INFLUENCE OF RECRUITMENT 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 recruitment strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. The specific objective of the study was: To understand the influence of recruitment 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 recruitment 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 recruitment strategies influenced retention of employees in universities in Kenya. Also, this study found that 58.5% of retention of employees in universities in Kenya was explained by recruitment strategy. 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 recruitment 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.

Keywords: Recruitment strategies and retention strategies.
1. INTRODUCTION

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 millennial 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. Sellesho 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, Elewga 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 recruitment 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 recruit trained, skilled, committed and engaged employees. Due to both internal and external factors in the business environment, employees in higher education institutions worldwide 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 (Tetley, 2009), internal strategic poaching amongst universities, poor recruitment strategies, precarious Human Resources practices (Mwiria, 2007) and poor or weak retention policies practiced in particular by public universities (Guma, 2011).

Recruitment and 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 recruitment 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 recruitment strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.2 Specific Objective

1. To understand the influence of recruitment strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya.

1.2.1 Research Hypothesis

A. \( H_0 \), Recruitment strategies have 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 The Resource-Based View 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.

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.
2.3 Empirical Review

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 Mwiria (2007), found that public universities in Kenya in particular have precarious Human Resource Management practices. It is unclear whether or not universities in Kenya have put in place effective retention strategies. 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 on-going learning and learning what your company provides.

2.4 Critique of the existing literature review relevant to the study

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 Frankeisis (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.

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 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 (Ngu, 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 recruitment strategies. It is unclear whether or not universities in Kenya have put in place effective recruitment 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 recruitment 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial No</th>
<th>Accredited Universities</th>
<th>Number of Accredited Universities</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Public Chartered Universities</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>32,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Public University Constituent Colleges</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Private Chartered Universities</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>9,230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Private Universities constituent Colleges</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Institutions with Letter of Interim Authority</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1,340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>70</strong></td>
<td><strong>50,670</strong></td>
<td><strong>50,670</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(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:

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

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 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 ( ) 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.

3.9.2 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:

$$Y = \beta 0 + \beta 1 X1 + \epsilon$$

Where $Y$ was the dependent variable (retention of employees) and $\beta 0$ was the regression co-efficient while $\beta 2$ was the slope of the regression equation.

$X1$ is the independent variable (recruitment strategy)

$\epsilon$ 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 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 4.2 shows the factor loading for every item.
Table 4.2 Factor loadings for recruitment strategy

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

### 4.2 Recruitment strategy

The 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 Breaugh (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 4.3.
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 4.3 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

### 4.3 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. 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RS1</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>3.2781</td>
<td>1.0916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS2</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>26.1%</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
<td>3.7517</td>
<td>1.2068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS3</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>3.7715</td>
<td>1.0802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS4</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
<td>37.6%</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
<td>3.6788</td>
<td>0.9433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS5</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>19.9%</td>
<td>53.3%</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td>3.1192</td>
<td>1.0338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS6</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>3.8146</td>
<td>1.0465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS7</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
<td>38.0%</td>
<td>29.0%</td>
<td>3.5728</td>
<td>0.9363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS8</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>3.4139</td>
<td>0.9666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.5501</td>
<td>1.0382</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 1.1656 was recorded. Lastly, the respondents were asked to state if they feel the level of responsibility given to them was acceptable. 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 Tettey (2009) by the universities. The details of the findings are shown in table 4.4.

### Table 4.4: Retention of employee’s descriptive statistics

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

### 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). Orodo (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 4.5, 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.
4.5.1 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 4.6. 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 4.6 Skewness and Kurtosis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Z score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment strategy</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>.74812</td>
<td>-.207</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>0.800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.368</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>0.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td></td>
<td>.36153</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retention of employees</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
<td>.085</td>
<td></td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>-0.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.573</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>1.105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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).

4.5.2 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 4.7.

Figure 4.3 Histogram for normality test
4.5 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 4.8. 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 4.8 Correlation analysis of independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>HRPS</th>
<th>RS</th>
<th>EBS</th>
<th>CDS</th>
<th>ERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HRPS</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.583**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.651**</td>
<td>.664**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RS</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERS</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.565**</td>
<td>.597**</td>
<td>.596**</td>
<td>.625**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

4.7.1 Regression analysis for influence of recruitment strategy

The 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 4.8 shows that 0.585 (58.5%) of retention of employees was explained by recruitment strategy as shown in Table 4.9. 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.

ANOVA: recruitment strategy

Further analysis indicates that the results of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) shown in Table 4.10, 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.

### Table 4.10 ANOVA recruitment strategies ($X_1$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>23.083</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>23.083</td>
<td>423.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>16.390</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>.054</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>39.473</td>
<td>302</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39.473</td>
<td>302</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees
b. Model 1 Predictors: (Constant), recruitment strategy ($X_1$)
Coefficient: Recruitment strategy (X₁)

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+ 0.370X₁, implying that for every unit increase of recruitment strategy, retention of employees increases with 0.370. See table 4.11 for more details.

Table 4.11: Regression analysis for influence of recruitment strategy (X₁) and retention of employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adj. R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin-Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.765a</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>.583</td>
<td>.23335</td>
<td>1.753</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Model 1 Predictor: (constant) recruitment strategy X₁

a. Dependent Variable: retention of employees

Table 4.12 Coefficients for recruitment strategy (X₁)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
<td>VIF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Recruitment strategy</td>
<td>2.528</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.370</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

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 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. 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 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

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 to tap from scarce and rare workforce in the market.

5.4 Areas for Further Study

The purpose of this study was to assess the influence of recruitment strategies on retention of employees in universities in Kenya. A similar study could also be done to explore the influence of recruitment 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 recruitment 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 recruitment 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.

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