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

1* Bett Chepkoech Julie jtiobit@gmail.com 2** Wilson A. P. Otengah otengahwilsonn@gmail.com 3*** Jonathan W. Omolo ecodss@yahoo.com

1 Corresponding Author, Department of Human Resource Development, Rongo University, Kenya
2 Lecturer, Department of Arts and Social Sciences, Rongo University, Kenya
3 Lecturer, Department of Human Resource Development, Rongo University, Kenya

ABSTRACT

In Kenya, public universities employ a large number of part-time lecturers due to shortage of full time lecturers however studies have shown that part-timing 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 on 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 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. Regression analysis was undertaken to determine the influence of compensation on performance of part time lecturers. The study established that compensation (r = 0.444) positively influenced performance of part-time lecturers. The R² 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, Part Time Lecturer

1. 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 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 systems. 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 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 cadre, nature of 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 decreasing trend with experience ranging from 03 to 21 years. Their study confirmed significant difference among different types of teachers. This decreasing trend of job satisfaction also reflects in cadre. Furthermore, ANOVA tests revealed that there is 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 other economic benefits to the university teachers to increase their level of job satisfaction. In the African context, 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 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 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 Rongo and Kisii Universities. These universities have grown tremendously and have several academic programs with enrollments 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 quorum, thus part-timers offer the needed solution. However, Mwiria& 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.

2. 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 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 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 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 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 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 further. Most 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 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.

3. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

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

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

4.1 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 goal in 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 behaviors (instrumentality perceptions), although it emphasizes expected rather than experienced rewards for example incentives. Motivation is also a function of two other factors: expectancy, the perceived link between effort and performance, and valence, 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 behaviors and pay. Valence of pay outcomes should remain the same under different pay systems. Expectancy perceptions often have more to do with job design and training than pay systems.

According to Salaman, Storey and Billsberry (2005), individuals behave in a specific manner because they get motivated by the desirable outcome of such behaviour. 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 behavior. Expectancy is determined by individual belief that 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), 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 analyze the outcome of organization 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 behavior that the employees exhibit based on their individual expectancy calculations.

According to Lunenburg (2011), this theory helps to map behavioral 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 from 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 solution 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 behavior in the organization on the basis of anticipated satisfaction of valued 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 behavior 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 result 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 behaviors 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 behavior of the human resources which also determines the way employees would perform in particular tasks assigned to them.

4.2 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 negotiations 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 workplace setting. The study carried out and analyzed 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 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 compensations systems had both positive and negative effects on employee performance. Positively, reward and compensation increased efficiency and effectiveness, productivity and morale. Negatively, labor 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, Mbohgo (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. Compensation 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.

5. 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 relationships studies given their ability to capture the population characteristics in their free 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, 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.

6. 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 association of age, gender and experience to various HR related aspects. It was established that on gender, 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, 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, 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.
The researcher analyzed the influence of compensation on performance of part-time lecturers in Rongo and Kisii University. The findings on the influence of compensation are presented in Table 1.

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 23.2% 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 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, 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, 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

| Table 1: Influence of Compensation on Performance of Part-Time Lecturers |
|--------------------------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-------|-------|
| Work performance is an important factor in determining the incentives and compensation of all part-time lecturers | 8   | 37  | 33  | 78  | 38  | 3.52  | 1.130 |
| In the University, rate of pay per unit taught and other benefits are comparable to the prevailing market rates. | 26  | 46  | 47  | 57  | 18  | 2.97  | 1.202 |
| In our University, compensation of part-time lecturers is pegged purely on competence, ability and performance. | 24  | 33  | 37  | 66  | 34  | 3.27  | 1.281 |
| In my University, profit sharing from internal enterprises is used as a mechanism to reward higher performance. | 35  | 59  | 45  | 47  | 8   | 2.66  | 1.151 |
| The University has had a formal merit review process for all part-time lecturers which is effective and efficient | 33  | 61  | 37  | 52  | 11  | 2.73  | 1.193 |
| The compensation package given greatly influences my performance in my teaching. | 31  | 53  | 22  | 60  | 28  | 3.01  | 1.345 |

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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).

6.2 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

| Part-time lecturers usually complete their teaching work-loads on time and based on course curriculums. | \( \text{SD} \) | \( D \) | \( N \) | \( A \) | \( SA \) | \( \text{Mean} \) | \( \text{Std Dev} \) |
| My teaching work-loads per semester which I complete efficiently is based on acceptable and comparable standards using available resources | 6 | 13 | 44 | 103 | 28 | 3.69 | .909 |
| My individual qualities enables me to complete my setting., marking, supervision and grading of universities | 4 | 21 | 45 | 97 | 27 | 3.63 | .925 |
| The university’s internal motivation mechanisms enables me to perform my duties effectively | 5 | 26 | 41 | 80 | 42 | 3.66 | 1.042 |
| Whenever am unable to meet my performance targets, the university usually assesses my performance and when possible, undertakes training programs tailored at my shortcomings | 27 | 52 | 42 | 51 | 22 | 2.94 | 1.243 |

The findings indicated that majority (67.5%) agreed that part-time lecturers usually complete their teaching work-loads on time and based on course curriculums while only 9.8% disagreed. However, 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, majority of the respondents (63.9%) agreed that their teaching work-loads per semester which they complete efficiently were based on acceptable and comparable standards using available resources while 12.9% disagreed. Similarly, 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, majority of the respondents (49%) disagreed while only 36.1% agreed. From the findings in Table 2, majority of the respondents agreed that part-time lecturers usually complete their teaching work-loads on time and based on course curriculums (3.69), that their teaching work-loads 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).

6.3 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance of Part-Time Lecturers</th>
<th>Performance of Part-Time Lecturers</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.444**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. 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 levels 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 compensations systems had both positive and negative effects on employee performance. Positively, reward and compensation increased efficiency and effectiveness, productivity and morale.

6.4 Regression Analysis

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

Table 4: Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Standard Error of the Estimate</th>
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</thead>
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<td>1</td>
<td>.444a</td>
<td>.197</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>.64524</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The R², the coefficient of determination shows variability in dependent variable explained by the variability in independent variables. This value tells us how performance of part-time lecturers can be explained by compensation. The R² 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 performance of part-time lecturers. Table 5 shows the regression coefficients.

Table 5: Regression Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.139</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.058</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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 \( X_1 \) = Compensation.

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

**Table 6: ANOVA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>19.657</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19.657</td>
<td>47.216</td>
<td>.000b</td>
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<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>79.935</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>.416</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>99.593</td>
<td>193</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Performance of Part-Time Lecturers

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

7. **CONCLUSIONS**

The study concluded that performance was important in determining 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**


the contribution of sessional teachers to higher education. Australian Learning and Teaching Council, Sidney.


