	.062		
	Total	39.473	302			

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)
 b. Model 1 Predictors: (Constant), X_3

Table 4.40 Coefficient for employer branding strategy (X_3)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Err	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)	2.662	.067		39.7	.202		
2	Organization structure*Z	.359	.020	.724	18.2	.000	1.000	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)

From the analysis it was therefore, concluded that the third null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative was accepted so there was a significant relationship between employers branding strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya in Kenya.

4.7.13 Career Development Strategy Linearity Test

Similarly as was the case of other variables, to establish whether or not there is a linear relationship between career development strategy and retention of employees, the study adopted the Pearson moment's correlation coefficients which the result is presented in table 4.42. The results indicated that the variable career development strategy and retention of employees had a strong positive relationship as indicated by a correlation coefficient of .764^{**}. This implied that there was a linear positive relationship between career development strategy and retention of employees. Thus an increase in career development strategy would result in a linear increase in retention of employees.

Table 4.41: Career development strategy correlations coefficients

		Retention of Employees	Career Development Strategy
Retention of Employees	Pearson Correlation	1	.764 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	303	303
Career Development Strategy	Pearson Correlation	.764 ^{**}	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	303	303

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

Scatter plot between career development strategy and retention of employees as shown in figure 4.4 shows clearly that there was a linear relationship between career development strategy and retention of employees.

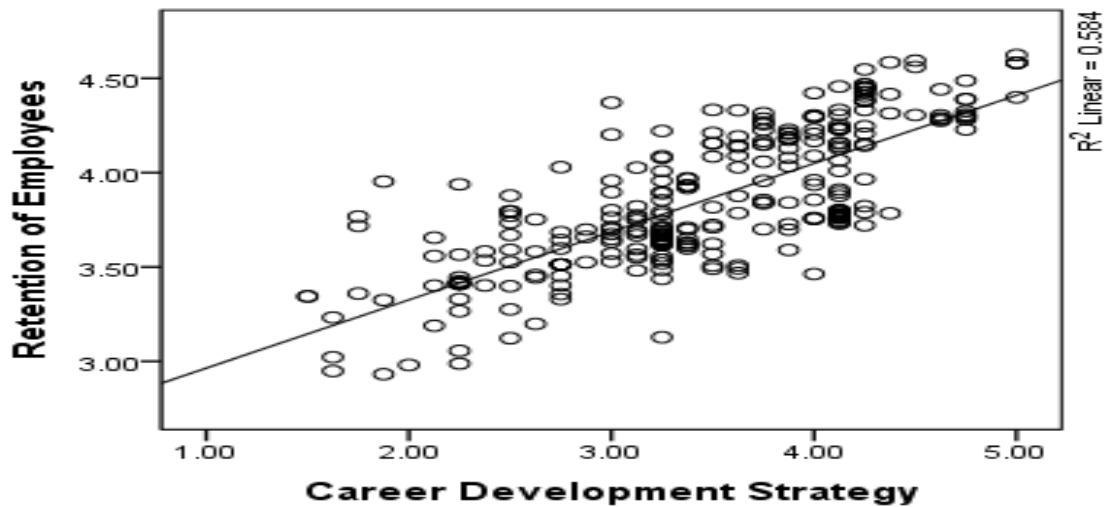


Figure 4.8 Scatter plot of career development strategy and retention of employees

4.7.14 Regression Analysis of Influence of Career Development Strategy

Regression analysis was conducted to establish the association between the career development strategy and retention of employees. From the findings, an R- square value of 0.584 was recorded indicating that career development strategy explained 58.4% of retention of employees. Model summary table 4.43 shows the findings.

4.7.15 ANOVA. Career Development Strategy

The F-statistics 423.059 presented in table 4.44 indicates that the overall model was significant, that is, the independent variable, career development strategy was a good joint explanatory for retention of employees. P- Value was $0.000 < 0.05$ also indicates that the model was fit. This finding was consistent with the studies done by Abbas, Oduma, Monis and Sreedhara, (2014), which found that there is a positive relationship between career development practices and employees' retention.

4.7.16 Coefficient: Career Development Strategy (X_4)

From the regression coefficient table, there was a significant positive relationship between career development strategy and retention of employees. The model is given as $Y = 2.603 + .362X_4$.

The regression coefficient of 0.362 indicates that an increase in career development strategy by 1 unit leads to an increase in retention of employees by 0.362 units.

Table 4.42: Model summary for career development strategy

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
2	.764 ^a	.584	.583	.23349	1.612

a. Model 1 Predictors: (Constant), X₄ and X

Table 4.43: ANOVA. Career development strategy

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
2	Regression	23.064	1	23.064	423.059	.000 ^b
	Residual	16.409	301	.055		
	Total	39.473	302			

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)

b. Model 1 and 2 Predictors: (Constant), X₄

Table 4.44: Regression coefficients- career development strategy

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error				Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.603	.062		41.837	2.6		
	Career Development Strategy	.362	.018	.764	20.568	.36	1.000	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees (Y)

From the analysis, the null hypothesis was rejected indicating that there was a significant positive relationship between career development strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

4.7.17 Employee Relations Strategy Linearity Test

To find out whether there was a linear relationship between employee relations strategy and retention of employees or not, Pearson moment's correlation coefficient was again applied. The result of the finding is presented in table 4.46. The result indicated that the variables employee relations strategy and retention of employees had a positive relationship as indicated by a correlation coefficient value of 0.764^{**}.

This suggests that there is a positive linear relationship between employee relations strategy and retention of employees which means that an increase in employee relations strategy would lead to a linear increase in retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

Table 4.45: Employee relations strategy correlations coefficients

Variable		Retention of Employees	Employee Relations Strategy
Retention of Employees	of Pearson Correlation	1	.764**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	303	303
Employee relations strategy	Pearson Correlation	.764**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	303	303

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

Other than product-moment correlation coefficient, linearity was also tested using scatter plot between employee relations strategy and retention of employees. The result in figure 4.9 indicates that there was a linear relationship between employee relations strategy and retention of employees.

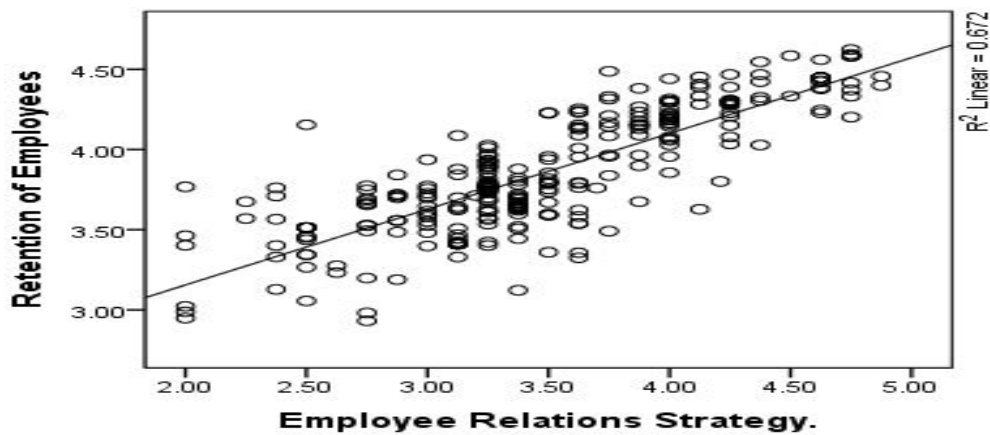


Figure 4.9 Scatter plot between employee relations strategy and retention of employees

4.7.18 Regression Analysis for Employee Relations Strategy

Table 4.47 indicates the model summary for the regression between employee relations strategy and retention of employees. An R- square of 0.672 indicated that changes in employee relations strategy explain 67.2% of retention of employees.

4.7.19 ANOVA. Employee Relations Strategy

The ANOVA table 4.48 shows that the regression model between employee relations strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya was significant (it indicates the goodness of fit for the regression model established between the independent variables and dependent variable). F statistic of 616.939 indicated that the overall model was significant as this was further supported by a probability value of 0.000 which was less than 0.05 ($p=0.00 < 0.05$). This study was consistent with the studies done by Sofijanova and Zabijakin-Chatleska, (2013), which found that effective use of employee involvement, is positively related to perceived organizational performance.

4.7.20 Coefficients- Employee Relations Strategy

The regression coefficient table 4.49 shows that the regression model between employee relations strategy and retention of employees was given as $Y = 2.210 + 0.473X_5$ which indicated that there was significant positive relationship between employee relations strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The regression coefficient of 0.473 indicated that for a unit increase of employee relations strategy, retention of employees' increases by 0.473.

Table 4.46: Model summary employee relations strategy

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.820 ^a	.672	.671	.20737	1.617

a. Predictors: (Constant), , employee relations strategy X5

b. Dependent variable: retention of employees (Y)

Table 4.47: ANOVA- employee relations strategy

Indicator	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	26.529	1	26.529	616.939	.000 ^b
Residual	12.943	301	.043		
Total	39.473	302			

Table 4.48: Regression coefficients- employee relations strategy

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	2.210	.067		32.9	.000
	Employee Relations Strategy	.473	.019	.820	24.8	.000

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees

From the above analysis, we can reject the null hypothesis that employee relations strategy has no significant positive influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya and conclude that employee relations strategy had a significant positive influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

4.8 Multivariate Regression Analysis

This section presents the results on the combined effects of all the independent variables which are human resource planning strategy, recruitment strategy, career development strategy, employer branding strategy and employee relations strategy on the dependent variable that is, retention of employees in universities in Kenya. A multiple linear regression models were used to test the significance of the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. Therefore, the overall model for the study was as follows:

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

where: Y = Retention of employees (dependent variable)

X₁ = Human Resource planning strategy

X₂ = Recruitment strategy

X₃ = Employer branding strategy

X₄ = Career development strategy

X₅ = Employee relations strategy

Table 4.50 shows the analysis of the fitness of the model used in the study. The results indicate that the overall model was satisfactory as it is supported by the coefficient of determination also known as the R-square of 0.888. This means that all the independent variables explained 88.8% of the variations in the dependent variable.

4.8.1 ANOVA Overall Model Fitness

Table 4.51 provides the results on the analysis of the variance (ANOVA). The results indicated that the overall model was statistically significant. This was supported by an F statistic of 468.666 and the reported p-value (0.000) which was less than the conventional probability of 0.05 significance level. These results suggested that the independent variables are good predictors of dependent variable (retention of employees)

4.8.2 Overall Regression Coefficients

Regression of coefficients results in Table 4.52 shows that there was a positive and significant relationship between retention of employees (dependent variable) and human resource planning strategy, recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, career development strategy and employee relations strategy (independent variables). From the finding, the overall model obtained was expressed as follows:-

$$Y = 1.698 + 0.192X_1 + 0.082X_2 + 0.071X_3 + 0.078X_4 + 0.205X_5$$

These were supported by beta coefficients of 0.192, 0.082, 0.071, 0.078 and 0.205 respectively.

These results showed that a change in either of the variables would definitely lead to a positive change in retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

Table 4.49: Overall summary model

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.942 ^a	.888	.886	.12227	1.801

a. Predictors: (Constant), recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, human resource planning strategy, career development strategy and employee relations strategy.

Table 4.50: Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	35.033	5	7.007	468.666	.000 ^b
	Residual	4.440	297	.015		
	Total	39.473	302			

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees

Table 4.51: Overall regression coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coeff		T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error			Beta	Tolerance
	(Constant)	1.698	.046	36.863	.000		
	Human Resource planning strategy	.192	.016	.310	12.068	.000	.574 1.742
	Recruitment strategy	.082	.014	.170	5.705	.000	.427 2.342
	Career development strategy	.071	.015	.142	4.872	.000	.444 2.254
	Employer branding strategy	.078	.014	.164	5.387	.000	.408 2.449
	Employee relations strategy	.205	.016	.356	12.800	.000	.490 2.039

a. Dependent Variable: Y(retention of employees (Y)

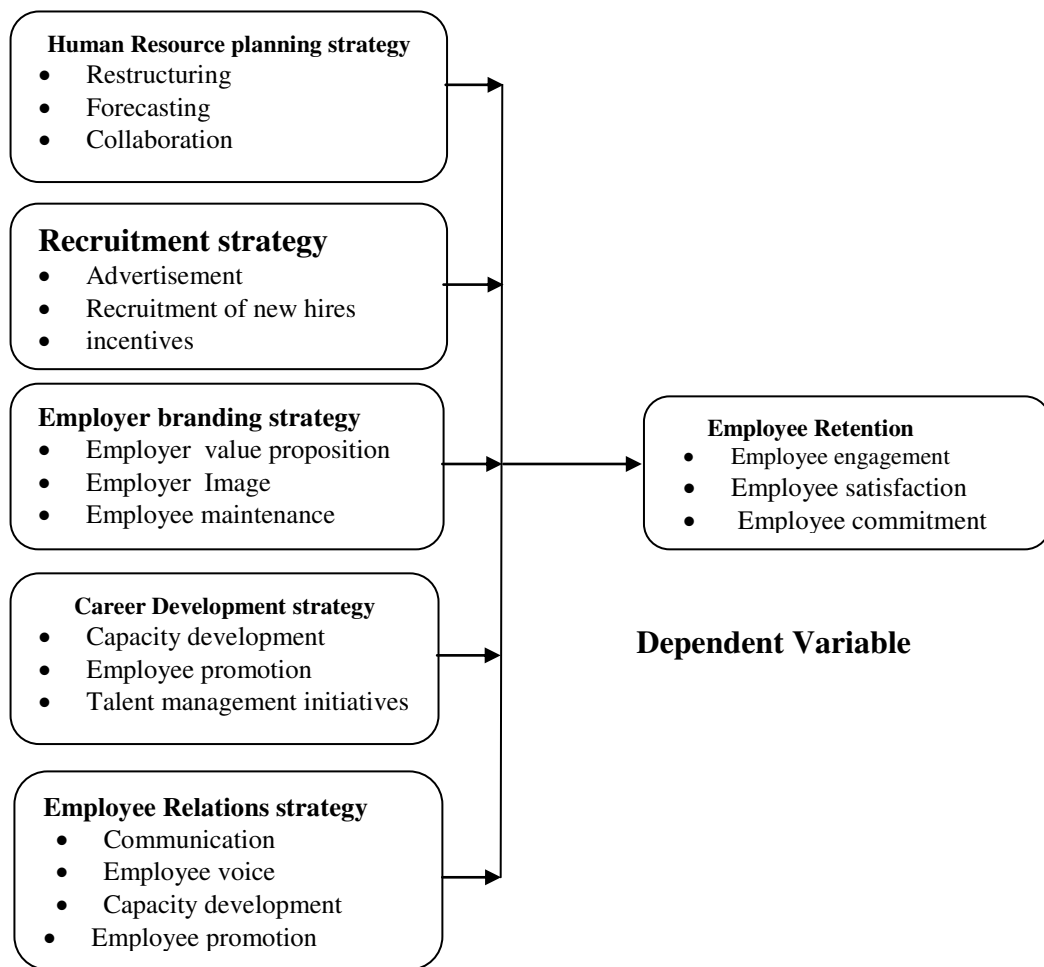
From the above analysis, the study can reject the entire null hypothesis that human resource planning strategy, recruitment strategy , employer branding strategy , career development strategy and employee relations strategy had no significant influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya and concluded that all the independent variables; human resource planning strategy, recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, career development strategy and employee relations strategy had significant positive influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. this was supported by P-values less than 0.05 (P-values < 0.05). Table 4.53 shows the summary of the hypotheses rejected.

Table 4.52: Overall regression coefficients

Hypotheses	t- value	Sig value	Decision
$H_0: \beta_1 = 0$ $H_1: \beta_1 \geq 0$	12.068	.000	Reject H_0
$H_0: \beta_2 = 0$ $H_1: \beta_2 \geq 0$	5.705	.000	Reject H_0
$H_0: \beta_3 = 0$ $H_1: \beta_3 \geq 0$	4.872	.000	Reject H_0
$H_0: \beta_4 = 0$ $H_1: \beta_4 \geq 0$	5.387	.000	Reject H_0
$H_0: \beta_5 = 0$ $H_1: \beta_5 \geq 0$	12.800	.000	Reject H_0

4.8.3 Optimality of the Model

From the overall regression model obtained above, the proposed model ($Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + e$) was retained as the optimal model since no variable recorded no significant positive influence on retention strategy to employees in universities in Kenya because all the null hypotheses were rejected. For this reason, the conceptual framework was retained as was proposed in the study. Figure 4.10 shows the final conceptual framework of the model



Independent variables

Figure 4.10 Retained conceptual framework as the optimal model of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the summary of the findings and it also provided conclusion and recommendations of the study based on the objectives of the study. The main objective of this study was to assess the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

5.2 Summary of Major Findings

Findings from the inferential statistics shows that there was a positive and significant relationship between the independent variables of the study namely; human resourcing strategies, recruitment strategies, employer branding strategies, career development strategies and the dependent variable of the study(retention of employees) . From the findings, the overall model obtained showed that a change in either of the variables would definitely lead to a positive change in retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

Another finding of the study also rejected the null hypothesis (H_0) that human resource planning strategy, recruitment strategy, employer branding strategy, career development strategy and employee relations strategy had no significant influence on retention of employees and instead accepted the alternative hypothesis (H_a). The study had also made great contribution to the existing theory and knowledge to humanity. Finally, the results indicated that the overall model was satisfactory as it was supported by the coefficient of determination also known as the R-square of 0.888. This means that 88.8% of the retention of employees in universities in Kenya is explained by the independent variables of the study.

5.2.1 Human Resource Planning Strategy and Retention of Employees

From the inferential findings, there was a positive significant relationship between the independent variable (human resource planning strategy) and the dependent variable (retention of employees) in universities in Kenya. According to the study 58.7% of retention of employees was explained by human resource planning strategy. The coefficient for Human Resource planning strategy rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis and concludes that human resource planning strategy has a positive significant influence on the retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

5.2.2 Recruitment Strategy and Retention of Employees

From the inferential findings, there was a positive significant relationship between the independent variable (recruitment strategy) and the dependent variable (retention of employees) in universities in Kenya. According to the study 58.5% of retention of employees was explained by recruitment strategy. The coefficient for recruitment strategy rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis and concludes that recruitment strategy has a positive significant influence on the retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

5.2.3 Employer Branding Strategy and Retention of Employees

From the inferential findings, there was a positive significant relationship between the independent variable (employer branding strategy) and the dependent variable (retention of employees) in universities in Kenya. According to the study 52.2% of retention of employees was explained by employer branding strategy. The coefficient for employer branding strategy rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis and concludes that employer branding strategy has a positive significant influence on the retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

5.2.4 Career Development Strategy and Retention of Employees

From the inferential findings, there was a positive significant relationship between the independent variable (career development strategy) and the dependent variable (retention of employees) in universities in Kenya. According to the study 58.4% of retention of employees was explained by career development strategy. The coefficient for career development strategy rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis and concluded that human resource planning strategy has a positive significant influence on the retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

5.2.5 Employee Relations Strategy and Retention of Employees

From the inferential findings, there was a positive significant relationship between the independent variable (employee relations strategy) and the dependent variable (retention of employees) in universities in Kenya. According to the study 67.2% of retention of employees was explained by employee relation strategy. The coefficient for employee relations strategy rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis and concluded that human resource planning strategy had a positive significant influence on the retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

5.3 Conclusion of the Study

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between human resourcing strategies and retention of employees in universities in Kenya. According to the study human resource planning strategy would help universities in Kenya to get the right number and kind of employees to perform their job responsibilities in order to achieve their vision and mission. Since human resources are the key and most valuable asset to an organization for it to achieve competitive advantage, therefore, an effective recruitment strategy would assist universities in Kenya to attract, recruit and retain employees with the right skills, knowledge and abilities to realize high job performance.

The employer branding strategy can help universities in Kenya to attract, recruit and retain committed and talented employees. This can be done when universities develop an Employee Value Proposition that is to be embodied in their employment brand. The brand contains what universities offer to their employees which is then marketed and effectively communicated to targeted and current employees.

According to the study, employees would be loyal and willing to be retained longer if management puts in place career development opportunities like frequent capacity development and competence training to improve employee capabilities which lead to improved productivity. Therefore, inability by universities in Kenya to develop clear career development strategy would likely be a major cause of poor retention. Finally, employee relations strategy can help universities in Kenya to achieve their objectives. This would be done when they recognize and value their employees and one way is through providing them with forums where they can air their grievances and give their inputs to the organization. The study acknowledged that universities whether private or public in both developing and developed countries faced challenges in recruiting and retaining their key employees particularly the technical, professional and academic. Therefore, management of retention is a key priority for universities in Kenya to achieve their mandate and competitive edge.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

This section gives recommendations of this study to the relevant stakeholders for possible consideration and implementation.

Human Resource Planning Strategy and Retention of Employees

Human Resource Planning strategy is an important aspect taken into account in running daily universities affairs. Most importantly, universities' managements and councils should have a revised, robust and effective human resource planning strategy in their human resource policy document which details the short, medium and long term human resource requirements in their strategic plans and look upon to its implementation, monitoring and evaluation by ensuring that there is will.

This study moreover made the following recommendations to top universities management boards and councils to enhance Human Resource Planning strategies on retention. Firstly, top universities management should also support and implement human resource planning strategies through: effective communication to build credibility of human resource strategies of the organization to all levels of employees, to timely address human resource planning implementation challenges by providing leadership, financial resources and moral support to employees, to strictly adhere to promotions and appointments criteria, matching skills with responsibilities and remuneration adopting rigorous approach and implementation to human resource strategies and proper induction and placement of recruits.

Secondly, the top university management should provide a friendly working environment that incorporates all employees as part of their human resource planning strategy. Indeed, participation of employees and their engagement is important for efficient and effective running of universities. Also, human resource planning strategies should be reviewed on continuous basis to accommodate emerging social, economic, political and cultural challenges in the business environment. It is also recommended that universities' demand and supply surveys should be reviewed by their respective human resource departments continuously to balance the right numbers of employees to be recruited and retained for work. This would help in streamlining retention strategies and would enable employees have strong feelings of satisfaction and make decisions to stay.

Further, the study recommended to top universities boards and councils that they should conduct prompt and proper supervision of their employees on day to day basis to enable the management to detect and expose high performing employees and ineffective ones. This would help them to devise plans that would determine those employees who deserved to be retained and those to be laid off their duties and responsibilities.

In addition, they should minimize the practice of keeping employees on acting, contracts and temporary appointments for too long. This tends to demoralize employees and reduces their potential to perform and lose sense of loyalty to the organization. There is also need for universities to provide attractive incentives such as good medical care, salaries, leave and pension allowances.

Moreover, universities human resource strategies should be integrated with the universities vision and mission on short, medium and long term planning for future employee requirements. This demands that universities should also be strategic in recruiting and put in place proper succession plans as part of human resource planning strategy as this facilitates continuity and retention. At the same time, universities should train their human resource managers both in-house and externally on human resource planning techniques to enable them to develop sustainable human resource strategies and also put in place pro-active and transformative leadership to deal with the changing human resource planning needs. Lastly, Universities should devise and incorporate new employee satisfaction methods and motivation packages in their human resource planning strategies to motivate and hence keep their employee's retained.

Recruitment Strategy and Retention of Employees

It is very important that universities' managements and councils should have revised, robust and effective recruitment strategies in their human resource policy document and look upon to its implementation, monitoring and evaluation by ensuring that there is a will, resources and leadership.. A good recruitment strategy is one that enables organizations to attract, recruit and retain right employee with right skills and abilities. This study makes the following recommendations to top universities management boards and councils to enhance recruitment strategies on retention.

Firstly, universities should identify the recruitment needs of their departments.

The task involves carry out thorough job analysis and work details which provide information regarding skills, training, qualifications and experience for their employees before embarking on recruitment exercise. Secondly, top universities management should ensure that they advertise vacant positions in local newspapers and social media as this would give equal opportunities to all interested job applicants from a wide catchment area and attract individuals who are competent and meet the skill set.

This would also allow recruiters more time for vetting, short-listing and send feedback to recruits and also this will minimize cases of poaching. Upon successful interviews, issuing of appointment letters should also not take an unusually too extended period to be released to successful recruits. Timely and effective communication also attracts recruits to a transparent and unbiased recruitment process hence recruits would likely be happy and satisfied to stay. Indeed, there is also need for universities to train recruiters to sharpen their skills and knowledge to conduct a fair recruitment exercise and choose suitable candidates competently. The recruitment strategy should also be integrated with all other organizational strategies to achieve the objectives of the organization.

The study also strongly recommended that top university management should eliminate manipulative, non-subjective and discriminative recruitment practices like tribalism, nepotism and instead embrace competitive practices relative to competences of prospective recruits from all diversity (gender, disability, tribe, race and religion) across all departments. It is further recommended that universities should also put in place competitive salaries scales and other motivational packages/benefits and welfare schemes for their employees. Once recruited employees should be allowed freedom to work independently and freely under minimal supervision.

This would attract skilled, talented and motivated recruits to be willing and committed to staying. Finally, Universities should device proper methods of placement of new employees in their areas of specialization and ensure they are assigned right duties and responsibilities. Also, proper induction of new employees should be done timely so that they can learn and embrace institutional culture hence they would be able to appreciate the recruitment process and be motivated to stay. This should be given high priority to enable them to learn more on the institution and blend in and also eliminate a sense of abandonment by employees as a result of weak induction practice.

The study also recommends that recruitment strategy should give internal staff priority in the event of a promotion and appointments and encourages referrals and recruitment from within and only to source from outside in the circumstances of unavailability of such skills in the organization. At the same time, universities should also set aside more funding to support planning and in conducting recruitment with the aim of attracting right recruits who are motivated to stay. Finally, recruitment strategy should also involve headhunting strategy in the recruitment exercise so as to tap from scarce and rare workforce in the market.

Employer Branding Strategy and Retention of Employees

A good employer branding strategy should enable the universities to differentiate and promote its identity to its prospective and current employees. More importantly, universities managements and councils should have a revised, robust and effective policy on employer branding and look upon to its implementation, monitoring and evaluation by ensuring that there is a will, resources and leadership. This study makes the following recommendations to top universities management boards and councils to enhance employer branding strategies on retention.

Firstly, all universities should make an effort to develop, implement and review a robust employer branding strategy which unites all employees and makes them be known to the world from sharing visual identity by a set of symbols. All universities should ensure their employer branding strategy is done in writing and effectively communicated to all levels of employees of the organization as an employer of choice to enhance awareness in the market. It is recommended that universities' top management should fully support the brand with resources, moral support and provide needed leadership in promoting the brand and to implement and sustain branding campaign.

Secondly, universities should also monitor and evaluate their branding strategies. Monitoring is the collection and analysis of information about a branding strategy while it's ongoing. Monitoring and frequent evaluation should be carried out to identify strengths and weaknesses of the organization, that is, the universities should continually improve on the employer branding strategies by reviewing their current branding strategy to ensure they are in tandem with the current labor market after receiving feedback on the performance and reception internally and externally by the labor market.

The study recommended that universities top management should allow participatory processes as well as provide training (coaching) to all levels of employees to create awareness to their staff for them to understand the brand and support it for more efficient branding strategy the same rather than using select personnel at the top. This encourages a culture of research, innovation and teamwork which is the key to brand development brought about by sharing of ideas and knowledge. Hence employee would feel valued and be motivated to stay. Indeed universities should nurture a culture through employee surveys to monitor and evaluate their branding strategies. Information acquired from survey helps devise new employee satisfaction methods to motivate and keep their employees retained.

Finally, employer branding strategy should be aligned to hiring practices and each university should develop a proper employee's value proposition in their employer branding strategies. This attracts and inspires a trademark to external market and recruits who want to join the institution. Branding should be spelt out and stand out for all to identify with the employees. Top management should be pro-active and have decentralized opinions from employees on branding strategy with all resources and leadership and also reward employees who are brand ambassadors. This instills a sense of loyalty to the brand. Hence they feel motivated to stay.

Career Development Strategy and Retention of Employees

It is important that universities managements and councils should have a revised, robust and effective career development strategies in their human resource management policy document and look upon to its implementation, monitoring and evaluation by ensuring that there is a will, resources and leadership. An excellent career development strategy should be a life-long process of managing learning, work, leisure and transitions to move toward a personally determined and evolving preferred future. This study made the following recommendations to top universities management boards and councils to enhance career development strategies on retention.

First, each university should invest in the personal development planning process to enhance performance management and enhance capacity building. This requires that they should have a clear strategy that facilitates career progression like counseling, training, furthering studies and delegation of managerial responsibilities to subordinate from time to time. Further, there should be the continuous training of employees on new job skills to make them perform their jobs more efficiently and effectively as well as revise their work details to match skills required.

The study recommends that universities should not only come up with an all-inclusive career development policy that is not discriminative but preferably one which gives equal opportunities for all cadres of employees such as career development programs for their non-teaching staff which is currently not well structured leaving individual employee to configure own training and hence increasing chances of retaining them.

Universities should continuously observe meritocracy while promoting their employees as this serves as a source of incentive for employees to be retained. Universities should match employee competence with work performed, identifying aptitudes and spread abilities and nurture them appropriately as this makes employee develop a sense of being valued hence would develop strong feelings to stay. Employees having exceptional skills should be identified and be rewarded.

This motivates employees to work even harder and develop a sense of belonging hence the feeling to stay. Universities should come up with policies on talent management initiatives and career development activities to assist in acquiring training and higher education to develop a strong human capital base and provide leadership to enable employees who are highly skilled and high performing, talented and committed be identified and rewarded. Also every employee should be aware of their career progression from the point of employment to enable them to choose relevant training and development programs in their areas of practice and specialization hence this will help employees develop feelings of being retained.

Employee Relations Strategy and Retention of Employees

Above all, universities management boards and councils should have a revised, robust and effective employee relations strategy in their human resource policy document and look upon to its implementation, monitoring and evaluation by ensuring that there is a will, resources and leadership. .

This can be done by inducing more staff meetings between management and staff to discuss matters of common interest and resolve matters that affect employees but also involve them in participative management like planning, decision making and problem-solving processes in the organizations.

Also, Universities should also respond to employee queries/concerns in a supportive manner and take a constructive approach in solving them. The study recommended universities to use effective channels of communication (up-down and down-up) with their employees hence fostering team-work and smooth running of the operations within the organization. Consequently, there should be structures for employees to air their voice. They should frequently communicate to employees timely and handle them in a supportive manner when a retrenchment program is being undertaken and they need to regularly and consistently communicate on matters regarding employee performance and welfare such as health benefits, pension plan and benefits that come with exemplary performance.

Communication reduces power distance between management staff which in turn reduces suspicion and promotes unity and oneness between both parties. This would make them feel engaged and consider their options to stay. Further, the study also recommends that universities should also put in place trans-formative leadership style which builds strong feelings towards their subordinates and help create harmony between employees and management and also explore additional channels to foster good employer-employee relations. This can be done through training and seminars where all employees are invited.

The study also recommended to top universities management that employee relations policies/strategies should also be periodically reviewed in tandem with the rapid and complex changes in the economic, social, cultural political and technological environment in which modern organizations operate today.

Universities should also continue to explore better and effective employee human relations approaches, among them being employee engagement, involvement and consultation. Employee involvement is paramount in running universities, that is, universities should involve/seek employee's involvement/opinion in making serious and important decisions such as on management styles, leadership styles, marketing strategies and communication in the organization and their welfare to encourage consultative decision-making approach. Engagement ensures employees are well conversant with what is expected of them in terms of tasks, rules and regulations and knowledge of the mandate of the organization. This would foster feeling by employees to stay.

Retention of Employees

It is important that universities management boards and councils should have a revised, robust and effective retention strategy in their human resource policy document and look upon to its implementation, monitoring and evaluation by ensuring that there is a will, resources and leadership. Retention of key employees is critical for success and survival of an organization. That key employees include technical, academic and professionals. The study recommended to top management in universities in Kenya that they should implement a robust retention strategy to manage retention of key employees who are committed, skilled and talented to help achieve university goals. Secondly, Top university management should also invest in career growth and talent management initiatives. By providing them with opportunities to learn new skills or knowledge as this signals an investment in their present and future career growth and hence employees get job satisfaction which motivates them to consider staying longer.

The study noted that universities should create more enabling and conducive environment free from biases and victimization, that is, human resource managers should understand retention environment not as a policy but as a combined effort with employees by receiving feedback and suggestions and deal with challenges facing them and develop a clear structure of retention policies and implement them.

The key is open channel of feedback from employees to allow shape internal policies, soliciting inputs from employees, suggestions and insights (surveys) into what compels them to remain at the company is invaluable for identifying the policies that are indeed contributing to your employee retention strategy and for learning if there's any room for improvement as this enables employees enjoy their current job and are encouraged to stay.

Universities should put an effective communication across the organization as this improves their morale significantly since employees feel free to speak their minds, share their ideas, address conflicts and other grievances and participate in the organization's evolution. This requires that top management be committed to open, transparent and respectful communication and encourages this behavior in every employee in the organization. A bonus of these practices is that they would enhance trust in top management, which is another crucial factor in maintaining satisfied employees who are willing to stay longer.

The study is recommended to top universities management boards that employees should be given a precise role specification and job description with regular assessments made to employees. This is possible by communicating with employees to ensure they have a crystal-clear understanding of their job duties, company policies and so on and provide employees with regular feedback, so they know how they are being evaluated and rewards should be based on prevailing market rates. This enables them to set a career development program that they want to progress in hence would be motivated to stay.

Also, universities should put in place an attractive reward system where incentives are developed and implemented based on performance appraisal conducted frequently and which brings forth the component of rewards to avoid employees searching for alternative jobs. Soliciting employees' feedback is important in learning more about the benefits that would truly enhance their lives and wellbeing and consider allowing for customizable benefits options to account for the fact that different demographics of employees (such as, Boomers versus Millennials) tend to be motivated by different factors. Employees contribute a huge percentage to the running of an organization hence its essential that they feel respected and valued. Employees should be treated fairly and that top management consistently acknowledges employees for jobs well done as well as match skills to remunerations by providing greater rewards in the form of bonuses, part-time payment, raises, promotions, paid time off and gifts that provide actual value to employees' lives.

Universities need to devise, review and implement retention strategy which includes job security and where employees' development is guaranteed as well as their satisfaction methods by creating their involvement initiatives as much as possible by encouraging more bonding and engagement between them and top management. Universities also need to improve on employee diversity to enhance interaction, sharing of ideas, knowledge and information.

Finally, the study also recommended to universities to engage their employees in decision making and delegation of managerial duties to sharpen their skills and knowledge. This creates loyalty hence employees feel motivated to stay. Therefore, universities need not only to address issues of intrinsic motivations but equally address issues pertaining to improvement of the work conditions including providing working equipment and mechanisms for improved corporate governance to enhance retention. Public and private universities should try to avoid the need for involuntary separation and to minimize voluntary separation, especially among high performers as turnover is costly.

5.5 Areas for Further Research

The purpose of this study was to assess the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. A similar study could also be done to explore the influence of human resourcing strategies on retention of employees in other organizations in Kenya such as non-profit organizations, manufacturing and commercial sectors considering the importance of human resources to their survival and success in the competitive business environment and their contribution to the economic growth and development in the country. Another area of study or research could also be done in universities or some other organizations to examine the influence of resourcing strategies on performance of their employees using entirely different set of independent variables such as age, gender, sample size, marital status or hierarchy. Finally, a similar investigation could be done replicating this study using viable moderator and intervening variables.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: INTRODUCTION LETTER

DEAR RESPONDENT,

Re: Research proposal

I am a PhD Human Resource Management Student in the College of Human Resource Development in the School of Entrepreneurship, Procurement and Management of The Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. This is a census survey on the “Influence of Resourcing Strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.” It is in partial fulfillment of a requirement for the award of PhD Degree in Human Resource Management. I would be most grateful if you could help answer this questionnaire for me. This is a study for academic purpose and your response will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and anonymity.

Any concerns regarding questionnaire will be clarified. Please contact me on the phone on 0720294999 / 0773444573.

Thank you for your time and co-operation.

MICHAEL MBOYA MUMA

HD 412-C004/1116/2015

PART II A: HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING STRATEGY:

6. On a scale of 1-5 (where 1 means strongly disagree) and 5 means (strongly agree) express the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements as concerns Human Resource Planning strategy in your university.

Statements	1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree
The university has put in place HRP strategies.					
HRP strategies are used in forecasting the demand and supply of employees in this university.					
Forecasting has helped my university to have the right number and quality of staff.					
HRP strategies are reviewed from time to time in line with university retention strategy.					
In this university HRP strategies are integrated with the university's vision and mission.					
My university collaborates with other universities and organizations in both formulation and implementation of HRP strategies.					
In this university all restructuring activities are synchronized with HRP strategies.					

Top management gives financial and moral support to planning and implementation of HRP strategies.					
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7. What recommendation(s) can you make to Human Resource Planning strategy to enhance retention of employees?

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PART II B: RECRUITMENT STRATEGY

8. On a scale of 1 – 5 (where 1 means strongly disagree) and 5 means (strongly agree) express the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements as concerns recruitment strategy in your university.

Statements	1.Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree
In this university many recruitment strategies have been put in place to attract and make new recruits stay in the process.					
In this university recruitment of new hires begins only after all other employee recruitment strategies have been considered.					
In this university, vacancies are advertised and filled competitively.					
In this university clear criteria are employed to identify the right attributes of the recruits.					
In this university, recruitment strategies assist in the recruitment of new hires.					
Orientation and on-boarding strategies in this university give employees a sense of belongingness.					
Timeliness and effective communication are important strategies in the recruitment process.					

Top university management gives financial support to planning and implementation of recruitment strategies.					
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9. What recommendation(s) can make recruitment strategy to enhance retention of employees?

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PART II C: EMPLOYER BRANDING STRATEGY

10. On a scale of 1 – 5 (where 1 means strongly disagree) and 5 means (strongly agree) express the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements as concerns Employer Branding Strategies in your university.

Statements	1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree
The university has an effective employer branding strategy in place.					
In this university we have a clear employee value proposition.					
In this university the employer brand has been effectively communicated to all employees.					
The employer brand is aligned to hiring practices.					
In this university brand behavior is rewarded.					
My university is viewed as an employer of choice.					
In this university employees are catered for well.					
In this university top management support activities for successful employer branding.					

My university has positive image in the labour market.					
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11. What would you recommend to make an employer branding strategy enhance retention of employees?

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PART II D: CAREER DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

12. On a scale of 1 – 5 (where 1 means strongly disagree) and 5 means (strongly agree) express the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements as concerns career development strategy in your university.

Statements	1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree
The university has career development strategy in place.					
In this university employees are trained and developed in various capacity development programs.					
Career development programs are aligned with employee personal goals and university vision and mission.					
Top management supports both individual and organization's career development programs.					
In this university employees are given promotional opportunities.					
Staff promotion opportunities in this university are done competitively.					
In this university there are clear talent management processes.					
In this university staff with unique talents and skills are indentified, recognized and rewarded.					

13. What would you recommend to make career development strategy enhance retention of employees in an organization?

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PART II E: EMPLOYEE RELATIONS STRATEGY

14. On a scale of 1 – 5 (where 1 means strongly disagree) and 5 means strongly agree) express the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements as concerns employee relations strategy in your university

Statements	1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree
In this university there are effective strategies for employee relations management.					
In this university the employee relations strategy supports retention strategy.					
This university has clear and effective communication channels.					
Employees will likely be retained when they are conversant with the policies, rules, regulations and their roles.					
In this university cordial relationship exists between management and staff.					

This university has an effective 'hybrid' structures in advocating for employee voice.					
In this university employees participate in decision making.					
In this university the leadership style(s) helps to promote good employer- employee relations.					

15. What would you recommend to make employee relations strategy enhance retention of employees?

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PART II F: RETENTION OF EMPLOYEES

16. On a scale of 1 – 5 where 1 means (strongly disagree) and 5 means (strongly agree) express the extent to which you agree to disagree with the following statements as concerns retention strategy in your university

Statements	1. Strongly disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly agree
The university has a robust retention strategy in place and implements it.					
I would recommend this company to family or friends as a great place to work.					
I am encouraged to come up with new ways of doing things in my role.					
I have a clear understanding of my job responsibilities and What is expected of me.					
I do not want to leave my current job.					
I am in my current job assignment because I do not expose myself to the alternative employer.					
I am not actively searching for an alternative job assignment elsewhere.					
I do interesting and challenging					

work.					
I feel the level of responsibility I am given is acceptable.					

17. What would you recommend to make the study enhance retention of employees in an organization?

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Appendix III: ACCREDITED UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA – OCTOBER 2016

S/N	Private and Public Universities In Kenya	Teaching Staff	Non-Teaching Staff	Total teaching and Non staff	Sample size for Teaching Staff	Sample size for Teaching and non Teaching Staff	Total
1	Adventist University Of Africa	150	67	217	1	1	2
2	Africa International University	150	68	218	1	1	2
3	Aga Khan University	320	170	490	3	1	4
4	Baraton University	540	350	890	5	3	8
5	Chuka University	350	375	725	3	3	6
6	Catholic University	250	160	410	2	1	3
7	Daystar University	400	250	650	3	2	5
8	Dedan Kimathi University	426	307	733	4	3	7
9	Egerton University	830	765	1595	7	6	13
10	Great Lakes University	120	67	187	1	1	2
11	Gretsa University	123	60	183	1	1	2
12	International Leadership University	160	80	240	1	1	2
13	Jomo Kenyatta University Of Agriculture & Technology	910	1140	2050	8	10	18
14	Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University	360	300	660	3	3	6
15	Kabarak University	250	180	430	2	2	4
16	Kabianga University	270	240	510	2	2	4
17	KAG East University	80	62	142	1	1	2

18	Karatina University	350	140	490	3	1	4
19	KCA University	234	180	414	2	2	4
20	Kebabii University	340	240	580	3	2	5
21	Kemu University	300	245	545	3	2	5
22	Kenya Highland Evangelical University	100	62	162	1	1	2
23	Kiriri Womens University	112	59	171	1	1	2
24	Kisii University	530	350	880	4	3	7
25	Kenyatta University	2730	1750	4480	18	14	32
26	Laikipia University	320	290	610	3	2	5
27	Lukenya University	80	60	140	1	1	2
28	Management University of Africa	120	70	190	1	1	2
29	Masai Mara University	430	243	673	4	2	6
30	Maseno University	765	540	1305	6	5	11
31	Meru University	390	230	620	3	2	5
32	Mount Kenya University	400	220	620	3	2	5
33	Masinde Muliro University of science & Technology	700	600	1300	6	5	11
34	Moi university	2450	1545	3995	19	12	31
35	Multimedia University	545	375	920	5	3	8
36	Nazarene University	240	160	400	2	1	3
37	Pan Christian University	107	65	172	1	1	2
38	Pioneer University	120	80	200	1	1	2
39	Presbyterian University Of East Africa	120	70	190	1	1	2
40	Pwani University	450	240	690	4	2	6
41	Riara University	150	60	210	1	1	2
42	Scott Christian University	130	60	190	1	1	2
43	South Eastern university	230	210	440	2	2	4

44	St Paul`s University	200	150	350	2	1	3
45	Strathmore University	250	200	450	2	2	4
46	The East Africa University	97	80	177	1	1	2
47	Technical university of Kenya	600	520	1120	5	4	9
48	Technical university of Mombasa	530	325	855	4	3	7
49	University of Eldoret	545	350	895	5	3	8
50	University of Nairobi	2800	1832	4632	22	16	38
51	United States International University	420	350	770	4	3	7
52	Muranga University	400	250	650	3	2	5
53	Zetech University	250	170	420	2	1	3
54	Machakos University	450	250	700	4	2	6
55	Taita Taveta University	500	350	850	4	3	7
56	Co-Operative University	420	270	690	4	2	6
57	Rongo University	410	230	640	3	2	5
58	Embu University	310	204	514	3	2	5
59	Kirinyaga University	430	270	700	4	2	6
60	Garissa University	240	100	340	2	1	3
61	UMMA University	250	170	420	2	1	1
62	GENCO University	126	250	376	4	2	2
63	Inoorero University	500	350	850	4	3	1
64	Hekima University College (CUEA)	320	270	590	4	2	1
65	Tangaza University College (CUEA)	102	198	300	3	1	1
66	Marist International University College (CUEA)	310	204	514	3	2	1

67	Regina Pacis University College (CUEA)	234	270	504	4	2	1
68	Uzima University College (CUEA)	240	100	340	2	1	2
69	Kaimosi Friends University College (MMUST)	210	170	380	2	1	2
70	Alupe University College (MU)	235	150	385	4	2	1
Total		26984	23686	50670	221	163	384

Source: Commission for University Education October (2016).

Appendix IV: IDENTITY CORRELATION MATRICES

Table 1: Correlation Matrix for HRPS

	HRPS1	HRPS2	HRPS3	HRPS4	HRPS5	HRPS6	HRPS7	HRPS8
HRPS1	1.000	.593	.605	.495	.564	.337	.419	.406
HRPS2	.593	1.000	.655	.491	.571	.321	.554	.390
HRPS3	.605	.655	1.000	.593	.684	.344	.597	.583
HRPS4	.495	.491	.593	1.000	.610	.452	.583	.625
HRPS5	.564	.571	.684	.610	1.000	.426	.576	.557
HRPS6	.337	.321	.344	.452	.426	1.000	.474	.318
HRPS7	.419	.554	.597	.583	.576	.474	1.000	.572
HRPS8	.406	.390	.583	.625	.557	.318	.572	1.000

a. Determinant = .016

Table 2: Correlation Matrix for RS

	RS1	RS2	RS3	RS4	RS5	RS6	RS7	RS8
RS1	1.000	.600	.595	.397	.353	.563	.318	.593
RS2	.600	1.000	.731	.583	.397	.508	.426	.630
RS3	.595	.731	1.000	.710	.506	.427	.399	.622
RS4	.397	.583	.710	1.000	.499	.380	.525	.580
RS5	.353	.397	.506	.499	1.000	.395	.465	.459
RS6	.563	.508	.427	.380	.395	1.000	.387	.368
RS7	.318	.426	.399	.525	.465	.387	1.000	.457
RS8	.593	.630	.622	.580	.459	.368	.457	1.000

a. Determinant = .016

Table 3: Correlation Matrix for EBS

	EBS1	EBS2	EBS3	EBS4	EBS5	EBS6	EBS7	EBS8	EBS9
EBS1	1.000	.477	.576	.667	.475	.269	.516	.547	.420
EBS2	.477	1.000	.684	.656	.443	.166	.529	.463	.297
EBS3	.576	.684	1.000	.746	.480	.249	.566	.581	.445
EBS4	.667	.656	.746	1.000	.555	.259	.572	.605	.456
EBS5	.475	.443	.480	.555	1.000	.062	.365	.479	.206
EBS6	.269	.166	.249	.259	.062	1.000	.292	.272	.320
EBS7	.516	.529	.566	.572	.365	.292	1.000	.688	.589
EBS8	.547	.463	.581	.605	.479	.272	.688	1.000	.632
EBS9	.420	.297	.445	.456	.206	.320	.589	.632	1.000

a. Determinant = .009

Table 4: Correlation Matrix for CDS

	CDS1	CDS2	CDS3	CDS4	CDS5	CDS6	CDS7	CDS8
CDS1	1.000	.613	.678	.675	.570	.510	.402	.317
CDS2	.613	1.000	.635	.705	.415	.488	.488	.474
CDS3	.678	.635	1.000	.783	.539	.524	.541	.479
CDS4	.675	.705	.783	1.000	.601	.540	.524	.498
CDS5	.570	.415	.539	.601	1.000	.687	.385	.244
CDS6	.510	.488	.524	.540	.687	1.000	.624	.486
CDS7	.402	.488	.541	.524	.385	.624	1.000	.726
CDS8	.317	.474	.479	.498	.244	.486	.726	1.000

a. Determinant = .005

Table 5: Correlation Matrix for ERS

	ERS1	ERS2	ERS3	ERS4	ERS5	ERS6	ERS7	ERS8
ERS1	1.000	.760	.427	.262	.406	.411	.311	.483
ERS2	.760	1.000	.377	.272	.383	.409	.368	.503
ERS3	.427	.377	1.000	.616	.483	.335	.373	.529
ERS4	.262	.272	.616	1.000	.543	.334	.338	.558
ERS5	.406	.383	.483	.543	1.000	.540	.467	.583
ERS6	.411	.409	.335	.334	.540	1.000	.555	.543
ERS7	.311	.368	.373	.338	.467	.555	1.000	.597
ERS8	.483	.503	.529	.558	.583	.543	.597	1.000

a. Determinant = .021

Table 6: Correlation Matrix for RS

	RE1	RE2	RE3	RE4	RE5	RE6	RE7	RE8	RE9
RE1	1.000	.470	.476	.083	.309	.166	.199	.307	.335
RE2	.470	1.000	.636	.149	.467	.086	.355	.193	.088
RE3	.476	.636	1.000	.164	.555	.178	.503	.332	.325
RE4	.083	.149	.164	1.000	.006	.151	.097	.153	.141
RE5	.309	.467	.555	.006	1.000	.259	.677	.214	.292
RE6	.166	.086	.178	.151	.259	1.000	.327	.459	-.088
RE7	.199	.355	.503	.097	.677	.327	1.000	.271	.279
RE8	.307	.193	.332	.153	.214	.459	.271	1.000	.087
RE9	.335	.088	.325	.141	.292	-.088	.279	.087	1.000

a. Determinant = .058