

Political Environment and Implementation of Workforce Diversity Policies in Public Universities in Kenya

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to establish the influence of political environment on the implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya. A positivist paradigm using descriptive cross sectional survey research design is used. The population of the study comprised of employees of 22 Public Universities in Kenya that existed prior to December, 2014. Purposive sampling was used to select seven universities that participated in the study while Yamane's (1967) formula was used to calculate the sample size. A sample size of 393 was used from academic and non-academic staff from the participating universities. A structured questionnaire with Likert-type interval scale anchored on a five-point scale was used to collect primary data. Data analysis was done using linear regression model. The findings revealed that political environment had a negative and statistically significant influence on implementation of workforce diversity policies. The study concludes that the political environment in Kenya limits the extent to which public universities' workforce diversity in terms of gender, ethnicity and disability is achieved. Based on the findings, the study recommends a selfless focus on implementation that matches the spirit of policy intention and interpretation with a view of going beyond compliance.

Key words: Politics, Workforce Diversity, Policy Implementation, Gender, Ethnicity, Disability

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Management of workforce diversity has become an issue driving public policies over the past decades due to increased diversities of people around the world. Workforce diversity reflects the reality that people differ in many visible and invisible ways such as gender, ethnicity, culture, age, disability, religion, social status and personality traits (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Richard, 2005, Reece & Brandt, 1993). Scientific management approaches based mainly on

standardization have been replaced by new management theories that require organizations to foster a diverse workforce. Organizations that want to grow and prosper must thus embrace diversity to acquire a competitive edge in their respective industries.

The public service is intrinsically a political creation, and also inherently involved in politics, simply because it is the structure that delivers public services to the citizens. This political nature has resulted to politicization of public services, which means the substitution of political criteria for merit-based criteria in the selection, retention, promotion, rewards, and disciplining of members of the public service (Clifford & Wright, 1997). Mulgan (1998) described politicization as a situation where appointments are made on the basis of party affiliation; contrary to the principles of a politically neutral/impartial public service. These authors further argue that politicization of public service has globally increased over the years resulting to growing involvement of political actors in roles which are traditionally played by public servants. A study by Gotsis & Kortezi (2010) on ethical considerations in organizational politics revealed that opportunities for career advancement and growth are availed to those politically aligned to people in power without any regard to any ethical imperative. Although the research by Obong'o (2013) did not take an ethical dimension, it did establish that distribution of public offices through patronage relationships was a rampant practice in Africa. This was found to be in form of nepotism, corruption and other forms of particularistic exchanges which was tantamount to politicization of public services.

The civil service has been viewed as a bureaucratic oligarchy marked with strong connections to the political establishments where elites in various positions, both within and outside governments are keen on protecting their position and status, thus reinforcing patronage relationships. These elites are able to manipulate, subvert or simply ignore the state and its institutions' reforms and policies in their interests. This persuasion power and loyalty is a major criteria for appointment to senior offices (Oketch, 2009). Further studies have shown that political patronage relationships have influenced consideration for employment in the public sector (Obong'o, 2013, Owino, 2013). Besides, Olalunji and Ugoji (2013) from their study in public corporations in Nigeria add the dimensions of Host Community and Government Regulations as key factors influencing public sector appointments. The host community factor is a situation where the community where the organization is located tries to impose certain employees on such organizations for immediate employment. Public education systems have not been spared from political patronage hiring as indicated by research findings. For instance, Josephine's (2005) study in public universities in Africa established that the heads of public universities in many countries are political appointees and usually men who are rewarded for supporting the political goals of their governments. With this situation, implementing diversity policies is likely to be compromised.

1.1 Workforce Diversity Policies and public universities in Kenya

The Constitution of Kenya (2010), Article 81 (b) outlines that not more than two-thirds of the members of elective public bodies shall be of the same gender. Article 55 further provides that

the government shall take measures to ensure the youth have opportunities to participate in political, social and economic spheres of life and access to employment. Moreover, Article 56 provides for Affirmative Action for minorities and marginalized groups in employment. The public service of Kenya is required by the Constitution (Article 232, h) to have representation of Kenya diverse communities and afford adequate and equal opportunities for appointment, training and advancement at all levels of men and women and members of all ethnic groups. Persons with Disabilities (PWD) should form at least 5% of the workforce (Article, 54, 2). However, there has been outcries from various groups particularly women, youth, persons with disabilities and ethnic groups regarding themselves as minorities claiming that they are not equally represented in employment in the public sector.

Public universities in Kenya fall under state corporations, which have undergone tremendous changes. Initially, during the regime of Kenya African National Union (KANU), state corporations were tightly controlled with the heads being appointees of the regime. It was commonly alleged that one had to be 'politically' connected to be appointed to head such institutions. However, with the Public Sector Reforms of 2002 and after, transparency and accountability were given attention. As Kenya becomes more sophisticated and with mounting numbers from diverse communities, races, religious backgrounds and other workforce diversity dimensions assessing higher education, it is paramount that a diverse workforce is inevitable. Zusman (2005) recognized that universities of the 21st century experience philosophical challenges to the nature, values, and control of universities. Strictly adhering to the set policies such as those stipulating workforce diversity composition will not only help reduce conflict but also give universities a competitive edge in the market.

In the recent past, universities in Kenya have attracted scrutiny on claims of ethnic imbalances in employment. According to a study by National Cohesion and Integration Commission (NCIC, 2012), massive gaps existed in ethnic composition of public universities workforce, with some communities not represented at all. One of the study findings was that the five largest communities who make up to about 66% of the Kenya population, constituted over 81% of the total public university workforce. Although a more recent draft report by the commission (NCIC, 2016) shows some improvement where the five communities now hold 70.8% from the previous 81%, more needs to be done to enhance ethnic equity in employment. The Commission's 2012 report indicated that most of the staff in the universities came from the communities within which those institutions were located. Further revelations by the NCIC research indicated that majority of the employees in public universities and constituent colleges came from the same ethnic group as the Vice Chancellor and Principal. Representation of the majority of the senior staff at universities and constituent colleges was also consistent with the representation of the majority ethnic community at the institutions. Besides, a study by Onsongo (2011) in three public universities established an enormous gender gap in employment, where women occupied lower ranks as academic staff. The study reveals that women professors accounted to 3.6% while the Associate Professors accounted to 18.9%. At the level of Senior Lecturers and Lecturer, women accounted for 22.4% and 26.1% respectively.

At the Assistant Lecturer level 29.% were women while 36.8% of the tutorial fellows were women. This was consistent with the study by the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development (2011) on civil service employment where women in job Group P and above in the ministry of Higher Education were only 18% of the workforce.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Workforce diversity is a human resource management concept that originally developed in the United States in the 1980s and becoming increasingly popular in other cultural contexts, including new immigrant nations such as Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa (O'Leary, 2009). A diverse workforce has been commended for its potential to create organizational harmony, improve productivity and assist the understanding of greater customer needs. In its efforts to leverage these benefits, the government of Kenya has developed policies which should guide staffing procedures. Yet a gap exists between the diversity policies and implementation.

In the past universities have lost staff in what is commonly termed as 'brain drain' depriving the country of the much needed talent. An example is Kenyatta University which lost 20 lecturers in a span of one year (Wasyonju, Kindiki, & Kali, 2012). Staff in these institutions have joined workers unions like University Academic Staff Union (UASU) and Kenya Universities Staff Union (KUSU) to fight for an equal and inclusive workplace where employment, training, promotion and other opportunities are distributed in an equitable manner. Reports by NCIC indicate ethnic inequality in the workforce of public universities. Further, gender and disability research in the same sector show some disparities between WDPs and their implementation.

Several studies have been conducted in the area of workforce diversity in Kenya. For instant, there are those focusing on strategies for managing workforce diversity (Kinyanjui, 2013), workforce diversity management and employee performance, (Munjuri & Maina, 2013), top management team workforce diversity (Zachary, 2013), challenges of managing diverse workforce (Heike, Edeltraud & Gumato, 2011), importance of managing workforce diversity (Tabitha., et. al. 2013) and effects of workplace workforce diversity management on organizational effectiveness (Otike, Omboi & Mwalekwa, 2011). Other studies have focused on only one variable of workforce diversity like gender (Osumba, 2011) and ethnicity (Yieke, 2010). There is little evidence of research specifically in the area of workforce diversity policy implementation. This study therefore seeks to bridge the gap by examining the role of political environment on implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya.

1.3 Definition of Terms

Politics: The practice of distribution of power and resources majorly on basis of ethnicity loyalty, political patronage, favoritism and nepotism.

Political Environment: This is the extent to which appointments are influenced by political affiliations and based on ethnicity, loyalty, favoritism and nepotism to those in power

Workforce diversity policies: This refers deliberate policies, laws, regulations and guidelines stipulated to guide staffing decisions with an aim of promoting equity in terms of gender, ethnicity and disability.

Implementation of workforce diversity policies: This relates to the execution of WDP in the organizations' staffing function.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Among the early scholars in policy implementation were Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) who argue that proper implementation requires government officials to translate broad agreements into specific decisions and offer consistent support. Further, Bhola (2004) suggests that policy implementation is a process 'to actualize, apply and utilize the policy in the world of practice. For workforce diversity policies to get effect implementation, they should be clearly stipulated to enable clear actualization and application. Although literature suggests both the top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy implementation (Hill, 2005), this study utilizes a top-bottom approach because diversity policies are usually developed from the leadership and passed down for implementation.

Literature has identified politics among the factors that impend policy implementation. Political commitment and governance structures and power control hindered policy implementation in Pakistan's education sector as revealed by a study by Ali (2006). Many authors claim that politicization of public services has increased over the years resulting to growing involvement of political actors in roles which were traditionally played by public servants (Peter, Guy & John 2004, Hart, 2006, Dunn, 1997). In her research about public universities in Africa, Josephine (2005) established that the heads of public universities in many countries are political appointees and usually men who are rewarded for supporting the political goals of their governments.

In countries where political considerations are strong, politicization in civil service recruitment is largely based on patronage which exposes the system to the associated problem of senior officials lacking the competence to carry out their functions (Matheson, Weber, Manning, & Arnould, 2007). Based on this an hypothesis is developed that:

H₀₁ There exists no significant relationship between political patronage and implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya.

Where patriotism to a party or individual creates unquestionable loyalty, a situation is created where those in power are inclined to reward the loyalties, resulting to political favoritism. Due to this preferential treatment from the power centres it is hypnotized that:

H0₂ There is no significant relationship between political favoritism and implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A descriptive cross-sectional survey was used to collect data as it afforded the opportunity to capture population's characteristics and test hypotheses from the seven of the twenty two public universities that existed by 2014. The seven included University of Nairobi (UoN), Kenyatta University (KU), Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture & Technology (JKUAT), Maseno University, Moi University, Egerton University and Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST).

Several factors were considered to arrive at the choice of the participating universities. First, the NCIC (2012) survey that reported massive discrimination in workforce diversity focused on these universities. These universities would therefore provide most appropriate answers to the study questions. Second, nearly all the other public universities were constituent colleges of the seven and so are well represented by their 'mother' universities. Third, the seven universities have been in existence longer than the others and likely to have a workforce that has a relatively longer service thereby being in a position to respond in a more informed manner to the research questions. Finally, the seven universities command more than 70% of the total workforce of the public universities in Kenya. A sample of 393 was selected which includes 125 and 268 individuals from teaching and non-teaching staff respectively.

The researcher used questionnaires to gather primary data from the academic and non-academic staff from selected public universities. The questionnaire was divided into four parts. Part one obtained data on respondents' profiles and other general information. Part two of the questionnaire was used to collect data on political patronage and policy implementation. Further, Part three was used for data on political favoritism and policy implementation while part four captured data on implementation of workforce diversity policies. Unlike Part one which had both open-ended and close-ended questions to enable respondents clearly specify their profiles, all other parts contained closed-ended questions only. Closed ended questions give precise information which minimizes information bias and facilitates data analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2007). The study determined the reliability of each study variable by computing Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient which stood at 0.790, indicating a high level of consistency. Validity was tested through carrying out a pilot study where the instrument was then modified and results incorporated in the final statements used for data collection

Due to the large number of respondents involved in the study, two research assistants were engaged and briefed on how to approach the universities, introduce themselves and how to distribute the questionnaires to the respondents in the universities. They were trained and sensitized on the content of the questionnaire, data collection methods and procedures, time management, communication and issues of ethics. As a control measure to ensure that the research assistants actually visited the universities and engaged the respondents, they were

required to follow a planned schedule where the researcher would make impromptu visits to ascertain that they were actually doing the job. This way monitoring of data collection progress was achieved.

The questionnaires were distributed using a drop and pick method. The respondents were given a maximum of one week after which the questionnaires were collected. A cover letter from the researcher was attached to the questionnaire detailing the purpose of the study, encouraging participation, assuring respondents of confidentiality and thanking them for their cooperation.

Data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics namely frequencies, percentages and measures of central tendency especially the mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variations were used to describe the characteristics of the collected data. To determine the relationship between politics and implementation of workforce diversity policies and also test the hypothesized relationships, fundamental statistical measures such as correlation analysis and regression analysis were used. According to Kothari (2009) analysis of variance is used because it makes use of the F – test in terms of sums of squares residual. Pearsons product moment correlation was derived to show the nature and strength of the relationship between variables. Coefficient of determination (r^2) was used to measure the amount of variation between the independent and dependent variables.

The following research model was adopted for this study;

$$IWDP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$$

In function form this model can be expressed as follows:

$$IWDP = f(X_1, X_2, e)$$

Where

IWDP = Implementation of Workforce Diversity Policies

X_1 = Political Patronage

X_2 = Political Favouritism

β_0 = Constant

β_i = regression coefficient at i th variable ($i=1,2$)

e = Error term (the error is assumed to be normally distributed with a mean of zero and a variance of one)

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The sample response rate was 94%, a high rate in comparison with others in similar field. For example, Shah et al (2012) in a Pakistani University recorded a response rate of 56% while Omari (2012) who carried a study in public state corporations in Kenya had a response rate of 48%. Of these, 59.1% were male while 40.4% were female. This shows that data collection met the two-thirds gender policy advocated by the Constitution of Kenya (2010). The highest category of respondents fell under the age group between 31 – 40 years comprising of 46.3% of the total respondents. Only 10.2% and 0.5% represented the categories aged over 50 and less

than 20 years respectively. Education wise, the respondents had a relatively high level of education with 40.1% and 25.7% holding postgraduate and graduate qualifications respectively.

The study explored the means and standard deviations (SD) of political environment (independent variables) and implementation of workforce diversity (dependent variable). It set to establish the role played by politics in implementation of workforce diversity polices in public universities. Implementation of workforce diversity policies was indicated by the ratios of men to women and percentage of PWDs as well as ethnic composition in the institutions. Respondents were required to indicate the extent to which their universities paid attention to defined perspectives in statements focusing on the study variables. Statements were anchored on a five point Likert scale ranging from 1= Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree. Mean scores of sub-set statements as well as the aggregate averages were computed. A mean score of 2.5 indicated an average rating while means above or below represented a high or low measures in descending or ascending order respectively. Standard deviation was also computed as a measure of variations from the mean. A small SD indicates that most of the sample means lies near the middle while a large SD implies that the sample mean is spread out over a large rate of values (Harper, 2000). As opposed to large SD, small SD is a good estimator of the population mean.

4.1 Political Patronage

Political patronage is the dispensation of rewards such as public offices and jobs by a patron (who controls their dispensation) to a client (World Bank, 2011). It is based on the premise that those who are loyal to power offices are rewarded for their loyalty. In an environment where political patronage is strong, regulatory requirements may be overlooked with opportunities dispensed through partisan treatment. The study used six items to measure political patronage in public universities. Results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Respondents Scores on Political Patronage

Political Patronage	N	Mean	SD
National politics play a major role on who becomes the Vice Chancellor in the University.	364	4.17	.073
Ethnicity is a major consideration for employment in my university.	364	4.13	.073
Political parties have some influence about the composition of the university’s senior positions.	361	4.13	.072
Hiring to a large extent is influenced by powerful officials in the organization.	353	4.25	.069
The senior management in the organization are well politically	351	4.35	.068

connected.

I suspect that there are ‘hidden agendas’ behind management hiring decisions. 353 4.23 .071

Composite Mean Score 358 4.21 .071

The results in Table 1 reveal that the political environment of the universities is characterized by a high degree of political patronage (mean=4.21,SD=.071). The political connection of senior university management was ranked highest (mean =4.35, SD=.068) which was consistent with previous studies by Josephine (2005) and Owino (2013) in a similar sector. This may suggest that implementing workforce diversity policies when making hiring decisions may result in political patronage hiring thereby limiting the chances of fully balancing the workforce as stipulated particularly as regards to ethnic balance requirements.

4.2 Political Favoritism

Political Favoritism is viewed as the distributing resources inequitably, the practice of giving unfair preferential treatment to one person or group, particularly through nepotism at the expense of another with a view of achieving some personal political gains. The study used eight items to measure political favoritism. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Respondents Scores on Political Favoritism

Descriptive	N	Mean	SD
Decisions in the University are often taken outside formal meetings or behind closed doors.	351	4.32	.070
I would first find out my supervisor’s political preferences before discussing politics with him/her.	351	4.31	.069
Favoritism rather than merit determines who gets ahead around in this organization.	356	4.31	.070
There is a group of people in my organization who always get things their ways because no one wants to challenge them.	351	4.38	.068
I have seen rules bent here in favour of well politically connected individuals.	350	4.32	.072
Information here is jealously guarded and not shared openly between groups and departments.	351	4.35	.071
Those who take credit are not always those who made the biggest contribution.	348	4.28	.076
Employees assumed to have loyalty to management get more opportunities in the university.	365	4.24	.075
Composite Mean Score	353	4.31	.072

The results in Table 2 indicate that the average mean score for political favoritism was 4.31, $SD=.072$. This portrays public universities are perceived as institutions where political favoritism is high, with a mean=4.31, $SD=0.070$. Consistent with this is the studies of Oladipo (2011) on hiring decisions of institutions of higher education in state universities in Nigeria that hiring decisions are pegged on nepotism and favouritism. The statement indicating existence of people who gets things done their way and cannot be challenged in organizations received the highest ranking (mean=4.38, $SD=.068$). This implies that decisions can be manipulated depending on the personality political affiliation, creating a situation where some may perceive a sense of bias.

4.3 Implementation of Workforce Diversity Policies

Policy implementation is a process to actualize, apply and utilize it [policy] in the world of practice (Bhola, 2004). Goals in terms of laws, guidelines and regulatory requirements have been put in place in Kenya stipulating that the organizations should ensure diversity of opportunity in terms of gender, ethnicity and persons with disability. Following those stipulations would result to workplace representation/balance. This study identifies ethnic composition, gender and physical ability/disability dimensions as indicators for the degree to which workforce diversity policies have been implemented. Information of ethnic compositions was derived from respondents using primary data while those of gender and disability used secondary data from universities' websites and records.

(a) Ethnic Composition

Ethnicity is used interchangeably with tribalism to mean a group of people who share the same culture and identity including language, geographical location and behaviour norms and attitude (Cybulski, 2005). When people share a tribe, they are likely to give favors to other members even when it is not due to them. To measure the ethnic composition in public universities, five items were developed where respondents were asked to state how strongly they agreed with related statements. Results are presented in Table 3

Table 3 Respondents mean Scores on Ethnic Composition of the Workforce

Ethnic Composition	N	Mean	SD
No single community has more than 30% representation in the University's workforce	372	2.13	.079
The university has maintained the regional balance in its employment over the last five years	368	2.05	.075
Unrepresented communities have been given priority for employment positions over the last five years	365	1.97	.074
Regional representation in the workforce is satisfactory	364	1.89	.074
The university workforce reflects the face of Kenya	372	1.91	.072
Composite Mean Score	368	1.99	.074

Results in Table 3 show that the average mean score for ethnic composition of the workforce is 1.99, SD=.074. Generally the mean scores of all items are below average ranging from the highest mean score of 2.13, SD=.079 to the lowest mean score of 1.89, SD=.074. This means that public universities are perceived to have a workforce that does not reflect the face of Kenya as far as ethnicity is concerned. The results are consistent with the NCIC (2012) study which revealed a huge tribal imbalance in public universities in Kenya. This suggests that diversity policies on ethnic dimensions are poorly implemented. Results of ethnic composition indicates that the public universities are perceived to have a workforce that does not reflect the face of Kenya (mean=1.99, SD=0.074). This supports the study by NCIC (2016) that the five biggest communities in Kenya occupy 70.8% of jobs in public universities.

(b) Gender Representation and Proportion of Persons with Disability

Gender representation was indicated by the ratio of men to women. Regulatory requirements stipulate that no more than two-thirds (33%) of the workforce should be of the same gender in any public organization. Absolute data on the ratio of women to men was collected from the respective universities as percentages. The scale used denoted that an institution where either gender accounted to 0-10% was ranked as very poor, (11-20)%=poor, (21-30)% as fair, (31-40)% = good while those with (41-50) were ranked as very good. This scale was then converted to a five point likert scale from 1-5 in ascending order. It was then aggregated and average mean scores calculated.

Regarding persons with disability, the Constitution of Kenya states that category should be given opportunities in public sector to reflect at least 5% of the workforce. To establish the composition of the public universities workforce in terms of disability, data was gathered from the universities records as well as contacts with the relevant officers in those institutions. It was

converted to a scale to ease calculation of average mean scored. Where persons with disabilities accounted for less than 2%, this was rated as very poor, 3%=poor, 4%=fair, 5%=good and greater than 5%=very good. A 5-point likert scale was then used in ascending order of the percentages. Results are presented in Table 4

Table 4 Mean Scores of Gender and Disability Representation

Gender and Disability	N	Mean	SE
Gender Representation	374	2.98	0.066
Disability proportion	373	1.99	0.028

Results in Table 4 indicate a fair gender representation in public universities (mean=2.98, SD =0.066). This implies that the workforce fall within the regulatory requirement of the two-thirds gender policy (between 31-40%). These results may imply that public universities are striving to comply with the two thirds gender policy because this is an improvement from Onsongo (2009) where female academic staff accounted for only about 26%.

The mean score for persons with disability was poor (mean=1.99, SD=0.028) indicating that the institutions fall far below the minimum requirement of 5% stipulated by the Constitution. This could be attributed to the complexity and cost involved in implementing such policies. For example, diversity policies do not spell out the process that should be followed in recruitment of PWD or the explanation of who qualifies to be included in this category.

4.4 Correlation Analysis Results

The Study employed Correlation analysis using Pearson Product moment correlation coefficient technique to establish the relationship between political patronage, political favouritism and implementation of WDP and the results are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5: Correlation Analysis Matrix

		1	2	3
1.Implementation of workforce diversity policies	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	373		
2. Political Patronage	Pearson Correlation	-.792**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		
	N	359	371	
3. Political Favouritism	Pearson Correlation	-.710**	.672**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	371	373	372

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

The results in Table 5 indicate that the relationship between political patronage and implementation of WDP is strong, negative and statistically significant ($r=-.792$, $p\text{-value}=0.000<0.05$). This implies that an increase in political patronage decreases implementation of workforce diversity policies and vice versa in public universities. Similarly the relationship between political favouritism and implementation of workforce diversity policies is strongly, negative and statistically significant ($r=-.710$, $p\text{-value}=0.000<0.05$). This implies that the more political favours are extended to loyalties, the less the degree of implementation of diversity polices and vice versa in the institutions studied.

4.5 Hypothesis Testing

This study was based on the premise that there exist a relationship between the political environment and implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities. Two hypotheses were developed in line with these relationships. To establish the statistical significance of the respective hypothesis, regression analysis was conducted at 95% confidence level.

(a) Political Patronage and Workforce Diversity Policies

The study sought to establish the relationship between political patronage and implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya and sought to test the hypothesis that:

H_{01} There exist no significant relationship between political patronage and implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya.

The results are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6. Political Environment and Workforce Diversity Policies

(a) Goodness-of-Fit

R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
.907 ^a	.814	.814	.54129

(b) Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	489.092	1	489.092	1703.746	.000 ^a
Residual	107.336	363	.283		
Total	596.428	364			

(c) Individual Significance

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	
(Constant)	6.150	.106		58.512	.000
Political environment	-.899	.027	-.928	-41.275	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation of WDP

The results in Table 6 indicates that political environment had a statistically significant influence on implementation of workforce diversity policies explaining a 81.4% of its variation ($R^2=0.814$). The hypothesis is therefore rejected. The Regression coefficient value of the computed scores of political environment was $-.899$ with a t-test of -41.275 and a significant level of 0.000 . This implies that an increase in political patronage decreases the overall implementation of workforce diversity policies. This suggests that organizations would disregard the policies that require inclusivity in favour of political gains. These findings concur with Oketch (2009) and Cameron (2010) that patronage appointments in the public sector are linked to loyalty to the government of the day.

(b) Political Favouritism and Workforce Diversity Policies

The study sought to establish the relationship between political favoritism and implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya. To establish this relationship the following second hypothesis was formulated:

H0₂ There is no significant relationship between political favoritism and implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya

Results are presented in Table 7

Table 7. Political Favouritism and Workforce Diversity Policies

(a) Goodness-of-Fit

R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
.905 ^a	.799	.799	.53129

(b) Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	489.192	1	488.092	1603.746	.000 ^a
Residual	106.336	363	.283		
Total	595.528	364			

(c) Individual Significance

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	
(Constant)	6.350	.116		58.512	.000
Political environment	-.888	.027	-.938	-42.271	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Implementation of WDP

The results in Table 7 indicates that political favoritism had a statistically significant influence on implementation of workforce diversity policies explaining a 79.9% of its variation ($R^2=0.799$). The hypothesis is therefore rejected. The Regression coefficient value of the computed scores of political favoritism was -0.888 with a t-test of -42.271 and a significant level of 0.000 . This implies that an increase in political favouritism decreases the overall implementation rate of workforce diversity policies. This suggests that organizations would offer preferential treatment to those considered loyal thereby decreasing the level at which diversity policies are implemented. This is consistent to studies by Josephine (2005) in public universities in Africa which established that the heads of public universities in many countries are political appointees and usually men who are rewarded for supporting the political goals of their governments.

5.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the findings of this study several conclusions and recommendations are drawn.

5.1 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of political environment on the implementation of workforce diversity policies in public universities in Kenya. Political environment in this study were indicated by the level of political patronage and favoritism. Implementation of workforce diversity policies related to the degree to which the universities workforce in terms of gender, ethnicity and disability reflected relevant regulatory

requirements and declaration for inclusiveness in Kenya. To accomplish the objectives of the study, two hypotheses were developed and tested. The political environment surrounding public universities was revealed to have a strong negative influence on implementation of workforce diversity policies, thereby limiting the degree to which workforce diversity policies were implemented. As regards to political environment, majority of the respondents indicated that political patronage was rampant in their universities and that national politics play a major role on who becomes the vice chancellor in the university.

Ethnicity emerged as a consideration in employment which has the potential to shape ethnic composition of the workforce. This meant that external forces make a contribution in limiting the rate at which diversity at the workplace is achieved. Because of the high political patronage ties and its resultant favoritism, loyalties are rewarded particularly in top posts. When the top positions are politically inclined, the spirit is likely to permeate downwards creating a similar trend in the staffing function including promotion and access to other organizational resources. Consequently composition in terms of gender, ethnicity and disability is affected. The results are thus lower rate of implementation of those workforce diversity policies.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on findings of the study, it is recommended that policy makers at the national level, human resource practitioners in public universities and other public institutions should make deliberate efforts to shirk negative politics. As the country strives to ensure effective implementation of the Constitution (2010), an understanding of these possible predicaments that may bring constraints is critical. Introducing legal penalties to those who do not comply would enhance implementation. For the country to achieve the stated aspirations in workforce diversity there should be concerted efforts to shun negative politics that fosters inequity. This can be achieved through campaigns and education aimed at changing the mindset of those in leadership positions at both the national and the universities level. Political considerations usually accompany personal gains. Thus a mindset change from self gain to a wider population benefit focus would mean implementing policy with an open mind regardless of any direct or indirect political gains.

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