

"INFLUENCE OF COMPENSATION ON PERFORMANCE OF PART-TIME LECTURERS IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA: A CASE OF RONGO AND KISII UNIVERSITY"

Bett Chepkoech Julie¹, Wilson A. P. Otengah² & Jonathan W. Omolo³

¹Research Scholar, Department of Human Resource Development, Rongo University, Kenya

^{2,3}Lecturer, Department of Arts and Social Sciences, Rongo University, Kenya

Received: 14 Oct 2018

Accepted: 22 Oct 2018

Published: 31 Oct 2018

ABSTRACT

In Kenya, public universities employ a large number of part-time lectures due to shortage of full time lectures, however studies have shown that part-time can be counterproductive. Factors that have led to increased usage of part time lecturers are that they less costly and flexible. According to Commission for University Education, the universities should adopt and practice prudent human resource practices. Previous studies in Kenya have not explored the issue of part time lecturers. This study aimed at investigating the influence of compensation for the performance of part-timers in Rongo and Kisii Universities. This study was guided Goal-setting theory, Equity theory, Expectancy theory, and Human Capital theory. Empirical review was done in line with the study objectives. The study employed a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. The target population comprised of 740 part-time lecturers across all schools at Rongo and Kisii Universities. Using Taro Yamane (1967) statistical formulae for determining sample size, the tabulated sample comprised of 260 respondents who were proportionately allocated based on the schools in the respective universities. The study collected primary data using a closed ended questionnaire based on a 5-point Likert scale. The validity and internal consistency of the questionnaire was ascertained by a Cronbach Alpha method which ascertained 0.7. The data collected was analyzed by use of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were analyzed by using regression, correlation and ANOVA, mean and standard deviation. A regression analysis was undertaken to determine the influence of compensation for the performance of part time lecturers. The study established that compensation ($r = 0.444$) positively influenced performance of part-time lecturers. The R^2 value of 0.254 implied that 25.4% of the variations in performance of part-time lecturers could be explained by the variations in compensation. The study recommended the development and implementation of competitive compensation packages

KEYWORDS: *Compensation, Performance*

INTRODUCTION

Faculty composition in terms of employment status is changing globally with a steady increase of part-timers in recent years (Kilungu, 2015). Part-timers serve as shock absorbers to protect the permanent workforce from the consequences of massification. This enables the universities to achieve permanent flexibility or a disposable faculty (Bryson, 2004). Part-timers thus face the insecurity of their employment relationship and the possible dilemma between the need to earn an income while attending to their personal development. Furthermore, most universities have not embraced part-timers as part of their core human resource system. As such, HR issues are delegated to respective departments which lack the capacity to effectively manage HR functions (Bryson, 2004). According to Baldwin and

Chronister (2001), part-timers are recruited for a semester to teach particular unit and do not have any other benefit. Fostering quality teaching presents Universities with a range of challenges at a time when governments are reducing funding. In Australia, estimates suggest that over 50% of all undergraduate teaching in universities are performed by casual teaching staff (Percy, Scoufis, Parry, Goody, Hicks, Macdonald, Martinez, Szorenyi-Reischl, Ryan, Wass and Sheridan (2008) which on head-count basis comprise over 60% of all staff. In the European context, a number of studies (Pearson, 2002; Bryson & Blackwell, 2006) show increasing use of part-timers in university teaching. Pearson (2002) observed that nearly 34% of academicians worked part-time and about 36% were on fixed-term contracts. Among part-timers, this proportion rises to nearly 56% for those on fixed-term contracts. In Ireland, the Higher Education Authority (HEA, 2014) comparison of figures for the last three years shows the proportion of part-time staff at 10% for 2013 and 11% for each of the two preceding years. In the Asian context, statistics suggest that the percentages of part-timers vary from as little as 32% in China to around 60% in Japan (Gilbert, 2013)

In the Asian context, according to Qayyum (2013) in their study on the levels of job satisfaction based in the cadre, nature of the job, and work experience of university teachers in Pakistan, part-time lecturers had significant levels of lack of satisfaction due to their perception of being left out of the university human resource system. Their inferential statistics concludes the significant difference among various categories of experiences showing a decreasing trend with experience ranging from 03 to 21 years. Their study confirmed significant differences among different types of teachers. This decreasing trend of job satisfaction also reflects in the cadre. Furthermore, ANOVA tests revealed that there is a significant difference among visiting, contract and permanent faculty members of the universities. Different research studies have emphasized that the dream of quality of teaching at University level cannot materialize without a satisfied and highly motivated teacher. That is why efforts are being made all over the globe to provide a conducive, peaceful and healthy work environment along with the other economic benefits to the university teachers to increase their level of job satisfaction. In the African context, a similar trend emerges such that in spite of the fact that universities are rapidly springing up, for example in Nigeria, the number of lecturers is low thus the need for part-timers (Ologunde, Akindele & Akande, 2013). Further, the study by Ologunde, Akindele and Akande (2013), indicate that there is an inverse relationship between the number of lecture hours and number of university lecturers. It also showed that there is a significant difference in performance in terms of project supervision. The HR implication is that it is essential to implement and monitor effective, efficient and mutually reinforcing policies that will foster the empowerment of part-timers. According to Bergmann (2011), there are more 65,000 part-timers in South Africa's 23 public universities with the challenge of retaining talented staffs who are often lured away from an academic career by better salaries elsewhere. The report indicates an increasing shift in the use of part-timers to fill the HR gaps (Bergmann, 2011).

In Kenya, Nderitu (2014), in the study on HR strategies and relationship to faculty retention carried out in private universities in Kenya notes that universities are facing challenges in retaining full-time staff and in most cases resort to part-timers. Ngome (2003), mentions that among other ways, public universities in Kenya have responded to the various challenges facing them include mounting privately sponsored programs, taking over a number of middle level colleges and converting them into campuses, opening of campuses within and outside the country, expansion of academic programs with clear focus on courses that bring higher enrollment and increased use of part-timers in delivery of university curriculum. In Kenya a number of universities offer various courses (CUE, 2017) including Ron go and Kisi Universities. These universities have grown tremendously and have several academic programs with enrolments' recording over 50% in

growth which has called for more staff. According to Wambui, Ngari and Waititu (2016), it is not possible to employ full-time staff for every new program, since this may result in redundancy whenever classes fail to raise a quorum, thus part-timers offer the needed solution. However, Miriam & Carey (2007) indicated that over 60% of part-timers in Kenya devote insufficient time and lack adequate information about courses. This disrupts teaching programs and leads to lower performance.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Universities in Kenya are supposed to comply with a ratio of 2:1 for full time to part time academic staff as stipulated by the Commission for University Education (CUE). According to Banachowski (2009), universities are increasingly hiring part-timers largely because of financial constraints, increase institutional flexibility in matching seasonal enrolment demands with faculty supply, bring “real world vocational experience” to the University, and as a training process for full-time positions. However, according to a CUE report of 2016, most universities have ratios ranging from 1:2 to 1:42 and even 1:72. However, due to the casual nature of their employment, the quality of part-timers is not scrutinized as thoroughly as that of full-timers. The use of part-time academic staff in universities has raised serious concerns about their commitment and performance. One very general and the old assumption about part-timers in relation to their commitment has been that they are less committed and thus perform poorly. This assumption has led to increased interest among researchers to find out about commitment and performance of part-timers at the workplace. In Kenya, public universities currently employ a large number of part-time academic staff (CHE, 2006) due to a serious full-time staff shortage arising from the implementation of the government policy to improve access to Higher Education as articulated in the Kenya’s Vision 2030 (ROK, 2012). Available information (ROK, 2012) states that over the past decade or so, universities have continued to receive less financial allocations from their governments than their estimated expenditure. Given the prevailing unfavorable economic conditions arising from the global recession and other exogenous shocks, Kenya is not exceptional so the government is unable to adequately finance university education. The Supplementary Funding estimates for 2016-2017 indicates a cut in funding by KSh5 billion which may lead universities deeper into financial crisis. This has triggered universities to reduce the employment of full time lecturers and increase part timers running of university teaching (Muralidharan&Sundararaman, 2008). The part timers are viewed as less expensive, flexible in terms of formal orientation, campus policies, grading, students and expected to deliver quality education. Irregular payment of part-timers compounds their performance furthestmost studies have focused on part-time lecturers as a cost-cutting strategy; others have investigated the impact of part-time lecturers on the quality of education, while others have focused on massification of university education and the critical role played by part time lecturers. Little has addressed the influence of human resource practices on the performance of part-time lecturers. Therefore, there is need to investigate the influence of human resource practices on the performance of part time lecturers in order to determine their performance and identify the HRM practices that affect their contribution to University Education. Therefore, there was need to investigate the influence of HR practices on the performance of part time lecturers. This is the gap that the study sought to fill.

Objective of the Study

The main objective of the study was to establish the influence of compensation for the performance of part time lecturers in Rongo and Kisii University, Kenya.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In an attempt to explain the relationship between compensation and performance of part-time lecturers, the researcher has focused on Expectancy Theory.

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was proposed by Victor Vroom in 1964. The theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a specific way depends on the strength of an expectation that would be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual to make this simple. Expectancy theory says that an employee can be motivated to perform better when there is a belief that the better performance lead to good performance appraisal and shall result into realization of personal goals in the form of some reward future events. The theory focuses on three things efforts and performance relationship, performance and reward relationship, rewards and personal goal relationship (Salaman, Graeme; Storey, John&Billsberry, 2005).Expectancy theory focuses on the link between rewards and behaviour (instrumentality perceptions), although it emphasizes expected rather than experienced rewards for example incentives. Motivation is also a function of two other factors: expecting, the perceived link between effort and performance, and valence, and the expected value of outcomes like rewards. Compensation systems differ according to their impact on these motivational components. Generally, pay systems differ most in their impact on instrumentality: the perceived link between behavior and pay. Valence of pay outcomes should remain the same under different payment systems. Expectancy perceptions often have more to do with job design and training than pay systems.

According to Salaman, Storey and Bills berry (2005), individuals behave in a specific manner because they get motivated by the desirable outcome of such behaviour. The performance of an individual should always be aligned with organizational expectations regarding achievement of identified goals in future. The motivation that influences individuals to behave in a particular manner over other forms of behaviour is their expectancy. This expectancy is regarding the effect of the selected behaviour. Expectancy is determined by individual belief that the performance of a specific type of behaviour will certainly help the individual in attaining desired performance goals. Thus, this property helps individuals in determining if they have the required skill sets for accomplishing a work accurately. However, when performance goals are beyond the achievement, the corresponding motivation also declines. According to Hillman and Dalziel (2003), and implementation of expectancy theory is seen in organizational processes such as recruitment and selection of employees for a particular job. Similarly, it is also used in order to analyse the outcome of organizational training and assessment of employee performance as per organizational goals. On the other hand, this theory is also applied to identify the variables that motivate individual employees in the organization. Specifically, in case of recruitment and selection of employees, this theory helps in determining the motivators that influence people to join an organization based on needs, goals and past experiences. In case of assessment of organizational performance, this theory works towards interpreting the specific behaviour that the employees exhibit based on their individual expectancy calculations.

According to Lunenburg (2011), this theory helps to map the behavioural outcome in respect of organizational training. In other words this theory helps in identifying specific determiners behind a particular behavioral outcome of individual trainees. Moreover, this theory centers upon expectations of people and perceptions of the organization about their corresponding organizational behaviour. Therefore, it helps in making individual employees aware about organizational behaviour and consequent expectations of the organization. On the other hand, organizations are able to

identify actual performance of their employees using this theory. So, this theory helps them in retaining employees who can add value to their firm by recognizing their respective intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (Ramlall, 2004). However, according to Parijat and Bagga (2014), expectancy theory is often criticized for being too idealistic. The attributes for performance measurement in expectancy theory is motivation, employee effort, value of rewards, etc. However, these variables are quite difficult to measure. Hence, managers often need to incorporate additional performance measurement theories along with expectancy theory in order to measure and monitor individual performances. Furthermore, the theory makes a hypothetical assumption that people are too rational and logical in calculating these variables. However, in reality the theory fails to provide specific solutions to specific motivational problems. According to Robbins and Judge (2013), the theory is more suitable in organizations which have proper infrastructure such as universities which have proper mechanisms to measure the employee efforts, outcome and rewards.

This theory is based on the hypothesis that individuals adjust their behaviour in the organization on the basis of anticipated satisfaction of value goals set by them. In order for employees to perform, employee's workplace goals and values are aligned with the organization's mission and vision to create and maintain a high level of motivation. This can lead to higher productivity, improve employee performance, reduce the chances of low employee morale, encourage teamwork and instill a positive attitude during challenging times (Chiang & Jang, 2008). In the university setup, a part-timer would thus make choices based on estimates of how well the expected results of a given behaviour are going to match up with or eventually lead to the desired results. According to Holdford and Lovelace-Elmore (2001), the intensity of work-effort depends on the perception that an individual's effort was resulting in a desired outcome. Thus, the theory can explain both alignments of recruitment and selection to university needs and also the accompanying reward systems, which asserts that employees adjust their behaviour in the workplace based on their anticipated satisfaction of the goals that they set. The theory adds value to this study as compensation is related to the behaviour of the human resources which also determines the way employees would perform in particular tasks assigned to them.

Influence of Employee Compensation on Employee Performance

According to Cole (2004), employee compensation or reward is a systematic approach to providing monetary value to employees in exchange for work performed. Compensation may achieve several purposes; assisting in recruitment, job performance and job satisfaction. Compensation is a tool used by management for a variety of purposes to further the existence of the company. Compensation may be adjusted according to the business needs, goals and availability of resources. Compensation may be used to: recruit and retain qualified staff, increase and maintain the morale of staff, reward and encourage peak performance, achieve internal and external equity, reduce turnover and encourage company loyalty, modify through negotiation practices of unions. Studies have shown that satisfactory employee compensation may serve as an indication of how much an organization values its people. Storey, (2014) point out that merely introducing higher wages will increase an individual's perception of low job alternatives, but has no effect on improving the alignment of employee's goals with the organization. Comm and Mathaisel (2003), examined faculty workload and compensation of Australian academics, found that 51% of the faculty did not believe that they were compensated fairly, relative to those at other comparable institutions. As a result, 50% of the respondents felt the need to work outside their institutions to earn extra income. This need presents a challenge to the academics loyalty to their university since they are employed to work full-time in their institution but also have to work elsewhere.

In their study, Eshun and Duah (2011) carried out a research to ascertain whether rewards motivate employees, to identify what kinds of rewards employees consider most beneficial and to discuss the dilemmas and difficulties managers face in applying motivation theory to the workplace setting. The study carried out and analysed 20 interviews with people in various positions and organizations in the Accra and Tema Municipalities of the Greater Accra region of Ghana. The analysis found out that while the use of rewards is vital in motivating employees, there is the need for management and employees to have a clear understanding of the human nature and what actually motivates employees. The research further suggests that efficient motivation is as a result of both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards instead of using only one of them. The research also shows that enhanced motivation can be attained when managers do their best to design the work environment so that it motivates employees. Frye (2004) examined the relationship between equity-based compensation and firm performance and found a positive relationship between the two. The study argued that for the human capital-intensive firms, compensation plays a crucial role in 'attracting and retaining highly skilled employees'. As banks are capital intensive organizations, compensation practices of a bank can be of great help in hiring and keeping hold of highly skilled and competent bankers. Incentive pay plans positively and substantially affect performance of workers if combined with innovative work practices like, flexible job design, employee participation in problem-solving teams, training, extensive screening and communication and employment security.

According to Mbaya (2011) who carried out a study on the effects of reward and compensation systems on employee performance within the National museums in Kenya, found out that the reward and compensation systems had both positive and negative effects on employee performance. Positively, reward and compensation increased efficiency and effectiveness, productivity and morale. Negatively, labour turnover, reduced productivity and work performance were the effects identified. In this survey, Mbaya used a questionnaire to collect data from 44 employees who were randomly sampled. The study recommended that existing reward and compensation systems should be improved and more studies carried out to investigate the strategies used to deal with employee recruitment and retention. Research has proven that employees who get rewarded and recognized tend to have higher self-esteem, more confidence, more willingness to take on new challenges and more eagerness to be innovative. In a research on the impact of compensation on organizational performance in Kenya Ports Authority, Mbogho (2012) found out that a direct and positive relationship exists between compensation and organizational performance. From a sample size of 580 employees, the study observed that a total compensation management program, which includes payment or compensation, benefits and informal recognition are required to optimize the motivation and satisfaction levels of staff. Compensating factors that positively impact on employee motivation and job satisfaction should be the focus of the Kenya Ports Authority. Therefore, a critical review of the current incentive schemes designed for part-time lecturers in Kenyan universities is required to make them more effective. In such an analysis, issues dealing with modes of compensation, timeliness of compensation, compensation and its relation to teaching workload, adequacy in compensation among others, should be investigated in order to ascertain their influence on the performance of part-time lecturers in Kenya.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), a research design is a plan or a framework for guiding a study. The design connects the questions or objectives of the study to the data gathered. The research design adopted for this study was a descriptive cross-sectional survey design was used to describe and establish relationships among key study variables.

Cross-sectional studies have been found to be robust in relationship studies given their ability to capture the population characteristics in their freedom and natural occurrence (Creswell, 2013). The study was conducted in two universities that is Rongo and Kisii Universities respectively. The target population for this study comprised all part-time lecturers in the Universities. The target population, therefore was 740 part-time lecturers across all schools in both universities. The main respondents comprised all part-time lecturers who have taught for more than one academic year in the university was included. Using statistical formulae a sample of 260 respondents was obtained. Thereafter, the simple random sampling technique was adopted to select respondents from the list of all part-time lecturers in the various schools. Although several tools exist for gathering data, the choice of a particular tool depends on the type of research. In this study an appropriate method to collect the primary data is a questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised of close-ended questions based on a 5-point Likert scale. The results of the survey were presented in tables.

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATIONS

The researcher issued a total of 260 questionnaires to the respondents in Kisii and Rongo Universities. In each university, the researcher sought and worked with contact persons to enable easier issuance and clarification on the issues that were unclear. Out of 260 questionnaires that were issued to the sampled respondents, 218 of them were filled and returned. Of the returned questionnaires, 24 were either incorrectly filled, had double entries or their markings were unclear and thus were not used in the final analysis. Therefore, 194 questionnaires were correctly filled and hence were used for analysis representing a response rate of 74.6%. The researcher sought to find out the distribution of the respondents according to their gender, age bracket and their working experience. The aim was to deduce any trend from the respondent's profile that was linked to the variables of the study since previous studies (Wekesa, Kiprotich & Kwasira, 2013) have reported an association of age, gender and experience to various HR related aspects. It was established that on gender, the majority of the respondents were male (64.9%) while the female respondents were 35.1%. The study attributed this trend to the existing gender gap in the Kenyan public service. On age, a majority of the respondents were of the age bracket 30 – 39 years (67.5%) while the least age bracket was between 20 – 29 years (7.8%). This was attributed to the general stagnation of the public sector in creating new employment opportunities and thus most the employees have been within the public sector for a long period of time. Finally, on experience, a majority of the respondents (54.1%) had between 3 – 5 years working experience. Cumulatively, more than 94.3% had less than 5 years of experience while only 5.7% had more than 5 years working experience. This was attributed to the fact that the public sector and universities in particular in the past decade has stagnated in terms of creating new job opportunities thus minimizing new job entrants.

Compensation on Performance of Part-Time Lecturers

The researcher analysed the influence of compensation for the performance of part-time lecturers in Rongo and Kisii University. The findings on the influence of compensation are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Influence of Compensation on Performance of Part-Time Lecturers

	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean	Std Dev
Work performance is an important factor in determining the incentives and compensation of all part-time lecturers	8 (4.1%)	37 (19.1%)	33 (17.0%)	78 (40.2%)	38 (19.6%)	3.52	1.130
In the University, rate of pay per unit taught and other benefits are comparable to the prevailing market rates.	26 (13.4%)	46 (23.7%)	47 (24.2%)	57 (29.4%)	18 (9.3%)	2.97	1.202
In our University, compensation of part-time lecturers is pegged purely on competence, ability and performance.	24 (12.4%)	33 (17.0%)	37 (19.1%)	66 (34.0%)	34 (17.5%)	3.27	1.281
In my University, profit sharing from internal enterprises is used as a mechanism to reward higher performance.	35 (18.0%)	59 (30.4%)	45 (23.2%)	47 (24.2%)	8 (4.1%)	2.66	1.151
The University has had a formal merit review process for all part-time lecturers which is effective and efficient	33 (17.0%)	61(31.4%)	37(19.1%)	52(26.8%)	11 (5.7%)	2.73	1.193
The compensation package given greatly influences my performance in my teaching.	31 (16.0%)	53 (27.3%)	22(11.3%)	60(30.9%)	28(14.4%)	3.01	1.345

From the findings, 59.8% agreed when asked whether work performance was an important factor in determining the incentives and compensation of all part-time lecturers while 23.2% disagreed. Further, over 38% of the respondents agreed when asked whether in the University, rate of pay per unit taught and other benefits were comparable to the prevailing market rates while 37.1% disagreed. Similarly, over 55% agreed when asked whether in the University, compensation of part-time lecturers is pegged purely on competence, ability and performance while 19.4% disagreed. Over 48% of the respondents disagreed when asked whether in the University, profit sharing from internal enterprises is used as a mechanism to reward higher performance while 28.3% agreed. Similarly, 48.4% disagreed when asked whether the University has had a formal merit review process for all part-time lecturers which is effective and efficient while only 32.5% agreed. Finally, 45.3% of the respondents agreed when asked whether the compensation package given greatly influences my performance in my teaching while 43.3% disagreed. The findings further indicate that most part-timers disagreed that profit sharing from internal enterprises was used as a mechanism to reward higher performance. This therefore means universities must entrench internal enterprises in their reward systems. Similar findings were seen when the respondents were asked whether universities have a formal merit review process for all part-time lecturers which is effective and efficient. These findings indicate that management of rewards for part-time lecturers needed to be streamlined to incorporate merit, profit sharing and pre-determined rates. From the findings in Table 1, the majority of the respondents agreed that work performance was an important factor in determining the incentives and compensation of all part-time lecturers (3.52). However, the majority of the respondents were unsure when asked whether in their University, rate of pay per unit taught and other benefits were comparable to the prevailing market rates (2.97). Whether in their University, compensation of part-time lecturers was pegged purely on competence, ability and performance (3.27). Whether in their University, profit sharing from internal enterprises was used as a mechanism to reward higher performance (2.66). Whether the University had a formal merit review process for all part-time lecturers which was effective and efficient (2.73) or whether the compensation package given greatly influenced their performance in their teaching at the university (3.01).

Measurement of Performance of Part-Timer Lecturers

The researcher measured the independent variable, performance of part-time lecturers in Rongo and Kisii University and the findings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Measurement of Performance of Part-Timer Lecturers

	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean	Std Dev
Part-time lecturers usually complete their teaching work-loads on time and Based on course curriculums.	6 (3.1%)	13 (6.7%)	44 (22.7%)	103 (53.1%)	28 (14.4%)	3.69	.909
My teaching work-loads per semester which I complete efficiently is based on acceptable and comparable standards using available resources	4 (2.1%)	21 (10.8%)	45 (23.2%)	97 (50.0%)	27 (13.9%)	3.63	.925
My individual qualities enables me to complete my setting., marking, supervision and grading of universities	5 (2.6%)	26 (13.4%)	41 (21.1%)	80 (41.2%)	42 (21.6%)	3.66	.042
The university's internal motivation mechanisms enables me to perform my duties effectively	27 (13.9%)	52 (26.8%)	42 (21.6%)	51 (26.3%)	22 (11.3%)	2.94	.243
Whenever am unable to meet my performance targets, the university usually assesses my performance and when possible, undertakes training programs tailored at my shortcomings	40 (20.6%)	55 (28.4%)	29 (14.9%)	51 (26.3%)	19 (9.8%)	2.76	.310

The findings indicated that the majority (67.5%) agreed that part-time lecturers usually complete their teaching workload on time and based on course curriculums while only 9.8% disagreed. However, the majority (40.7%) disagreed when asked whether the university's internal motivation mechanisms enables me to perform their duties effectively while 37.6% agreed. Furthermore, the majority of the respondents (63.9%) agreed that their teaching workload per semester which they complete efficiently were based on acceptable and comparable standards using available resources while 12.9% disagreed. Similarly, the majority of the respondents (62.8%) agreed that their individual qualities enabled them to complete their setting, marking, supervision and grading of universities while only 16% disagreed. Finally, when asked whether whenever they were unable to meet their performance targets, the university usually assesses performance and when possible, undertakes training programs tailored at their shortcomings, the majority of the respondents (49%) disagreed while only 36.1% agreed. From the findings in Table 2, the majority of the respondents agreed that part-time lecturers usually complete their teaching workload on time and based on course curriculums (3.69), that their teaching workload per semester which they completed efficiently was based on acceptable and comparable standards using available resources (3.63) and that their individual qualities enabled them to complete their setting, marking, supervision and grading of universities (3.66). However, the respondents were unsure when asked whether the university's internal motivation mechanisms enabled them to perform their duties effectively (2.94) or whether whenever they were unable to meet their performance targets, the university usually assessed their performance and when possible, undertook training programs tailored at their shortcomings (2.76).

Correlation Analysis

The respondents' ratings in the statements related to compensation were cumulated to obtain a composite score for compensation. The total scores were then used to compute the Pearson's correlation coefficient. The findings of the correlation analysis were as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Compensation and Employee Performance

		Performance of Part-Time Lecturers	Compensation
Performance of Part-Time Lecturers	Pearson Correlation	1	.444**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	194	194

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

From the correlation analysis, it was established that there was a fairly strong and positive correlation between compensation and performance of part-time lecturers ($r = 0.444^{**}$). Since the correlation was very strong and positive in nature, it implied that very high level of performance can be associated with better compensation. The findings concur with those of Mbaya (2011) who carried out a study on the effects of reward and compensation systems on employee performance within the National museums in Kenya and found out that reward and compensation systems had both positive and negative effects on employee performance. Positively, reward and compensation increased efficiency and effectiveness, productivity and morale.

Regression Analysis

The study carried out a regression analysis on the influence of compensation for the performance of part-time lecturers and the model summary is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of the Estimate
1	.444 ^a	.197	.193	.64524

The R^2 , the coefficient of determination shows variability in the dependent variable explained by the variability in the independent variables. This value tells us how the performance of part-time lecturers can be explained by compensation. The R^2 value of 0.254 implies that 25.4% of the variations in performance of part-time lecturers can be explained by the variations in compensation. This therefore means that other factors not studied in this study contribute 74.6% of the performance of part-time lecturers. Table 5 shows the regression coefficients.

Table 5: Regression Coefficients

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	p
	B	SE	B	SE		
Constant						
Compensation	2.139	.180	.444	.058	11.856	.000
	.396				6.871	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Performance of Part-Time Lecturers

From the regression coefficients, holding the independent variables constant, performance of part-time lecturers would increase by 2.139. It was established that a unit increase in compensation would cause an increase in performance of part-time lecturers by a factor of 0.396. The un-standardized beta coefficients in Table 5 were then used to obtain the

overall relationship formulated as:

$$Y = 2.139 + 0.396X_1$$

Where Y = Performance of Part-Time Lecturers and X₁ = Compensation.

The findings of the ANOVA test are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	19.657	1	19.657	47.216	.000 ^b
Residual	79.935	192	.416		
Total	99.593	193			

Dependent Variable: Performance of Part-Time Lecturers

From the ANOVA results, since p-value (.000) was significant we conclude that at the 5 % significance level, the compensation has statistically significant influence on performance of part-time lecturers.

CONCLUSIONS

The study concluded that performance was important in determining the compensation of all part-time lecturers. It was further concluded that for effective performance of part-time lecturers, rate of pay per unit taught and other benefits should be comparable to the prevailing market rates, and pegged purely on competence, ability and performance. Profit sharing from internal enterprises should be used as a mechanism to reward higher performance, there should be a formal merit review process for all part-time lecturers which should be effective and efficient and the compensation package given should be geared towards greatly influencing their teaching performance. Finally, it was concluded that since there was a fairly strong and positive correlation between compensation and performance of part-time lecturers. The study recommended the development and implementation of competitive compensation packages which would motivate, enhance performance, and retention.

REFERENCES

1. Baldwin, R. G., & Chronister, J. L. (2001). *Teaching without tenure: policies and practices for a new era*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins.
2. Banachowski, G. (2000). *Perceptions of chief academic officers at community colleges regarding employment and utilization of part-time faculty*. *Community College Review*, 254, 11-19.
3. Bergmann, D. M. (2011). *A study of Adjunct Faculty, Unpublished Doctor of Education Dissertation, Montana State University, Montana*
4. Bryson, C., & Blackwell, R. (2006). *Managing temporary workers in higher education: still at the margin*. *Personnel Review*, 35(2), 207-224.
5. Bryson, C. (2004). *Strategic approaches to managing and developing part-time teachers: a study of five higher education institutions*. New York: LTSN Generic Centre.

6. Chiang, C., & Jang, S. C. (2013). An expectancy theory model for hotel employee motivation. *Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(2), 313–322.
7. Comm, C. L., & Mathaisel, D. F. (2003). A case study of the implications of faculty workload and compensation for improving academic quality. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 17(5), 200-210.
8. Commission for Higher Education (CHE). (2006). *A Handbook on Processes, Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance*, Nairobi, Kenya.
9. Commission for University Education (CUE) (2016). *Quality Audit Report on Universities Operating in Kenya*. Commission for University Education; Nairobi, Kenya.
10. Fraenkel, R., & Wallen, E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education (6th Edition)*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
11. Frye, M. B. (2004). *Equity-Based Compensation for Employees: Firm Performance and Determinants*. *The Journal of Financial Research*, 27 (1), 31–54.
12. Gilbert, A. (2013). *Introduction: the expansion of part-time teaching in higher education and its consequences' in Beaton, F. and Gilbert, A. (eds.) Developing effective part-time teachers in higher education: new approaches to professional development. (SEDA Series.) Taylor and Francis, Kindle Edition.*
13. Higher Education Authority (HEA) (2014a). *Higher education system performance: final report 2014/2016. Report of the Higher Education Authority to the Minister for Education and Skills*. HEA, Dublin.
14. Hillman, A.J., & Dalziel, T. (2003). *Boards of directors and firm performance: Integrating agency and resource dependence perspectives*. *Academy of Management Review*, 28(3), 383–396.
15. Holdford, D. A., & Lovelace-Elmore B. (2001). *Applying the principles of human motivation to pharmaceutical education*. *Journal Pharmaceutical Teaching*. 8, 18-25.
16. Kilungu, M. (2015). *Determinants of Organizational Commitment of Part-Time Academic Staff in Institutions of Higher Education in Nairobi and Mombasa Counties in Kenya*. Unpublished Doctorate Thesis, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture And Technology
17. Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). *Expectancy theory of motivation: motivating by altering expectations*. *International Journal of Management, Business and Administration*, 15(1).
18. Muralidharan, K., & Sundararaman, V. (2008). *Teacher Incentives in Developing Countries: Experimental evidence from India*. Working Paper 2008 - 13.
19. Mwiria, K., & Carrey, J. (2007). *Public and private universities in Kenya*. Nairobi: East African Educational Publishers.
20. Nderitu, S. (2014). *Human Resource Strategies on Retention of Faculty in Private Universities in Kenya: A Case of Daystar and Pan Africa Christian Universities*. *International Journal of Management Sciences*, 2(9), 435-449.
21. Ngome, C. (2003). *Kenya*. In D. Teferra, & P. G. Albach, *African Higher Education: An*

22. *International Reference Handbook* (pp. 359-371). Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
23. Ologunde, A. O., Akindele, R. I., & Akande, W. O. (2013). Moonlighting Among University Lecturers and Their Performance in the South-Western Nigeria, *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 3(4), 92-102.
24. Parijat, P., & Bagga, S. (2014). Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory of Motivation – An Evaluation. *International Research Journal of Business and Management*, 7(9).
25. Pearson, C. (2002). *Teaching circles as a response to the staff development needs of part-time teachers in higher education. A report produced for the Learning and Teaching Support Network (LTSN) Generic Centre. New York.*
26. Percy, A., Scoufis, M., Parry, S., Goody, A., Hicks, M., Macdonald, I., Martinez, K., Szorenyi-Reischl, N., Ryan, Y., Wass, S. And Sheridan, L. (2008). *The RED Report, Recognition – Enhancement - Development: the contribution of sessional teachers to higher education. Australian Learning and Teaching Council, Sidney.*
27. Qayyum, A. (2013). *Job Satisfaction of University Teachers across the Demographics: A Case of Pakistani Universities, Bulletin of Education and Research*, 35(1), 1-15.
28. *Republic of Kenya (ROK) (2012). Commission for Higher Education Annual Report and Database. Nairobi: Ministry of Higher Education, Research and Technology.*
29. Ramlall, S. (2004). *A review of employee motivation theories and their implications for employee retention within organizations. Journal of American Academy of Business*, 5(1/2), 52–63.
30. Robbins, S. & Judge, T. (2013). *Organizational Behavior, 5th Edition, Boston, USA: Pearson Education Inc.*
31. Salaman, G., Storey, J., & Billsberry, A. (2005). *Strategic Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice 2nd Edition. New York: Sage Publications Ltd.*
32. Storey, J. (2014). *New Perspectives on Human Resource Management (Routledge Revivals). London: Routledge.*
33. Wekesa, D. M., Kiprotich, C. P., & Kwasira, J. (2013). *An assessment of human resource management practices on organizational performance in private security firms in Kenya. International Journal of Human Resource Management and Research*, 3(5), 11 – 18.

