

INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYER BRANDING STRATEGIES ON RETENTION OF EMPLOYEES IN UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

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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 objective of the study was: To assess the influence of employer branding 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 employer branding 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 the 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 employer branding strategies influenced retention of employees in universities in Kenya. Also, this study found that 52.2% of retention of employees in universities in Kenya was explained by the employer branding strategies. Finally the study also contributed to theory and knowledge for humanity. In this study, 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 employer branding strategies influenced retention of employees in universities in Kenya and recommended that top universities management boards and councils enhance employer branding strategies on retention, 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.

Keywords: Branding strategies and retention strategies.

1. INTRODUCTION

Employees 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 employer branding 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/employer branding strategies 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 employees' 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 employer branding, strategies as a reliable means of influencing retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.1 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 using effective employer branding strategies. Due to both internal and external factors including poor branding strategies by manager, 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), poor branding strategies by university management leading to 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, employer branding strategies included, 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 sought to fill that knowledge gap. It strives to examine the influence of employer branding strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.2 Specific Objective

1. To assess the influence of employer branding strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.2.1 Research Hypothesis

A. H_{01} : Employer branding strategy has no significant positive influence on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

2. 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 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.

Conceptual Framework

According to Young (2009), a conceptual framework is a diagrammatic representation showing the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable.



Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

2.3 Empirical Review

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 (Kucherov & 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 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 his 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.

2.5 Research Gaps

Despite the vast studies on retention, Hausknech (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 including adopting effective employer branding strategies 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 employer branding strategies. It is unclear whether or not universities in Kenya have put in place effective; employer branding. A study by Mwiria (2007), found that public universities in Kenya in particular have precarious Human Resource Management practices among them lack of effective employer branding strategies. 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 employer branding strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya to fill the knowledge gap left by scholars and researchers.

3. 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

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.

3.3 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.

Serial No	Accredited Universities	Number of Accredited	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) level of statistical significance, set as 0.05.

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 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 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).

3.8.1 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 was 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 & Schindler, 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 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 $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ and β_5 were the slopes of the regression equation.

X_1 is the independent variable (employer branding 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.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Factor Analysis

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 4.1. 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 4.1: 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

4.2 Employer branding strategy

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 Papasolomou 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 4.2.

Table 4.2: 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

4.3 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 Sofijanov 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 Waitthaka (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 Tettey (2009) by the universities. The details of the findings are shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: 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

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

The sample adequate 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 4.4, 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 4.4: KMO and Bartlett's test

Variables	Measure	
Employer Branding Strategy	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.894
	Approx. Chi-Square	1310.960
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df
	Sig.	.000
Retention of Employees	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.717
	Approx. Chi-Square	835.739
	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df
	Sig.	.000

4.5. 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 4.5. 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 4.5: Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables	Descriptive	Statistic	Std. Error	Z score
Employer branding strategy	Std. Deviation	.72830		
	Skewness	-.207	.140	-1.241
	Kurtosis	-.368	.279	1.627
Retention of employees	Std. Deviation	.36153		
	Skewness	.085	.140	-0.873
	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 4.1 since t- test, regression and ANOVA are based on the assumption that the data were sampled from a Gaussian distribution (Indiana, 2011).



Figure 4.1: Histogram for normality test

4.5.1 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 4.6.

Table 4.6: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Employer branding strategy	.095	303	.200	.980	303	.123
Retention of employees	.109	303	.123	.974	303	.189

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

4.6 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 4.7. 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 4.7: Correlation analysis of independent variables

		HRPS	RS	EBS	CDS	ERS
EBS	Pearson Correlation	.472**	.651**	1	.683**	.596**
	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).

4.7 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; H_0 : There is no significant relationship between employer branding strategy and retention of employees in universities in Kenya against H_1 : 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 4.8.

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.

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%.

Coefficient: Employer branding strategy (X_1)

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 4.9 for more details.

Table 4.8: Regression analysis for employer branding strategy (X_3) and retention of employees

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	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 4.9: 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 4.10: 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.

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

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 Conclusion

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 that 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.

5.3 Recommendations

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.

5.4 Areas for Further Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the influence of employer branding strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. A similar study could also be done to explore the influence of employer branding 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. Thirdly, in this study it was also noted that human resourcing strategies are many and dynamic hence another study could be done using an entirely different set of human resourcing strategies to investigate their influence on retention, performance, commitment, engagement and even job satisfaction of employees in existing organizations in Kenya. Finally, in this study some respondents had also said that they were exposing themselves to alternative job assignments or to some other employers somewhere else. This suggested that they were dissatisfied hence, it is evident that there was also need to conduct a further research to investigate the cause of this dissatisfaction of employees in universities in Kenya.

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